



INTERNATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION CONFERENCE

February 5-7, 2014

Dubai, UAE

www.ite-c.net

Proceedings Book

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Welcome to the International Teacher Education Conference 2014. "International Teacher Education Conference (ITEC 2014) " is an international educational Activity for academics, teachers and educators. It promotes the development and dissemination of the oretical knowledge, conceptual research, and Professional knowledge through conference activities, the conference proceeding book.

ITEC-2014 received almost 835 applications. The conference academic Advisory board accepted 743 applications. The International Teacher Education Conference aims to provide a multinational platform where the latest trends in education can be presented and discussed in a friendly environment with the aim to learn from each other. We have lots of participants from 40 different countries. Some of these countries are Austria, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, China, Cyprus, Egypt, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Malaysia, Mexico, New Zealand, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia, Slovenia, Slovakia, Spain, Switzerland and, South Africa, Turkey, United Kingdom and United States

Should you have any enquiries regarding ITEC conference,please do not hesitate to contact with us for any additional information you may require.

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Instructional Design for O&DL Systems: a
contemporary communication based
humanitarian investment.

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Teacher Educator Qualities for Digital Age

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

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Abstract

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

Keywords. English word stress, Cantonese loanwords, acoustic cues

Introduction

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

Cantonese Loanwords Borrowed from English

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

Table 1. Tonal assignment to Cantonese loanwords

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

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

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

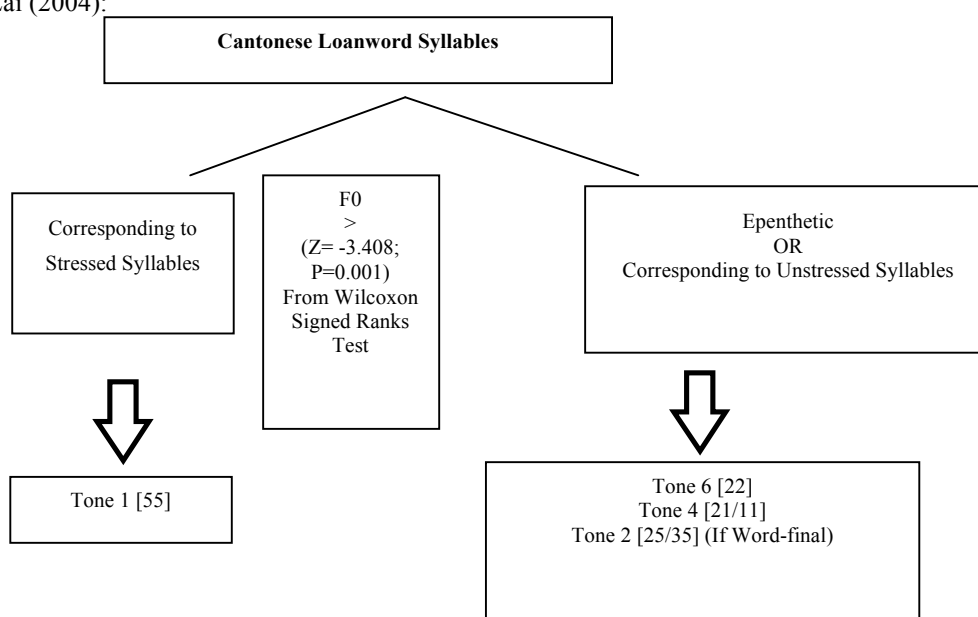


Fig 1. Tonal patterns of Cantonese loanwords borrowed from English. Cantonese loanword syllables corresponding to stressed syllables in the English donor words are assigned an H (55) tone whereas epenthetic syllables or syllables corresponding to unstressed syllables have more variations. They are assigned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

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

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

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

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

English Word Stress Produced by Chinese Speakers

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

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

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

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

Table 3. Mapping of English stress to Cantonese tones

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Research Questions

The proposed research aimed to answer the following research question:

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

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

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

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

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

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

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

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

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

Experiment Procedures

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Methods of Analyses

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

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

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

RESULTS

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

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

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

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

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

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

Fundamental Frequency (F0)

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

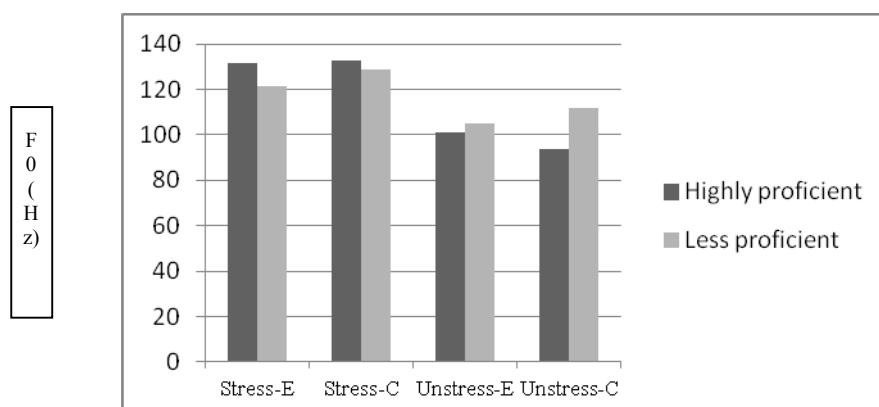


Figure 2. Comparison of average F0 values of the English donor word syllables and those of Cantonese loanword syllables in the prototypes of highly proficient and less proficient speakers

Duration (ms)

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

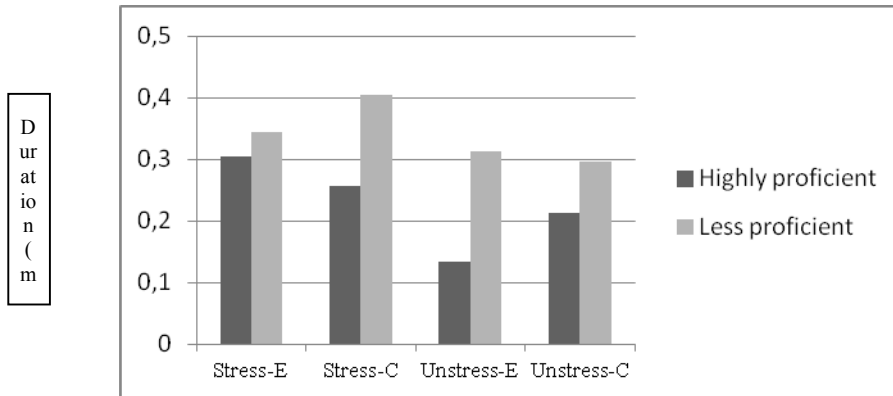


Figure 3. Comparison of average duration of the English donor word syllables and those of Cantonese loanword syllables in the prototypes of highly proficient and less proficient speakers

Intensity (dB)

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

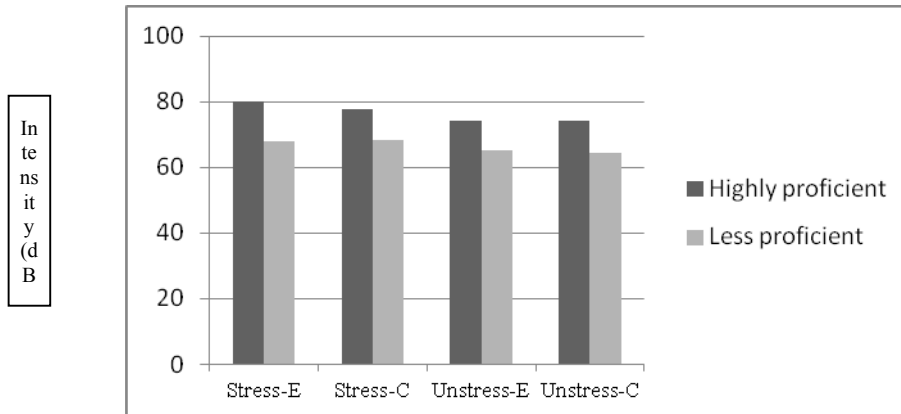


Figure 4. Comparison of average intensity of the English donor word syllables and those of Cantonese loanword syllables in the prototypes of highly proficient and less proficient speakers

Discussion and Interpretation

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

CONCLUSION

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

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

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The work described in this paper was substantially supported by a grant from the College of Professional and Continuing Education, an affiliate of The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, jointly undertaken with Division of Speech and Hearing Sciences, The University of Hong Kong.

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African American Dialects and Schooling: A Positive Approach Towards Schooling

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Abstract

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Research Controversies

Racial Biases

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Teacher Attitudes

Manifestation

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

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

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

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

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

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

Pedagogical Implications

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

Expectations

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

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

Behaviors

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

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

Curriculum Content

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

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

School Administrators

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

Social Culture

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

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

Public Policy

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

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

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

Conclusions

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

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

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

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

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

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Statement of the Problem

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

Specifically, this study sought answers to the following questions:

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

Hypotheses

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

Ho1. There is no significant difference in the vocabulary achievement among the four treatment groups.

Ho2. There is no significant relationship between the respondents' vocabulary achievement and identified variables in their profiles.

Theoretical Framework

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Methods and Procedures

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

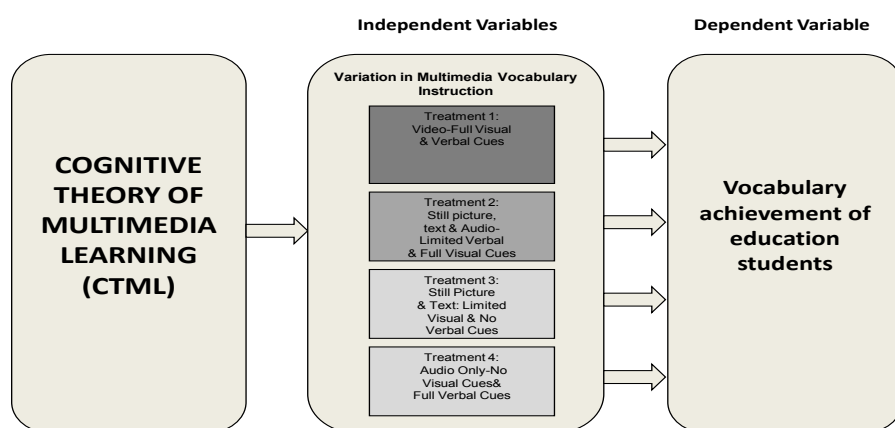
The basic structure of this design is as follows:

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

Where:

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

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



Research Participants

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

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

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

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

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

Table 1 Distribution of the research subjects in treatment groups

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

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

Research Subjects	1 1		1 2		1 3		1 4	
	MA	VA	MA	VA	MA	VA	MA	VA
1	96	39	96	34	96	45	96	39
2	91	37	91	34	91	40	91	33
3	88	38	88	35	88	41	88	39
4	83	36	83	34	83	39	83	34
5	78	38	75	34	78	34	75	33
6	65	34	70	36	65	24	70	30
7	61	31	61	31	61	36	61	39
8	57	32	57	36	57	23	57	33
9	52	27	52	29	52	24	52	34
10	50	36	50	34	50	35	50	35
11	45	36	45	33	45	36	45	28
12	36	40	36	34	36	34	36	35
13	33	23	33	29	33	36	33	28
14	27	35	27	30	27	33	27	35
15	17	34	17	36	17	30	17	36
Total	58.6	34.4	58.73333	33.26667	58.6	34	58.73333	34.06667

Instruments

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Procedures for data gathering

A. Pre-Experiment

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

B. During Treatment

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The materials were played using iTunes player.

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

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

The materials were played using Windows Media Player.

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

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

The materials were presented using Microsoft PowerPoint.

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

The audio materials were played using iTunes player.

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

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

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

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

Treatment of data

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

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

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

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

Scoring procedures

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Results

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level

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

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

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level

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

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

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

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

Conclusions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

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

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

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

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Partnerships with Local Schools

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

Table 1

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

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

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

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

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

Partnership with Indonesia

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

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

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

Results

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

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

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

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

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

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

Conclusions

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

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

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

Giriş

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

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

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

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

Yöntem

Araştırmanın Modeli

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

Çalışma Grubu

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

Veri Toplama Araçları

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

Verilerin Analizi

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

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

Bulgular

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

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

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

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

Tartışma ve Sonuç

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

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

Historical Review and Present Status of IP Education in Japan

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Primary school:

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

Secondary school:

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

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

High school:

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

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

Primary school:

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

Secondary school:

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

High school:

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

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

Status of the Research and Lesson Practice on IP in Japan

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

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

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

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

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

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

Cooperative Activities with Neighboring Countries

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

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

Conclusion

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

Acknowledgements

The author would like to thank the colleagues in Mie University, the core staffs of the IP Education Working Group in the Intellectual Property Association of Japan, and the co-researchers in Chongqing University and Inner Mongolia Normal University, all who have played an important role to proceed the research activities described in this report.

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

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

Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Community of Practice

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

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

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

Sustainability of CoP

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

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

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

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

Significance of the Study and Research Questions

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

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

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

Method and Procedures

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

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

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

Study Design

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

Instruments

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

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

Data Coding and Analysis

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

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

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

RESULTS

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Discussion

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Implications and Limitations

Implications for Future Research

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

Implications for Policy Makers and PD Designers

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

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

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

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

Limitations

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

Conclusion

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

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

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Abstract

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

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

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

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

General Description and Purpose of the LEARN Project

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

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

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

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

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

Discussion of Project 1

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

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

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

Discussion of Project 2

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

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

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

Discussion of Project 3

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

Conclusion

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The decorate of tones and transferring

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

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

Method and Material

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

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

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

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

First Training:

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



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

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

Second Training:

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



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

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

Third Training

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

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

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

Fourth Training

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

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

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

Fifth Training

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



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

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

Sixth Training

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



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

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

Discussion

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

Results

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

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

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Current Negative Trends in Engineering Education in Central Europe

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Abstract

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

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

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

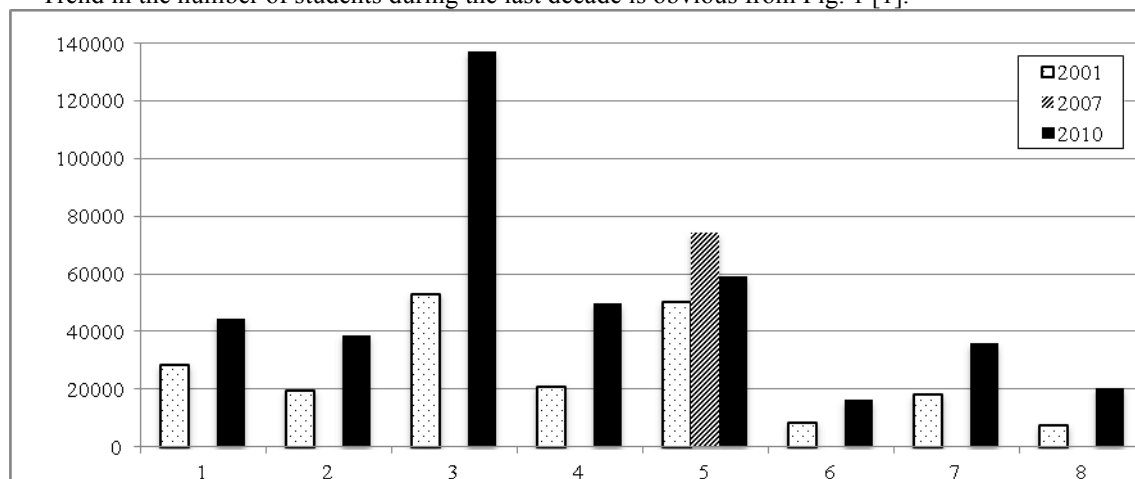


Fig. 1 Number of students by field of study at Czech Republic

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

Technical Education and its Societal Impact

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

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

The Reasons for the Current State of Technical Higher Education

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

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

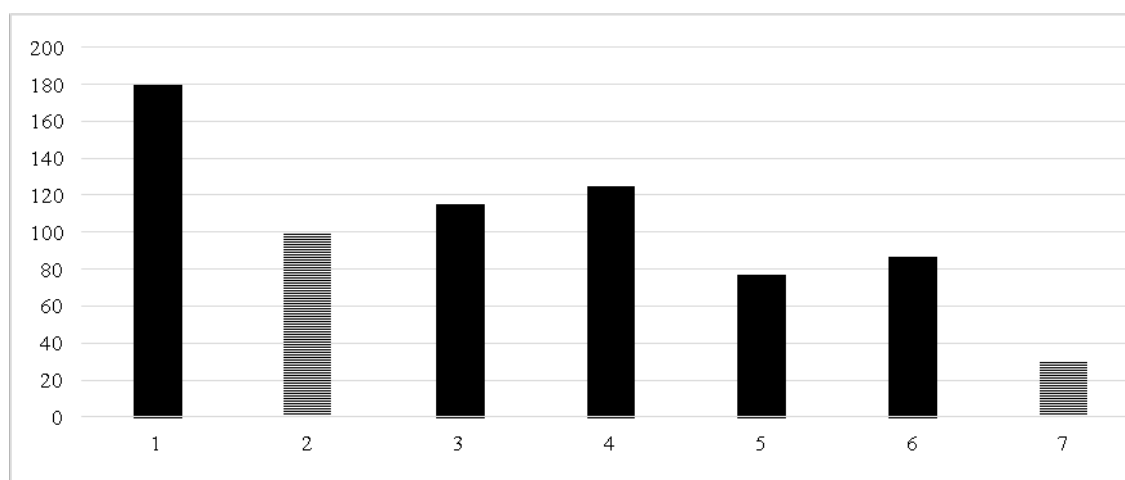


Fig. 2 Comparison of salary in different positions [%]

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

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

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

Why Study Technical Subjects?

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

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

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

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

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

Conclusions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Role Changes in Team Teaching

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Abstract

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

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

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

Method

Baseline and Team Teaching Teachers

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

Table 1. Teacher Profile

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

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

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

Data collection and analysis

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

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

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

Result

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

Analysis of Instructional Languages

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

Table 2. Instructional Languages

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Analyses of sentence types and questions in teacher utterances

1) Analysis of sentence types

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

Table 4. Sentence Types of Teacher Utterances

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

NEAT: *How's the weather today?*

Students: ???

Korean Teacher: *Is it cloudy today?*

Students: *Yes, it's cloudy.*

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

Students: ???

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

Students: *It's red.*

3) referential vs. display questions in teacher utterances

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

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

Table 8. display and referential questions

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

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

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

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

Table 9. Chi-square of display and referential questions

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

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

Analyses on different types of teacher talk

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

1) regulative, instructional and feedback language types

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

Table 10. Ratio of feedback, instructional, regulative languages

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2) Teacher feedback utterances

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

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

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

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

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

Student A: *I have a sasumbeoley.*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

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

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

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Okullarda Değerler Eğitimi ve Türkiye’deki Uygulamaya Bir Bakış

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Özet

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

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

Giriş

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

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

Değerler Nasıl Öğrenilir?

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Değerler Eğitiminin Türkiye'deki Uygulaması

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Sonuç

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

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

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Okul Öncesi Öğretmenlerinin Sınıf Yönetimi Becerilerine İlişkin Algılarının İncelenmesi

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Özet

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

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

Causal Model of Mathematical Competences in Kindergarten

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Abstract

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

Keywords.

Mathematical Competences in Pre-School Education

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

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

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

The mathematical language/data competences include:

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

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

The mathematical geometry competences include:

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

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

The mathematical arithmetic competences include:

Numbers:
Sequencing numbers,
Writing numbers

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

Statistical Set and Measuring Variables

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

Table 1. Children’s ages

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

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

Measuring variables for language/data were:

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

Measuring variables for geometry were:

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

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

Measuring variables for arithmetic were:

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

Causal Modeling of Mathematical Competences

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

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

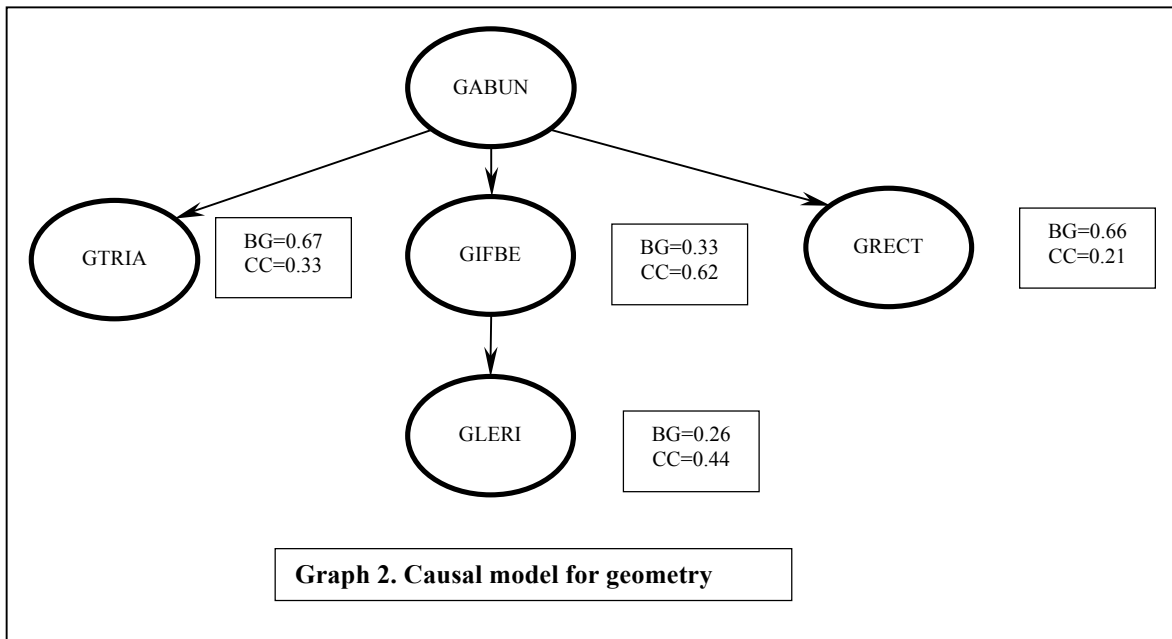
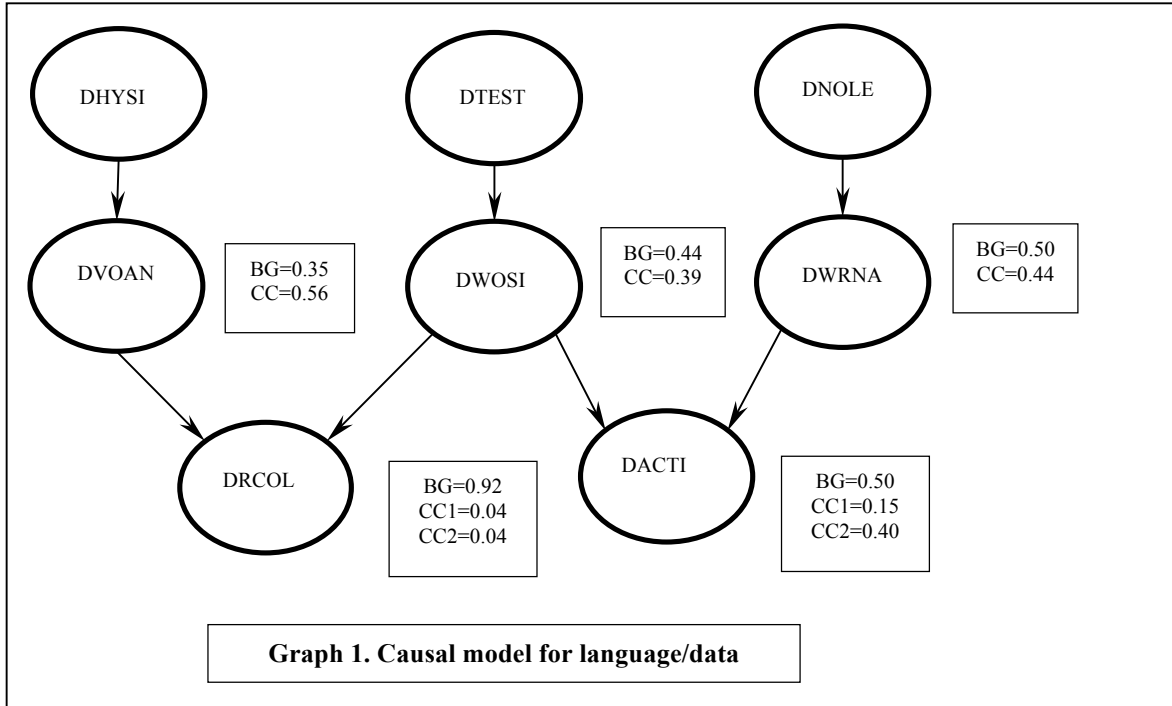
In the second step (Pearl, J. 2000, Pellet, J.P. & Elisseff, A. 2007), causal structure for competence was calculated. Causal structure was directed acyclic graph with directed edges and same vertices as a graph of connections in the first step.

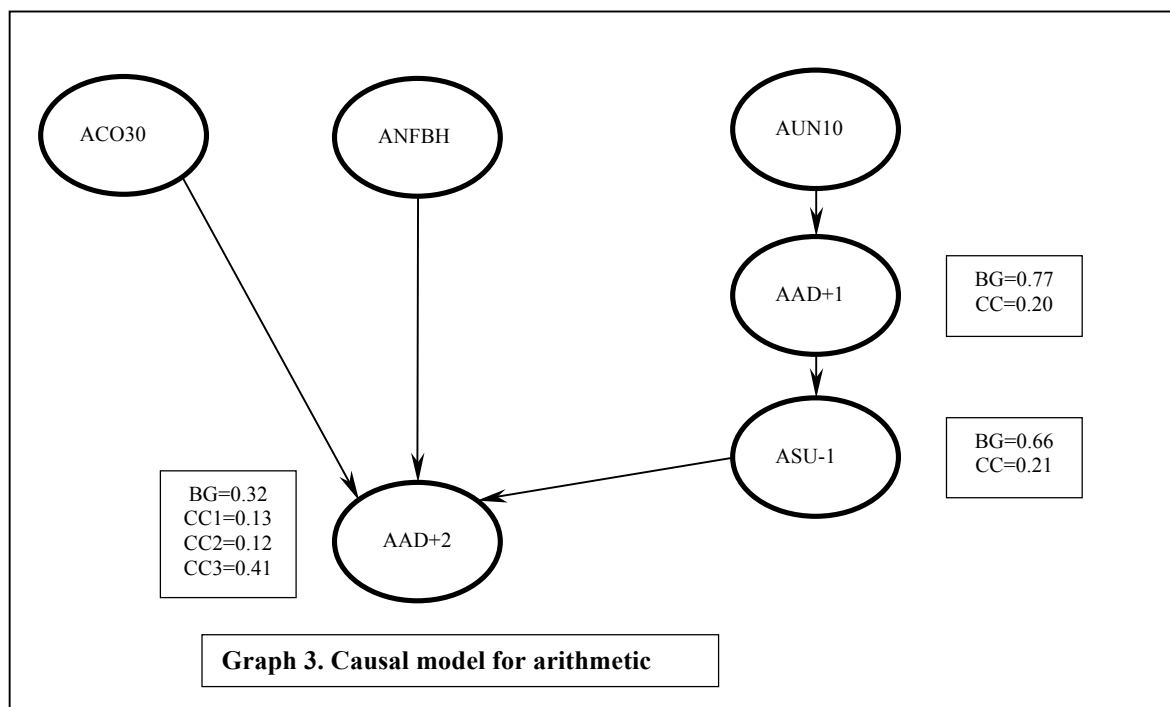
In the third step (Tepes, B. 2009), causal model for competences was calculated. In the causal model, every directed edge is a causal connection connecting cause and effect of the cause. Cause is the beginning variable and effect is the second variable on directed edge. Intensity of cause was determined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

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

Results: Causal Models For Mathematical Competences

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





Discussion

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

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

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

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

Special thanks goes to Lešin, G. & Hrkač, A. from kindergarten, and their previous research (Tepeš, B., Lešin, G. & Hrkač, A. 2013).

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Abstract

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

Theory

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

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

The factors that formed the basis of this model are:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Methods and Procedures

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

Results

According to interview results, we build a typology of professional career strategies. Base of this typology formed by several urgent factors, differs university graduates by: the attachment to specialty chosen, the orientation to a profession development, the level of individual independence in developing professional career. We got 4 types of professional strategies: 1) ‘potential professionals’; 2) ‘mobile careerists’; 3) ‘constantly occupied’; 4) ‘undetermined’ or ‘deprofessionalized’

‘Potential professionals’ very committed to their profession, work or business. Their profession is comparable with the aim in life. First of all, ‘potential professionals’ have a sufficiently early choice of professional development field: “as I remember myself I dreamed to become a driver, maybe it's partly influenced to my choice of the future profession” (electrical engineer). Choosing the career after graduation, they already have a solid value-orienting foundation. On their choice of career was influenced by parents, relatives, friends, elders,

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Specifically it sought to answer the following specific questions:

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

Objectives of the Study

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

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

Methods Used

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

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

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

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

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

Results

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

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

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

Background

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

Interlanguage

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

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

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

On definiteness/indefiniteness

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

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

Previous research of articles in L2 acquisition

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

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

Research – Aim and Methodology

Aim of the study

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

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

Participants

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

Methods

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

Research results

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

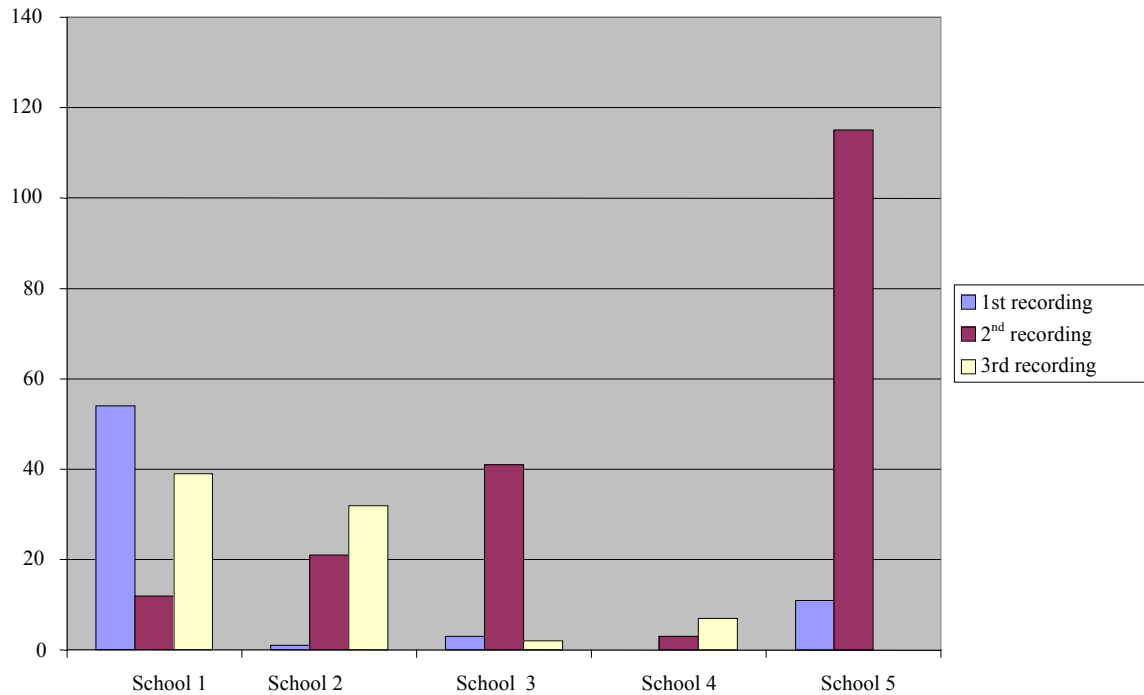


Figure 1: The frequency of indefinite article use in the classroom interaction

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

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

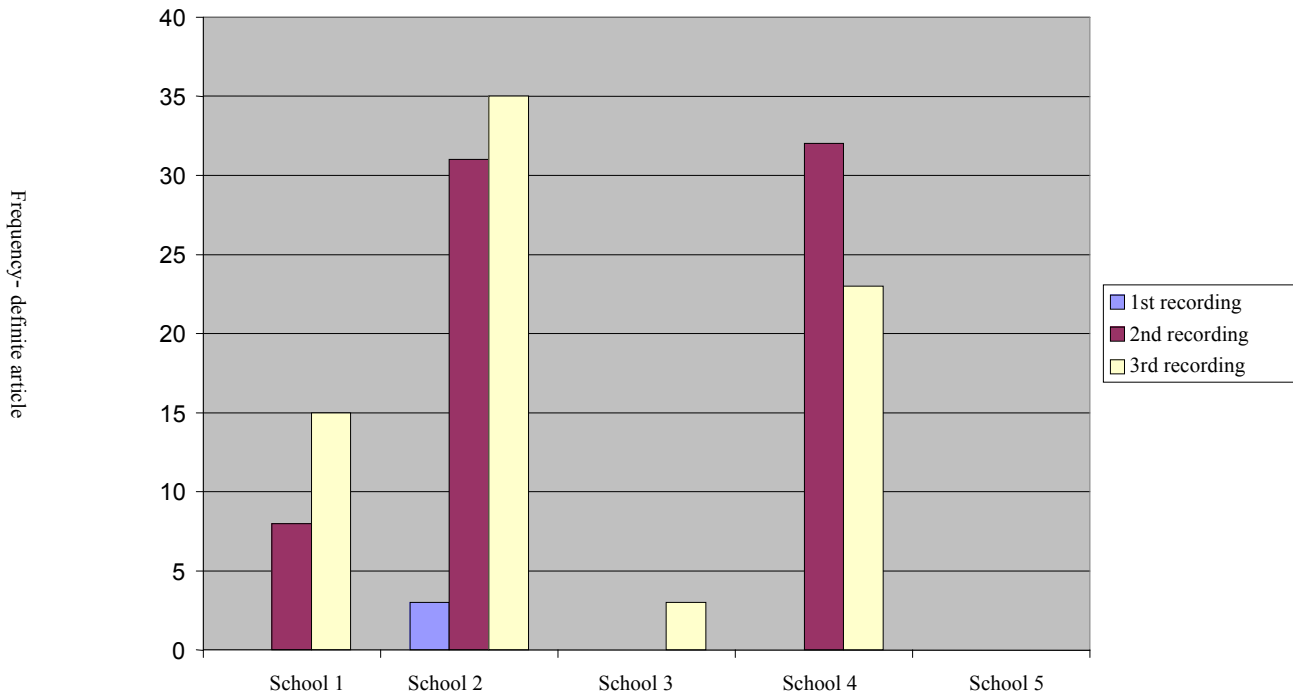


Figure 2: The frequency of definite article use in the classroom interaction

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

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

Conclusion

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

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Good Learning Experiences in Accounting

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Abstract

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

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

Keywords.

Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Description of Data, Method and Empirical Analysis

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Results

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

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

Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

Bachelor's study programmes

Architecture of Building Construction (A)

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

Civil Engineering (BA)

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

Design of Civil Engineering Structures (BD)

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

Geodesy and Cartography (GK)

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

Geodesy and Cartography (G)

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

Urban Engineering (W)

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

Civil Engineering (BK)

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

Civil Engineering (B)

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

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



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

Follow-up master's study programmes

Architecture and Development of Settlements (T)

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

Civil Engineering (CA)

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

Geodesy and Cartography (H)

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

Civil Engineering (C)

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

Civil Engineering (CK)

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

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

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

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

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

Doctoral study programmes

Civil Engineering (nDA)

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

Civil Engineering (nDKA)

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

Geodesy and Cartography (I)

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

Geodesy and Cartography (IK)

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

Civil Engineering (nD)

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

Civil Engineering (nDK)

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

Awarding Pedagogical and Scientific Degrees

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

The epistemology of projects is evident from the following scheme:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4 BAs are concluded with Denmark (DK);

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

1 contract exists in Iceland (IS);

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

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

1 contract exists with Norway (NO);

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

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

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

1 BA exists with Romania (RO);

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

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

2 contracts are valid with Slovenia (SI);

4 BAs with 3 universities in SK;

3 BAs are active in Turkey (TR);

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

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

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

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

Finding and Conclusions for Wider Applications

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

Acknowledgements

This presentation, which will be supplemented with other particular findings and experience during a lecture at the conference ITEC 2014, is carried out with the help of the project E!7614, follows the obligation of sustainability of the project E!4981, the ERASMUS programme and the activities of the FCE of BUT and the Consulting and Advisory Centre (KPC) for local development and businessmen, public service company (Konzultační a poradenské centrum pro místní rozvoj a podnikatele, o.p.s.).

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Teaching Languages to Engineers: Using A Hands-On Approach as A Strategy to Improve The Language Learning Environment For Undergraduates

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Abstract

The use of hands-on activities as an effective teaching method which engages students is well known. In the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching, however, such activities are often underused. Framed against previous research suggesting that engineering students are on the whole much more kinesthetic learners than most language students, this paper documents the use of model internal combustion engines (ICEs) to teach ESP vocabulary and writing skills to undergraduate automotive engineers.

The rationale behind this activity will be outlined, followed by a description of the practical implementation in the classroom. Finally, the findings of questionnaires conducted with the students to evaluate their reactions to the activity and the (perceived) effects on their language learning and motivation will be presented.

The content of this paper should serve as an impetus for practitioners to explore the use and effects of similar activities on language learning and motivation.

Keywords.

Introduction

ESP teaching typically “involves orientation to specific spoken and written English which is required to carry out specific academic or workplace tasks” (Orr, 2001, p.27). In the case of engineering disciplines, these tasks are manifold but are governed by the overall need for clear, concise and unambiguous communication (Irish & Weiss, 2009). The ability to communicate well in English is particularly important in the highly globalized automotive branch, where engineers nowadays can expect to work not only in multidisciplinary and multinational teams at home, but also to spend a considerable amount of time communicating with their counterparts in other teams and companies worldwide. Thus, ESP is an indispensable element in the education of young engineers.

This paper describes an activity designed and introduced into a third semester undergraduate course for students of Automotive Engineering at the FH JOANNEUM (FHJ) University of Applied Sciences, Graz, Austria. FHJ is a tertiary level institution offering over 40 degree programmes, each with a specific vocational orientation, ranging from health sciences to international business to engineering disciplines. All degree programmes include mandatory ESP courses. In the Automotive Engineering programme, this amounts to 150 (45-minute) units at bachelor’s level and 90 units at master’s level (in addition to English as the main language of instruction in the Master’s courses).

Rationale

Students in the Automotive Engineering programme often choose this course of studies based on an avid interest in the technology and design of motorized vehicles. One could argue that their motivation in this case is highly intrinsic, in other words it comes from within (van Lier, 1996). By contrast, their reactions to ESP lessons in the early semesters indicate little intrinsic motivation to improve their language skills. While, the global automotive industry requires graduates who are not only well versed in engineering subjects but also proficient in the lingua franca of the industry, many undergraduates fail to make the connection between these industry requirements and the inclusion of ESP as a compulsory part of their degree programme. Thus, the extrinsic motivation, or external incentive driving the language learner (van Lier, 1996; see also Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizer 1998; Gardner & Lambert 1959, 1972) also appears to be low. Motivation, however, cannot be taught. It must come from the students themselves and “be based on their perception that what they are learning is of interest and value to them” (McKay & Tom, 1999, p.4). Faced with this situation, the authors set out to investigate means of improving the language learning environment in such a way that students would want to participate more actively and, ideally, want to learn (Ushioda, 2011).

Research conducted into the learning preferences of students of Automotive Engineering and Aviation at FHJ showed that the majority of the engineering student cohort surveyed in the course of the longitudinal study had clear preferences for a more communicative (interpersonal) and hands-on (bodily-kinesthetic) approach to learning, as defined by Gardner in his theory of multiple intelligences (Millward-Sadler et al., 2010). It became clear that in order to engage the learners in the ESP classes, the activities used and materials developed would have to address the abovementioned learning preferences more directly, revolving around the dominant intelligences identified - interpersonal, kinesthetic, logical-mathematical and spatial - in order to foster development of the weaker ones, including the linguistic intelligence (Millward-Sadler et al., 2011a). In addition, they would do well to take into account the benefits of hands-on activities in terms of promoting learning.

In the field of science teaching, hands-on activities have long been regarded as enhancing cognitive learning (Korwin and Jones, 1990, n.pag.) In her discussion of why hands-on science activities are so effective for student learning, Satterthwait (2010) points to the significant role such activities have on student engagement and motivation. The manipulation of three-dimensional objects, she argues, invokes curiosity within the learners. This curiosity fosters learning. Further, set against the backdrop of constructivist theory, she highlights the influence of peer interaction in what she calls “cooperative learning settings” on the learning process (Satterthwait, 2010, pp.7-8).

A further consideration informing the development of new materials was the question of relevance. If materials which appear relevant and are of interest to our students are integrated into our teaching, we may, as instructors, help to improve their intrinsic motivation (Meixner, 2013). It has already been noted by colleagues lecturing in the engineering disciplines in the Automotive Engineering programme how students are “motivated by tasks that stem from real engineering problems” (Bischof et al., 2009, n. pag.). Thus, relevance to their area of studies and future workplace was of key importance. The following section describes the design and

implementation of one activity centered around using model combustion engines (ICEs) to teach vocabulary, communication and writing skills. The engineering workplace activities specifically addressed are:

- describing technical systems and components,
- giving and reacting to oral instructions,
- documenting a step-by-step (assembly) process and
- writing instructions.

Design and Implementation of Activity

The activity was devised to be run by two instructors in a team-teaching set up. The instructors led the participants through a series of warm-up activities and were on hand to provide assistance (both language and technical) to the students while monitoring and recording student interaction. Due to the complexity of the model and the time required to build it, an intensive workshop consisting of a block of three 45-minute sessions per day over three consecutive days was created.

The early part of Day 1 served to gauge the students' existing knowledge of the relevant technical background and vocabulary through a series of short warm-up activities, including brief impromptu presentations, given in groups of three or four, on the components and/or working principles of engines as well as other related vehicle systems. Not only did these presentations show the range in levels of technical background knowledge amongst the students, but also highlighted areas, both in terms of vocabulary and pronunciation, where they clearly needed input. This kind of “deep-end approach”, as described by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.119), is frequently employed in ESP instruction and places the students somewhat out of their depth to see how much they know of what is required of them so that instructors can step in where specific weaknesses and gaps in knowledge become apparent (Orr, 2001).

In the same session, students were given the ICE model kits, without the assembly manual or the necessary tools, and with some parts removed. The rationale behind removing parts was, firstly, to ensure documentation (including photo documentation) and comparison to the original parts' list with the intention of engaging students with the target lexical terms in a kinesthetic way. The second reason was more practical – by removing certain essential parts, it became possible to control the lesson stages more easily and prevent students from moving straight into the linguistically ‘thin’ stage of building the engine, thereby skipping the desired language engagement. It created a situation which forced communicative acts, which otherwise may have been significantly shortened or even avoided altogether. Figure 1 shows a group of students checking and cataloguing the engine parts on the first day.



Figure 1: Students cataloguing engine parts on Day 1 of the workshop.

Day 2 consisted of the actual engine build itself, where students were given the manufacturer's assembly manual, the necessary tools and additional equipment (including vegetable oil for lubrication and batteries) they

would need to build the engine and get it running. They were also instructed to document the building/assembly process step-by-step, both in writing and photographically.

Day 3 was dedicated to completing the build and to writing an alternative set of instructions and parts' list using their own notes and pictures as well as some language guidelines provided for writing technical instructions at the beginning of the lesson. Students were given until the end of the following week to revise and complete their documents and submit them as part of their course work.

The instructors adopted a variety of different roles in the course of the workshop, moving from being controllers to facilitators (Harmer, 1991), or to use Scriviner's (1994) categorization, from explainers to involvers to enablers and back again at many stages over the three days. This variation of roles appeared to have positive effect on the workshop in terms of classroom management. Additionally, it affected interaction patterns, with the lessons being generally far more student-active than teacher-dominated (Ur, 1991).

Discussion of Impact and Student Feedback

Impacts and learning outcomes of such in-class activities are difficult to measure objectively (Tatzl, 2011, p. 63). In an attempt to measure at least immediate reactions to the activity/workshop, students from both year groups were required to complete paper-based questionnaires after the final session. The majority reported having not only acquired engine-specific vocabulary, but also valuable experience in teamwork. A considerable number stated that they had, in addition, acquired knowledge about the workings of internal combustion engines. Constructing the models themselves was mentioned as the most enjoyable aspect overall, whereas writing the documentation, unsurprisingly, was mentioned as the least popular.

As one of the underlying goals was also to determine the influence of hands-on activities such as the one described here on motivation, students were asked to rate a series of statements concerning the motivational effects of the activity using a five-point Likert scale. As can be seen from the summary of student responses from both years (n=105) in Figure 2, the majority of learners strongly agreed that they had been motivated by using and assembling models. Similarly, the majority appear to have been motivated to engage with the subject matter in general, while just over 80% of the respondents claimed that their team colleagues contributed positively to the overall motivational effects. (Casey, A. & Millward-Sadler, A., 2013, n.pag.)

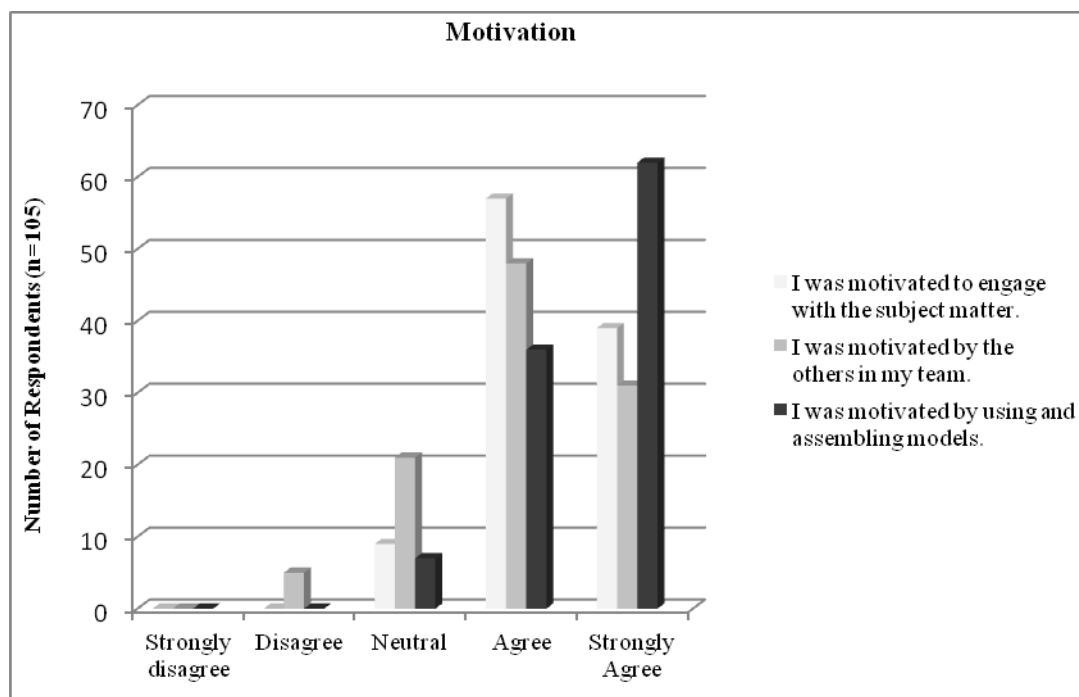


Figure 2: Summarized feedback on perceived motivational effects of the engine building activity.

Conclusion

The ICE building activity and the feedback loop have been conducted twice with two consecutive year groups of undergraduates, both with comparable responses and results. In each case, students responded positively to

the design and content of activity and reported a strong learning effect, not only in terms of engine-specific vocabulary, but also in terms of technical writing and teamwork. Perhaps most surprising of all was the feedback that some felt they had acquired a better overall understanding of the working principles of internal combustion engines in the course of the three-day activity. Indications from the feedback are that students would respond positively to similar intensive workshops within the ESP courses in the future.

From the instructors' point of view attendance, attention levels and willingness to engage with classroom materials increased perceptibly, as did the amount of student talk/interaction. While no formal study of the retention levels has been carried out to date, students appeared capable of reproducing core vocabulary from the engine build easily during subsequent activities in the regular, weekly ESP classes.

A further extension of this activity has also been run as an introduction to ESP courses at master's level at the same institution, whereby sessions one and two were merged and shortened and the engine build itself was intended to constitute more of a team building than a vocabulary acquisition activity in the first lesson. Such was the enthusiasm of the participants for the activity that extra lessons were subsequently timetabled in the university workshops, where the groups went on to disassemble real engines and transmissions, document the parts and the disassembly process, and create instruction manuals for their colleagues, based upon which the components were fully reassembled.

While it may not be possible to incorporate this activity as it stands into every ESP classroom (particularly where budgets for additional classroom materials may be limited), the authors would argue that there is a strong argument for investigating and introducing similar forms of hands-on or realia-based activities relevant to the students' field of studies into their language classroom.

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Differences in Body Image and Health Among Sport Active and Passive Adults

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Abstract

The article deals with the aspects of self concept, self evaluation, physical self and the possibility of improvement. The aim of the research "Body image as a part of active life style" was to learn about the importance and level of satisfaction with particular aspects of the physical and psychological self and degree of felt control and opportunity for change. The questionnaire contains 8 parts: personal data, importance and satisfaction with "My body and health" and "My thinking and feelings", self control, opportunity for change, health status, sport activities, somatic type. A total of 1,635 adult persons were interviewed. The results show that the more physically active people value their body and health much higher and they show a significantly higher satisfaction with monitored aspects of their own physical and psychological status. At the same time, they feel they have more control over their body and feelings. They also perceive more positively the opportunity to change, which indicates greater self confidence.

Keywords. Physical self, sport, health, self control

Introduction

Taking care of one's body and health has become a standard part of our modern lives. While our grandparents were happy with being healthy enough to bear and bring up children, our parents' generation is spending more

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and more effort and money on keep not just healthy but also good-looking and fit. Our children will face the risk of damaging both their bodies and minds by keeping drastic diets, taking food supplements designed to increase muscle mass, undergoing plastic surgeries, getting tattoos and piercing ... Why is physical perfection so important to us and why do we refuse to accept our natural selves? Psychologists and sociologists have spent years researching people's attitudes to themselves, including the very important issue of physical self image. On the one hand, lack of natural physical activity leads to growing masses of obese and ill individuals. On the other, we have seen a rise of eating disorders and other unfortunate practices that seriously damage the human body.

The importance of physical activity for human health

The recent rise of obesity has been primarily driven by lifestyle changes (persistent removal of physical activity from work as well as leisure) and dietary habits (high-calorie food with high fat content), which together results in excessive calorie intake.

An active lifestyle is characterised by an organic interaction between the individual and his or her environment. There are two sides to this interaction – biological and social (Bunc, Štilec, 2003). As one get older, the rhythm of life changes due to both the increasing age of the person and changes in the social group he or she is involved in and favoured. All this affects the person's physical, mental and social behaviour and habits that influence the development of personality, performance and identity. The overall result depends on biological (age, sex, health) as well as social determinants (cultural traditions, political and economic conditions prevailing in the society, the socioeconomic status of the individual).

Modern technological progress and a hectic lifestyle make people grow lazier, less active and incline them to forget that physical activity is one of the factors that affect physical health and contribute to mental balance (Málková, 1992). Physical activity has its place in the life of every individual. Physical activity has an immediate effect on metabolism and increases energy expenditure. This metabolic effect lasts for several hours after physical activity, depending on its intensity and duration. The ability to adapt to a physical load is influenced by many factors that are in mutual interaction. These factors include the initial training level, sex, total amount and distribution of bodily fat, age, genetic predisposition (Riegerová, Přidalová, Ulbrichová, 2006).

Self concept and self assessment

Self concept as a person's view of himself or herself means more than just what opinions one has about the self. It also describes the relationship to one's self including emotional experience with cognitive, active and regulative factors. The Self is formed on a basic level of evaluation and becomes the object of opinions and attitudes.

Self assessment is a component of self concept created as a final product during socialisation. It is formed based on social comparison and self-evaluation of one own activities (Výrost, Slaměník, 2008). The basic self assessment criteria are formed during childhood by parents or other significant persons with the family or persons who play an important educating and parenting role. Parental support is thus the strongest predictor of self assessment (Blatný, Plhánková, 2003). Peers take on the self-assessment forming role as the child grows up. However, parental support loses none of its importance during adolescence. Things change in adult years when the individual begins professional career and founds his or her own family. At this stage, the strongest influences on self-concept are exerted by colleagues and peers as well as family members, partners, friends and children.

The physical self

Research into self-concept has recently entered the area of sports and the physical self. A number of tests have been performed to determine what role physical aspects play in our overall self-concept. The physical self is believed to be a motivating agent of our behaviour, significantly contributing to our overall self-respect, mental health and well-being. The physical self-concept has been associated with sports or regular exercise that aims at keeping us fit, achieving our ideal weight, maintaining a healthy lifestyle and physical condition or rehabilitation after an injury or due a disability (Krejčí, 2008).

One of the fundamental problems with self-esteem and positive self-concept is a discrepancy between one's actual body and the ideal body. It may happen that the real body and the physical ideal are diametrically different. The physical ideal is formed primarily by the social and cultural environment. The way we experience and present our bodies depends on social factors. This is true especially for the female body which is subject to precise ideas about what the ideal woman should look like. We are talking especially about external factors that

convince individuals that by working hard and investing in one's body, they will be able to form their bodies according to the "ideal".

The physical self has three basic components: look, fitness and health. Accepting one's body requires knowledge, awareness, evaluation and plans of action. The way we look is one of the factors that affect our self-esteem, which is why the behaviour and personality of our communication partners is often judged by the way they look. Physical look is also one of signs of social perception, which makes self-concept a part of the everyday interaction of individuals and their environment. Efforts to improve one's physical look, health and fitness may, therefore, directly or indirectly contribute to one's motivation to lead a healthy lifestyle. In general, we may say that both women and men care about the way they look, although women tend to worry about it more and are willing to spend more time and money on it.

Our modern society believes a person's image is an integral part of a lifestyle. Our relationship to our body and body-centred behaviour are also affected by our social class, gender, age and lifestyle. All this affects our perception of the body as a functional and aesthetic object. In this sense, the body is often described as the mirror of a society and a cultural product. To be attractive is one of the key trends of this age. Feeling attractive, therefore, is important for our self-esteem. Physical attractiveness is an important part of self-confidence, requiring that the individual accepts himself or herself and at the same time believes that others find him or her attractive. Changing one's self-concept requires, first and foremost, a change in our thinking and perception but also behavioural changes in our approach to health and beauty.

How to improve one's physical self-concept

As for the specific content of one's self-concept, it consists of various aspects of social identity (role, status, age, gender, etc.) as well as personality attributes (hobbies, activities, interpersonal style of behaviour, look, wealth, social standing, etc). Another level represents a "systematic self-assessment" (competences, value structure, etc.). Based on these factors, the individual creates a self-image, a feeling of personal autonomy and overall self-evaluation. If the individual is happy with his body, he also feels more in control and is more self-confident (Fialová, 2001).

A sense of personal integrity is the fundamental condition for adaptive behaviour. To maintain a psychological integrity, one must be well motivated. Motivation regarding the Self is described as Self-motivation and includes: Self-consistency and Self-strengthening (Škultétyová, 2010).

The person should open up to his own feelings and voice his own opinions and wishes. If people's values are based on the reactions of others, their behaviour is motivated by a desire to conform to the wishes of others. These values then become part of the person's self-concept and as they often express unrealistic demands, there occurs a major discrepancy between the ideal and the actual Self. If the ideal and the actual Self are then constantly compared, the level of self-esteem decreases.

Methods and Procedure

The objective of the "Body image as a part of active life style" research conducted by the Faculty of Physical Education and Sports of the Charles University is to determine the importance of and level of satisfaction with different aspects of the physical and psychological self. We were interested to find to what degree importance, satisfaction, control and opportunity are aligned. The aim of this article is to analyse relationship with one's own body and health as well as one's own feelings and thoughts in a group of 1,635 subjects of ages ranging from 18 to 60 years (866 women and 769 men), relative to the amount of physical exercise in their daily routine (48% were physically active and 52% were passive). We expect our results will allow us to propose changes to long-term programmes in the area of healthy lifestyle education and help individuals arrive at a realistic self-evaluation.

Methods applied

A web site was created for purposes of this research including the questionnaire "Self-concept, Quality of Life" (SQL), which consisted of 8 parts:

- 1) Personal data (sex, age, education, height, weight, BMI)
- 2) Importance and evaluation of "My body and health" (6 questions) and "My thoughts and feelings" (6 questions)
- 3) Satisfaction and evaluation of "My body and health" (6 questions) and "My thoughts and feelings" (6 questions)

- 4) Self-control (5 questions)
- 5) Opportunity for change (5 questions).
- 6) Health status (7 questions)
- 7) Physical activity (5 questions)
- 8) Body type (5 questions).

The subsection “My body and health” focuses on: look, physical activity and fitness, hygiene and care taken of one’s body, nutrition and food eaten, physical health and sexual life. This subsection, therefore, concerns the physical self-concept, which is evaluated from several perspectives: in terms of its importance for me, my satisfaction with it, my sense of having it under control, my chances for change.

The subsection “My thoughts and feelings” focuses on psychological aspects that reflect our feelings, our ability to learn and self-evaluate. It focuses on our self-confidence, attitude to problems, ability to control ourselves and deal with difficulties and stress. The questions target: self-acceptance (accepting the way I am), life without worries, fear and tension, how do I feel about myself and what do I think about myself, mental health, mood, independence of thought and action. Once again, the personal importance of these issues is evaluated as well as my satisfaction, sense of control and chances for change.

Cronbach’s α (internal consistency) for all respondents – men and women – ranges between 0.68 and 0.92. The content validity of the questionnaire was verified. The data were analysed using the NCSS software. This article brings a comparison of the results between the sexes and among groups with different levels of physical activity in the weekly regime of adults.

Subjects:

The questionnaire was filled by 866 women and 769 men who answered the questions online. The analysis works only with questionnaires that were filled in their entirety. 14% of the subjects are people under 20 years of age, 49% are people in the 20-30 age group, 16% in the 31-40 age group, 11% in the 41-50 age group and 9% in the 51-60 age group. In terms of education, our respondents are very close to the actual structure of the population: 9% elementary education, 3% vocational education, 50% secondary-school graduates, 36% university education, 2% doctorate. Since we were interested in differences between physically active and inactive populations, we chose the number of hours spent on physical activity per week as one of the key criteria. The minimum (0-1 hour a week) was admitted by 18% of women and 15% of men, 2-3 hours a week were reported by approximately a third of all respondents (34% of women and 29% of men). Active individuals (four or more hours of physical activity a week) form nearly a half of the sample (48% of women and 55% of men) while the more passive respondents (0-3 hours of physical activity a week) consists of 52% of our female subjects and 45% of the men.

Results

Physical and mental self

Table 1. Importance and satisfaction in physically active and inactive people (scale 1-5, answers: important and very important 4+5) %

	Importance				Satisfaction			
	Women		Men		Women		Men	
	passive	active	passive	active	passive	active	passive	active
Look	68	68	43	63	46	49	38	55
Phys. activity + fitness	61	78	44	86	29	51	27	58
Hygiene, bodily care	93	93	80	82	84	82	67	79
Nutrition	65	66	45	54	48	47	38	47
Physical health	88	89	80	87	54	58	50	59
Sexual life	57	58	71	72	55	55	39	54
Overall evaluation	432	452	363	444	316	342	259	352

While physically active women pay the highest attention in terms of bodily care to hygiene, physical health and activity, physically passive women concentrate on hygiene, physical health and look. The most important

aspects for physically active men are physical health, activity and fitness, hygiene while physically inactive men concentrate on hygiene, physical health and sexual life. Satisfaction usually received lower scores than importance. Both groups of women and men expressed the highest satisfaction with hygiene and bodily care. As for the lowest satisfaction, physically passive women and men were concerned about the amount of physical activity and fitness, while physically active women and men were mostly concerned about nutrition. In general, men considered physical aspects less important than women did and physically passive men were even less satisfied than women. Both active groups were more satisfied in general than the passive group and physically active men are the most satisfied group of all.

Table 2. Control and opportunity for change in active and inactive individuals (scale 1-5, answers: important and very important 4+5) %

	Control				Opportunity			
	Women		Men		Women		Men	
	passive	active	passive	active	passive	active	passive	active
Body and health	60	72	52	74	76	79	67	82
Thoughts and feelings	66	69	57	72	66	69	72	66
Inner faith and values	80	78	81	82	76	75	66	72
Activities for fun	79	81	74	87	84	84	68	81
Activities for change	68	75	39	52	70	76	61	71
Overall evaluation	353	375	303	367	372	383	334	372

Physically active women and men feel more in control of their body and health. Women report a significantly higher level of control over activities for fun and significantly more activities for change than men. This indicates a greater openness and awareness of own possibilities. All groups reported the highest opportunity for activities for fun. Physically active women and men believe they have greater chances of achieving all the aspects but men tend to see less opportunity than women. By reporting little opportunity, the passive groups betray certain scepticism in terms of their own contribution to change.

Health

We were also interested in finding what differences there are in the subjective evaluation of health, health problems and health-related care of one's body.

Table 3. Health complaints (%)

	Women			Men		
	passive	active	general	active	passive	general
Sleep disorders	17	11	28	28	20	48
Fatigue	23	9	32	30	19	49
Headache	13	10	23	11	11	22
Backache	26	22	48	43	37	80
Digestive complaints	17	14	31	24	13	37
Overall weakness	18	11	29	25	17	42
Total complaints	114	77	191	161	117	278

The most commonly reported health complaint was backache, which was stated by nearly a half of all women and as many as 80% of men. Fatigue, digestive complaints and sleep disorders were quite common, too. Men have more health complaints than women (except headache). Physically active men and women reported significantly less complaints than the passive groups. The biggest difference was found in terms of fatigue and, in men, in terms of digestive complaints. The positive results achieved by the physically active respondents are conclusive.

Table 4. Healthcare in physically active and passive respondents (%)

Passive women	Active women	Passive men	Active men
	151		

	no	seldom	regul.	no	seldom	regul.	no	seldom	regul.	no	seldom	regul.
Visits to GP	26	14	12	26	13	9	59	28	13	54	28	18
Visits to dentist	8	21	23	8	19	21	28	39	33	30	32	38
Visits to gynaecol.	6	24	22	7	21	19						
Visits to optician	41	9	2	37	9	2	91	7	2	89	8	2
	no	10 +		no	10 +		no	10 +		no	10 +	
Smoking (cigarettes / day)	43	5		43	2		81	10		83	6	
	no	1-3	repeat	ne	1-3	repeat	ne	1-3	repeat	ne	1-3	repeat
Weight-loss diet (how many times)	32	10	8	32	12	6	87	11	3	91	7	2

In terms of awareness of the importance of regular visits to doctors and in terms of health-conscious behaviour, no significant differences were found between active and passive group, with the exception of the amount of physical activity in the weekly regime. The number of smokers among active and passive respondents is similar, although physically active individuals seem to smoke fewer cigarettes a day. Weight-loss diet is not frequent. The physically active groups report lower numbers but the differences are not significant.

Discussion and Conclusion

The objective of the article was to analyse the relationship one has to his or her own body and health, thoughts and feelings based on sorting criteria including sex and the amount of physical activity in the weekly regime. Our results indicate that self-concept is largely determined by the sex of the person rather than by other circumstances. Like other researchers (Fox, 1990, Grogan, 2000, Higgins, 1997), we found that self-image and the attitude one takes to one's self and one's body depends primarily on the sex, to some degree on physical activity and less so on age, education and other factors. The results reported in this article confirm the importance of physical activity for satisfaction with one's look, health, function and performance of one's body. Physically more active groups (especially men who ascribe more importance to physical activity and performance) appreciate the body and health more, they are also significantly happier with the monitored aspects of their physical and mental state. At the same time, they feel more in control of their body and feelings. Active people tend to see more opportunity for change, which indicates a higher level of self-confidence. Furthermore, the number of health complaints reported by these respondents is significantly lower than that reported by inactive respondents.

A surprising finding was that respondents (especially women) declared greater importance of psychological aspects (thoughts and feelings) than physical aspects (body and health). This might be influenced by stress, work overload, tension and worries that are part of the everyday lives of us all. The importance of mental and physical health was recognised by more than 80% of respondents. In terms of the psychological aspects, the most important factors were: life without fear and tension, independence of thought and action, feeling good about self. In terms of physical aspects, the most important factors were hygiene and bodily care, health. Physical activity and fitness were considered more important than look and nutrition. Physically active individuals, physical health, hygiene and activity are of more importance while physically passive respondents are more concerned about hygiene, physical health and looks. They replaced physical activity by looks in this value system, which may explain why physically inactive people tend to be more susceptible to advertisements promoting products that promise miraculous changes to the body and looks without much effort.

Evaluation of satisfaction looked rather different. Overall, satisfaction was lower than the reported importance (lower scores were reported on all aspects by both men and women). In psychological terms, men and women were the least satisfied in terms of life free of tension and worries and the way they feel about themselves and what they think of themselves. In terms of physical aspects, the least satisfaction was reported on activity and fitness as well as looks and nutrition in women. This dissatisfaction may lead women to adopt behaviour that is commendable in terms of health but, on the other hand, lack of understanding and susceptibility to media pressure may lead women to believe in the impossible. Once the promised results fail to materialise, even more dissatisfaction may be felt. Women are considered more susceptible to advertising than men (even more so if they are young and have less education) and many companies take clever advantage of this. Men complained the most about nutrition, sexual life and looks. The biggest dissatisfaction in psychological terms was reported regarding mental health and independence of action. It was hygiene and bodily care in physical terms.

The sense of having control over self also plays a role your self-concept and self-confidence. The results indicate difference in the control over physical and mental aspects felt by men and women. Women feel they have their thoughts and feelings under control while men feel in control of their bodies. The respondents realise that they have a great choice of activities for fun (a total of 80% of respondents recognised this). Control over

thoughts and feelings was reported by approx. 65% of respondents and control of body and health by even fewer respondents (approx. 60%). There is an interesting difference in terms of control over activities for change or the ability to cope with negative things – this type of control was felt by 71% of women but only 46% of men. This result may indicate that men are less ready to deal with changes.

Opportunity for change or chance of achieving change was identified on a larger scale than the feeling of having control. Women and men see the most opportunities for activities for fun (over 80%). A surprisingly high number of respondents see opportunity for bodily care and health. A total of 76% of passive, 79% of active women, 67% of passive and 82% of active men believe they can achieve positive change in this respect if they try. Men feel a great discrepancy between opportunity for (61% passive and 71% active men) and control over (39% passive and 52% active men) activities for change. Many respondents believe that they have the chances and opportunities but they do not take advantage of them and they are unable to take control of their body and health.

The entire society is now under media pressure, which demands that everybody take good care of their bodies without respecting individual possibilities and limits faced by every individual. Our task is to educate people to take qualified measures to improve their health and accept themselves the way they are. Success and socioeconomic prosperity can be achieved only by a healthy society. A healthy society is composed of healthy individuals who recognise their own value, who like themselves and who work on their own growth and development with their own individual limits.

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The Place of Pedagogical Training in Engineering Education

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Abstract

Academic personnel attendant in engineering education predominantly performs educational functions besides research functions, development and laboratory works. At this stage, the communication and interaction between instructor and student make very large influence in the quality of the education. This paper describes the role of pedagogical knowledge and training of instructors and academic personnel in the educational activity and in the relation and communication with students. A list of fundamental objectives is presented along with suggestions.

Keywords. Pedagogy, education, engineering, academic, formation

Introduction

The responsibility of a university is to educate students for their profession. Students should learn how to realize and solve problems in their profession. Learning is described as a permanent change in an individual's behavior that controlled by teacher. In engineering education, facts and rules are developed through education. On the other hand education has to be support by creativity, responsibility, ability to work in a team and to communicate with others (MEYER, 1985). Student should gain these skills as efficiently as possible. In order to make a change of the learner's behavior which is controlled by the teacher, teacher should have the pedagogical formation.

Teaching strategies are the ways which are divided as student-based strategies and teacher-based strategies in order to represent subjects to reach the goals of the learning (EAUM, 2002). Strategies are used to reach the learning aims. Instructor has to select the suitable strategies for learning goals while planning education.

Instructor picks the suitable learning strategies which are defined as repeat strategies, signification strategies, organization strategies, observation of the understanding strategies and sensory strategies while planning the education.

Learning strategies include the technics to transfer and process the impulses come from sensory nerves to the memory. Moreover, these technics which simplify learning, guide students and make the fresh-learned behaviors permanent in the memory and also help students to achieve the information. Learning strategies are invented by the students. Thus, every student has own unique learning technic (Demirel, 2006). On the other hand fundamentals of learning and teaching according to Meyer (1985) can be classified in to six groups. These are variables of the instructional process, educational objectives, psychological structure, sociological structure, instruction methods and experiments. Meyer (1985) has obtained that the application of pedagogics in engineering education can improve efficiency of learning very much.

A good teaching aims to teach the students how to learn, how to remember, how to think and how to get students motivated.

Learning style is defined as environmental and factual choices which affect the individual's entire physical and emotional needs that students make throughout the learning process. Every student has different learning and processing of the information styles. Learning style is the best way that students learn. Learning styles are divided as visual (Seeing and reading, reading oneself, colorful figures-charts-graphics, visual technology, show and make), auditory(hearing, listening, discussing, interactive class) and kinesthesia [with entire body](physical contact, experimental learning, dramatize, making a project) (Demirel,2006).

Discovering the learning styles showed us, most students considered "lazy", have solely lack of learning styles because of ignoring them. That makes teachers to uncover those styles with various technics. According to researches, teachers have knowledge of a few technics which are not enough (Davidson et.al.1982, Jones et.al. 1987). Teachers must be competent about teaching technics and must have different technics in their class.

Learning process has to be led by teacher considering learning psychology and pedagogy to make a change in behavior of the student. Therefore, teachers must have pedagogical formation.

Methods and Procedures

Pedagogy means, the study of teaching methods and activities. Also, formation means the way to form something. In that way, pedagogical formation can be considered as the formation which has to be possessed for teaching. In other word, education of the pedagogical formation which is required to become a teacher can also be considered as appropriate way to use teaching methods of any discipline.

In engineering education, instructors generally use speech, presentation with computer, problem solving and question – answer. On the other hand during the teaching time, instructors should take account the time planning, speaking speed, auxiliary document, time – content relation and appearance of the instructor etc. All these things said here have influence on the learning quality of students. For example while making presentation with computer, one instructor should be careful with below points:

- must read by one by,
- speech speed level must be low,
- each reflection must be in proper scale,
- every time must be done a connection with previous lecture,
- must put an "s" between words,
- must explain the aim of the course clearly,
- must refer to letter course.

As seen above, while giving a lecture to the students, there are a lot of rules that an instructor should follow. In order to give these rules to the teachers, there is pedagogical formation training in faculty of education. But engineering teachers do not follow this type of training. If they can follow this type of training, quality of engineering education will surprisingly increase.

In Turkey, pedagogical formation training is given by the faculties of education. Any one graduated from an university can also take pedagogical formation training if he wants to work as a teacher in minister of national education. An instructor who works as a teacher in universities should not take a training in pedagogical formation. This difference affects the quality of engineering education. Instructors who teach in the universities should have pedagogical formation to make an effective education ambiance, to have various repertories of engineering education strategies and methods.

Teaching methods have been found very effective in developing a set of desirable soft skills in the student (Nabhani N. 2010). Nabhani (2010) also says that "We must give students an opportunity to make use of their acquired knowledge. Students will benefit from new teaching strategies thus improving their employment prospects and career opportunities".

Lectures (Turkish Council of Higher Education –YOK, Pedagogic Formation Directive,2013) for the education of the pedagogical formation are:

- Introduction to Educational Science (2-0-2)
- Measurement and Evaluation (2-0-2)
- Theories and Approaches for Teaching and Learning (2-0-2)
- Psychology of evolution (2-0-2)

- Program Development and Teaching (2-0-2)
- Teaching Technologies and Material Design (2-2-3)
- Fundamental Principles of Educational Technology
- Special Teaching Methods (3-2-4)
- Guidance (2-0-2)
- Classroom Management (2-0-2)
- Teaching Applications (2-6-5)

Total Program; Theory: 21 credits, Practice: 10 credits and Total: 26 credits.

A similar program for engineering pedagogical formation has been suggested by Adolf Melezinek (2001).

The lectures in this program are:

- Fundamental Principles of Psychology (16 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Sociology (8 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Communication Studies (44 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Understandable Text Creation (16 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Educational Technology (12 Lessons)
- Biological Fundamental Principles of Development and Education (8 Lessons)
- Laboratory Didactics (12 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Engineering Pedagogy (36 Lessons)
- Engineering Educational Practical (36 Lessons)

Total Program: 188 Lessons

Results and Discussion

It can be seen that, there are important differences between pedagogical formation education program used in Turkey and engineering pedagogical formation suggested by Melezinek. This difference shows that, the pedagogical formation education program which is used in Turkey, should be rearranged and be used in pedagogical formation for engineering education. At present there is necessity to pedagogical formation education for engineers who works as an teacher in engineering universities.

A study from Kantonidou (2010) determines 85% of the teachers think engineering pedagogy is required. Also Meyer (Meyer, 1985) suggests that pedagogy in engineering effects the education very much and institutes of education should rearrange methods according to specific conditions. In Turkey, it should be emphasized by the educational institutes that provide engineering education, should improve themselves about pedagogical formation.

Conclusion

The deficiencies about pedagogical formation should be cleared by seminars and symposiums. It is required for more efficient and effective engineering education.

It is foreseen that giving a pedagogical formation seminar which is improved for engineering education, to PhD students before they conclude the education may increase students' success in engineering faculties. A suggestion for pedagogical formation training of engineering instructors can be made as :

- Fundamental Principles of Educational Science (2-0-2)
- Measurement and Evaluation (2-0-2)
- Theories and Approaches for Teaching and Learning (2-0-2)
- Fundamental principles of learning and evolution psychology (2-0-2)
- Program Development and Teaching (2-0-2)
- Teaching Technologies and Material Design (2-0-2)
- Special Teaching Methods (2-2-3)
- Fundamental Principles of Sociology (2-0-2)
- Communication in management (2-0-2)
- Classroom and education management (2-0-2)
- Teaching Applications (1-4-3)
- Human relations and management (2-0-2)
- Research methods and prepare scientific report (2-0-2)

Total Program; Theory: 25 credits, Practice: 6 credits and Total: 28 credits.

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Using Mobile Devices to Integrate Economic Simulations in Teaching Approaches Based on Direct Instruction

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Abstract

The increasing proliferation of mobile devices brings with it opportunities for developing innovative didactic scenarios for university lectures. This potential for development is particularly evident in lectures with directive teaching methods, in which participants assume a passive and receptive role and the lecturer receives no feedback on the learning progress of the students. In lectures without accompanying tutorials, this problem is even more prominent, as the knowledge transmitted can neither be applied nor tested in other contexts. In order to address this issue, a technical system and a concept for integrating interactive exercises into lectures is being developed as part of the MTED project. An interventional study (n=331) will investigate the effect of interactive exercises in economics lectures on students' learning processes.

Keywords.

Introduction

Current forecasts show that there will be a strong growth in the use of mobile devices over the next few years (Llamas et al., 2013). This development can be used to more actively include the participants in the learning process with the integration of mobile devices, and to investigate the effects of this on the transfer of knowledge. In this context, lectures without accompanying tutorials constitute a subject for research, as (1) the participants can neither apply nor transfer the knowledge learned during the lecture, and (2) the lecturer receives no feedback on the learning progress of the students. Furthermore, current findings in modern didactics, which are rarely considered during the planning phase when using directive teaching methods, indicate that such an intervention is necessary. "Progressive educational concepts as well as cognitivist and constructivist theories of learning consider learning as an independent activity, and see the learner (subject) in a manner that is very similar to the (neo-liberal) concept of a (self-) responsible and self-managing subject (Rabenstein/Reh, 2007)". Based on this concept, studies from scholastic environments show that directive teaching methods (cf. table 1) are more effective in transmitting knowledge, and therefore superior to other methods. This conclusion was made based on studies (Hattie 2009) that show that frontal instruction is more effective, efficient and time-saving than other teaching methods when learning cognitive competencies and when applying knowledge (cf. Ofenbach, 2003: p. 307-315). On the other hand, non-directive teaching methods may be beneficial when non-cognitive goals, such as social learning, cooperative abilities, creativity, imagination and self-confidence are to be integrated into the curriculum.

This was the conclusion Paetzold (cf. Klusmeyer et al., 2003) arrived at after evaluating a study involving 1400 school students and 177 teaching staff, and discovering that two-thirds of the students felt that frontal teaching negatively affects motivation. The studies carried out by a research group (Nickolaus et al., 2003) could not find any clear evidence to support the assertion that a directive and guiding approach is inferior for industrial and technical vocational training courses. These studies allow requirements to be inferred for planning school curricula. However, university lectures typically take the form of directive teaching methods, and in particular from an economic point of view, the utilization of alternative teaching methods appears to be difficult to

implement. On the other hand, a study (Deslauriers/Wiemann, 2011) showed that the use of various methods (discussions, clicker systems) can increase the knowledge gained, as well as improve motivation and the transmission of theoretical concepts. In the context of economics lectures positive effects through the use of economic experiments and simulations could be determined (Schloesser et al., 2012). Compared to the study of Wiemann, this study also shows that classroom experiments can improve the transmission of theoretical concepts (see e.g., Holt and Davis 1993, Holt 2006). In relation to these research results, the question arises, which effect have economics simulations on knowledge acquisition and other non-cognitive skills of students in university lectures.

Table 1: Teaching approaches based on direct instruction are advantageous for: (cf. Klusmeyer et al., 2003)

	is always correct	is often the case	applies rarely	does not apply	not specified
Be able to cope the contents of the curriculum.	50.6 %	40.3 %	3.4 %	3.4 %	2.3 %
Acquire knowledge about concepts.	28.4 %	61.4 %	8.5 %	0.6 %	1.1 %
Elaborate contextual knowledge.	15.3 %	52.8 %	23.3 %	4.5 %	4.0 %
To learn how to apply knowledge.	3.4 %	24.4 %	43.8 %	26.1 %	2.3 %
Increasing the independence of the students.	1.7 %	5.7 %	44.3 %	46.0 %	2.3 %
Promoting the problemsolving skills of the students.	1.1 %	24.4 %	42.6 %	29.0 %	2.8 %
Promoting a practical school education.	3.4 %	20.5 %	41.5 %	31.3 %	3.4 %

MTED Project

The project MTED (www.mted.de) provides a “rapid application development tool” for the design of interactive lectures. The implementation of learning applications carried out via MTED modules (general and domain specific) that contain technical contents and pedagogical structures. The following interactive task “option trading” shows the exemplary construction of a collaborative MTED module. It has already been used and evaluated in the context of a finance lecture. From specialized scientific point of view options are a financial derivative that represents a contract sold an option writer to an option holder. The option contract offers the buyer the right, but not the obligation, to call or put a financial asset at an agreed-upon price (strike price) during the exercise date. The participants have the possibility of trading options on a stock exchange in the lecture by using their mobile devices. Figure 1 shows the participants view, in which the parameters number of shares, share price, bounty and execution date can be adjusted to place options on the virtual stock exchange. Besides the sale of options, the participants can purchase the options placed on the stock market, which were placed by the other participants of the lecture. As additional information the current market price, the current date, the rate forecast and the current transactions of the participants are displayed with the beamer. The transactions on the stock exchange are analyzed by the simulation model and displayed on mobile devices. After completion of the simulation, the lecturer can access individual strategies of option transactions and connect to terms such as strike price, in the money, at the money or out of the money.

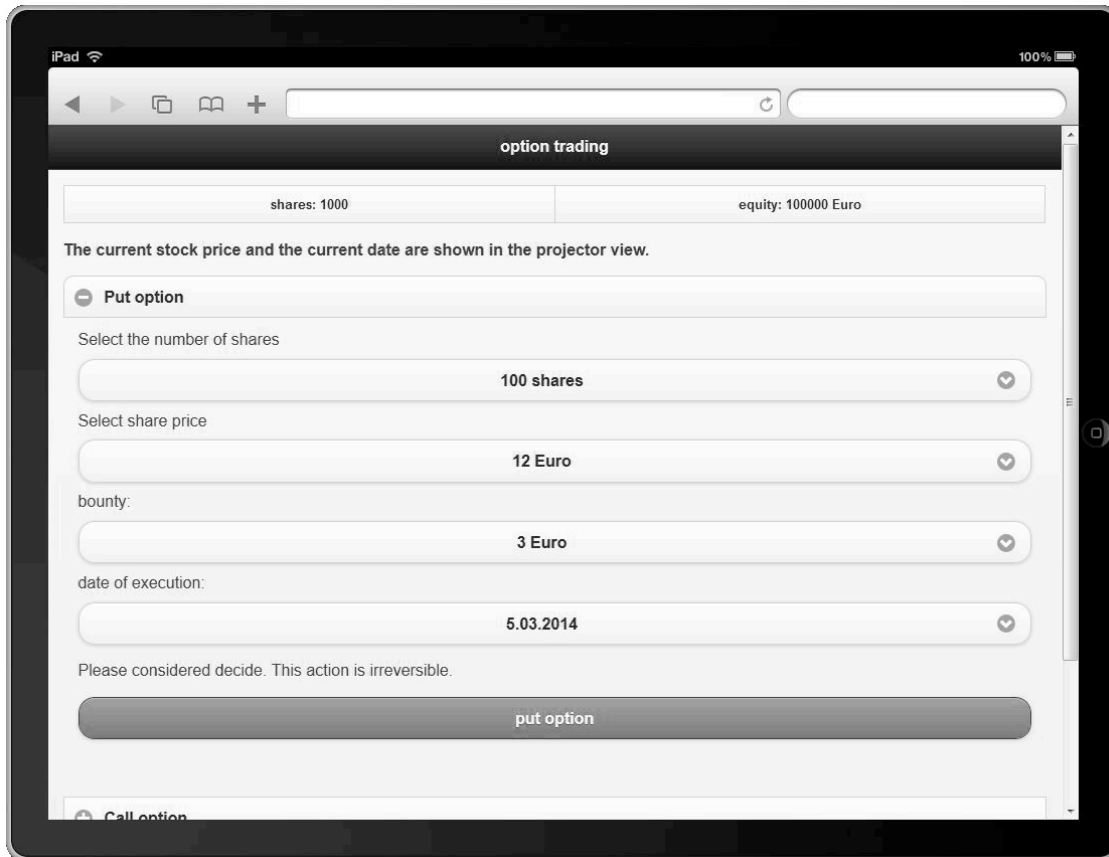


Figure 1: Participants view

Design of the Research

During the winter term 2013/12 an intervention study to analyze the effect of MTED modules on knowledge acquisition of students in university lectures was conducted. Overall, two variants were developed for the individual lectures. In the first variant (interventional group), interactive exercises were integrated into the lecture via mobile devices. For example, in the lecture "Economics I", the following modules were included:

Module A1: Leverage effect

- The participants determine over several periods the amount of the debt financing in conjunction with a case description and experience the effects on equity, equity ratio, return on equity, return on assets and other financial indicators.

Modul A2: Trading with options

- Participants take part in a simulation and can place and purchase options on a market in real time. With the projector current market events will be displayed.

Modul A3: Criticism of the leverage effect

- The participants have previously tested the leverage effect in the module A1. Afterwards each participant has to prefer one point of criticism. At the end, the module provides a rated list of criticisms of the leverage effect (Aulinger et al., 2009).

Modul A4: new shares and corporate bonds

- In the context of a case description, the participants learn about the relative financial costs of an issue of new shares compared to the issue of corporate bonds.

In the second variant (control group), the lecture was carried out without interventions, such that only the implementation of the interactive exercises was varied. At the current time, the MTED modules are being tested in two lectures on the topics of investment, financing and accounting with a total of 331 students. In order to collect information on various constructs, the use of the MTED modules was evaluated with the use of

standardized survey forms. In the first section of the lecture, a pre-test was carried out, where data on motivation, prior knowledge, self-evaluation, acceptance of mobile devices, concentration and learning preferences was collected. In the subsequent three lectures, two interactive exercises including a feedback phase were carried out in each case, after which they were evaluated with the use of a survey form at the end of the lecture. By doing so, a comprehensive amount of data could be collected for the analysis of cognitive and non-cognitive effects. At the end of the semester, a test of the students' knowledge will be carried out via the final exam. The data collected is expected to allow possible effects arising from the use of interactive exercises to be identified at the end of the comparative semester.

Results

What follows below is a presentation of the initial results for the module "trading with options", as the overall data collection has not yet been completed. This module was covered in the lecture "Economics I". There were 43 male and 54 female students who participated ($n = 97$). The majority of the participants was between 21 and 23 years of age and in their third to fourth semester. In addition, the pre-test showed that most of the participants preferred textual explanations to mathematical ones when attempting to acquire the knowledge in the lecture.

table 2: Which representation would you prefer, if you acquire content for the lecture?

	fully agree	somewhat agree	rather disagree	do not agree at all
mathematical formulas (for example: calculation of interest)	4.1 %	23.7 %	42.3 %	29.9 %
technical texts and application examples	32 %	62.9 %	3.1 %	1.0 %
graphics and images (for example, a curve for the cost comparison method)	23.7 %	49.5 %	19.6 %	5.2 %

Based on these basic parameters, the participants' prior knowledge of the topics covered in the lecture was also assessed in the pre-test. Most of the participants felt that they had very little prior knowledge of business studies ($> 90\%$). At the same time as the pre-test, a specialized test was also carried out to ascertain the level of prior knowledge students had on the following topics: Basic Terms (G), Investment Basics (IG), Investment Methods (IM), Financing Basics (FG) and Financing Methods (FM).

table 3: Test prior knowledge: How many questions were answered correctly in subject areas?

G	IG	FG	IM	FM
37.29 %	35.82 %	23.34 %	35.88 %	4.04 %

Table 3 shows that, contrary to their self-assessment, the participants did have some prior knowledge of the topics of the lecture. This is probably due to the fact that some of these topics were covered in foundation lectures that these students attended earlier on. However, the poor performance in "Financing Methods" was striking. Due to this, the decision was made to include the module "trading with options" in the lecture. In addition to information on prior knowledge, it was also necessary to collect information on the extent to which the participants were willing to accept the use of mobile devices. From the results of the pre-test, it was possible to ascertain that most of the participants were willing to do test exercises on their mobile devices during the lecture. At the same time, the uncertainty among the participants, who had no specific information on the use of the interactive exercises at the beginning, was also apparent from the acceptance survey. The surveys conducted at the end of the interventions showed that the acceptance of the use of mobile devices to facilitate the integration of exercises increased with the amount of information participants received on the process. In addition to these basic parameters, the extent of the influence of the interactive exercises on the concentration and motivation of the participants was also examined. Most of the participants indicated that their concentration declined during the course of the lecture. Similarly, further surveys showed that neither the topic nor the lecturer had a significant influence on the participants' motivation.

table 4: Results of the motivation of participants in the first three lectures.

fully agree	somewhat agree	rather disagree	do not agree at all	not specified
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The subject of the lecture motivates me to an engagement with the contents.	2.1 %	24.7 %	56.7 %	15.5 %	1 %
The lecturer of the course motivated me to an intensive engagement with the contents.	4.1 %	27.8 %	57.7 %	10.3 %	0.1 %

Based on the results of the pre-test, effects could be identified using the data from the module "trading with options". An evaluation of the trading strategies showed that 39 participants were able to increase the initial value of their \$100.000 portfolio with the use of stock options, while 14 incurred losses from exercising their stock options. In total, the participants placed 242 options on the market, of which 160 were acquired and 120 were accepted on the execution date. Table 5 shows which options were placed on the individual trading dates on average:

table 5: Average results of the placement of options in the module "trading with options"

execution date	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
number	320.37	181.25	200	173.33	177.77	292.30	189.47	233.33	193	189.65
price	20.37	17.75	15.53	22.4	21.11	25.46	30.15	24.56	27.47	27.10
bounty	4.42	3.125	2.26	5.26	5.11	6.15	6.15	7.63	9.03	10.03
current share price	18	15	19	20	32	21	45	45	12	19

Although many options were placed on the first trading date, the participants probably realized that this strategy was not very productive, and over time the number of stocks per option was reduced. During the transition from day 5 to day 6, the influence of the positive forecast of the stock prices for day 5 became apparent, resulting in more options being placed on the market. Furthermore, the results showed that the participants based the placements of their options on current share prices and the forecast for the stock market price. At the same time, the error rate when placing options and the valuation of the options on the trading date also decreased. This behavior allows one to conclude that the participants had understood what a "strike price" is and were able to estimate it correctly on the trading date. In conclusion, an analysis of the data suggests that most of the participants were able to "logically" set the parameters "shares", "share price", "bounty" and "date of execution" by taking into account the current market situation, and that they had acquired an understanding of these basic concepts. Moreover, the participants also reported that in addition to their motivation, their interest in the topic of financial derivatives had also increased. The impact on concentration is not clearly evident (cf. figure 2). The module "trading with options" was conducted in the second third of the course. This visualization shows that the concentration is considerably affected by the intervention. On the one hand, the concentration is improved in the second third of the lecture, on the other hand, there is a distinct redistribution of the concentration.

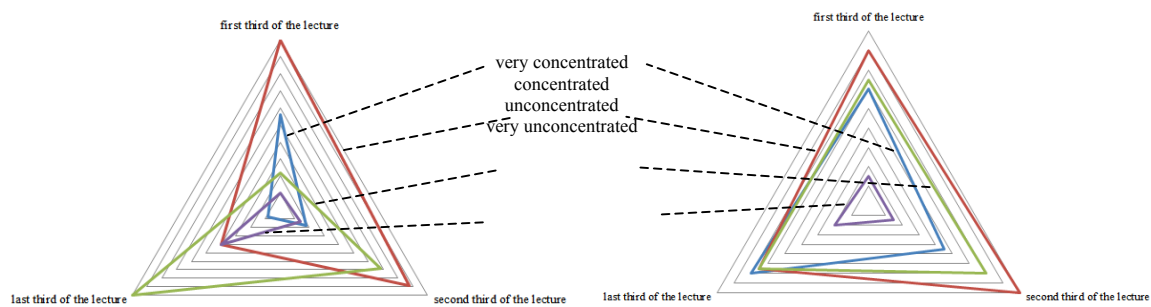


figure 2: Comparison of the concentration from the pre-test (left) with the concentration in the lecture, in which the module "trading with options" was tested (right)

Prospect

With the MTED project a pedagogic and technical overall concept to present interactive simulations in lectures was developed. Altogether twelve interactive exercises could be implemented and evaluated in six lecture units. Through the first analyzes of the data collected positive effects of this interactive exercises can be identified. The results of the simulation "trading with options" show that technical terms of a lecture can be applied directly by the students. In addition, the application has a positive impact on the motivation and concentration. Final results with regards to knowledge acquisition, cognitive and non-cognitive skills will be available after evaluation of the control group in February 2015.

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VET Teacher Preparation in Slovakia and the New VET Professionals - Entrepreneurship Trainers for VET

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Abstract

High level youth unemployment rate is the common problem of many countries. Demands for a highly skilled workforce for the European economy are new and demanding challenges for the teacher and training community. There is a common need to update VET-teachers' qualifications and competences in the EU. This article deals with VET teacher preparation in Slovakia and briefly describes partial results of ENTANGLE (Entrepreneurship Trainers for VET: A Novel Generation Learning approach) project in which the authors participate. The project has an innovative practical approach to stimulating entrepreneurship among students in VET institutions by providing their teachers with the tools and materials to educate inspire and motivate their students for them to be able to pursue a career as an entrepreneur. The project aims at reaching the biggest number of VET teachers possible and start a lively discussion with them on entrepreneurship teaching and policies in the EU.

Keywords.

Introduction

Vocational education and training has in recent years gained important role in the European social and political agenda. Today's and tomorrow's demands for a highly skilled workforce for the European economy are new and demanding challenges for the teacher and training community. New skills and competencies are needed for success and those skills should be a component part of education.

Nowadays, many European countries indicate high unemployment among young people. Slovakia is an extremely open economy with total annual export and import over 200 % of GDP. Since its independence Slovakia has been all the time characterized by a strong share of employed in industry, regardless changes in other sectors, e.g. a growth in the service sector and dramatic decrease of employed people in agriculture (from 256,489 as of 31st December 1992 to 84,900 in 2009 (LFS), according to the Statistical Office). In 2010, also ISCED 3-4 educated aged 20-24 feature extremely high unemployment rate with 30.6 % - the sixth highest in the EU far over the EU 27 average (18.1 %). Unemployment hits elderly and young people extraordinarily hard as their employability is perceived as lower compared to other age groups by employers. Employers prefer experienced middle age workers who are again available at the market due the crisis and therefore young and elderly people are even more disadvantaged since 2008. (ENTANGLE, summary country reports, 2013, p. 8) "Current economic crisis is considered a truly profound crisis". (Ambrozy, 2010, p. 7) As different parts of the world are experiencing dramatic changes from economic fluctuations, government revolutions, technological innovations, and generational transitions, there is arising a new role of VET in sustaining entrepreneurship and economic development. Quality education is increasingly important for individual countries since it is one of the key factors for economic competitiveness in the global knowledge-based economy. The task of the modern country and education is to increase the competence of the employees, to maintain internationally competitive research and development base and to improve the application of knowledge for the benefit of the society. The system of vocational education contributes to social and economic development. Pressure on continuous changes in vocational education will continue. Increasing competition between providers of education and the demand lasts. Information and knowledge have become the determination factors of economic growth, which very often becomes the synonym of increasing the living standard, connected with the ability of economic subject to save and replace the growth factors and increase competition ability. (Svitačová, Kováčiková, 2010, p. 1786)

Methods and procedures

The goal of the paper is to analyze the system of VET teacher preparation in Slovakia and briefly describe partial results of ENTANGLE project (Entrepreneurship Trainers for VET: A Novel Generation Learning approach) in which the authors participate as a partner of international consortium. The project has an innovative practical approach to stimulating entrepreneurship among students in VET institutions by providing their teachers with the tools and materials to educate inspire and motivate their students for them to be able to pursue a career as an entrepreneur. The ENTANGLE project addresses entrepreneurship in (Secondary) Vocational Education institutes. The project aims at reaching the biggest number of VET teachers possible and start a lively discussion with them on entrepreneurship teaching and policies in the EU.

A review and analysis of relevant text documents and a qualitative methodology is employed.

All partners wrote a country report, which includes general information about the country, demographical and economic statistics about the target group and a qualitative analysis in the form of a summary of a questionnaire from the VET teachers and students. In the paper are summarized only the results of Slovakian partner.

Key points of educational system in Slovakia

Although slightly changed in the 1990s and in 2008, the Slovak education system is still substantially based on the Czechoslovak system as established by a fundamental reform from the 1970s. It featured a strong secondary VET originally designed for 85% of respective age cohort, complemented by a slim, strongly academically oriented general education stream and restrictive access to tertiary education. The education system was designed to supply qualified secondary VET graduates with at least ISCED 3C education level. Thus, the Slovak education system still features a high share of secondary VET graduates and a low share of early school leavers. Many secondary VET school graduates enter universities that dramatically expanded in number of institutions as well as students. Bachelor studies aimed at entering the labour market are however rare and students massively progress to master studies. Post-secondary studies offered by secondary VET schools leading to higher professional level of education (ISCED 5B), although originally highly valued by the labour market, has been weakening, in particular in comparison to university studies boom. Initially, only universities were recognised by legislation as higher education institutions, which hampered development of a non-university segment of tertiary education. (CEDEFOP, 2012)

Compulsory education in Slovakia is 10 years and takes the longest to end of the school year in which child reaches 16 years of age. The tenth year of compulsory school pupils take to attend the high school. The structure of educational system consists of pre-primary education (facilities for pre-school children) primary education (elementary school 1st level, classes 1st- 4th), lower secondary education (elementary school 2nd level, classes 5th - 9th or the lower stage of 8 year gymnasia- prima-quart). Upper secondary education is divided into grammar schools (gymnasia), vocational specialized schools, conservatories (artistic schools). After completion of basic school, students, typically at the age of 15, make their choice of secondary school. They can decide for VET at secondary specialized schools, for conservatory or for grammar school. Tertiary education is provided by universities.

Continuing education includes further professional education, not only to schools and educational institutions but also enterprises to workplaces, as well as civic education and interest. Education in schools belongs to a subsystem of formal education. Further education belongs to a subsystem of non-formal education. Adult education belongs to both subsystems education. Adult education in both subsystems is implemented as an organized activity directed to acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities required for the performance of specific activities, in both subsystems is carried out institutional, and is structured according to the objectives, learning time and support for learning. This is done well in school along the main direction of education, but also in other educational institutions, enterprises, workplaces. On adult education in the current period a considerable degree of participating school system (subsystem formal education). In addition to its primary function while providing a second chance for those who for some reason could not get an education or skills during schooling.

The further education takes place in institutions of further education in the form of various short-term and long-term educational activities: seminars, training programs, courses, part-time studies in secondary schools and universities, complementary, extension, special, or retraining studies. At present, besides secondary schools and higher education institutions nearly 300 various educational establishments provide the further education. The further education is accredited on the basis of the Accreditation Commission of the Ministry of Education for the Further Education.

The accreditation, as the state verification of the competence of an educational institution, is granted by the Ministry of Education on the basis of the approval by its Accreditation Commission. The accreditation is conditional on the relevant professional educational orientation of the institution, project submitted by this institution, which must meet all requirements, appropriate educational documentation of the educational activity, qualified staffing and the appropriate material and technical facilities of this institution. The accreditation is granted for five years. Graduates from accredited further education courses are issued certificates by the respective educational institution, which are valid on the whole territory of Slovakia. The expenditures for the further education are covered partially by participants themselves and partially from the funds of employers, from special-purpose subsidies, from the budget of the Centre of Labour (only for accredited retraining education), from budgets of local self-administration, from contributions by foundations and from other sources.

Despite strong progress in reforming VET since 2008 in Slovakia two weak points have remained unaddressed and must be therefore permanently stressed:

- Low investment in education causes lower quality of equipment and low attractiveness of IVET for young professionals to become teachers or trainers. Thus, even best shaped qualification documents are insufficient provided a quality training staff is not available.
- Low investment in VET research and labour market analyses hampers understanding of labour market needs. Data on transition of graduates into work and national employers' surveys are the most urgently missing tools to identify skills needs and skill gaps at workplace level. (CEDEFOP, 2012, p. 40)

General country analysis

European countries have some similarities and differences as well. Each country has the own economic and political development, but many of them, as was said earlier, have the same actual problem – high level youth unemployment rate. This phenomenon is intensified especially after 2008, when the economic crisis began and continues to this day. The following table provides information about the youth unemployment rate in the partner countries of the project.

Table 1: Youth unemployment rate of each partner's country (Entangle R6 country report WP2, 2013, p. 10)

Country	2010	2011	2012
Cyprus	16,6	22,4	27,8
Netherland	8,7	7,6	9,5
Lithuania	35,3	32,2	26,4
Slovakia	33,9	33,5	34
Spain	41,6	46,4	53,2

The basic pillar VET trainings are clearly reducing youth unemployment.

Entrepreneurship is option how to overcome the contemporary situation; it is a necessary condition for economic growth and development. Modern states converge in treating entrepreneurship as a key economic resource. But entrepreneurship is especially important in the period of structural change and changing global division of labour. Entrepreneurship according to the current demands is important part of education and especially of vocational education. There is a common need to develop and update VET-teachers' qualifications and competences in the EU. There are many reasons, for example: globalization meaning that industries and services need new abilities to meet competition inside and outside the EU; the population in the EU is ageing; the changing vocational qualifications; the pool of unskilled or semi-skilled labour and their willingness to learn new skills are challenging.

VET teachers

The changing nature of the VET practitioner and the constant evolution of the VET sector itself poses challenges to those involved in the many forms of VET teacher preparation in Slovakia. The quality and attention to learning and teaching integral to the professional development of these VET trainee teachers impacts on how they in turn will work with their own students. A range of models are employed to train VET teachers. UNESCO (2001) recommended that vocational teachers should be of the same status as other teachers, and that their preparation for teaching should be over three years.

Access to the teachers' qualification is generally regulated by and subject to the control of a ministerial authority. In almost all EU countries, to qualify as a teacher of vocational training, it is necessary to have a higher education degree followed by teacher training regulated at national level. In some cases the higher education degree can be replaced by a nationally recognized vocational qualification. In most countries the qualifications required of trainers or workplace instructors have not been formally defined. Neither do there appear to be any specific training paths to become a trainer of continuing training in a company or in a training organization. (Cort P., Härkönen A., Volmari K, 2004, p. 23) Teachers contrast with workplace trainers and instructors. While national regulations impose (varying) requirements on staff involved in initial vocational training, there is no formal definition of the qualifications or formal training required to take part in continuing training. The same situation is in Slovakia.

Teachers and trainers in Slovakia

IVET staff is dominantly bound to the education institutions. There are traditionally three categories of VET school teachers officially recognized by the education sector legislation: teachers of general subjects, teachers of vocational subjects and teachers of practical training. The latter category of teachers is involved in practical lessons at school, e.g., in laboratories and practical lessons connected to workplaces specified within curricula and aimed at applying theoretical knowledge gained during theoretical subjects. Trainers are responsible for assisting in gaining respective skills (predominantly manual) during practical training. Although VET in Slovakia is dominantly school-based, in some cases practical training is offered outside the school. Based on an agreement between a school and a company, practical training can be provided directly by the company in its own premises and by its own staff, but under the supervision of the school. These professionals are often called instructors to differentiate between them and trainers from schools.

Teacher training is traditionally offered by universities. VET teachers, who are university graduates from other than teacher programs look for receiving full teacher

qualification by completing complementary pedagogical studies aimed at acquiring of pedagogical competence. All higher education institutions have redesigned their programs in line with the Bologna process and submitted the reconstructed study programs for accreditation. The reform also contributed to emergence of new programs, „*inter alia*“, bachelor studies for VET trainers. Although formal requirements for secondary VET school trainers remained unchanged and tertiary education is not required in contrast to teachers, VET trainers enter universities to achieve a Bachelor degree, allowing them also better remuneration in public sector jobs (including schools). The traditional option to acquire pedagogical competence via non tertiary complementary pedagogical studies has remained preserved, however, losing attractiveness for trainers.

Act No. 317/2009 Coll. on pedagogical staff and professional staff introduced the credit system for standards driven continuing training. Accreditation of continuing training programs is carried out by Accreditation Council for Continuing Training of Pedagogical and Professional Staff established in November 2009 as an advisory body to MŠVVŠ. The law also specifies personal and qualification prerequisites concerning all categories of pedagogical and professional staff for four career levels representing a career path: beginner, independent worker, worker with the first and the second attestation.

Training of secondary school teachers

Secondary school teachers of specific subjects are trained at various university faculties according to their field of study in teacher study programmes. The course lasts for five years and leads to a state final examination. It is offered by: Faculties of Arts, Humanities, Natural Sciences, Physical Education and Sports, and Faculties of Education. Graduates of Technical Universities, Universities of Economics and of the University of Agriculture who wish to teach the subjects of their field of study at secondary school level can follow pedagogical training in accredited Complementary pedagogical study program at the university. For example at Slovak University of Agriculture since 1964 students from different faculties have been trained and acquired the qualification of "Teachers" which gives them the chance to progress in the field of agricultural education and training. This qualification also gives the opportunity of the students of SUA to advance in the area of pedagogy.

Complementary pedagogical studies for teachers of vocational subjects are organized according to the law. Applicants have to be MSc graduates (e.g. of agriculture, forestry, horticulture or similar specialisations) it is organised mostly as a 4 semester combined study finished by final exam and it is possible to study also concurrently with corresponding MSc course at university (parallel study). Graduates obtain pedagogical qualification for teaching respective vocational subjects at secondary schools. The study program of Complementary pedagogical studies is at least 200 hours and lasts maximum 36 months, it is divided to 3

modules: pedagogical-psychological, module of special didactics, educational practice and module in field specialization.

Increasing teacher competences

Up-to-date requirements for the educational content which formulate the expert in his field: the educational content shall be in accordance with the demands of the labour market; modern module programmes shall be introduced; people shall be boosted to self-plan their lifelong learning and their career progress;

The courses for students are aimed at introducing extra skills for the future in relation to the specialties they have chosen. Students have to develop new competencies and skills needed for their future profession and therefore the theme of competences in education is very often used in educational theory and also in the practice. There are many various discussions about key competencies in education and teacher professional competencies.

Although a focus on key competences can be seen in the 2007 LLL strategy, a new LLL strategy adopted in 2011 highlighted their importance again with the criticism that the earlier strategy covered this issue “only at low level” and did not develop “the method of their acquisition”. The Action plan to the 2011 LLL strategy indicated in its Measure 4.2 creating a multimedia platform in support of autonomous improvement of key competences by means of learning opportunities provided by this platform. The following key competences are explicitly stressed: communication in foreign languages,

digital competence, social and civic competences and entrepreneurship. (CEDEFOP, 2012, p. 34) As seen from the strategy, we can highlight the entrepreneurship among the competences needed to develop in educational systems with regard to our project. To achieve quality education is needed also focus on teacher development.

Authors Cort, Härkönen, Volmari (2004) point to some of the skills and knowledge teachers need to acquire and teacher training to provide. These include:

- new pedagogical skills in line with the learner centered approach of modern pedagogical theory (‘pedagogical update’) and on-the-job learning techniques now being offered to trainees;
- up-to-date ‘vocational’ skills related to modern technologies and work practices (‘vocational update’);
- awareness of the needs of business and employers;
- skills for team working and networking;
- managerial, organisational and communications skills.

Pedagogical and vocational skills; pedagogical and vocational update

Teachers and trainers in VET require two distinct sets of skills. They need *pedagogical skills*: ability to analyse and identify student needs, ability to design training programmes to meet these needs, ability to teach and ability to assess the educational and professional outcome of this teaching. These are *generic skills* needed by all teachers regardless of the discipline in which they work.

VET teachers also need *vocational skills* and knowledge. They need to understand and perform the tasks trainees will be asked to perform when they leave school and begin work – and also have a firm grounding in the theory underlying these skills.

In the past, VET teachers acquired their pedagogical and vocational skills at the beginning of their careers. Today this is no longer possible. National VET systems are in continuous change. Educational theory suggests innovative teaching methods, some involving the use of technology. And the workplace is changing faster still, both in terms both of technology and working practices.

In this new situation, it is essential that teachers should continuously *update* their pedagogical and vocational skills. In what follows we will refer to these processes as *pedagogical update* and *vocational update*. (Cort P., Härkönen A., Volmari K., 2004, p. 10)

New target groups: VET teachers today have to deal with more diverse target groups than ever before. One of the effects of lifelong learning is an increasing number of adults entering VET programs. A critical challenge for VET is to find ways of teaching adults which take proper account of their previous professional and life experience, their variable skills and their attitudes, which may be very different to those of younger people. In some cases it may be necessary to deal with significant resistance to learning. *Changing paradigms in educational theory*: recent years have seen rapid changes in educational theory which now focuses on learning rather than techniques for ‘transmitting’ information by teachers. The teacher’s role becomes that of a ‘coach’ or ‘facilitator’. This calls upon teachers to plan and differentiate their teaching to take account of students’ different learning styles. Optimal teaching requires teachers to apply a broad range of teaching methods, including project

work, workshops, case studies, etc. The challenge for VET is how to integrate these methods into national VET systems and to equip teachers to use the new methods in their day-to-day classroom practice.

ICT development: one of the key technological developments of the last three decades has been the rapid development of ICT which has invaded every field of business and now has a significant impact on education. Today all VET teachers require general skills in ICT – not just because their students will need ICT skills to meet the needs of the labour market – but because teachers themselves are increasingly expected to use ICT as a teaching tool, as well as for administration. To keep up with students and their demands VET teachers need to find innovative ways of using a computer in their jobs.

Teachers using ICT “can motivate students, curriculum demonstrate, demonstration induce problematic situation. The advantage of using these technologies are: speed, accuracy, operability, easy to operate. In addition, ICT can not only listen and inform, but also to approximate various technical knowledge in addition to their pupils can directly manipulate.” (Host’ovecký, Štubňa, 2012, pg. 139)

This means they have to become familiar not only with e-learning but also with ‘blended models’ in which e-learning is integrated with classroom teaching, group work, seminars, etc. This poses the problem of how best to provide teachers with the technical and non-technical skills they need to take advantage of these opportunities.

Labour market development: The institutions that provide vocational education and training exist to serve the business community, which demands that young people leaving vocational training should have immediately useful skills. If teachers fail to keep up to date with new technologies and new working practices, vocational schools will produce candidates who do not have the skills the labour market requires. One of the key challenges facing VET is how to guarantee that teachers’ ‘vocational skills’ keep up to date with developments in business.

Another challenge, also stemming from developments in the labour market, is how to keep existing teachers and how to attract suitable candidates for the teaching profession. In a ‘knowledge society’ the teaching profession is of central importance. The ideal of lifelong learning cannot be achieved without professional teachers. This is a challenge in which both government and professional organisations have a vital role to play.

Internationalisation: internationalising VET teacher skills is a serious challenge. Market developments imply that to an increasing extent national VET systems are called upon to include an international dimension in the training they provide. Also the action programmes promoted by the EU Commission bring this dimension into the classroom. For teachers, areas of critical importance include language skills, knowledge of other countries, knowledge of trades and trade requirements in other countries, intercultural communicative skills, etc. (Cort P., Härkönen A., Volmari K., 2004, p. 13-14)

Results

These partial results were achieved in the Work Package 2 of the Entangle Project. **Entangle consortium is composed of seven partners from six European Union countries.** The consortium consists of training material and methodology developers, business training and support organisations, VET organisations, universities that train future VET teachers and the EU-wide network association of VET providers (**Fundación Maimona - Spain, First Elements Euroconsultants Ltd. – Cyprus, EfVET –European Forum of technical and Vocational Education and Training, European Leadership Institute –ELIN- Lithuania, CETEI- under Joan XXIII Foundation- Spain, Faculty of Economics and Management – Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra- Slovakia)**

The aim of the project is to equip VET teachers to teach students the emerging skills of entrepreneurship with a focus on the (start-up) micro enterprise. VET students who finish their studies are usually expected to continue their education elsewhere or start a job. Some former students however start up their own firm. Most teachers are unaware of this next step a student takes after graduation. Relations between teachers and world of work should be improved, especially the relations between VET teachers and former VET students of (start-up) micro firms. By applying the results of this project in VET institutes:

- 1) teachers gain insight to competences that are required for the entrepreneurs of today and tomorrow,
- 2) teachers can involve entrepreneurs (former students) in the classroom and together address the students of today, and
- 3) teachers can better interest, support and educate VET students to pursue a career as an entrepreneur.

The ENTANGLE project entered in 2013 its second year of activity and thus started to take shape. In the last year, partners have been conducted a research in their countries to determine the current situation of entrepreneurship teaching in vocational education. This included the collection of background information on education systems, curricula, and conducting interviews with both VET teachers and students to get fresh information right from the work floor.

A series of materials were then analysed in depth to determine the best way to use them developing the ENTANGLE Training Materials. Those were the following: the VIPIA training tool – which is a training package for would-be entrepreneurs, the BDF Methodology, additional materials provided by partners and the conclusions of the brainstorming sessions. As a result, a map on how to use the materials has been developed using the basis of the BMC model which is a tool used to analyse business model or to plan a business model innovation. (Newsletter #2, 2014, p. 1)

In the next steps VET teachers in all partners' countries will test the course in order to provide partners with suggestions to make it usable in different contexts. A draft of the course for teachers was discussed during the project meetings. The main reference for that is the model, that will be supported by ICT and pedagogical tools.

The consortium was able to monitor the situation of entrepreneurship practices and entrepreneurial teaching in the partners countries. Qualitative research used a questionnaire broadly distributed in VET institutes and collected the opinions of teachers and students.

The survey results highlighted a great difference among (and sometimes even within) partners' countries. In particular as regards:

- Law facilities in order to create an enterprise
- Entrepreneurial approach
- Different levels of government help for developing business
- Influence of the education system in boosting the entrepreneurial spirit

However, lacks of the system and the wishes perceived by teachers and students had quite of lot of surprising similarities. The following quotations are an example of that: (T=teacher; S=student). (Newsletter #2, 2014, p. 2)

Do you think that knowledge of the VET lectors is helpful for starting business?

T-ES1: Yes, but teachers need more training on this issue.

T-ES2: Yes, but only if the teacher has been directly related to business creation, or if he/she has worked in a company.

T-LT1: Yes, but most of schools lack human resources thus entrepreneurship must be delivered by teachers who are not active in this field.

S-LT2: Yes, but teachers who teach entrepreneurship usually have never had a business themselves

S-CY1: Teachers certainly contribute to the start –up of an enterprise because their knowledge and this experience help a lot.

T-SK1: Yes, but there is lack of entrepreneurship education contained in our curriculum during the study.

Sometimes teachers think instead that the responsibility is more on students:

T-ES3: Yes, we transmit them the knowledge. But students do not have either the maturity or the intention necessities to start a business.

Entrepreneurship is often not offered as part of the VET curricula, but even with it is, there's not enough practical orientation to the labour market.

A very positive result for the ENTANGLE consortium is represented by many proposals done by teachers, which are in the direction of the project outcomes and objectives.

T-ES6: It is necessary to introduce units related with entrepreneurship in the training programs.

T-ES3: It is necessary to train VET teachers in entrepreneurship, especially to those teachers from areas that are not directly related to the business world.

T-ES4: It is necessary to increase the hours devoted to training entrepreneurship, so this way in the near future entrepreneurial culture would be considered as an important part of education.

T-LT3: Entrepreneurship being the secondary occupation means no time for making engaging classes, a comprehensive portal with tips & tricks would help a lot.

T-NL1: It would be great to have materials that lead up to constructing a true practical final result, like a business model

In general, teachers would like to acquire the knowledge about specific content about business models, ICT tools and pedagogy; instead students' expectations are to improve soft skills and to receive more concrete ideas.

Qualitative Analyses - VET teachers in Slovakia – results from questionnaires:

We were finding several categories of the qualitative research and selected following theoretical groups: valuation of VET study, number of lessons, range of the practical training, study program, quality of VET lecturers, socio-economic situation in country, added value of VET study.

1. valuation of VET study:

The documents that the student obtains when finishing the entrepreneurial course, would be the actual diploma as it is integrated in the education system (For those courses that have the entrepreneurial courses in their education) or students gain Certificate after completing the entrepreneurship education.

2. number of lessons:

Amount of contact lesson really varies: since 4 till 90. It is up to the subject and study program.

3. range of the practical training

The answers to this question vary a lot between the teachers, because it depends on each subject. Ratio between theoretical and practical lessons is following: 70:30.

4. study program:

The answer to this question depends on the subject that each teacher imparts. Type of study program is followed: pedagogy, psychology, educational technologies, engineering pedagogy, Course consisting of The Elements of Management, Company Administration, Accountancy, Calculations and Costs and Financial Management.

5. quality of VET lecturers:

Knowledge of the VET lecturers is contributive for starting business (for example theoretical information, experiences, evaluating of business plans, etc.). Students receive theoretical information for business and advices for praxis. Teachers give students their experiences etc. Creating, discussing and evaluating of own business plan is contributive for starting business. Practice teacher can point out problems practical.

6. socio-economic situation in country:

Mentions about the risk of failure and its legal and social consequences in the context of entrepreneurship in Slovakia:- the risk of failure is high and the legal and economic consequences are proportionate to the risk. The situation is getting worse because of economic crisis. It is possible to start again (by failure), the entrepreneur have always chance for success. The risk of failure is here nowadays, but it is possible to start again and chance for success always is here. Current climate for start-up according to VET Lecturers: Here is possibility for entrepreneurship, but the situation is getting worse. the worsening of conditions for doing business, the low index of the business environment, the persistent economic crisis, insufficient activity of the Government, not addressed barriers to business, low clarity and stability legislation, low aid from country to business

7. added value of VET study:

Yes, knowledge of the VET lecturers is contributive for starting business (for example theoretical information, experiences, evaluating of business plans, etc.). Students receive theoretical information for business and advices for praxis. Teachers give students their experiences etc. Creating, discussing and evaluating of own business plan is contributive for starting business. Practice teacher can point out problems practical.

Qualitative Analyses- VET students in Slovakia – results from questionnaires:

We were finding several categories of the qualitative research and selected following theoretical groups: motivation of the attending, outputs of VET study, expectation of VET study, satisfaction with the study program.

1. motivation of the attending:

That study will be contributive for them, they don't have time for university study, if he or she was long time as unemployed, so decided to do something or they want to study something because didn't get to the university. Most of the students chose their education based on the personal interest, the broad subjects that were offered, the practical approach that the VET institution offers and because some subjects, were only offered by a specific VET institution. The entrepreneurial courses are actually part of the overall study and compulsory. Therefore, the students attend the course.

2. outputs of VET study:

Some students plan to begin start-up, but afraid whether business idea will be fruitful and will be successful.

3. expectation of VET study:

They don't know what can expect from the VET study, it's up to the age of respondents. Older people know that need information's, younger people kill time at the course.

4. satisfaction with the study program:

VET students have mention that VET lectors have only theoretical knowledge, not practical, so that's factor cause that VET lectors aren't contributive for starting business.

On the other hand VET students are satisfied with the level of course.

Conclusion

Summary for VET teacher

In most countries, students attend VET courses to get certified. In some countries do not give a certificate. In most countries, programs VET courses on entrepreneurship, but must also provide that the labor market is asking for, that such courses technical orientation. The level and quality of VET teachers is mean and basically sufficient. Students feel that they lack practical business experience. Can anyone advise them to start a business, who had never been taken. This is a key question. On the other hand, echoed the opinion that the legal theorist, follows more rules, laws and the possibility to get the money to start a business, so it is actually beneficial to the student. VET teachers are generally helpful, but too theoretical. Socio-economic situation is almost identical in all partner countries. After the crisis began in 2008, a similar situation occurs, unemployment is increasing. (ENTANGLE Consortium, 2013, p. 20)

Summary for VET student

Students are attending VET courses for various reasons. For example, in Spain there sending their family. Getting the course is easier than getting into college. In the Netherlands, are considered the course to be very practical. Students are satisfied with the programs and many of them would also like to start a business. Problem is that they do not know in what way they would like to do business. At this point it is necessary to reflect on the justification study to start a business. Potential student should know what he wanted to do a VET institution would have only had to show the way how to do it. It should not just be studying killer time. Their expectations are reasonable sometimes a bit exaggerated. Improve your softskills, getting business ideas making money. (ENTANGLE Consortium , 2013, p. 24)

To conclude the results we can say that there are many similarities between partner countries of the project despite there are also some differences. But the common aim is to improve quality of vocational education for the future social and economic prosperity of the countries.

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This paper originated as a part of the research project Entrepreneurship Trainers for VET: A Novel Generation Learning approach – ENTANGLE. *This project has been funded with support from the European Commission.*

Community Development and Divergent Forces in Philippine State Universities and Colleges: Developing a Protocol in Evaluating Extension Projects Towards Community Empowerment

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Abstract

Divergent paradigms operate in SUCs, which influence the performance of extension projects towards attainment of full empowerment as the ultimate goal implied by the universally-accepted definition of community development. In particular, a livelihood and environment project of Cebu Normal University implemented in Caputatan Norte, Medillin, Cebu was assessed based on five (5) primary parameters and two (2) secondary parameters. A novel protocol using Delphi Method shows was developed and used for this particular study, which could be adapted in evaluating the performance of community extension projects.

In this particular case, the performance of CNU livelihood and environment project falls between “demonstration” and “community organizing”. The evaluation shows that there is still a need to reinforce activities to the ultimate goal. However, it is also implied that the secondary parameters are more robust indicators in assessing the outcomes of the project implementation towards full community empowerment.

Keywords. Community Development, Empowerment, Self-Sufficiency, Dependency, Extension Programs

Introduction

Paradigms are important foundations in decision making and outcomes. In fact, they are central to the way decisions we make and the nature of outcomes. In community development, a paradigm is very important as it provides a framework for decisions made in a development project and the evaluation of its outcomes.

According to Dadzie (2005), Community Development is a “development [that] is the unfolding of people’s individual and social imagination in defining goals and inventing ways to approach them... [and] is the continuing process of the liberation of peoples and societies.” In this context, community empowerment is central to the formulation and implementation of a project. It is the ultimate goal. Henceforth, it implies that the emphasis of community development paradigm is on the process of implementation to attain this goal.

On the other hand, Philippine State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) are mandated to “promote and enhance the extension function of HEIs” *viz.* instruction and research functions (Philippine Republic Act 8292, RA 7722). The three-fold functions of SUCs, and hence the faculty members as extension workers, provide limited time and resources allocated for extension projects. This hinders attainment of community empowerment since a large portion of faculty members’ time and the SUCs’ resources are devoted to the performance in instruction and research. The trilogy of functions in SUCs promotes short-term outcomes-based projects.

Henceforth, these two concepts (community empowerment and SUCs Trilogy of Functions) operate opposite to each other in the SUC context, which I call as Divergent Forces Paradigm (DFP). DFP is used as the framework of this study. Within this context, a fundamental question needs to be addressed: *Would community empowerment be maximized given the divergence of community development paradigm and the SUC trilogy of functions?*

Responding to this question is very essential in that SUCs are obligated to fulfill these three-fold functions, yet it is also important for them to promote the universally-accepted definition of community development (*i.e.* community empowerment) through meaningful extension projects. Determining the influence of the movement between these two paradigms would determine the project’s performance, *i.e.* either promoting self-sufficiency or dependency.

In particular, this study focuses on the Livelihood and Environment (bio-intensive organic gardening) Extension Project under the E-HELP (Education, Health, Environment, Livelihood, and Peace) Program of Cebu Normal University. This project is aimed at providing economic alleviation and enhancing health conditions of

the people of *Barangay* Caputatan Norte, Medillin, North of Cebu through the implementation of a bio-intensive gardening method (Laplap 2009). A *barangay* is the smallest political unit in the Philippines.

This study assessed the performance of the Livelihood and Environment (bio-intensive organic gardening) Extension Project of Cebu Normal University based on the universally-accepted definition of community development—i.e. developing communities that are self-sufficient and self-reliant (community empowerment).

This question was answered using two types of parameters: 1) extension styles employed on the priority or primary parameters (i.e. Development concept of Extension, Program Objectives Formulation, Project Objectives Formulation, Program/Project Phases, and Evaluation Plan); and 2) outcomes of the secondary parameters relative to the objectives of the extension project. It provides hypothetical outcomes by shifting the emphasis between the Community Development Paradigm (represented by the primary parameters) and the SUCs Trilogy of Functions (presented by the secondary parameters).

Apart from evaluating the performance of this particular project, this study provides a new protocol with which other extension projects may be evaluated using the *Divergent Forces Paradigm*.

Theoretical-conceptual framework

In State Universities and Colleges, as like other HEIs, the Trilogy of Functions (Instruction-Research-Extension) is one paradigm which strongly influences the emphasis of extension projects. Given the bulk of time and resources required to fulfill all the three functions, it promotes extension activities which emphasizes on outcomes. On the other hand, the universally-accepted definition of community development is to promote community empowerment (Dadzie 2005), which focuses on the process.

According to Dadzie (2005), "Development is the unfolding of people's individual and social imagination in defining goals and inventing ways to approach them. Development is the continuing process of the liberation of peoples and societies. There is development when they are able to assert their autonomy and, in self-reliance, to carry out activities of interest to them. To develop is to be or to become. Not only to have." K.K.S. Dadzie, Director General for International Economic Cooperative for the United Nations.

Community empowerment as promoted by the UN PCV (2005) emphasizes on the process to attain its ultimate goal of community empowerment, and considers participation as a *means (or process)*. In contrast, the SUC's Trilogy of Functions is rather straightforward and it emphasizes on the outcomes. It treats participation as an *end (or outcome)*.

These two forces operating in Philippine State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) are situated in opposite poles, exerting influence and push the performance of an extension project towards community empowerment at one end, and dependency at the other end. Simply put, the tug-of-war between these forces pushes the performance within the *outcome- Process continuum*, or *dependency—self-sufficiency continuum*. I call this as the *Divergent Forces Paradigm in Community Development*. Figure 1 shows the theoretical-conceptual framework of the study.

The end result of the tag-of-war of these two forces was measured using both the priority (or primary) parameters, and the secondary parameters. In particular, this study focused on five priority or primary parameters: 1) Development concept of Extension; 2) Program Objectives Formulation; 3) Project Objectives Formulation; 4) Program/Project Phases; and 5) Evaluation Plan. On the other hand, the evaluation of the secondary parameters was focused on two indicators of actual community involvement: 1) Household Involvement in the Project Implementation and 2) Community Participation in future activities.

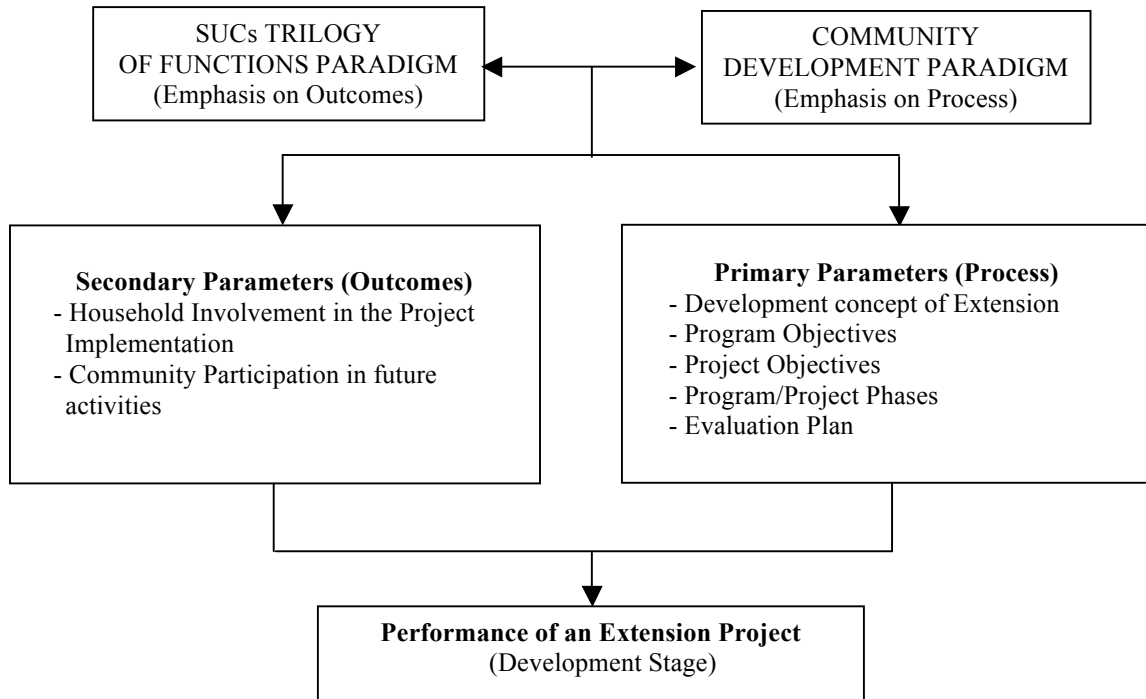


Figure 1. Theoretical-Conceptual Framework of the Study

Both the primary and secondary parameters indicate the performance of the extension project as a whole. The performance is measured by the stage of community development that it promotes. Based on the universally-accepted paradigm of community development, the extension styles the program/project promotes could be translated into any of the four (4) stages of community development, from dependency to self-sufficiency (UN PCV 2005), as follows: 1. Direct Service, 2) Demonstration, 3) Organizing with Others, and 4) Indirect Service. This paradigm is shown in figure 2.

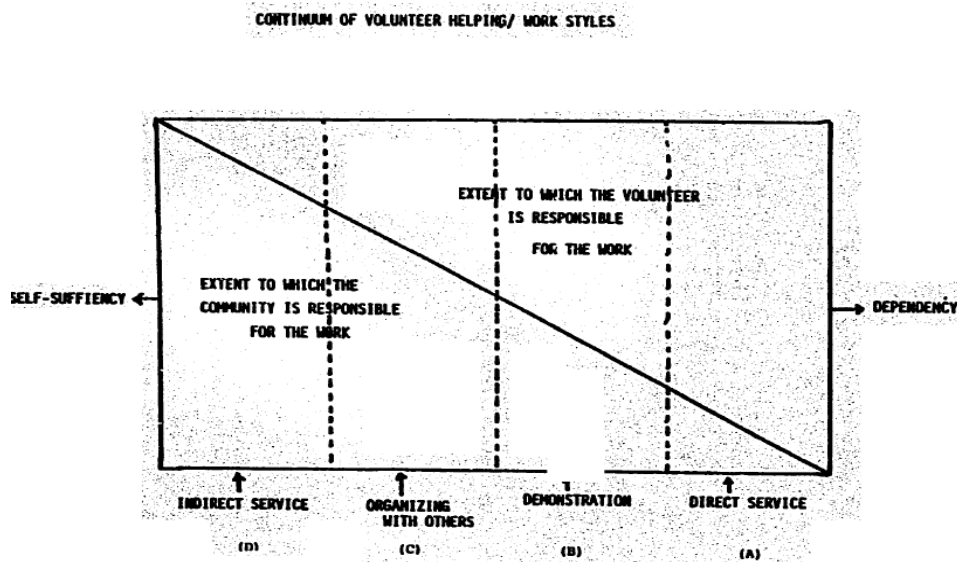


Figure 2. UN PCV Stages (adapted from Dadzie, 2009).

Methodology

Evaluation of Framework of Primary and Secondary Parameters

Five (5) extension workers who were trained on community development (they serve as experts for this process) were gathered. The process of scoring employed the Delphi technique. Based on the UN PCV framework shown in Figure 2, the rubrics shown in table 1 were used. The rubrics served as guide for the experts in scoring the primary and secondary parameters. Generally, the scoring was capped at 3 rounds max, when majority of the experts reached one particular score, with variance no more than 1 standard point. The largest variance was only 0.50 (standard deviation less than 1.0) attaining close to uniform scores from five (5) experts.

Table 1. Rubrics Used in Evaluating Performance of Primary and Secondary Parameters.

Rating	Project Performance based on Extension Style	Description (based on the IEC for the United Nations)
4	Indirect Service	The volunteer responds to a range of situations and problems raised in volunteer work by helping others solve their own problems; the volunteer does not direct any of the work but concentrates on helping the people define and refine their perceived need. Help is given only on request, rarely initiated by the volunteer. The volunteer may even come and go, leaving the project to do something else and thus reinforcing the autonomy of the group. The way the volunteer works is primarily clarifying, asking questions, listening a lot, and facilitating.
3	Organizing with Others	The volunteer encourages and stimulates promising counterparts and others in the community, generally-although not always-working with people rather than directly on projects. The focus is on building leadership and helping a group or organization develop which will continue the work, the primary work is behind the scenes using influence, assisting as a resource in developing alternative solutions which the people choose or generate themselves, serving in a training capacity, occasionally serving as a model in doing work, and so on.
2	Demonstration	The volunteer spends most of the time demonstrating to others how to do something, but also spends a lot of time doing it him/herself. Most often the responsibility is shared with one or two counterparts. The work is a combination of direct service and training /demonstrations, often with the volunteer sharing some responsibilities with a promising local leader or an assigned counterpart.
1	Direct Service	Volunteer mostly does the work, gets a project organized, provides a needed service where none exists, and generally takes the initiative for making things happen. In most instances, this means that the volunteer takes responsibility for the action – and even if involved, will look to the volunteer for action and leadership.

Computing for the Composite Score of Primary Parameters

The computation for the composite score of the primary parameters is given by:

$$Y_1 = \alpha X_1 + \beta X_2 + \gamma X_3 + \delta X_4 + \varepsilon X_5$$

Where: Y_1 =composite score of primary parameters

X_1 =Development concept of Extension $\alpha = 0.10$

X_2 =Program Objectives $\beta = 0.15$

X_3 =Project Objectives $\gamma = 0.15$

X_4 = Program/Project Phases $\delta = 0.30$

X_5 =Evaluation Plan $\varepsilon = 0.30$

Computing for the Composite Score of Secondary Parameters

The computation for the composite score of the secondary parameters is given by:

$$Y_2 = \lambda X_6 + \varphi X_7$$

Where: X_6 =Household Involvement in the Implementation $\lambda = 0.60$
 X_7 = Community Participation in future activities $\varphi = 0.40$

The coefficients of X_i ($i=7$) was determined by first ranking the parameters (5 items for primary parameters, and 2 for secondary parameters). The ranking was done with extension workers who were knowledgeable on community empowerment who served as “experts”, using the Delphi technique.

Computing for the Project Performance: The Outcome-Process Frontier

The performance (Z_i) of the extension project was determined by aggregating the composite scores of Primary (Y_1) and Secondary Parameters (Y_2), and is given by:

$$Z_i = Y_1 + Y_2$$

Where: Z_i = Project Performance based on Extension Style, $i = 5$

Five different performances are represented by the varying emphasis between primary and secondary parameters, as follows:

- $Z_i = Y_1$ (100% primary parameters composite score)
- $Z_2 = 0.75Y_1 + 0.25Y_2$ (75% primary and 25% secondary)
- $Z_i = 0.50Y_1 + 0.50Y_2$ (50% primary and 50% secondary)
- $Z_4 = 0.25Y_1 + 0.75Y_2$ (25% primary and 75% secondary)
- $Z_i = Y_2$ (100% secondary parameters composite score)

The computed Z_i of the project determines its performance as situated within the dependency—self-sufficiency continuum.

Results and discussion

The results show that the extension styles employed are either “demonstration” or “community organizing”, with several components showing temporary impacts towards empowerment. Table 2 shows the development concept of the extension worker of the project.

Table 2. Development Concept of Extension Workers (X_i).

Items	Mean*	Project Performance based on Extension Style
1. A development worker should proceed with vegetable garden and school construction projects which most people’s ‘real’ needs, even though the need they themselves feel and express may be different <i>(negative statement).</i>	1.20 (±0.447)	Demonstration (lower bound)**
2. A development worker’s views should be responsive to the local people’s expressed needs instead of the central government’s, no matter what the difference may be.	3.80 (±0.447)	Indirect Service
3. The world hunger situation mandates rapid change which can only be affected by using the best available agricultural technologies <i>(negative statement).</i>	2.00 (±0.707)	Demonstration
4. It is more important to help develop local leadership, working with one or two people who will carry on, than to get a lot of project work done which depends on volunteer knowhow and drive.	3.80 (±0.447)	Indirect Service

cont...

Table 2. Development Concept of Extension Workers ...

Items	Mean*	Project Performance based on Extension Style
5. the most effective volunteer is the one who understands his host community's weaknesses and helps the people to understand (them) by reasoning rather than any imposition from above.	3.80 (± 0.447)	Indirect Service
6. Providing agricultural and health education in schools is a more effective means of unlocking the seemingly hopeless developmental problems of the third world than attempting to change adult attitudes and ideas which have been deeply ingrained through years of experience (<i>negative statement</i>).	1.20 (± 0.447)	Demonstration (lower bound)**
MEAN	2.63 (± 0.274)	Community Organizing

*scoring system of negative statements is opposite.

** impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves, they will return to default state.

The development concept of extension workers is not clearly defined towards community empowerment. For example, while they support the idea that the community's needs must be given preference, they also embrace imposition of what should be the development for the local community by strongly agreeing on the statements which signify top-down approach. On the other hand, program objectives reflect the extension styles promoted with regards community development, as shown in Table 3. Almost all of the objectives were geared towards the second stage of development – demonstration.

Table 3. Development Orientation of Program Objectives (X_2).

Program Objectives	Mean	Project Performance based on Extension Style
1. Demonstrate reliance in initiating appropriate solutions to problems arising from education, health, environment, livelihood and peace.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
2. Uplift quality education in terms of improvement in education indicators.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
3. Reinforce knowledge and skills of uneducated community people.	2.00 (± 0.707)	Demonstration
4. Demonstrate independent delivery of education among community people.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
5. Improve health status of community people.	2.20 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
6. Enhance health-seeking behaviors of the community people.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
7. To equip community people with environment-friendly practices.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
8. To instill knowledge and awareness on environmental protection.	1.60 (± 0.548)	Demonstration
9. To equip and hone economically-needed skills of the community people in aid to augment household income.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
10. To increase the marketability of the community people in job hunting.	2.00 (± 0.000)	Demonstration
11. To maintain a peaceful and harmonious environment that is conducive for healthy human living interaction.	2.80 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing
MEAN	1.93 (± 0.277)	Demonstration

*impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to prior stage.

Of the 11 objectives of the E-HELP Program, two (2) promoted community organizing which develop local strength towards community empowerment. However, one objective shows rating at the lower bound, meaning that sustainability in this aspect cannot be assured. This stage still has the tendency to go back to the lower stage

if it will not be re-enforced to give emphasis on the process. With regards the development orientations of the project objectives, it is interesting to note that the project has succeeded in encouraging community organizing, as shown in table 4.

Table 4. Development Orientation of Project Objectives (X_3).

Project Objectives	Mean	Project Performance based on Extension Style
1. Household Involvement in the Project Implementation	3.00 (± 0.707)	Community Organizing
2. Community Participation in future activities	2.80 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing
MEAN	2.90 (± 0.418)	Community Organizing

In both objectives, experts agreed that the project promoted community organizing. This is supported by the fact that the extension workers focused on developing local capability by identifying and training a local leaders (identified as Animators) who are expected to lead the community towards full empowerment. But still, this performance does not yet warrant indirect service provisions given that CNU extension workers still provide significant amount of time and resources. With regards the implementation of the project, different stages took varying styles but dominated by the demonstration extension style (Table 5).

Table 5. Development Orientation of Implementation Phases (X_4).

Phases	Mean	Project Performance based on Extension Style
1. Survey of the Area/Sitio for BIG by the extension workers	1.20 (± 0.447)	Demonstration (lower bound)*
2. Building a Nursery for the Seedlings by extension workers and identified local leaders	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
3. Plant Identification by extension workers	2.00 (± 0.707)	Demonstration
4. Classification of Plants extension workers	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
5. Planting of the Identified Plants in "Bio-Intensive Garden" (BIG) in the nursery extension workers and local	2.20 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
6. Harvesting of Plant	3.20 (± 0.447)	Indirect Service (lower bound)*
7. Marketing of Plants	3.80 (± 0.447)	Indirect Service
MEAN	2.29 (± 0.267)	Community Organizing (lower bound)*

* impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to default state.

The implementation of the project promotes demonstration, which do not necessarily result long-term community empowerment. Given the nature of the implementation phases, the local community still depends on the existence of the extension workers. What is problematic with this approach is that local community may intermittently take their responsibilities for as long as they see that they are being monitored by the extension workers. Otherwise, efforts from the local leaders may not be sufficient to affect sustainable community organizing. However, this can also be sustained depending on the commitment of the local leaders to bring the whole community towards full empowerment.

Related to the preceding discussion, local communities still need to be continuously monitored to initiate community organizing. Table 6 shows the extension performance of the project evaluation plan wherein the local community is capable of community organizing, but with effective monitoring by the extension workers. In the absence of such monitoring, local community still have the tendency to go back to dependency. To abate

such scenario, there is a need to reinforce emphasis on the process to push the local community towards self-sufficiency and empowerment.

Table 6. Development Orientation of Evaluation Plan (X_5).

Phases	Mean	Project Performance based on Extension Style
A periodic monitoring of the planting time, growth and harvesting will be done by extension workers in the duration of and until the termination of the project	2.20 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing (lower bound)*

* impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to default state.

For the secondary parameters, the objectives of the project are: 1) to teach the bio-intensive gardening method to the local community, and 2) to provide additional income through community gardening. In these objectives, the project extension performance fall within the “demonstration” stage, with the first objective attaining a mean score of 1.20(± 0.447) (X_6) and the second objective with mean score of 1.80(± 0.447) (X_7). The first objective has the tendency to revert to direct service (and hence promotes dependency among the local community) if not to be reinforced with an emphasis on the process where local community provide counterparts.

In totality, the composite performances of the parameters are shown in **table 7**. The composite performance of the primary parameters was towards community organizing, albeit in the lower bound. On the other hand, secondary parameters fall short in that they encouraged community dependency, with a rating falling within the “demonstration” stage.

Table 7. Composite ratings of primary and secondary parameters.

Parameters	Composite Rating	Project Performance based on Extension Style
Primary	2.34	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
Secondary	1.44	Demonstration (lower bound)*

* impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to default state.

Both primary and secondary parameters provided extension services in which extension workers demonstrated to the local communities how things were done. This is apparent with the fact that they were the ones who actually did most of the work, and sharing some workloads to animators who are viewed as the counterpart from the local community.

Depending on the weights given to primary and secondary parameters, the project performance ranges from “demonstration” (*the extension workers are mainly responsible for the work*) and “community organizing” (*the community is mainly responsible for the work*). Nevertheless, the project has not reached the stage where it should provide indirect service to promote full community empowerment, as shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Project Performance taking into account weights of primary and secondary parameters.

Varying combinations of emphasis between primary and secondary parameters	Project Rating	Project Performance based on Extension Style
Z1 (100% Primary)	2.34	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
Z2 (75% Primary and 25% Secondary)	2.11	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
Z3 (50% Primary and 50% Secondary)	1.89	Demonstration
Z4 (25% Primary and 75% Secondary)	1.66	Demonstration
Z5 (100% Secondary)	1.44	Demonstration (lower bound)*

* Impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to default state.

If full weights were given to secondary parameters, the performance of the project leans towards encouraging dependency through emphasis on direct services. On the other hand, if full weights were allocated on primary parameters, the project performance leans towards community organizing (at the lower bound) as the maximum extension style it emphasized. Either way, the project performance fell short of the ultimate goal of the universally-accepted definition of community development. This implies that the project formulation and implementation still need to give more emphasis on the process from which full community empowerment will be attained.

Personal communications with extension workers and the director of CNU extension program provide empirical evidences of the target community's (i.e. Barangay Caputatan Norte) capability in community organizing (where the community is responsible for the work) as evidenced by the awards they received for participating in various events that are linked with this extension project, such as the E-GWEN (expanded Green and Wholesome Environment that Nurtures, a development project of the Cebu Province and Ramon Aboitiz Foundation, Inc. or RAFI) award as Outstanding Barangay under the Clean and Green Project, and other awards given by the Municipality of Medillin during the Nutrition Month held last July 2012. These are manifestations of effective community organizing by the local leaders. However, there is still a need to monitor progress of the community and re-enforce more activities focusing on the project processes that would involve the community to reach the height of self-sufficiency and self-reliance. The strength of the Caputatan Norte on community organizing, however, may not be sustainable because activities focusing on the process still needs to be re-enforced in order to push the local community further towards full empowerment. Otherwise, all efforts may be put in vain since a change in leadership may revert back the community into the Demonstration stage in the absence of an effective leadership, with only the identified *animators* continuing on with these activities.

In a larger context, the emphasis on top-bottom approach used in extension works in the Philippines is reflective of the policies the country has promulgated and enacted. For instance, SUCs are mandated to "(m) to establish research and extension centers of the SUC where such will promote the development of the latter;"... "(u) to set up the adoption of modern and innovative modes of transmitting knowledge such as the use of information technology, the dual system, open learning, community laboratory, etc., for the promotion of greater access to higher education.." (RA 8292). These provisions are focused on the development of the SUC and the transmission of information from SUCs, which clearly manifests a top-down approach when extension works are carried out in communities. The performance of the Bio-intensive gardening based on the development paradigm used in this study is a reflection of such mandate.

Conclusion

The force which is exerted by the emphasis of SUCs on the Trilogy of Functions (competing demands to simultaneously perform on Instruction, Research and Extension) is more evident than the force towards attaining community empowerment. The Livelihood and Environment Extension Project fell short of promoting complete autonomy (self-reliance, and hence full empowerment). However, the project successfully inculcates community organizing as the strength of the target community, *albeit* in the short term. There is a need to en-enforce the activities implemented for the community to be fully empowered. Furthermore, the protocol developed in this study can be used in evaluating any community extension projects to determine its success towards community empowerment.

Recommendations

The importance of this assessment is primarily to provide venues for improvement to attain full community empowerment. In this regard, the following recommendations are given:

- 1) There is a need to re-orient extension workers on the universally-accepted definition of community development. This is crucial because the mindset of the extension workers prior to entry to local communities will strong influence how the project would go about. The ultimate goal should be towards full community empowerment, rather than merely organizing the community;
- 2) Development orientation of the community must be pushed further towards community empowerment. The program should take the bottom-top approach, soliciting from the community what they feel they need, rather than deciding and imposing what the implementers feel the community needs;
- 3) The project should encourage community views on how the project should be implemented, rather than imposing on them what they need to learn. The project should explore gardening and planting techniques

which the local communities have been practicing, and capitalizing on it so that local communities will feel that they own the project, and hence encouraging community dynamics towards full empowerment;

- 4) Actual implementation of phases of the project should move beyond mere demonstration and community organizing. There is a need to provide activities focusing on processes so as to ultimately sustain the project even with minimal indirect assistance from the extension workers and CNU as the implementer; and
- 5) Monitoring and progress of the project should be done by the local community to assess the performance of their gardening. In this way, they will be able to find ways on how to improve their practices. Ultimately, the local community will be empowered to carry on the project without external intervention.

Acknowledgement

The authors are indebted to the support provided by Cebu Normal University through its Center for External Affairs and International linkages and the Center for Research and Development, without which the completion of this paper would not be possible.

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Age 22: Now What Do I Do? : Providing Tools For Students With Autism in Order To Enhance Their Opportunities For Success In The Outside World

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Abstract

Over the past decade, colleges and universities across the United States have increasingly accommodated students with moderate to severe special needs. These students, particularly those on the autism spectrum, would previously have been judged as being unteachable in post- secondary education. Are these students adequately prepared for higher education learning and the workplace environment they will soon encounter? In order for them to be able to successfully negotiate the outside world, there must be a shift in teacher education, from an emphasis on the development of discrete academic skills to one which includes a process-oriented approach targeting social skills, time and stress management, organizational skills, opportunities for “outside of school” experiences which will allow them to have a “life of preference” and the use of technological aids which will facilitate the development of new ways of learning outside the classroom.

Keywords.

Introduction

For me, the question of what the future holds for children diagnosed with autism spectrum disorders is personal, very personal.

Patrick was my much admired and appreciated Teaching Assistant for a large undergraduate university course that I taught. One term, when a member of my immediate family suddenly became seriously ill, it was Patrick who often showed up, unannounced, at my office, to provide whatever extra help he could, knowing that, between my responsibilities at home and school, I was most likely “drowning” in work. After graduation, Patrick married Karen and later became the father of his first child, “Allan,” who is now five years old. Since Patrick often referred to himself as my second son, I regarded Allan as, in some respects, my first grandchild.

Initially, Allan appeared to be an active, responsive, curious infant. However, between the ages of two and two and a half, he began to show signs of regression in terms of his desire and ability to communicate. At the age of three, after a referral by the family pediatrician for an early intervention assessment and a subsequent neurological evaluation, Allan was diagnosed as having autism. I will never forget the anguish in Patrick’s voice when he told my husband and me the news. He sat, slumped over with his head in his hands and said, “I just can’t bear the thought of my son not being able to function in the world as a happy, independent, productive individual” (Personal communication with Patrick M., 2011).

What could and will the future hold for a young child with autism, such as Allan? Is it conceivable that, as suggested by Szalavitz (2013), he might “age out” of autism and lead a “normal,” fulfilling life? In an interview, Temple Grandin, a well-known researcher, author and speaker, noted that, “the thing about being autistic is that you gradually get less and less autistic because you keep learning, you keep learning how to behave” (Weiss, 2010).

Of course, the prognosis for Allan is dependent upon numerous factors, including the type and severity of his autistic-related behavior, the extent and relevance of his educational program, the time and support provided by his family, the attitudes and expectations of those around him and other resources made available to him in his home, school and community.

Is there hope for Allan? Recent trends in the field of autism provide reason for optimism even though the number of young children diagnosed continues to increase (now a ratio of less than 1 in 88 children). However, it is believed that this increase is, at least in part, the result of an increased awareness in the medical, educational and broader community of the spectrum of disorders and key behaviors associated with the various syndromes. As noted by Wang (2012), earlier and more accurate diagnosis and treatment, even for children as young as one year of age, improve the odds of intervention being effective and lasting.

Also significant is evidence, based on what has been learned in the field by researchers, educators and other professionals, of a shift away from an emphasis on the teaching of discrete, concrete academic skills (that is, the remedial “drill and kill” of basics such as those measured by DIBELS: Dynamic Indicators of Basic Literacy Skills) towards an approach which centers on the development of process-oriented skills such as functional interpersonal/social skills, organizational skills, time allocation strategies and stress management techniques. For example, the findings of a 2010 study of toddlers, published in the *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, indicated that the targeting of social skills which focused on improving “interpersonal synchrony” resulted in reduced autism symptoms (Wang, 2012). In terms of serving the needs of older students with ASDs (Autism Spectrum Disorders), Alderman (2012) describes a highly successful high school program, Tutorial: A Program for Independence, in which role play is used to directly teach social skills, allowing students to improve their social awareness, to more effectively interact socially, and, thus prepare more effectively for a life after graduation. As well, students at this high school are encouraged to become involved in a variety of after-school activities, where regular education volunteer peers interact with them, providing opportunities for the development and practice of age-appropriate social behaviors.

Another example of a holistic education of enablement is the Pioneer Valley Regional School District in Northfield, Massachusetts where, as stated in a list of core values, it is mandated that all students in the system have equal opportunities to engage in real world tasks and learn to adapt to new situations and technologies in preparing to meet the challenges of the 21st century. (Pioneer Core Values, Pioneer Valley Regional School, Oct. 26, 2010: www.pioneervalley.k12.ma.us) Here, the role of all personnel in the district extends beyond the school day. Teachers, staff, the student body and volunteers in the community work together to ensure that students with special needs, including those with ASDs, engage in a range of after-school and other out-of-school

activities. This gives them the opportunity for the breadth and depth of experiences that will enable them to make informed decisions when choosing careers and leisure activities in the outside world. In Pioneer Valley, this is referred to as allowing students to have a “life of preference.”

Another positive, hopeful trend that has manifested itself within the last decade is the increase in numbers of students with ASDs who are attending colleges and universities as full time students. These are students who would previously not have been admitted to these institutions, as they would have been viewed as being “unteachable” and unable to deal with the academic demands of higher education. Yet, with the support of special services now available at colleges and universities (as mandated by the U.S. Congress in the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990), students with ASDs are experiencing success as learners at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. The tools that provide support at all levels of schooling now go beyond the alternative and augmentative communication devices of past decades. Numerous websites and apps are being designed specifically for those on the autism spectrum by technology giants such as Apple and Google, organizations such as Autism Speaks, news organizations such as CNN, and even local jurisdictions such as the City of Boston (see Harmon, 2010). Electronic devices such as smartphones and tablets are used by students with autism as well as their families, educators and therapists, to facilitate new ways for them to acquire information and skills which are critical to their ability to function and fully engage in the real world.

And how will all the above impact Allan’s chances of becoming that happy, independent, productive adult his father hopes he will become?

First, the key is how we, as citizens in our communities, view individuals with autism. Do we see them as being “abnormal” or just as people who view and deal with the world in a somewhat different way? Temple Grandin views those now labeled as Aspergers as being those who, in the past, were called nerds, geeks and dorks. “There’s just a point where it’s just a normal personality variation” (Weiss, 2010, p.A11).

A documentary shown recently on the American Public Broadcasting System provides a view of autism from the perspective of those identified as being autistic. Wolf, one of the individuals profiled, reflects on his view of neurotypicals (a term used by autistics to describe non-autistics), saying that he does not want to be “one of them.” He’s not particularly impressed with the idea of being neurotypical as a better way of life. Rather, to him, they just have a different way of living, one that he respects but would not want to emulate. He describes how abused and hurt he has been throughout his life as a result of people trying to make him “normal.” Someone who’s going to try and cure him because he makes that person feel uncomfortable should “deal with themselves,” he says, because he, Wolf, is not uncomfortable with himself. To him, he just represents a different way of viewing and dealing with the world (Larsen, 2011).

At the conclusion of the documentary the director, Adam Larsen, emphasizes the point that those portrayed in the film do not want to be cured but, rather, are quite comfortable in their way of thinking and being. In his view, while much has been and is being done to address and support the needs of those who are severely autistic, focusing on a cure takes away energy and resources from support systems. His hope is that we, as a society, will develop a broader understanding of humanity and begin to question the concept of “normalcy.” “Everyone has something to offer and that’s important. Just because one’s neurology is different doesn’t mean that it’s less valued” (Larsen, 2011).

With the numbers of individuals identified as being autistic continuing to increase, is it possible that this population will soon represent the new norm? Interestingly, there is research to suggest that the way the mind of those with autism functions may advantage them in the coming world. In the article, *The Upside of Autism*, Lehrer describes autism as “not merely a list of deficits. Rather, it represents an alternate way of making sense of the world, a cognitive difference that, in many instances, comes with unexpected benefits” (Lehrer, 2012). He cites a study carried out at the University College London which gives those with autism a perceptual edge as compared with neurotypicals, allowing them a real world advantage in the evolving information age.

Temple Grandin would advise Patrick to “fill up” Allan’s database. The tech companies of Silicon Valley, she says, are “heaven on earth for the geeks and the nerds. And I want to see more and more of these smart kids going into the technology industry and inventing things” (Weiss, 2010). One example of this is Wolf, the man portrayed in the documentary, *Neurotypical*, who earns his living as an information technology specialist.

In conclusion, when I think of Allan, I see his diagnosis as something that, rather than putting limits on my perceptions of his capacity and potential, leads me to have high expectations for him in terms of his future opportunities. My advice to Patrick is to work with Allan's teachers and therapists to identify and target key social skills that will lead to improvements in his "interpersonal synchrony," to provide Allan with an ongoing variety of experiences with peers (neurotypical as well as autistic) to give him a background that will allow him to make informed choices as he gets older (i.e., have a life of preference), and introduce and encourage his development of the skills he will need to use all manner of technological supports available now and in the future.

My hope is that Allan will thrive and that his father's wish for him to become a happy, independent, and productive individual will be realized.

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List of autism app articles/webpages

Developers dive in to create a wealth of autism apps

<http://articles.latimes.com/2013/apr/30/business/la-fi-apple-autism-20130430>

Autism apps

<http://heartyspin.com/autism-apps/>

iPad app helps children with autism learn life skills

<http://www.eweek.com/mobile/ipad-app-helps-children-with-autism-learn-life-skills/>

Autism apps

<http://www.autismspeaks.org/autism-apps>

8 top apps for autism learners

<http://thejournal.com/articles/2011/12/05apps-for-autistic-learners.aspx>

Analysis of Nigerian Secondary School Students Reading Habits: Implication for Teacher Education Curriculum for English as A Second Language

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Abstract

The study examined the reading habits of junior secondary school students in Kaduna state of Nigeria and its implication for teacher education curriculum for English as a second language. One hundred students in junior secondary schools were used for the study. A reading habit inventory (RHI) containing ten items was used to find out the extent to which students read and the frequency in which they read. The study revealed that students do not do extensive reading on their own. They do not read outside the recommended texts. It was recommended that teachers should promote students reading culture to strengthen their learning capabilities. The library period on the time table should be utilised to enhance reading on the part of students. It was also recommended that since teachers cannot give what they do not have, teacher training colleges should incorporate intensive and extensive reading skills in English as a second language curriculum. This will enable teachers transfer such skills with ease to their students.

Keywords.

Introduction

Reading is one of the fundamental language skills which should be taught at all levels of education. Reading is the foundation upon which other academic skills are built. It is one of the major avenues for acquiring

information. According to Tella and Akande (2007) the ability to read is at the heart of self education and lifelong learning. Olaofe (2013) posits that reading is the most effective weapon against intolerance, under development and ignorance. Civilization according to him is tied to investment on reading. It is central to academic and intellectual development of learners at all levels. Reading is basic to literacy and personal ability to attain self education and self confidence in tackling problems associated with diverse human experience.

The most important skill teachers can develop in their students is the ability to read fluently. This is because once students can read, they will be able to cope with the academic demands associated with schooling. Reading is the tool they need for a lifetime of learning and growth. Reading is a fundamental part of existence. There is absolutely no day that one does not read something such as street signs, signboards, handbills, billboards, reports, emails, medication labels, newspapers, magazines, text messages etc. Reading is the not only a fundamental part of the world but a fundamental part of education and also a fundamental factor in language development leading children to the good skills and habits necessary for lifelong achievement and success.

This study aims at analyzing Nigerian Secondary Students' reading habits with implication for teacher education curriculum for English as a second language.

Statement of the Problem

Researchers such as Odumuh 1997, Oyetunde 2009, Yusuf 2010, and Olaofe 2013, have expressed concerns over the poor reading habit of Nigerian students and how kids and young adults are not reading. This situation calls for close examination with a view to finding out what accounts for the poor reading habits in our youths of today. Reading habits of Nigerian students are a matter of concern in our educational and national development, stating further that in a developing country like Nigeria, the concept of reading habits should be relegated to the background. It has a role to play in the development of the individual. Reading habits should be promoted from an early age. Students should imbibe good habits during their formative years. Many questions have been raised by teachers, parents and students themselves as to why students perform so poorly academically. Even the Federal, State and Local governments have shown concern over this in recent times by introducing free and sometimes low priced books for primary and secondary schools. Although this was meant to create the desire for students to read, it has not helped the situation much because students do not read these books. Many of the students complained of lack of time and conducive environment to read. Others who try to read complained of lack of understanding. There is no doubt that these complaints evidently point to one fact, that is, lack of good reading habits. It is this problem that has motivated this researcher to carry out this study, as it appears to be one of the root causes of the dwindling educational standard in Nigeria.

Review of related literature

Reading according to Oyetunde (2009) is the ability to obtain information from print, that is the ability to make sense of the content of what is read. Reading goes beyond being able to pronounce the words on a page, memorise words or recite the letters of the alphabet. Evidence of reading includes the ability to answer questions on what is read, the ability to retell what is read, the ability to explain in one's own words what is read, or the ability to apply or use the information obtained from what is read.

Reading has been described by Anderson (1982) as the act of translating symbols or letters into words or sentences that have meaning to an individual. It is also understanding of what is seen in a text, which is the ability of a reader to take incoming visual information, process that information and obtain meaning from it. Reading requires strong and efficient skills to make learning successful because students require cognitive skills to process information properly. Academic activity such as school work, homework become frustrating if special attention is not given to factors affecting the reading habits of students.

The significance of teaching students to read in order to develop their potentials cannot be over-emphasized even in the era of information and communication technology. It is widely believed that the enterprise of developing reading behaviour has to start at an early part of one's life and there should be a conducive reading environment to stimulate lifelong reading.

Secondary school students according to Adetunji (2007) most often associate reading with academic task and not for knowledge and pleasure. This does not enable the students who have reading skill to maximise the activity for self and social development.

Sanacore (1990) emphasised that the reader's interest and behaviour is determined by a number of factors such as social values of their society, school, family and environments, each factor has its own function and promotes the development of reader personalities. Alarm over secondary school students reading habits in the

United Kingdom was raised in the guardian.com 2013 where a survey of 300, new pupils revealed that children are choosing books well below their reading age.

There is something seriously amiss with the way children are encouraged to read in secondary schools with many reading books with an average reading age as much as four years below their actual age. The report on “What kids are reading”, looked at the reading habits of 300,144 children in 1605 primary and secondary schools in the UK, and found out that children above year six are not challenged enough by the books they read. The seven and eight year olds were reading books with an average reading age of 8.8 by year nine. The 13 and 14 year old students were reading books with an average age of 10. The average book difficulty rises as pupils get older but not in proportion to the rate at which the pupils should be improving in reading.

In America, approximately 75% of students find reading in third grade difficult, also 9th grade education in South Africa study show that one in five schools has a library, although western cape school has an average library for two evening schools. Statistics reported in 2003 that grade 3 pupils in South Africa scored an average of 54% in literacy test and 39% in reading test, the reason for this shocking result was promoted by poor reading culture in South Africa.

Objective of the study

To identify the reading habits of students in Junior Secondary Schools in Kaduna State, Nigeria.

Research Question

What are the various reading habits of students in Junior Secondary Schools in Kaduna State, Nigeria?

Methodology

Six randomly selected Junior Secondary Schools were used for the study. One hundred students were used for the study. A Reading Habit Inventory (RHI) containing ten (10) items was used to find out the extent to which students read and the frequency in which they read.

Data Presentation

Item 1: I visit the school library to read books and other books of interest

Table 1: Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	20	60	20
02	20	50	30
03	20	60	20
04	10	70	20
05	10	80	10
06	20	60	20

Items 2: I visit the school library to do my assignments

Table2: Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	40	30	30
02	30	20	50
03	20	40	4
04	30	40	30
05	20	60	20
06	10	60	30

Table 2 reveals that most students visit the library to do their assignments.

Items 3: I read books on the reference section of the library to improve my general knowledge

Table 3 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	20	40	40
02	20	30	50
03	30	40	30
04	10	50	40
05	20	30	50
06	10	40	50

Table 3 shows that majority of students rarely read books on the reference section.

Items 4: I borrow books from the library

Table 4 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	30	40	30
02	20	30	50
03	20	40	30
04	20	40	40
05	30	40	30
06	20	50	30

Table 4 reveals that most students rarely or never borrow books from the library. A few students however, borrow books from the library.

Items 5: I point to words with my finger or biro while reading

Table 5 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	50	30	20
02	60	30	10
03	50	30	20
04	50	30	20
05	50	30	20
06	50	30	20

Table 5 reveals that majority of the students points to words with their fingers or biro while reading.

Items 6: I move my lips while reading (vocalization)

Table 6 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	60	20	20
02	70	10	20
03	80	10	10
04	50	20	30
05	60	20	20
06	70	10	20

Table 6 reveals that majority of students move their lips while reading which means they vocalise.

Items 7: I read newspapers, magazines and other materials of interest at my leisure time

Table 7 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	10	50	40
02	20	30	50
03	20	40	40
04	10	60	30
05	20	70	10
06	10	50	40

Table 7 reveals that majority of students rarely or never read newspapers, magazines and other materials of interest at their leisure.

Items 8: I watch movies and other interesting programmes on Television

Table 8 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	70	30	0
02	80	20	0
03	90	10	0
04	70	30	0
05	80	20	0
06	90	10	0

Table 8 reveals that majority of students watch movies and other interesting programmes on television rather than read books.

Items 9: I play games on play station, X BOX, PSP, GSM phone

Table 9 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	60	30	10
02	50	30	20
03	70	20	10
04	50	40	10
05	60	30	10
06	60	20	20

Table 9 reveals that majority of students play games on play station, X BOX, PSP, and GSM phone rather than read books.

Items 10: I see my teachers reading in the library or staff room

Table 10 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	20	20	60
02	10	60	30
03	20	40	40
04	10	50	40
05	20	30	50
06			

Table 10 reveals that majority of students rarely or never see their teachers reading in the library or staff room. Which means teachers are not acting as role models for students to emulate. They are not encouraging their students to imbibe good reading habits.

Summary of findings

The result of the study revealed the following:

- Majority of students do not read story books or other books of interest during their leisure time at home. They prefer to chat, hang around with friends, play with their GSM phones, play stations or do stuff on the

internet.

- Majority of students read only when they are compelled to read in school during library periods, they however visit the library to do their assignments.
- Majority of students do not like to read materials not relevant to their subjects.
- Most students rarely or do not use reference materials in the school library.
- Most students rarely or never borrow books from the library probably because they are not interested.
- Majority of students point to words with their fingers or biro while reading. This tends to slow their reading.
- Majority of students move their lips while reading. This means they vocalize. This tends to slow their reading comprehension.
- Majority of students rarely or never read newspapers, magazines and other materials of interest at their leisure time.
- Majority of students watch movies and other interesting shows on television rather than read books.
- Majority of students play games on play station, X BOX, PSP and GSM phones rather than read books.
- Majority of students rarely or never see their teacher reading in the library or staff room. This means teachers are not encouraging students to imbibe good reading habits.

Conclusion

On the basis of the findings of this study, one can conclude in line with Adetunji (2007), Edoh (2012) and Ofuani (2009) that most secondary schools students in Kaduna, Nigeria, have poor reading habits. The indiscriminate use of electronic facilities in the home is not helping matters, infact, it will continue to worsen the reading habits of secondary school students in Nigeria, unless a positive and drastic step is taken towards the right direction. A complete 360⁰ turn around in the interest of the future of Nigerian children should be the starting point. "Operation read a book a day, readers are leaders" fliers and bill boards should be mounted in strategic places. A public awareness campaign should also be embarked upon in Kaduna using print and electronic media in order to re-orientate children, youths and the general public on the benefits of activating good reading habits.

Implication for Teacher Education Curriculum for English as a Second Language

The implication of the findings of this research for English as a second language (ESL) is that there is need for a comprehensive and meaningful reading instruction to be integrated into the ESL curriculum. The present Teacher Education Curriculum appears inadequate in terms of content about the nature of the reading process, basic principles of reading instruction and what to do in order to meaningfully teach students how to read. Intensive and extensive reading activity should be included in the teacher education curriculum to motivate teachers-in-training to cultivate good reading habits which could in turn, be passed down to their students in the classroom. Such extensive reading activities would equip teachers-in-training with the potentials to motivate, lead and foster learners along the path of independence in reading and language learning. Furthermore, they can provide very effective platform for promoting good reading habits in learners at the basic education levels.

Recommendations

- Parents should monitor their children/ward at home by reducing their exposure to the use of electronic facilities, such as television, satellite dish, internet, play station, XBOX, PSP, and mobile phone etc.
- Students should be encouraged to spend more time reading. "Reading hour" should be provided on the time table. Schools should equally provide reading rooms for children to read. The library period already on the time table in some schools should be observed regularly. The school should be well located and functional so that students can make good use of it.
- Procedure for borrowing books should be flexible to stimulate students' reading interest.
- Teachers should organise competition among students to motivate them to read. Students should be encouraged to read newspapers as this will help to improve reading habits, knowledge and awareness.
- Teacher cannot give what they do not have, therefore, teacher training colleges and other relevant institutions should incorporate extensive reading skills in English as a second language curriculum. This will enable teachers transfer such skills with ease to their students.
- Teachers should be good role models. They should be seen in the library or staff room reading and not chatting. Teachers must be avid readers themselves in order to ignite a lifelong reading habit in their students.
- Secondary school students often associate reading with academic task and not for knowledge and pleasure.

This does not enable the students who have good reading habits to maximise the activity for self and lifelong learning and development.

- Students should be encouraged to read newspapers as this will help to improve reading habits, knowledge and awareness.
- Government and other stakeholders should collaborate to revitalise school libraries to make it attractive to students. Library is the engine room of any academic institution. It is indispensable if academic excellence is to be achieved.
- Teachers should motivate students to read and encourage them to use reading materials to improve themselves and their social environment.
- Teachers should discourage students with poor reading habits from pointing to words with fingers or moving the lips while reading. Such habits do not help reading but slows it down.

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Appendix 1

Analysis of Nigerian Secondary School Students’ reading habits

Reading Habit Inventory (RHI)

Please tick [] the appropriate column

S/No	Item	Frequency		
		Always	Rarely	Never
1	I visit the school library to read story books and other books of interest			
2	I visit the school library to do my assignment			
3	I read books on the reference section of the library to improve my general knowledge			
4	I borrow books from the library			
5	I point to words with my finger or biro while reading			
6	I move my lips while reading (vocalization)			
7	I read newspapers, magazines and other materials of interest at my leisure time			
8	I watch movies and other interesting shows on TV			
9	I play games on play station, XBOX, PSP, GSM phone			
10	I see my teachers reading in the library or staffroom			

Okul Öncesi Öğretmen Adaylarının Mesleki Kaygı Düzeylerinin Çeşitli Değişkenler Açısından İncelenmesi

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Özet

21. yüzyılda öğretmenlerden daha donanımlı olmaları beklenmektedir. Bu donanım hem mesleki hem kişisel olmak üzere çok yönlü süreçleri içermektedir. Örneğin öğretmenlerden bir yandan yeterli bilgi ve beceri donanımına sahip olmaları beklenirken bir yandan da insan ilişkileri ve iletişim becerisi yüksek bireyler olmaları

beklenmektedir. Gelecek kuşakları yetiştirecek olan öğretmenlerin meslekteki başarıları mesleklerine karşı hissettikleri mesleki kaygılarından arınmış olmalarına bağlıdır. Bu çalışmada okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygı düzeyleri çeşitli değişkenler (sınıf düzeyi, cinsiyet ve mezun oldukları lise türü) açısından incelenmiştir. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Ana bilim dalında eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) öğretmen adayı oluşturmuştur. Araştırmanın verileri öğretmen adaylarıyla yapılan görüşmelerle elde edilmiştir. Araştırma hem nitel hem de nicel bir araştırma olup; 269 öğretmen adayının sorulara verdikleri cevaplar önce betimsel analiz yöntemiyle ortaya çıkarılmış, daha sonra öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgileri ile bu betimsel analizler SPSS programına aktarılıp analiz edilmiştir. Bulgular öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyi, cinsiyet ve mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Okul Öncesi Eğitim, Öğretmen Eğitimi, Mesleki Kaygı Düzeyleri

Giriş

21. yüzyılda öğretmenlerden daha donanımlı olmaları beklenmektedir. Bu donanım hem mesleki hem kişisel olmak üzere çok yönlü süreçleri içermektedir. Örneğin öğretmenlerden bir yandan yeterli bilgi ve beceri donanımına sahip olmaları beklenirken bir yandan da insan ilişkileri ve iletişim becerisi yüksek bireyler olmaları beklenmektedir.

Okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin ise diğer branşlardan farklı olarak branşa özgü farklı bazı görev ve sorumlulukları vardır. Okulla ilk tanışan çocuk için ve özellikle küçük yaş gruplarındaki bazı çocuklar için bu görevler farklılaşabilmektedir. Tüm dünyada ve ülkemizde 0-6 yaş grubu çocuklar sayıları hızla artan bir oranda okul öncesi eğitim almaktadır. Okul öncesi eğitim küçük çocuklara evlerinin dışında ilk kurumsal deneyimi yaşatmakta ve çocukların eğitime ilişkin değer ve inançlarının şekillenmesinde etkili olmaktadır. Okul öncesi eğitimde kalitenin oluşmasında ve çocukların bu ilkokul deneyimlerini olumlu kılmakta en kritik rol, programın uygulayıcısı olan öğretmene düşmektedir (Alisinanoğlu ve Kesicioğlu, 2010: 585-600).

Öğretmen yeterliğine dönük olarak yapılan yerli ve yabancı çalışmalarda, öğretmenlerin kendine güven duyması veya kendi yeterlikleri hakkında olumlu algılamaları/görüşleri ile öğrencilerinin başarı düzeyi, güdülenmesi ve öğrencilerinin yeterlikleri arasında pozitif ilişkiler olduğu savunulmaktadır (Diken, 2004). Bazı araştırmalarda ise gelecek kuşakları yetiştirecek olan öğretmenlerin ayakları üzerine sağlam basarak mesleklerine başlamalarının ve meslekte başarılı olmalarının büyük oranda mesleklerine karşı hissettikleri mesleki kaygılarından arınmış olmalarına bağlı olduğu ifade edilmektedir (Taşgın, 2006: 679-686).

Işık (1996) kaygıyı tehdit edici bir durum karşısında birey tarafından hissedilen huzursuzluk ve endişe durumu olarak tanımlamıştır. Kaygının sözlük anlamları ise; “üzüntü, endişe duyulan düşünce, tasa”, “bireylerin, toplumsal kümelerin herhangi bir güçlü istek ya da güdülerinin gerçekleşmemesi olasılığı karşısında duydukları tedirginlik”, “güçlü bir istek ya da dürtünün amacına ulaşamayacak gibi gözüktüğü durumlarda beliren tedirgin edici bir duygu” (TDK, 2009: 1115) olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

Öğretmen adaylarının mesleğe ilişkin kaygıları belirli zamanlarda belirli noktalarda yoğunlaşır. Fuller’e (1969) göre, bu kaygıları ben-merkezli kaygılar, görev-merkezli kaygılar ve öğrenci-merkezli kaygılar olmak üzere üç grup altında toplamak mümkündür.

Ben-merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını, bireyin kendisi oluşturur. Ben-merkezli kaygıları taşıyan bir öğretmen adayı, öğretmenlik mesleğini başarı ile sürdürüp sürdüremeyeceği endişesini taşır ve bu nedenle de sürekli olarak yoğun bir stres altındadır. Görev-merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını, bireyin öğreticilik görevi oluşturur. Görev-merkezli kaygıları taşıyan bir öğretmen adayı, iyi bir öğretici olabilme kaygısı içindedir ve bu nedenle de alanında kullanabileceği yeni öğretim yöntemlerini, materyallerini ve araç-gereçlerini araştırmaya başlar. Öğrenci-merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını ise, öğrenciler oluşturur. Öğrenci-merkezli kaygıları taşıyan bir öğretmen adayı, öğretim ile ilgili düşüncelerinde ve tasarımlarında daha çok öğrenci merkezlidir. Böyle bir öğretmen adayı her öğrencinin zihinsel, duygusal ve sosyal ihtiyaçlarını en iyi nasıl karşılayabileceğini merak etmeye ve araştırmaya başlar. (Cabı ve Yalçınalp, 2013: 86)

Mesleki kaygı ile ilgili mevcut literatür incelendiğinde, bu konuda yapılmış çeşitli araştırmalara rastlamak mümkündür. Taşgın (2006) beden öğretmenliğinde okuyan öğretmen adaylarının cinsiyetlerinin mesleki kaygılarını etkileyip etkilemediğini araştırmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda bayan öğretmen adaylarının ben-merkezli ve görev-merkezli kaygı düzeylerinin erkeklerden daha yüksek olduğunu, öğrenci merkezli kaygı düzeyinde ise

anamlı bir fark olmadıđını ortaya koymuřtur. Kse'nin (2006) ise yaptıđı bir arařtırmada, farklı niversitelerin mzik đretmenliđi blmlerinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının tařıdıkları mesleki kayđı dzeylerini kayđı alanları bakımından tespit etmiřtir. Arařtırmanın sonucunda mzik đretmeni adaylarının ben-merkezli kayđı dzeyi ortalamasını 32,19, grev-merkezli kayđı dzeyi ortalamasını 32,32, đrenci-merkezli kayđı dzeyi ortalamasını ise 33,29 olarak ortaya koymuřtur. Arařtırmacı alıřmasının sonucunda mzik đretmeni adaylarının  kayđı alanında da mesleki kayđı dzeylerinin dřk olduđunu ifade etmiřtir. nalđı ve Alaz'ın (2008) 'cođrafya đretmenliđinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının kayđı dzeylerini farklı deđiřkenler aracılıđıyla lmř ve tm kayđı trlerinde bayan adayların kayđı dzeyi ortalamasının erkeklerinkinden daha yksek olduđunu belirtmiřtir. Ancak cinsiyet faktrnn ben-grev ve đrenci merkezli kayđı trlerinde anlamlı farklılıđa yol amadıđını tespit etmiřtir. Cabı ve Yalınalp (2009), đretmen adaylarının đretmenlik mesleđine ynelik kayđıların belirlenmesi amacıyla yaptıkları nitel bir alıřmada đretmen adaylarında đrenci ile iletiřim, iř bulma, okul yařantısı, ekonomik yařantı, mesleki kabul ve evre ile ilgili kayđılar olduđunu tespit etmiřlerdir. Dilma (2010) ise arařtırmasında grsel sanatlar đretmenliđinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđılarını cinsiyet, ailelerin gelir dzeyleri ve mezun oldukları lise trne gre anlamlı farklılık gsterip gstermediđi sorusuna cevap aramıřtır. Arařtırmacı bulgularında cinsiyet deđiřkeninin kayđı trlerinde anlamlı farklılıđa yol amadıđını, grsel sanatlar đretmenliđinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđı dzeylerinin dřk olduđunu ifade etmiřtir. Bozdam ve Tařđın (2011) farklı đretmenlik blmlerinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđı dzeylerini farklı deđiřkenler aısından incelemiřler ve đretmen adaylarının kayđı dzeylerinin cinsiyet ve yetiřtikleri yer deđiřkenlerine gre anlamlı dzeyde farklılařmadıđını, buna karřılık mesleki kayđı dzeylerinin yař ve branř deđiřkenlerine gre anlamlı bir řekilde farklılařtıđını ortaya koymuřlardır. Bir bařka alıřmada ise ubuk ve Dnmez (2011) farklı branřlardaki đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđılarının eřitli deđiřkenler aısından incelemiřler, đretmen adaylarının grev merkezli kayđılarının en fazla, ben merkezli kayđılarının ise en dřk dzeyde olduđunu tespit etmiřlerdir. Benzer řekilde Dursun ve Karagn (2012) beden eđitimi ve spor đretmenliđi son sınıfta okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđı dzeylerini eřitli deđiřkenler aısından deđerlendirmiř, sonu olarak đretmen adaylarının sahip oldukları kayđı trlerinin ekonomik durum, akademik ortalama, mezun oldukları lise tr ve cinsiyet aısından anlamlı bir řekilde farklılařmadıđını ancak ben merkezli kayđıları zerinde yař deđiřkeninin etkili olduđunu ortaya koymuřlardır.

đretmen adayları yeterliliklerin nemli bir kısmını lisans eđitimi ile edinirler. Bu dnemde đretmen adayları alan bilgisinin yanında meslekle ilgili deđer ve tutumlar kazanırlar (Lasek ve Wiesenbergova, 2007). đretim programlarının ieriklerinin yanı sıra, đretmenin derse, đretmenlik mesleđine, alana ve okula karřı farklı tutum ve davranıřları; đretmen adayının bařarısı, derse ilgisi, motivasyonu ve tutumunu etkilemektedir (Iřık, Yaman ve Soran, 2005:110-116). Bu nedenle nitelikli bireylerin yetiřtirilmesinde grev alacak đretmen adaylarının, sahip oldukları mesleki kayđıların belirlenip bunlara ynelik nlemlerin alınması, đretmen yetiřtiren kurumların bu konu ile ilgili farkındalıklarının arttırılması ve mesleki kayđıların azaltılmasında nleyici alıřmaların yapılması aısından nem tařır (Dursun ve Karagn, 2012: 96). Bu dođrultuda bu alıřmada okul ncesi đretmenliđi blmnde okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđılarının eřitli deđiřkenler aısından incelenmesi amalanmıřtır.

Bu arařtırmada okul ncesi đretmen adaylarının sınıf dzeyi, cinsiyet ve mezun olduđu lise gibi deđiřkenlere gre mesleki kayđı dzeylerinin deđiřip deđiřmediđi sorusu ana problemi kapsamında ařađıdaki alt problemlere cevap aranmıřtır:

- Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları sınıf düzeyi değişkenine göre değişmekte midir?
- Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları cinsiyete göre değişmekte midir?
- Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmekte midir?

Metod

Bu bölümde; araştırmada yer alan çalışma grubu, araştırmanın veri toplama araçları, verilerin toplanma süreci ve analizi yer almaktadır.

Çalışma Grubu

Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu, 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) 269 öğretmen adayı oluşturmuştur. Çalışma grubu ile ilgili ayrıntılı bilgiler Tablo 1'de gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 1. Öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgilerinin dağılımı

	f	%	
Sınıf	1. Sınıf	91	33.8
	2. Sınıf	106	39.4
	3. Sınıf	48	17.8
	4. Sınıf	24	8.9
	Toplam	269	100.0
Cinsiyet	Bayan	236	87.7
	Erkek	33	12.3
	Toplam	269	100.0
Mezun olduğu lise	Genel (Düz) Lise	68	25.3
	Anadolu öğretmen lisesi	27	10.0
	Anadolu Lisesi	83	30.9
	Meslek lisesi/Teknik lise	91	33.8
	Toplam	269	100.0

Veri Toplama Aracı

Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak görüşme formu kullanılmıştır. Görüşme formu iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde katılımcıların demografik bilgileri ile ilgili sorular, ikinci bölümde ise öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile ilgili 10 açık uçlu soru bulunmaktadır. Görüşme formunun birinci bölümünde katılımcıların sınıf düzeyi, cinsiyeti ve mezun oldukları lise türü yer almaktadır. İkinci bölümde öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi, velilerle iletişim, çocuklarla iletişim, yönetici ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim, çocukların okula uyumları, çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması, kaynaştırma öğrencileri, atandıklarında karşılaştıkları ortam ile öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerinin planlanması ve yürütülmesi konusundaki mesleki kaygıları ile ilgili açık uçlu sorular yer almaktadır. Görüşme formu geliştirilmeden önce öğretmen adaylarıyla ön görüşmeler yapılmış ve bu görüşmeler sonucunda veri toplama aracındaki sorular şekillendirilmiştir. Geliştirilen görüşme formunun geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması için alan uzmanı ve eğitim bilimsi öğretim elemanlarının görüşü alınmış, uzmanlardan gelen dönütler sonucunda bazı maddeler çıkarılmış bazı maddelerde ise düzenlemeler yapılmıştır.

Verilerin Toplanması

Araştırmacılar, geliştirdikleri görüşme formunu 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Ana bilim dalında eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) 269 öğretmen adayına uygulamışlardır.

Verilerin Analizi

Araştırma hem nitel hem de nicel bir araştırma olup; 269 öğretmen adayının sorulara verdikleri cevaplar önce betimsel analiz yöntemiyle ortaya çıkarılmış, daha sonra öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgileri ile bu betimsel analizler SPSS programına aktarılıp kay-kare testi yapılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular

Bu bölümde okulöncesi öğretmen adaylarının sınıf düzeyi, cinsiyet ve mezun oldukları lise türü gibi değişkenlere göre mesleki kaygı düzeylerinin değişip değişmediği sorusu, alt problemlere göre açıklanmıştır.

1) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile sınıf düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki

Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeylerine göre değişip değişmediğini tespit etmek için kay-kare testi yapılmıştır. Yapılan kay-kare testinin sonuçları Tablo 2’de gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 2. Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeylerine göre kay-kare testi (Chi-square Test X^2) sonuçları

	1.Sınıf		2.Sınıf		3.Sınıf		4.Sınıf		X2	p								
	Evet	Hayır	Evet	Hayır	Evet	Hayır	Evet	Hayır										
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%										
Sınıf yönetimi	5	62.	3	37.	4	39.	6	60.	2	45.	2	54.	1	58.	1	41.	11.37	.01
Veliler ile iletişim	3	33	6	67	5	50	5	50	2	56.	2	43.	1	58.	1	41.	10.40	.01
Çocuklarla iletişim	0	25.	1	74.	3	3	3	3	7	3	1	7	4	3	0	7	1	5
Yönetici ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim	2	25.	6	74.	3	34	7	66	1	25	3	75	1	4.2	2	95.	7.289	.06
Çocukların okula uyumları	3	3	8	7	6	34	0	66	2	25	6	75	1	4.2	3	8	7.289	.06
Çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama	1	20.	7	79.	3	30.	7	69.	1	39.	2	60.	1	41.	1	58.	7.289	.06
Kaynaştırma öğrencileri Atandıkları yerde karşılaştacakları ortam	9	9	2	1	2	2	4	8	9	6	9	4	0	6	4	4	7.289	.06
Öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme	4	45.	4	54.	7	70.	3	29.	3	70.	1	29.	1	54.	1	45.	15.08	.00
	2	2	9	8	5	8	1	2	4	8	4	2	3	2	1	8	8	2
	2	30.	6	69.	5	54.	4	45.	1	39.	2	60.	1	54.	1	45.	12.79	.00
	8	8	3	2	8	7	8	3	9	6	9	4	3	2	1	8	9	5
	4	47.	4	52.	6	64.	3	35.	3	72.	1	27.	1	62.	9	37.	10.30	.01
	3	3	8	7	8	2	8	8	5	9	3	1	5	5	5	5	6	6
	4	45.	5	54.	6	63.	3	36.	3	72.	1	27.	1	66.	8	33.	12.52	.00
	1	1	0	9	7	2	9	8	5	9	3	1	6	7	8	3	6	6
	1	14.	7	85.	5	55.	4	44.	2	60.	1	39.	9	37.	1	62.	43.90	.00
	3	3	8	7	9	7	7	3	9	4	9	6	9	5	5	5	1	0

P < 0.05

Yapılan kay-kare testi sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular birinci sınıfta (%62,6) ve dördüncü sınıfta (%58,3) öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının, diğer sınıf düzeylerindeki öğretmen adaylarından, sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini daha yeterli hissettiklerini göstermektedir. Sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini en az yeterli hisseden grup ise, ikinci sınıf düzeyinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarıdır (%39,6).

Öğretmen adaylarının velilerle iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular sınıf düzeyi arttıkça veliler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygının da arttığını göstermektedir. Buna karşılık öğretmen adaylarının, çocuklarla iletişim ile yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre değişmediği görülmektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula uyumları konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda (%45,2) olduğunu, kaygı düzeyinin ikinci sınıf (%70,8) ve üçüncü sınıfta (%70,8) arttığını ancak dördüncü sınıf düzeyinde (%54,2) bu kaygının tekrar azaldığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda (%30,8) olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının bu konu hakkındaki kaygı düzeyleri ikinci sınıf (%54,7) ve dördüncü sınıfta (%54,2) daha fazladır.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri ile ilgili mesleki kaygıları ve sınıf düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgulara göre; kaynaştırma öğrencileri ile ilgili kaygı en az birinci sınıflarda (%47,3), en çok ise dördüncü sınıflarda (%62,5) vardır.

Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; bu kaygının birinci sınıftan (%45,1) üçüncü sınıfa (%72,9) doğru arttığını, son sınıfta (%66,7) ise üçüncü sınıfa göre biraz daha azaldığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; bu kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda (%14,3) olduğunu, kaygı düzeyinin birinci sınıftan üçüncü sınıfa (%60,4) doğru arttığını, ancak dördüncü sınıfta (%37,5) üçüncü sınıfa nispeten azaldığını göstermektedir.

2) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile cinsiyetleri arasındaki ilişki

Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyetlerine göre değişip değişmediğini tespit etmek için kay-kare testi yapılmıştır. Yapılan kay-kare testinin sonuçları Tablo 3'te verilmiştir:

Tablo 3. Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyetlerine göre kay-kare testi (Chi-square Test X^2) sonuçları

	Bayan		Hayır		Erkek		Hayır		X2	p
	Evet	%	f	%	Evet	%	f	%		
Sınıf yönetimi	115	48.7	121	51.3	20	60.6	13	39.4	1.634	.201
Veliler ile iletişim	108	45.8	128	54.2	16	48.5	17	51.5	.086	.769
Çocuklarla iletişim	61	25.8	175	74.2	11	33.3	22	66.7	.828	.363
Yönetici ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim	72	30.5	164	69.5	8	24.2	25	75.8	.544	.461
Çocukların okula uyumları	139	58.9	97	41.1	25	75.8	8	24.2	3.458	.063
Çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama	96	40.7	140	59.3	22	66.7	11	33.3	7.941	.005
Kaynaştırma öğrencileri	143	60.6	93	39.4	18	54.5	15	45.5	.441	.507
Atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam	144	61	92	39	15	45.5	18	54.5	2.901	.089
Öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini	97	41.1	139	58.9	13	39.4	20	60.6	.035	.852

planlama ve yürütme

P <0.05

Yapılan kay-kare testi sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının velilerle iletişim, çocuklarla iletişim ve yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre değişmediği tespit edilmiştir.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula uyumları konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının da cinsiyete göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının erkek öğretmen adaylarında (%66.7) daha fazla olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri ve adaylarının atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam ilgili mesleki kaygıları ve cinsiyetleri arasında bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaşmadığı tespit edilmiştir.

3) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile mezun oldukları lise türü arasındaki ilişki

Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişip değişmediğini tespit etmek için kay-kare testi yapılmıştır. Yapılan kay-kare testinin sonuçları Tablo 4'te gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 3. Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre kay-kare testi (Chi-square Test X^2) sonuçları

	Genel Lise		Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi		Anadolu Lisesi		Meslek Lisesi/Teknik Lise				X2	p						
	Evet f	Hayır %	Evet f	Hayır %	Evet f	Hayır %	Evet f	Hayır %	Evet f	Hayır %								
Sınıf yönetimi	38	55.9	30	44.1	13	48.2	14	51.8	24	28.9	59	71.1	60	65.9	31	34.1	24.976	.000
Veliler ile iletişim	34	50	34	50	10	37	17	63	35	42.2	48	57.8	45	49.5	46	50.5	2.236	.525
Çocuklarla iletişim	21	30.9	47	69.1	8	29.6	19	70.4	28	33.7	55	66.3	15	16.5	76	83.5	7.666	.053
Yönetici ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim	13	19.1	55	80.9	6	22.2	21	77.8	33	39.8	50	60.2	28	30.8	63	60.2	8.436	.038
Çocukların okula uyumları	48	70.6	20	29.4	9	70.4	8	29.6	58	69.9	25	30.1	39	42.9	52	57.1	18.960	.000
Çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama	31	45.6	37	54.4	8	66.7	9	33.3	43	51.8	40	48.2	26	28.6	65	71.4	16.553	.001
Kaynaştırma öğrencileri	40	58.8	28	41.2	3	48.2	14	51.8	53	63.9	30	36.1	55	60.4	36	39.6	2.136	.545
Atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam	41	60.3	27	39.7	4	51.9	13	48.1	51	61.5	32	38.5	53	58.2	38	41.8	.844	.839
Öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme	40	58.8	28	41.2	9	33.3	18	66.7	43	51.8	40	48.2	18	19.8	73	80.2	30.556	.000

P <0.05

Yapılan kay-kare testi sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular sınıf yönetimi konusunda en fazla meslek lisesi/teknik lise mezunu olan öğretmen adaylarının kendilerini yeterli hissettiklerini göstermektedir (%65.9).

Öğretmen adaylarının velilerle iletişim ve çocuklarla iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur. Buna karşılık öğretmen adaylarının yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular; yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim hakkındaki

mesleki kaygının en fazla anadolu lisesi mezunu öğretmen adaylarında (%39.8) , en az ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (%19.1) olduğunu göstermektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula uyumları konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (%42.9), en fazla ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (%70.6) bulunduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (%28.6) olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bu konu hakkındaki kaygı düzeyinin en fazla olduğu grup ise anadolu öğretmen lisesinden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarıdır (%66.7).

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri ile ilgili mesleki kaygıları ve mezun oldukları lise türü arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmediği tespit edilmiştir.

Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; bu kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik lise mezunu öğretmen adaylarında (%19.8) en fazla ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (%58.8) olduğunu göstermektedir.

Sonuç ve Öneriler

Bu araştırmada 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okulöncesi Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) öğretmen adayları yer almıştır. Araştırma hem nitel hem de nicel bir araştırma olup; 269 öğretmen adayının sorulara verdikleri cevaplar önce betimsel analiz yöntemiyle ortaya çıkarılmış, daha sonra öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgileri ile bu betimsel analizler SPSS programına aktarılıp analiz edilmiştir. Araştırmada genel olarak aşağıdaki sonuçlar ortaya çıkmıştır.

1) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile sınıf düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki

Araştırma bulguları birinci ve dördüncü sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının diğer sınıf düzeylerindeki öğretmen adaylarından sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini daha yeterli hissettiklerini göstermektedir. Sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini en az yeterli hisseden grup ise ikinci sınıf düzeyinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarıdır. Öğretmen adaylarının bu konu hakkındaki cevapları ayrıntılı olarak incelendiğinde bulguların bu şekilde olmasının birinci sınıfların bu konu ile ilgili uygulamalardaki zorluklarla henüz karşılaşmamış olmalarından, son sınıfların ise bu konu ile ilgili yeterli deneyim ve bilgi sahibi olmalarından kaynaklandığı tespit edilmiştir.

Bulgular sınıf düzeyi arttıkça veliler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygının da arttığını göstermektedir. Bulguların bu şekilde olmasının öğretmen adaylarının uygulamalarda karşılaştıkları olumsuz örneklerden kaynaklanabileceği düşünülmektedir. Buna karşılık öğretmen adaylarının, çocuklarla iletişim ile yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre değişmediği görülmektedir.

Bulgular; çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda olduğunu, kaygı düzeyinin ikinci ve üçüncü sınıfta giderek arttığını ancak dördüncü sınıf düzeyinde bu kaygının tekrar azaldığını ortaya koymaktadır. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının cevaplarından yola çıkılarak; birinci sınıfların kaygılarının az olmasının bu konu ile ilgili uygulamalardaki zorluklarla henüz yeterince karşılaşmamış olmalarından, son sınıfların ise bu konu ile ilgili yeterli deneyim ve bilgi sahibi olmaları sebebiyle özgüvenlerinin artmış olmasından kaynaklandığı söylenebilir.

Bulgular çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının bu konu hakkındaki kaygı düzeyleri ikinci ve dördüncü sınıfta daha

fazladır. Benzer şekilde kaynaştırma öğrencileri ile ilgili kaygı en az birinci sınıflarda, en çok ise dördüncü sınıflarda vardır. Birinci sınıfların bu alanlardaki özgüven fazlalığının deneyim eksikliklerinden ve uygulamalardaki zorluklarla henüz yeterince karşılaşmamış olmalarından kaynaklanabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının atandıklarında karşılaşacakları ortam ile ilgili kaygının birinci sınıftan üçüncü sınıfa doğru arttığını, son sınıfta ise üçüncü sınıfa göre biraz daha azaldığı tespit edilmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarında mezuniyet yaklaştıkça atanma ve görev yapacakları ortam ile kaygılarının artıyor olması olağandır. Son sınıf öğrencilerindeki kaygı azalmasının sebebi olarak ise atanma kaygısının, gidecekleri yerin özellikleri ile ilgili kaygılarından daha baskın olması gösterilebilir. Benzer şekilde öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda olduğu, kaygı düzeyinin birinci sınıftan üçüncü sınıfa doğru arttığı ancak dördüncü sınıfta üçüncü sınıfa nispeten azaldığı görülmektedir.

2) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile cinsiyetleri arasındaki ilişki

Öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi, velilerle iletişim, çocuklarla iletişim ve yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre değişmediği tespit edilmiştir. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula uyumları konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının da cinsiyete göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusundaki mesleki kaygıları ile ilgili bulgular; erkek öğretmen adaylarında bu kaygının daha fazla olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Erkek öğretmen adayların açıklamaları incelendiğinde, erkek öğretmen adaylarının kaygılarının özellikle kız öğrencilerin tuvalet ihtiyacını karşılama konusunda yoğunlaştığı görülmektedir.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri, atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam ile öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaşmadığı tespit edilmiştir.

3) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile mezun oldukları lise türü arasındaki ilişki

Araştırma bulguları sınıf yönetimi konusunda meslek lisesi/teknik lise mezunu olan öğretmen adaylarının kendilerini diğer öğretmen adaylarından daha yeterli hissettiklerini göstermektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının velilerle iletişim ve çocuklarla iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur. Buna karşılık öğretmen adaylarının yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular; yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim hakkındaki mesleki kaygının en fazla anadolu lisesi mezunu öğretmen adaylarında, en az ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında olduğunu göstermektedir.

Bulgular; çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında, en fazla ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında bulunduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının cevapları incelendiğinde meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarındaki özgüvenin yeterince deneyim sahibi olmalarından kaynaklandığı ortaya çıkmaktadır. Benzer şekilde bulgular çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bu konu hakkındaki kaygı düzeyinin en fazla olduğu grup ise anadolu öğretmen lisesinden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarıdır.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri ve atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmediği tespit edilmiştir.

Araştırma sonuçları; öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygıların en az meslek lisesi/teknik lise mezunu öğretmen adaylarında, en fazla ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında olduğunu göstermektedir. Öğretmen adaylarının cevapları incelendiğinde meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olanların bu konudaki kaygılarının az olmasının, uygulama deneyimlerinin fazla olmasından kaynaklandığı söylenebilir.

Araştırma sonuçları dikkate alınarak aşağıdaki öneriler getirilebilir:

Öğretmen adaylarının verdikleri cevaplarda birinci ve dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin benzer cevap vermeleri, birinci sınıfların mesleği tanıma konusunda yeterince bilgi ve deneyim sahibi olmamalarına bağlanmaktadır. Bu sonuç araştırmacıları eğitim fakültelerinde yürütülen okul deneyimi derslerinin geçmiş yıllarda olduğu gibi birinci sınıfta olması gerektiği düşüncesine itmiştir. Çünkü bireyler hayatları boyunca yapacakları mesleğin özelliklerini henüz eğitim hayatlarının başında tanınmalıdır.

Okulöncesi öğretmenlerinin eğitim hizmeti görevlerinin yanında kısmen de olsa diğer branşlardan farklı olarak bakım görevleri de bulunmaktadır. Özellikle ana okullarındaki 3-4 yaş grubundaki çocukların bazı özbakım becerilerini henüz kazanmamış olmaları erkek öğretmen adaylarını kaygılandırmaktadır. Bu yüzden erkek okulöncesi öğretmenlerinin ilk okullarda bulunan anasınıflarında ya da ana okullarındaki 5 yaş grubunda istihdam edilmeleri önerilmektedir.

Araştırma sonuçları kızsız meslek lisesi mezunu öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygı düzeylerinin daha düşük olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğretmenlik mesleği bilgi değil beceri mesleğidir. Bu araştırma sonucu dikkate alındığında bireylerin kademeli olarak mesleklere yönelmelerinin, onların seçtiği mesleklere karşı kaygılarının düşük olmasına neden olacağı söylenebilir. Bu yüzden birçok meslek grubunda kademeli olarak mesleklere yönelme şeklindeki yönelmelerin kaygı düzeyini düşüreceği ve daha donanımlı meslek sahibi bireyler ortaya çıkaracağı düşünülmektedir. Ayrıca öğretmenlik mesleğinin beceri mesleği olması noktasından hareketle eğitim fakültelerine girişlerde ÖSYM'nin yaptığı merkezi sınavların yanında, mülakat gibi çeşitli sınavlar dizisinin de olması gerekmektedir.

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Applying Response-to-Intervention in Elementary Schools: Perceptions of Primary Administrators

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Abstract

We examined perceptions of Response-to-Intervention held by five administrators in elementary schools within a district committed to its implementation. We interviewed participants about school philosophy and RTI, intervention decision criteria, services, and collaboration at each tier. Findings revealed RTI processes matching descriptions in the literature, especially for assessment, tier design, and interventions. Notably, RTI implementation seemed to represent an evolution from existing practices rather than a sudden transformation, decision-making processes associated with assessment and tier-to-tier movement were still developing, and collaboration was both impacted by RTI and was critical for its success. Future research should closely examine student assessment relative to decision-making, the interface between general and special education, and ways leadership can support differentiated instruction in general education. An implication of our work is that studies like this are needed to examine schools where RTI is evolving out of previous practices rather than being generated by ongoing, intensive research.

Keywords. Response-to-intervention, evidence-based practices, learning disability diagnosis, academic assessment, behavioral assessment, three-tiers model

Introduction

The purpose of the study reported here was to gain an understanding of how Response-To-Intervention (RTI) is being implemented at the elementary level in schools that are committed to the RTI process. The research reported here provides a glimpse into how elementary schools structure the RTI tiers, how they make decisions about student movement between tiers; what results occur as a consequence of using RTI; and how school professionals interact with each other during these processes. In this paper, we report briefly on our method, we present a summary of selected results, and we discuss implications for future research.

Method

Our research involved using interviews to examine perceptions of RTI that were held by five administrators with oversight responsibilities in elementary schools within a single school district in the rocky mountain region of the United States of America. These administrators included three school principals, a Director of Special Education, and a Coordinator of RTI effort. These administrators were asked to describe their school philosophies and relate these to RTI, describe the interventions that occur in relation to their multilevel RTI structures, and identify critical decision processes and who makes those decisions.

Results

We first note that the experiences reported in this study come from a single district that is at a particular point in its journey toward realizing the vision of RTI. The study is also confined to the elementary level. Finally, the perceptions of these participants about practices are those of administrators. While knowing the views of persons with administrative responsibilities is important (e.g., Shepherd & Salemier, 2011; Werts et al., 2009), practitioners responsible for delivering services might present different and important perspectives.

Summarizing first the responses to questions about building philosophy and RTI, there was an emphasis on all students being part of RTI; on all students accessing general curriculum and receiving needed interventions; on meeting academic and behavioral needs, with a goal of a year or more of growth for each student; and on

collaboration. In the language of institutional ethnography, these define “ruling work” for teachers and others. For these administrators, the need to realize in practice these five points impacted how they monitored, supported, and evaluated work within their schools. As noted by one of the district-level participants (Johnson), “We use performance data of students to determine if we’re being effective or not. If [it] is not effective then the district needs to intervene with the building, give more support and directives.”

With respect to intervention practices, these were characterized with respect to both within- and between-tiers. We found that these administrators described practices within tiers in the direction one might expect given the way they have been defined in the literature: Tier 1 emphasized core curriculum in the classroom; Tier 2 emphasized interventions designed to assist at-risk students in realizing better access to the core curriculum, employing various published curriculum; and Tier 3 was largely special education services designed to serve identified students. We noted an emphasis on reading and math in the way RTI was discussed, with behavioral issues mentioned much less often. The expression “double dipping” was used to describe Tier 2 interventions, addressing both the situation of a student needing a “refresher” and the student with an apparent skill deficit. In the language of institutional ethnography, these participants were describing the “work practices of everyday life” of teachers and others.

The decision processes that were described by these participants asserted that teachers were to use quantitative information, collected at all three tiers, especially information derived from regular benchmark data collected three times per year on all students, and more frequently gathered progress monitoring data for those students receiving interventions, using the District-approved AIMSweb® system. However, the discussion of decision-making processes is where we were most likely to observe what could be described as “fault lines” in the vernacular of institutional ethnography: places where the RTI model and actual practices sometimes expressed discrepancies or processes in flux. These included uncertainties over the optimal objective criteria for making intervention change decisions; evidence of reliance in some situations on subjective data, a practice that may have varied in degree between schools who were at different points in their own development; issues that arose over the interpretations of appropriate Tier-level services when a student transferred between schools; and questions about the meaning and validity of progress monitoring data as a measure of growth in students receiving interventions.

Finally, the participants emphasized collaboration among general educators, between general educators and intervention service providers, and between general educators and both special educators and related service providers. When presenting the processing interchanges that occurred, the participants described how collaboration became more intense as a student moved from Tier 1, to Tier 2, to Tier 3, and how there were increasingly more and different players as one moved between these same tiers. The participants suggested by their comments that collaboration had been happening before RTI entered the picture, but that its quality and frequency were now greater as a function of the RTI expectations.

Discussion

We offer three interpretations of our own, derived from our conversations with these five administrators. First, the implementation and evolution of RTI in this District can best be described as a reshaping and extension of past practices rather than an abrupt implementation of something quite new and different. What seemed most apparent to us is that past practices around teacher decision-making, interventions, collaboration, and student placement have become more standardized, now occurring with potentially greater fidelity and with increased accountability as a result of the introduction of an RTI framework. It is perhaps in the formalization of data collection that we saw the most dramatic change with respect to the reported day-to-day activities of teachers and others in this District. Yet, we wonder about the reach of data-based decision-making in relation to instructional interventions and student placement: Can data gathered on student progress be used to address critical questions of service adequacy in the larger picture of relationships between general and special education? Or, do these data simply drive a cycle in which interventions become more or less intense and/or more or less isolated when benchmark and progress monitoring data yield differential results? We also wonder about what would have been reported by these same administrators if instead of Tier 3 being mostly about special education it had been more of an extension of general education, as described in some models (e.g., Burns & Scholin, 2013).

Second, we were uncertain about the degree to which teachers providing intervention services, most notably at Tier 3, were attentive to student success in general education, as opposed to focusing mostly on skill remediation data as indices of their productivity. This issue lies at the heart of the RTI concept, because it appears to us that what could really distinguish RTI from more traditional special education approaches is reliance on general education progress and not necessarily on skill remediation per se for ascertaining school and

teacher accountability. In a related vein, we remain uncertain about the extent students receiving interventions, especially in Tier 3, are receiving levels of access to core curriculum that differ substantially from pre-RTI practices.

Third and finally, we were impressed with the strength of the resolve of these participants with respect to their support of collaboration. Without exception, the critical significance of providing administrative encouragement for interdisciplinary communication and coordinated service provision was emphasized. All of these individuals described changes that have occurred in ongoing collaboration between teachers and others in the District, and all spoke to the need for continuing to move in this direction in the future.

In terms of future research, we need studies of perceptions of persons more directly connected with the delivery of instruction, and in districts expressing varying levels of commitment to RTI. Hence, along with additional studies of how administrators perceive, understand, and support RTI, there is a need for more studies like that of Greenfield et al. (2010), which examined how practitioners perceive, understand, and reportedly implement these procedures. There is also a need for observational studies of RTI implementation, and studies of both perceptions and practices at the secondary level. In all cases, an objective of this research is to acquire an understanding of how RTI looks in actual practice. We believe that the institutional ethnography methodologies used here could contribute to this research.

We particularly stress the need for research that examines how practices at the different tiers are similar to, or distinct from, each other with respect to decision-making, instructional strategies and the curriculum used, and the potential impact of these similarities and differences on student progress in the general curriculum. For example, we believe that more research similar to that of Shapiro et al. (2012) is needed to better understand how teachers and others make between tier placement decisions at all tier levels, and the consequences of these decisions for students over the course of their school careers.

There was the perception on the part of these administrators that, while the RTI process appeared to increase their resolve in disability identification, its impact on “closing the gap” between successful and struggling learners remained uncertain. This district was making a determined effort to use RTI to achieve this purpose; however, it was too early to tell whether this objective was being realized. We emphasize that the issue here is not whether implementing an ideal and highly controlled RTI process results in gap minimization but rather whether the natural implementations of RTI in schools can achieve this end.

Finally, we note that these participants described intervention processes that usually involved enhancements in instructional time, instructional intensity, and targeted curricular materials. Although it was addressed, less attention was paid to how they supported and monitored interventions occurring within general education in which differentiation, lesson and material adaptations, and/or embedding provide the basis for working with struggling learners with and without disabilities. More research is needed on how leadership can support and monitor as part of their service delivery model teacher accommodations and lesson differentiation within general education. This kind of research is much needed, given that successful progress in the general curriculum is a goal of instruction within an RTI framework.

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Culture and Foreign Language Teaching

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Abstract

Why is it that communication with persons from other cultures so often is frustrating with misunderstanding? The answer to this question lies on the fact that people simply expect that being human, having common requirements of food, shelter, security etc. makes everyone alike. However they neglect the idea that values, beliefs, customs and attitudes are different from one culture to another. Foreign language learning is foreign culture learning. That is to say, learning a language involves not only learning the alphabet, the meaning of words, the rules of grammar, but also the culture of it in order to avoid misunderstanding in intercultural communication. Therefore, while designing foreign language curriculum and syllabus, the textbooks have important functions. Textbook writers should have a comparative look at foreign and native cultures. In this way learners unconsciously internalize and distinguish the cultural elements in the text. Foreign language learners should interculturally be aware of both their own culture and more importantly, that of others. Otherwise they will interpret the foreign language messages based on their own culture which may result in misunderstanding.

Keywords. Communicative competence; Foreign language learning and culture; Textbooks in foreign language culture learning

Introduction

Why is it that communication with persons from other cultures so often is frustrating with misunderstanding?

It is often thought that the group to which a person belongs is 'different'. People simply expect that being human and having common requirements of food, shelter, security and so on makes everyone alike. However, they neglect the idea or fact that the values, beliefs and attitudes surrounding them are different from culture to culture. Therefore, if someone acts or looks different from them, they evaluate the fact as 'wrong'.

Of course language plays an important role in this fact: Vocabulary, syntax, idioms, slang, dialects and so on cause difficulty in the target language. Mostly new language learners cling to just one meaning of a word or phrase in the new language, regardless of context. Language is a way of marking cultural identity. The meanings of a particular language point to the culture of a particular social group, and the analysis of those meanings, their comprehension by learners and other speakers involves the analysis and comprehension of that culture (Fenging Gao, 2006). As a matter of fact language learning is culture learning and consequently language teaching is culture teaching. So, when we come to the question about culture how can we evaluate it? We can say that culture is manifested at different layers of depth, ranging from inner core (family) basic assumptions and values through outer core attitudes, beliefs and social conventions and to surface-level behavioral manifestations.

As Oatey (2000) proposes culture is a fuzzy set of attitudes, beliefs, behavioral conventions, and basic assumptions and values that are shared by a group of people and that influence each member's interpretations of the meaning of other people's behavior.

Therefore, culture learning is a key factor in being able to use and master a foreign linguistic system.

How do we teach the culture of the target language?

First of all we have to draw a distinction between grammatical competence and communicative competence. Learning a language involves not only learning the alphabet, the meaning and arrangement of words, the rules of grammar but also learning the new languages of body, behavior and cultural custom (Gao, 2006 p.61).

Different culture may have different conventions as to what is appropriate behavior, in what contexts. Lack of relevant knowledge may cause intercultural misunderstanding (Hinde, 1997). In order to avoid misunderstanding in intercultural communication, good communication competence is indispensable.

On the other hand, foreign language learners should interculturally be aware of both their own culture and more importantly, that of others. Otherwise they will interpret the foreign language messages based on their own

culture (Rabatjazi, 2008). (Mayer 1991). So, in Hymes (1972) words grammatical competence is not enough for a good command of a foreign language, but also the ability to use language appropriately must be acquired.

According to Van Ek's model (1986) communicative ability comprises six competences:

1. *Linguistic competence*: the ability to produce and interpret meaningful utterances which are formed in accordance with the rules of the language;
 2. *Sociolinguistic competence*: the awareness of ways in which the choice of language forms is determined by such conditions as setting, relationship etc.
 3. *Discourse competence*: the ability to use appropriate strategy in the construction and interpretation of texts;
 4. *Strategic competence*: when communication is difficult, we have to find ways of 'getting our meanings across' such as rephrasing, asking for clarification;
 5. *Socio-cultural competence*: being in one specific reference frame.
6. *Social competence*: involves both the will and the skill to interact with others, involving motivation, attitudes, self-confidence, empathy and the ability to handle social situations.

Moreover, nonverbal language including gestures, body language, facial expressions are also culturally and socially remarkable from one language to another. From this point of view foreign language teaching is concerned with communication which is more than exchange of information and sending messages; focusing on establishing and maintaining relationship it often involves the indirectness of politeness.

How to teach intercultural communication in the classroom?

Developing students' skills in intercultural communication is necessary part of language teaching. For this purpose, EFT curriculum and textbooks are expected to reflex a range of cultural context and to include intercultural elements.

As Rabatjazi puts forward to have a valid and affective outcome of foreign language teaching process, a special attention should be given to curriculum planning and syllabus design. The curriculum, according to him is more than a syllabus where both terms are frequently used in a variety of ways, as syllabus is a list of what is to be thought, sometimes including a list of appropriate materials, whereas curriculum involves a proposal for ordering what is to be thought in order to arrive at specific objectives which may be integrated into the curriculum.

As designing foreign language curriculum and syllabus appears challenging and requires a lot of time and energy to focus on linguistic and cultural aspects to be covered; textbooks should not only reflect the target culture but also the source culture and international cultures. Therefore, a text book has important functions on several levels:

1. A text book is considered to be a TEACHER in the sense that it contains material that is intended to instruct students directly about the target culture.
2. A text book is considered to be a MAP in the sense that it clearly gives an overview of the structured programme of linguistic and cultural elements to be covered in a specific period of time.
3. A text book is considered as a RESOURCE in the sense that a set of materials and activities from which the most appropriate or useful items are selected is presented.
4. Text books are also regarded as a TRAINER in the sense that it teaches not only the teachers but also the students how to proceed.
5. As an AUTHORITY a textbook appears very reliable, valid and written by experts.

In short, we can say that textbooks culturally designed are an important angle of the triangle of teaching and the other angles are teachers and students (Cortazzi and Jin, 2000).

Selection of texts

Moreover, the texts selected to serve as textbooks for the students should be interesting, informative and enlightening. To achieve this writers must be experienced in sociology, anthropology, science and culture, should be encouraged.

As Byram 1997 and Kramsch 1998 argued the textbooks should be loaded not only with the culture of the target language, but with native language culture as well in order to developed students' perspectives to view the world in order to make them intercultural speakers. Therefore, finding similarities and differences can help

learners to get a general view of the two cultures. As a result, learners unconsciously internalize and distinguish the cultural elements in the texts.

Moreover, culture is subject to changes as language is. Overtime it changes and transforms into a new form. People live the new life with new forms. So textbooks should be inclusive of contemporary cultures as well.

Conclusion

As a conclusion, communication is more than exchange of information and sending message. Learning foreign languages, if done under the guidance of an up-to-date teacher, is a long-term process that opens the richness of other ways of looking at the world and human communication. Therefore, the integration of language and culture learning by using the language as a medium for the continuing socialization of students in a process which is not intended to imitate and replicate the socialization of non-native speaker teachers ,but rather to developed students' cultural competence from its existing stage by changing it into intercultural competence. As a matter of fact, a true representation of a culture and people depends on the writers' cultural awareness and their philosophy of education..

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Understanding IN SHA ALLAH in Cross-Cultural Communication

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Abstract

In Sha Allah is one of the most common phrases in the Arabic and generally Muslim societies in Asia and Africa. The term, which literally translates to ‘if it is God’s will,’ has a distinct literal meaning in Anglo-Saxon English language communication, but in reality under the cultural cap where it is used, *In Sha Allah* can mean a multitude of emotions both positive and negative and more importantly well beyond the literal translation of the phrase in English. Through this paper the readers are offered a glimpse into one Arabic-speaking culture and its workings, which are quite different from the more direct and absolute mechanisms typical in Western cultures. Furthermore, in recent years, as there has been a push to better understand the Arab cultures and their beliefs, a phrase like *In Sha Allah* can help immensely to bridge the communication gap between different cultures and help create harmonious societies.

Keywords.

Introduction

Today, in many parts of the world, everyday culture is swayed by international influences. Irving (2005) states that globalization, a continuously growing confluence of culture and economics, has led to many social and political implications, and communication has greatly been affected by this process. Whether right or wrong, globalization seems unstoppable. Mass tourism, the interdependency of world markets and the Internet with its efficient and instant links to even the remotest corners of the globe have all contributed to an up-growth in cross-cultural communication. Hence, in the course of their daily lives more and more people all over the world are confronted with the task of communicating with people from cultures very different from their own. English, often not native to either speaker, is most frequently the language employed, i.e. the lingua franca. Yet the language itself is often the least important aspect; intercultural awareness and tolerance play a central role in making global communication work.

The concept of cross-cultural competence is neither static nor the direct result of being educated and trained. Hammer, Bennet & Wiseman (2003) see cross-cultural competence as widely perceived and being crucial for people to interact effectively and appropriately with members of different cultures. Furthermore, it cross-cultural competence not innate with people, nor does it accidentally occur while working and/or living in a foreign country. Spitzberg (2000) refers to motivation, culturally appropriate behavior and local knowledge as the three important components for cross-cultural competence. The author is of the opinion that these competencies are developed gradually by experience and hence, will never be complete.

Growing up in Germany, I was always interested in exploring foreign cultures and understanding the nuances that makes one group of people a little different from another group of people. Although I have visited more than forty countries during my vacation travels over the years, where in some cases I was able to appreciate briefly the differences between the local’s ways of life and my own, it was only in 2008, when I moved to the United Arab Emirates (U.A.E.), that I was for the first time able to truly immerse myself into a clearly different culture than my own. In the appendix to this paper, I have listed eight unique cross-cultural communication dialogues from my workplace and my English Language Learning (ELL) classroom that I have experienced over the years while working and teaching in the U.A.E. In the following pages, I will discuss and analyze these examples and illustrate unique cross-cultural differences between a Western-born and raised education professional and her workplace colleagues and U.A.E.-born students.

For the purposes of this paper, I use the term “Muslim” to refer to people who practice Islam, “Arab” to refer to people who are ethnically Arab and “Emirati” to denote citizens of the U.A.E. Most of the people I am referencing are from the Middle East, North Africa or are Muslims from the Indian subcontinent. It should be

noted that groups of people who practice other religions but are born and raised in these countries may share similar cultural influences.

Culture and Context

Al-Issa (2005) states that “to understand the causes of classroom cultural conflicts, an understanding of the different cultural patterns between Eastern (i.e., Arabs) and Western (i.e., North Americans and Western European) cultures is a prerequisite” (p. 151). The cultural patterns of individualism versus collectivism and high-context versus low-context can often be used to illustrate these classroom conflicts or differences. Individualism is associated with traditions or perspectives that emphasize “the primacy of the individual and his or her rights, independence, and relationship with other individuals” (Forsyth, 2006, p. 77). Collectivism, on the other hand, is an ideology that emphasizes the group or community over the individual (Forsyth, 2006). High context and low context cultures, as defined by the anthropologist Edward T. Hall in his seminal work, *Beyond Culture* (1976), refer to people’s tendency to favor more or less linguistic support for messages. In a high context culture, like the U.A.E., things are often left unsaid and the group uses their shared experiences and expectations to decipher the missing language. In a low context culture, the person speaking needs to be much more explicit and individual word choices are less important. The following analysis of the dialogues will clearly engender cultural inferences that may form a useful guide for future workplace and classroom interactions of a similar kind.

Culture is difference, variability and a potential source of conflict when one culture comes into contact with another. It is not an expendable fifth skill in addition to the four general language skills, which are speaking, reading, listening and writing. Korhonen (2002) argues that it is important to appreciate the relationship of language and culture in teaching. He states that successful second language acquisition is accompanied by second culture acquisition, for example linguistic competence is accompanied by cross-cultural competence. Therefore, it is wrong to assume that ELL teachers succeed by teaching the four skills without considering the culture. On one hand, intercultural knowledge evidently completes the language teacher’s competence, while on the other hand it serves as a necessary asset for students to support their emerging language abilities. Eventually, cultural awareness of a certain context becomes an educational overall objective and therefore must be viewed both, as enabling language proficiency and as being a mandatory learning outcome resulting in the reflection on language proficiency.

Context is the overarching concept, which subsumes many other variables including the setting, the teacher, the learner, instructional methods, instructional materials, and assessment approaches. Williams (2001) asserts that language has no function independent of the context in which it is used, thus language always refers to something beyond itself: the cultural context. This cultural context defines the language patterns being used when particular persons come together under certain circumstances at a particular time and place. Wierzbicka (1997) argues that there is a very close link between the life of a society and the lexicon of the language spoken by its members. Understanding the context means the people know certain cultural meanings associated with, for example, time, place, person, and circumstance. Javidan (2008a) states that this understanding prescribes behavior appropriate to those circumstances. In essence, one does not need to be familiar with the other person in order to communicate, but one does need to understand the context. This, of course, becomes far more problematical in cross-cultural encounters.

Understanding IN SHA ALLAH:

A Muslim believes that God’s hand is present in every occurrence on earth. Nothing can happen without God ordaining it. Williams (2008) states that Muslims often proclaim that such and such will happen ‘if God wills’ (*In Sha Allah*). Predominantly for Muslims, God alone controls the future and therefore any attempt to lay down what shall happen in the future, such as agreeing on a date or time or finishing a report, is presumptuous and, for some very religious Muslims, borders on the blasphemous. In historical terms, traditional life in the desert or at sea was without detailed maps and equipment and ‘time’ was dictated by the sun and the call to prayer. Confidence in God’s ordained will played a vital role in the orderly continuance of daily life.

In Sha Allah is one of the most common phrases in Arabic and was originally meant as a qualifier to an intention. The term, which literally translates to ‘if it is God’s will,’ is not typically used in Anglo-Saxon English language communication, but in the Arab region’s colloquial English communication it often is used to refer to an event that may or may not happen in the future. In linguistics, this may be considered as one of the untranslatable phrases since it is not that the words cannot be literally explained in another language (like

English) but because the essence of the phrase is lost as it crosses from one cultural language interpretation to another.

Intonation and stress patterns of speech, while using the term *In Sha Allah*, lead to very important distinguishing characteristics in its meaning and reference when it is used in the Arab region's spoken English communication. The term is also used in written form but the variations of interpretation are not as profound in that instance.

FOUR CONTEXTUAL EXPLANATIONS OF IN SHA ALLAH:

Through my years of living in the U.A.E., and based on various lengthy discussions with the local Emirati people, I have concluded that there are typically four different contextual explanations for the use of the term *In Sha Allah* in the Arabic context:

Type 1: Something only happens if Allah (God) wills it to happen

Type 2: To defer responsibility for an event or situation

Type 3: To cover uncertainty

Type 4: To respectfully say that something cannot be done

It should be noted that the four types listed above are generally associated with the following four guiding principles that Muslims believe in:

Faith in the Will of Allah (Walking in the footsteps of life per God's will): Type 1 above
Acceptance to the Will of Allah (Understanding and submitting to the will of God): Type 2 above
Confidence in the Will of Allah (Trusting in God in times of uncertainty): Type 3 above
Forbearance to the Will of Allah (Respectfully declining a request from someone): Type 4 above

Based on my previous ELL teaching experience in the region, consider the example of two students, Fatima and Mariam, who are preparing for their final English examination for the term. Both of the female students come from religiously conservative backgrounds. Fatima does not miss any English classes, works diligently, participates actively in classroom discussions and submits all the assignments on time. In contrast, Mariam does not attend class regularly, does not submit all the assignments and is generally an unmotivated student. One day before the final exam, I asked them after class whether they think they will do well in the impending exam. Both replied, "In Sha Allah, I will do well." Obviously, both had different mental interpretations of the words *In Sha Allah*. Fatima, who had studied hard throughout the term and therefore had prepared herself well, said *In Sha Allah* with confidence and certainty, while Mariam who didn't take studying English seriously used the words *In Sha Allah* less affirmatively. Fatima's utterance of the phrase *In Sha Allah* can be interpreted as a combination of Type 1 and Type 3 context as discussed above, while Mariam's response, depending on her intonation and speed of voice, rather referred to a combination of Type 2 and Type 3.

However the term *In Sha Allah* is not always used in the ways discussed in the above example, meaning in many instances, when there is no hope of something happening, it is thrown in for reasons of politeness and good measure (Type 4). In conversations between Arabs and Westerners, an indicator for an event rather not happening in the future is a pause between the end of the sentence and the *In Sha Allah* phrase.

Genc and Bada (2005) argue that there are a variety of challenges while exchanging messages and ideas through communication boundaries between people, especially when communicating with each other in different cultural settings. Depending on the context, the phrase *In Sha Allah* can be amusing or frustrating for Westerners while engaging with Arabs because it can signal that whatever is intended may or may not be done. The limitation in this situation stems from the range of positive to negative interpretations of this unique regional phrase (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 2009).

Discussion About the Cross-Cultural Communication Dialogues

The first dialogue (Appendix, 1) can take place in any part of the world among football fans, except for the use of the term *In Sha Allah*. The main difference between this conversation in the U.A.E. and, for example, a similar conversation in a Western country is the fact that God's will is expressly conveyed while discussing the prospects for the football match. While the same range of outcomes and uncertainty are applicable to a football match played in any part of the world, Muslims will more clearly submit and defer to God's final will to such an event taking place in the future.

The second dialogue (Appendix, 2) is a typical example of the use of the term in daily life in this region. In most other cultures outside the Arab world, such a mundane event as meeting at a designated time in the future for social interaction will not require the express consent of God, but Muslims will often defer to God's will to

keep true to their faith and beliefs. This is probably something that is uttered almost automatically because of years of use and practice.

The third dialogue (Appendix, 3) is something that I consider to be a characteristic outcome of the collectivist and high-context culture of this region. The Arabic language is rather polite and there is no absolute outcome that can be taken for granted forever, since only God has absolute control over what happens in the future. Arabs will typically never close any conversation in a completely negative vein. While this is an extremely kind and pious gesture on their part, Westerners often misunderstand this as meaning that their conversation can still progress forward in the near future, which is often not the case.

The fourth dialogue (Appendix, 4) demonstrates that Arabs will often accept a negative outcome with the same level of spiritual belief as they do positive outcomes and contend that everything happens per the will of God.

The fifth dialogue (Appendix, 5) is a typical collective response to such a request from a teacher in potentially all types of classrooms in this region. The literal translation to English can be confusing to a Western teacher because he or she will wonder why God's will is so important when students need to prepare for an exam. While there are unlimited indigenous explanations for this, it is accurate to assume that different students in the classroom are using the term to mean different things about their prospects for the exam from confidence to trepidation, but all under the guidance of God's will.

Ahmed's energetic response (Appendix, 6) to his teacher unfortunately does not provide sufficient clues about his actual level of motivation to prepare diligently for the final exam. *In Sha Allah* offers a certain level of freedom to Ahmed to defer to God's will and the inherent uncertainty about the future where he can justify his actions to himself and his family irrespective of his actual level of effort towards the final exam.

The students in their response to the teacher (Appendix, 7) in dialogue seven are again able to hide behind the multitude of emotions, both positive and uncertain, that can be conveyed via *In Sha Allah*. Here it should simply be noted that students in the U.A.E. classroom will probably learn new concepts with similar levels of variation as they would in any other part of the world but they may convey this message differently than students from other cultures if the literal Anglo-Saxon English translation of their response is noted.

Per the collectivist and low-context culture in which Rashid was raised (Appendix, 8), his response to his teacher, even if it is a lie to a Western observer, is somewhat justified. Rashid expects his teacher to understand that other priorities like family or farm commitments might take precedence for him, since he is from a collectivist society. It should be noted here that collectivism should not be misunderstood as a proxy for generally timid behavior, in fact I have experienced that family honor and respect often supersede other considerations in times of distress or even embarrassment.

Conclusion

Devout Muslims utter *In Sha Allah* whenever they make a statement about any plan to do something because they request God's blessing for the activity and they also accept that God may have other plans for the outcome.

With these eight dialogues I have tried to make a genuine effort to illustrate the significant cross-cultural communication differences that can arise in the workplace or in classroom interactions between a Western-born and raised education professional and her workplace colleagues and U.A.E.-born students. In spite of my six years of experience in living and working in this part of the world, I still run into situations where I do not completely understand the cultural nuances and the Arabs interpret my behavior as that expected of a typical Westerner.

Every education professional should make all efforts to better understand the culture of their students if the student's culture is different from their own. In the long-run, efforts to bridge the student-teacher cultural gap will result in a better classroom environment with more engaged students. Eventually all this extra effort will result in improved student achievement and mutual appreciation between the two parties.

Ideally, a modern education professional should directly or indirectly not just help his or her students to develop the technical skills related to their vocation but also make them culturally competent learners so they can thrive in the globalized world. I also sincerely hope that through better understanding the meaning and relevance of a phrase like *In Sha Allah*, outsiders will further appreciate and respect Arab cultures and beliefs which can help immensely to bridge cross-cultural communication challenges at all levels.

APPENDIX (CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION DIALOGUES)

1. Context: Conversation between colleagues at work
Spoken: The Al Ain football team will win the match on Sunday, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 1 (Faith) & 3 (Confidence)
2. Context: Conversation between friends
Spoken: We will meet for tea and shisha at five o' clock, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 1 (Faith)
3. Context: Salesman and a prospective client
John (salesman): You missed our meeting this afternoon, can we reschedule?
Ali (client): Maybe in the future sometime we will meet again, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 4 (Forbearance)
4. Context: Overheard conversation between a husband and wife about a broken TV screen
Husband: It's unfortunate but this happened in spite of professional packaging
Wife: We can get it repaired, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 1 (Faith) & 2 (Acceptance)
5. Context: Teacher to her students in a classroom
Teacher: Please prepare well for tomorrow's exam
Students (in chorus): In Sha Allah, Miss, we will
Context Type: 1 (Faith), 2 (Acceptance) & 3 (Confidence)
6. Context: Teacher to one student, when returning a test
Teacher: Ahmed, you have failed again, will you prepare more for the final?
Ahmed (energetically): In Sha Allah, Miss, I will work hard
Context Type: 1 (Faith) & 2 (Acceptance)
7. Context: Teacher to her students in a classroom
Teacher: Can you apply today's grammar lesson in a sentence now?
Students (in chorus): In Sha Allah, Miss, we can do it easily
Context Type: 1 (Faith), 2 (Acceptance) & 3 (Confidence)
8. Context: Teacher to her student on the phone, who misses class regularly
Teacher: Rashid, will you be coming to school tomorrow for my exam?
Rashid (knowing well he has other plans for the next day): I will try my best, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 4 (Forbearance)

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Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterliklerini Kazandırma Durumuna İlişkin Öğretmen Adayı Görüşleri

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Özet

Bu araştırmanın amacı öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmenlik mesleği genel yeterliklerini kazandırma durumuna ilişkin öğretmen aday görüşlerinin belirlenmesidir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda eğitim fakültelerinde verilen öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kişisel ve mesleki değerler, öğrenciyi tanıma, öğrenme ve öğretme süreci, öğrenmeyi, gelişimi izleme ve değerlendirme, okul-aile ve toplum ilişkileri ve program ve içerik bilgisi boyutlarında ne tür yeterlikler kazandırdığı belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu amaçlı örnekleme yöntemlerinden maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme ve ölçüt örnekleme teknikleri birlikte kullanılarak, Adıyaman Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinin Sınıf Öğretmenliği, Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği, İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği, Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretmenliği, Türkçe Öğretmenliği, Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği ve Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık ana bilim dallarında eğitim alan son sınıf öğrencileri arasından seçilen 21 öğretmen adayı oluşturulmuştur. Veriler, Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri çerçevesinde geliştirilmiş olan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme formu ile toplanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde betimsel analiz tekniği kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada, öğretmenlik eğitiminin öğretmen adaylarına kişisel ve mesleki değerler, öğrenme ve öğretme süreci, program ve içerik bilgisi boyutlarında birtakım yeterlikler kazandırdığı; ancak öğrenciyi tanıma, öğrenmeyi, gelişimi izleme ve değerlendirme, okul-aile ve toplum ilişkileri boyutlarında zayıf kaldığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Öğretmenlik Eğitimi, Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri.

Giriş

Öğretmenlik, dünyanın en eski mesleklerinden biridir. İlkçağlarda insanlığı eğitime misyonu üstlenmiş olan din adamlarının yerini, öğrenciyi bakış açısının değişmesi ve formal eğitim kurumlarının gelişmesi ile örgün eğitim kurumlarında, belirli ilkeler çerçevesinde eğitim almış olan öğretmenlerin aldığı bilinmektedir. Bilgi üretme ve bilginin kullanılmasının var olan bilgileri ezberlemekten anlamlı görüldüğü 21.yüzyılda, eğitim kurumlarından ve eğitim sürecinden beklentilerin değişmesi öğretmene bakış açısının ve öğretmenden beklentilerin de değişmesini sağlamıştır. Bilgi çağıyla başlayan değişim; küreselleşme, işbirliği ve rekabet, eleştirel düşünme, dijital teknoloji kullanımı, bilgi kullanımı ve yaratıcılık gibi 21. yüzyıl becerileri (Özcan, 2013:9) nitelikli öğretmene duyulan ihtiyacı artırmıştır.

Öğretmenlik mesleğinin niteliğinin geliştirilmesi, öğretmenlerin sahip olması gereken genel yeterliklerin bilinmesi ve bunların hizmet öncesi ve hizmet içi dönemde öğretmen adayları ve öğretmenlere kazandırılması ile mümkün görünmektedir (MEB, 2006:1). Bu doğrultuda öğretmenlik eğitiminin niteliğinin geliştirilmesi için Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, Yükseköğretim Kurumu ve konu ile ilgilenen bilim insanları öğretmenlik eğitimi konusunda çeşitli araştırmalara ve projelere yönelmiştir.

YÖK-MEB, Öğretmen Yetiştirme ve Eğitimi Genel Müdürlüğü ve EARGED işbirliği ile öğretmenlik mesleğini, etkili ve verimli biçimde yerine getirebilmek için sahip olunması gereken genel bilgi, beceri ve tutumlardan oluşan Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri,

- A. Kişisel ve Meslekî Değerler - Meslekî Gelişim,
- B. Öğrenciyi Tanıma,
- C. Öğrenme ve Öğretme Süreci,

- D. Öğrenmeyi, Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme,
- E. Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri,
- F. Program ve İçerik Bilgisi

olmak üzere 6 ana yeterlik alanını kapsayacak şekilde oluşturulmuş ve bu yeterliklere ilişkin 39 alt yeterlik ve 244 performans göstergesi belirlenmiştir. Bu araştırmada, öğretmenlik mesleğinin niteliğinin yükseltilmesi amacı ile öğretmenlik mesleği genel yeterliklerinin hizmet öncesi dönemde öğretmen adaylarına kazandırılma durumu incelenmeye çalışılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Amacı

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmenlik mesleği genel yeterliklerini kazandırma durumuna ilişkin öğretmen adayı görüşlerinin belirlenmesidir. Araştırmanın alt problemleri ise şunlardır:

- Öğretmenlik eğitimi öğretmen adaylarına,
- 1) Kişisel ve mesleki değerler, mesleki gelişim,
 - 2) Öğrenciyi tanıma ,
 - 3) Öğrenme ve öğretme süreci ,
 - 4) Öğrenmeyi, gelişimi izleme ve değerlendirme ,
 - 5) Okul-aile ve toplum ilişkileri ve
 - 6) Program ve içerik bilgisi boyutlarında ne tür yeterlikler kazandırmaktadır?

Yöntem

Çalışma Grubu

Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2013-2014 eğitim-öğretim yılında, Adıyaman Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları oluşturmaktadır. Çalışma grubunun belirlenmesi aşamasında öncelikle amaçlı örnekleme yöntemlerinden maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme yapılarak Adıyaman Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinin Sınıf Öğretmenliği, Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretmenliği, Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği, Türkçe Öğretmenliği, İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği, Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği ve Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışma ana bilim dallarında eğitim alan öğretmen adaylarından oluşan bir grup belirlenmiştir. Daha sonra ölçüt örnekleme yöntemi ile her bir ana bilim dalından üç öğretmen adayı belirlenerek toplam 21 öğretmen adayı ile görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışma grubunda yer alan öğretmen adaylarının belirlenmesinde temel alınan ölçütler ise şu şekildedir:

- Son sınıf öğrencisi olmak (Okul Deneyimi uygulamalarını gerçekleştirmiş olmak)
- Akademik not ortalaması 3.00 (4 üzerinden)'ün üzerinde olmak.

Çalışma Grubuna Ait Özellikler

Araştırmaya katılan öğretmen adaylarının 11'i bayan, 10'u erkektir. Öğretmen adaylarının akademik not ortalaması 3.08-3.57 arasında değişmektedir.

Verilerin Toplanması ve Analizi

Verilerin toplanması aşamasında “Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri” temel olarak oluşturulmuş olan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme formu kullanılmıştır. Oluşturulan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme formu, kapsam, anlaşılabilirlik ve hitap edilen kitleye uygunluk ölçütleri açısından değerlendirilmek üzere iki alan uzmanına sunulmuştur. Alınan uzman görüşleri doğrultusunda formlara son hali verilerek 2014 yılı Ocak ayında öğretmen adayları ile her biri 20-30 dakika süren görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Görüşmelerin ses kayıt cihazı ile kayıt altına alınması sağlanmıştır. Ancak 6 öğretmen adayı ses kaydının alınmasını istemediği için bunlarla gerçekleştirilen görüşmeler esnasında araştırmacı not almıştır.

Verilerin toplanması ve analizi sürecinde geçerlik ve güvenilirliğin sağlanması amacıyla farklı yöntemlere başvurulmuştur. Öncelikle araştırmanın iç geçerliğinin (inandırıcılık) sağlanması amacıyla, uzman görüşüne başvurulmuş ve katılımcı teyidi yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Dış geçerliğin (aktarılabirlik) sağlanması amacıyla ise amaçlı örnekleme yöntemi kullanılarak, farklı ana bilim dallarında öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına ulaşılmaya çalışılmış, bu şekilde farklı veri kaynakları araştırma kapsamına alınmıştır. Ayrıca yine dış geçerliğin

sağlanması amacıyla araştırmanın genellenabilirliğini artırmak için sürekli katılımcıların görüşlerine doğrudan atıfta bulunularak ayrıntılı betimleme yapılması sağlanmıştır. Güvenirliğin sağlanması aşamasında ise öncelikle iç güvenirliliğin (tutarlık) sağlanması amacıyla Yıldırım ve Şimşek (2006)'in belirtmiş olduğu önceden oluşturulmuş ve ayrıntılı olarak betimlenmiş bir çerçeveye (Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri) bağlı kalınarak veriler analiz edilmiştir. Dış güvenirliliğin (teyit incelemesi) sağlanması amacıyla ise araştırma verilerinin toplanması ve analizi süreçlerinin ayrıntılı bir biçimde tanımlanmasına dikkat edilmiştir.

Verilerin analizi aşamasında öğretmen adayları ile gerçekleştirilen görüşmelere ait ses kayıtlarının transkripsiyonları yapılarak ulaşılan ham veriler Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri çerçevesinde betimsel analiz yöntemi ile analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular ve Yorum

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler, Mesleki Gelişim Yeterliklerine İlişkin Bulgular ve Yorum

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler ile Mesleki Gelişim” boyutundaki yeterliklere ilişkin öğretmen adayı görüşleri incelendiğinde “Öğrencilere Değer Verme, Anlama ve Saygı Gösterme”, “Öğrencilerin Öğrenebileceğine İnanma”, “Ulusal ve Evrensel Değerlere Önem Verme”, “Kişisel Gelişim Sağlama” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindikleri, ancak “Öz Değerlendirme Yapma”, “Mesleki Gelişmeleri İzleme ve Katkı Sağlama”, “Okulun İyileştirilmesine Katkı Sağlama” ve “Mesleki Yasaları İzleme, Görev ve Sorumlulukları Yerine Getirme” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin kazanımları edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 1. Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler, Mesleki Gelişim Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 1: Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler Mesleki Gelişim Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Öğrencilere Değer Verme, Anlama ve Saygı Gösterme	-Öğrencilere yaşlarına/yaşantılarına uygun eğitsel ortamlar sunma -Sevgi-Saygıya dayalı bir sınıf ortamı oluşturma -Eğitsel materyallerin seçiminde öğrencilerin özelliklerine dikkat etme
Öğrencilerin Öğrenebileceğine İnanma	Öğrencilerin düzeylerine uygun/gerçekçi amaçlar belirleme -İmkan sunulduğunda her öğrencinin başarılı olacağına inanma -Öğrencilerin farklı öğrenme özelliklerinin olduğunu bilme
Ulusal ve Evrensel Değerlere Önem Verme	-Sınıf içi ve dışı etkinlikleri düzenlerken öğrencilerin kültürel farklılıklarını dikkate alma -İnsan haklarına uygun biçimde davranma -Demokratik olma
Öz Değerlendirme Yapma	-
Kişisel Gelişim Sağlama	-Teknoloji, bilim, kültür-sanat alanındaki gelişmeleri takip etme -Kişisel bakımına ve sağlığına özen gösterme
Mesleki Gelişmeleri İzleme ve Katkı Sağlama	-
Okulun İyileştirilmesine ve Geliştirilmesine Katkı Sağlama	-
Mesleki Yasaları İzleme, Görev ve Sorumlulukları Yerine Getirme	-

“Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler, Mesleki Gelişim” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen adayı “bizler gerek almış olduğumuz teorik dersler yoluyla, gerekse öğretim elemanlarının bize yaklaşım tarzlarını örnek alarak kendi öğrencilerimize nasıl davranmamız gerektiğine ilişkin bir görüş sahibi olduk, onlara her şeyden önce insan olmanın önemini öğretecek bir eğitim vermenin her şeyden önemli olduğunu öğrendik” şeklinde görüş belirtirken bir başka öğretmen adayı “...bir öğretmenin başarısı öğrencinin kapasitesini bilmesine bağlıdır. Eğer bir öğretmen sınıfındaki tüm öğrencilerinin tıp fakültesini kazanmasını istiyorsa ve hepsini bu şekilde bir eğitimden geçirmek istiyorsa esas başarısızlık orada başlar. Her öğrencinin öğrenme kapasitesi farklıdır, her öğrencinin seçeceği meslek farklıdır, hayata bakış açısı farklıdır. Öğretmenler bunun bilincinde olarak her öğrenciye kendilerine uygun amaçlar belirlemeye çalışmalıdır. Ben almış olduğum “Okul Deneyimi” dersindeki edindiğim tecrübelerle, öğretmen olduğumda ilk dikkat edeceğim konunun bu olduğunu düşünüyorum” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Öğrenciyi Tanıma

Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Öğrenciyi Tanıma” boyutundaki yeterliklere ilişkin öğretmen aday görüşleri incelendiğinde “Gelişim Özelliklerini Tanıma”, “İlgi ve İhtiyaçları Dikkate Alma”, “Öğrenciyi Rehberlik Etme”, “Öğrenciyi Değer Verme” ve “Dersi Planlama” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 2. “Öğrenciyi Tanıma” Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Oluşturulan Alt Tema Ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 2: Öğrenciyi Tanıma Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Gelişim Özelliklerini Tanıma	-Öğrencilerin gelişim dönemlerinin farkında olma -Bireysel farklılıklara önem verme
İlgi ve İhtiyaçları Dikkate Alma	-Eğitim-öğretim sürecin planlanmasında bireysel farklılıkları dikkate alma
Öğrenciyi Değer Verme	-Öğrencilerin sahip oldukları değerlere saygı gösterme -Öğrencilere isimleri ile hitap etme
Öğrenciyi Rehberlik Etme	-Öğrencilerin fikirlerine saygılı olma -Öğrencinin kişisel gelişimi için aile ve uzmanlarla işbirliği yapmanın önemine inanma -Öğrencinin güçlü ve zayıf yönlerini fark etme ve bunları geliştirecek imkanlar sunma
Dersi Planlama	-Öğrencilerin ilgi ve ihtiyaçları doğrultusunda plan hazırlama, -Kullanılacak yöntem ve tekniklerin bilgisine sahip olma

“Öğrenciyi Tanıma” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen aday “dört yıl boyunca aldığımız tüm eğitim derslerinde en çok vurgulanan konu her öğrencinin farklı yaşlarda farklı özelliklerinin olduğuydu. Yani öğrencilerin içinde buldukları yaşlara göre öğrenciler farklı davranışlarda bulunabilir. Öğretmenler, öğrencilerin gelişim dönemlerinin özelliklerinin farkında olarak adım attıkları takdirde daha kaliteli bir eğitim-öğretim süreci gerçekleşmiş olur diyebiliriz” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen aday “almış olduğum öğretmenlik eğitimi özellikle bu son sınıfta öğrencileri daha yakından tanıma fırsatı verdi bana. Staja gittiğimde öğrencileri yakından gözleme imkanım oldu. Özellikle Rehberlik dersinde almış olduğum bilgiler öğrencilerin hangi yaş seviyesinde hangi ilgi ve ihtiyaçları olduğunun farkına varmamı sağladı. Öğrencilerin belirli dönemlerde göstermiş oldukları davranışların hepsinin gelişim dönemleriyle ilişkili olduğunu, bu yüzden onlara kızarak Cevza vermek yerine bu süreçlerini sağlıklı bir şekilde geçimlerini sağlamak amacıyla destek olmamız gerektiğini anladım” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Öğrenme- Öğretme*Süreci Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular*

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Öğrenme-Öğretme Süreci” boyutundaki yeterliklere ilişkin öğretmen aday görüşleri incelendiğinde “Materyal Hazırlama”, “Öğrenme Ortamlarını Düzenleme”, “Bireysel Farklılıkları Dikkate Alarak Öğretimi Çeşitlendirme” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindikleri, ancak “Ders Dışı Etkinlikler Düzenleme”, “Zaman Yönetimi”, “Davranış Yönetimi” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin kazanımları edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 3. Öğrenme-Öğretme Süreci Yeterlilik Alanına İlişkin Oluşturan Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 3: Öğrenme- Öğretme Süreci Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Materyal Hazırlama	-Bireysel farklılıklar çerçevesinde dersi çeşitli materyallerle zenginleştirme
Öğrenme Ortamlarını Düzenleme	-Farklı duyu organlarına hitap eden materyaller geliştirme -Sınıf ortamını ulaşılacak hedefler doğrultusunda dizayn etme -Sınıfı cazip öğrenme merkezi haline getirme
Ders Dışı Etkinlikler Düzenleme	-
Bireysel Farklılıkları Dikkate Alarak Öğretimi Çeşitlendirme	- Yöntemlerini belirlerken bireysel farklılıkları dikkate alma -Öğrenci merkezli stratejiler kullanma
Zaman Yönetimi	-
Davranış Yönetimi	-

“Öğrenme-Öğretme Süreci” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen aday “...öğretim derslerimiz var, Türkçe Öğretimi, Matematik Öğretimi gibi. Bu derslerde konu

anlatımlarımız vardı, anlatacağımız konuyu hazırlarken, kaçınıcı sınıfa hitap ediyorsak o yaş seviyesine uygun materyaller hazırlıyorduk, ayrıca hazırladığımız materyalin, öğrencinin sadece bir duyu organına değil, birden fazla duyu organına hitap ediyor olmasına özen gösteriyorduk, konunun daha anlaşılır olmasını sağlamak için ya da öğrencilerin öğrenmelerini daha kalıcı hale getirmek için. Bunun yanı sıra her ne kadar tüm kademelerde sunuş yoluyla öğretim yöntemi kullanılsa da bu yöntemin bütün konulara uygulanmasının yanlış olduğunu öğrendim...” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen adayı “kendi adıma konuşayım eğer sınıf tek düzeyse dersten hiçbir şey anlamam, uyurum. Bu birçok araştırma ile de ispatlanmış bir durum. Hele de öğretmen olarak 6-13 yaş aralığındaki bir hedef kitle ile karşı karşıyaysanız, işiniz çok zor. Aldığımız derslerde de hocalarımız çoğu zaman söyledi eğer sınıfınızı öğrencileriniz için eğlenceli hale getirmezseniz başarılı olamazsınız...” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Öğrenmeyi- Gelişimi

İzleme ve Değerlendirme Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme” boyutundaki yeterliklere ilişkin öğretmen adayı görüşleri incelendiğinde “Ölçme ve Değerlendirme Yöntem ve Tekniklerini Belirleme”, alanına ilişkin birtakım kazanımlar edindikleri ancak, “Değişik Ölçme Tekniklerini Kullanarak Öğrencinin Öğrenmelerini Ölçme”, “Verileri Analiz Ederek Yorumlama”, “Sonuçlara Göre Öğrenme-Öğretme Sürecini Gözden Geçirme” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin kazanımları edinmedikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 4. Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme Yeterliliğine İlişkin Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 4: Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntem ve tekniklerini belirleme	-Amaçlara ulaşma durumunu belirlemek için kullanılacak yöntem ve teknikleri belirleme -Farklı ölçme-değerlendirme yöntem ve teknikler hakkında bilgi sahibi olma
Değişik ölçme tekniklerini kullanarak öğrencinin öğrenmelerini ölçme	-
Verileri analiz ederek yorumlama, öğrencinin gelişimi ve öğrenmesi hakkında geri bildirim sağlama	-
Sonuçlara göre öğrenme-öğretme sürecini gözden geçirme	-

“Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen adayı “*alanımız normal sınıf öğretmenleri gibi ya da branş öğretmenleri gibi süreç değerlendirmesi yapmaya ya da akran değerlendirmesi yapmaya çok müsait değil. Biz daha çok öğrencilerin tutumları ya da davranışları ile ilgili konularla ilgili olduğumuz için ölçme değerlendirme yaparken tutum testleri geliştirmemiz , bunları uygulamamız ve sonuçlarını yorumlamamız gerekiyor. Almış olduğum derslerle testleri nasıl geliştireceğimi öğrendiğimi düşünüyorum*” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen adayı “*eğitim fakültesine ilk başladığımda en sağlıklı ölçme değerlendirme tekniğinin çoktan seçmeli sorulara dayalı yöntem olduğunu düşünüyordum. Ama bu yöntemin öğrencilerin kendilerini ifade etme becerileri üzerinde oldukça olumsuz etkileri olduğunu öğrendim. Hatta almış olduğum derslere ilişkin yapılan sınavlarda da çoktan seçmeli sorulardan oluşan sınavların bana bir şey kazandırmadığını gördüm. Hem süreci hem ürünü değerlendirmeye yönelik yöntem ve tekniklerin neler olduğunu ve bu ölçme araçlarını nasıl geliştireceğimi öğrendim*” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri” boyutundaki yeterliliklere ilişkin öğretmen adayı görüşleri incelendiğinde “Çevreyi Tanıma” alt yeterlik alanına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindiklerini, ancak “Okulu Kültür Merkezi Durumuna Getirme”, “Aileyi Tanıma ve Aile İlişkilerde Tarafsızlık”, “Aile Katılımı ve İşbirliğini Sağlama” alt yeterlilik alanlarında herhangi bir kazanım edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 5. Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 5: Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri
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Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Çevreyi tanıma	-Ders planını oluştururken çevre olanaklarını dikkate alma -Çevre sorunlarına karşı duyarlı olma
Çevre olanaklarından yararlanma	-Amaçlara ulaşmada çevre olanaklarından yararlanma
Okulu kültür merkezi durumuna getirme	-
Aileyi tanıma ve aile ile ilişkilerde tarafsızlık	-
Aile katılımı ve işbirliğini sağlama	-

“Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen adayı “*Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları*” dersinde topluma hizmet etme noktasında bazı girişimlerimiz oldu ancak bu uygulamalar okul ve içinde bulunduğu toplumun kaynaştırılmasından çok bizim topluma hizmet edebileceğimiz uygulamalarla sınırlı kaldı, örneğin hastanelere gidip yaşlılara yardımcı olmak gibi...” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen adayı “...aldığımız eğitim, köy öğretmeni olduğumuzda öğrenciler için hazırlayacağımız etkinliklerin içinde buldukları bölgenin şartlarına göre oluşturulması gerektiğini öğretti, yine aynı şekilde her bölgenin kendine has özellikleri olduğunu ve etkinliklerimizi planlarken daha esnek olmamız gerektiğini, okulun çevresinde bulunan imkanları öğrencilerin başarılarını artırmak için nasıl kullanmamız gerektiğini öğretti” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Program ve İçerik Bilgisi Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Program ve İçerik Bilgisi” boyutundaki yeterliliklere ilişkin öğretmen adayı görüşleri incelendiğinde “Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaçları ve İlkeleri”, “Özel Alan Öğretim Programı Bilgisi ve Uygulama Becerisi” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindiklerini, ancak “Özel Alan Öğretim Programını İzleme, Değerlendirme ve Geliştirme” alt yeterlik alanına ilişkin herhangi bir kazanım edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 6. Program ve İçerik Bilgisi Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 6: Program ve İçerik Bilgisi	Kavramsal Kodlar
Alt Temalar	
Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaçları ve İlkeleri	-Türk Milli Eğitim Sisteminin dayandığı temel ilkelerin bilgisine sahip olma
Özel alan öğretim programı bilgisi ve uygulama becerisi	-Özel alan öğretim programının ilkeleri hakkında bilgi sahibi olma
Özel alan öğretim programını izleme, değerlendirme ve geliştirme	-

“Program ve İçerik Bilgisi” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen adayı “Türk Eğitim Sistemi ve Okul Yönetimi dersimizde bize Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaçları ve İlkelerini öğretti hocalarımız, ama bize gösterilen dersler genelde daha çok akademik gibi, halbuki biz 5.,6., 7. ve 8. sınıfların dersine gireceğiz. Yani üniversitede gösterilen alana yönelik dersler biraz daha ilköğretim programı doğrultusunda olabilir” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen adayı “...aldığımız eğitim, köy öğretmeni olduğumuzda öğrenciler için hazırlayacağımız etkinliklerin içinde buldukları bölgenin şartlarına göre oluşturulması gerektiğini öğretti, yine aynı şekilde her bölgenin kendine has özellikleri olduğunu ve etkinliklerimizi planlarken daha esnek olmamız gerektiğini, okulun çevresinde bulunan imkanları öğrencilerin başarılarını artırmak için nasıl kullanmamız gerektiğini öğretti” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Araştırmada, öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına, Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterliklerinden Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler-Mesleki Gelişim boyutunda, daha çok öğretim elemanlarının örnek alınması ile edinilmiş olan Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler boyuna ilişkin birtakım yeterlikleri kazandırdığı, ancak mesleki gelişimlerini sağlamaya yönelik Mesleki Yayınların Takip Edilmesi, Mesleki Yasaların Bilgisi, Okul Gelişimine Katkı Sağlanması gibi yeterlik alanlarındaki kazanımları edindirmediği görülmektedir. Bu bulgu, öğretmen adaylarının henüz mesleğe başlamadıkları için mesleki yayınları takip etmediklerini ve mesleki yasaların bilgisine sahip olmadıklarını düşündürmektedir. Bunun yanı sıra Eğitim Fakültelerinin lisans programlarında öğretmen adaylarına mesleki gelişimlerini sağlamaya yönelik etkinliklere yeterince yer verilmediği sonucuna ulaşılabilir. Nitekim Gürbüzürk ve Koç (2012) tarafından yapılan araştırmada da öğretmen adaylarının meslekleri ile ilgili yeni gelişmeleri/yayınları takip etme yönünden kendilerini “kısmen yeterli” gördükleri sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Benzer şekilde Numanoğlu ve Bayır (2009), öğretmenlik eğitiminin öğretmen adaylarına Mesleki Yasaları İzleme, Görev ve Sorumlulukları Yerine Getirme alt yeterlik performans göstergelerini kazandırma durumunun düşük düzeyde olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının almış

oldukları eğitimin, Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri Öğrenciyi Tanıma basamağında, Öğrencilerin Gelişim Özelliklerinin Farkında Olma, İlgili Ve İhtiyaçları Dikkate Alma, Öğrenciye Değer Verme, Öğrenciye Rehberlik Etme ve Dersi Planlama kazanımlarını edindirdiği görülmektedir. Bu durum öğretmen adaylarına verilen öğretmenlik meslek bilgisi derslerinin önemsendiğini göstermektedir. Benzer şekilde Gelen ve Özen (2008) yaptıkları araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının öğrenciyi tanıma alanındaki yeterliklere sahip oldukları sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Ayrıca Şahin Taşkın ve Hacıömeroğlu (2010) da öğretmenlik meslek bilgisi derslerinin öğretmen adaylarının profesyonel gelişimleri üzerindeki etkisini inceledikleri araştırmalarında, öğretmen adaylarının, meslek bilgisi derslerinin profesyonel gelişimleri üzerindeki olumlu etkisi olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

Araştırmada, öğretmen adaylarının almış oldukları öğretmenlik eğitimi ile Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterliklerinden Öğrenme- Öğretme Süreci boyutunda, Materyal Hazırlama, Öğrenme Ortamlarını Düzenleme ve Bireysel Farklılıkları Dikkate Alarak Öğretimi Çeşitlendirme alanlarında birtakım yeterlikler kazandıklarını ifade ettikleri görülmektedir. Bu durum, “alan bilgisi” derslerinde gerçekleştirdikleri uygulamaların öğretmen adaylarının Öğrenme-Öğretme Sürecine ilişkin yeterlikleri kazanmasında etkili olduğu sonucuna ulaştırabilir. Araştırmanın bu bulgusuna paralel olarak Acer (2011), öğretmen adayları ile yaptığı araştırmasında, materyal geliştirme dersi ile, öğretmen adaylarının, eğitim materyallerinin, öğrencilerin gelişim düzeyine uygun olarak eğitim ortamında nasıl kullanılacağına ilişkin kazanımlar elde ettiği sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Uyangör ve Kobak (2012) ise öğretmen adaylarının akademik başarıları ve sahip oldukları öğretmen yeterlikleri arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemeye yönelik yaptıkları araştırmalarında öğretmen adaylarının ders dışı etkinlikler düzenleme boyutunda “çok az yeterli”, dersi planlama, materyal hazırlama, öğrenme ortamlarını düzenleme, bireysel farklılıkları dikkate alarak öğretimi çeşitlendirme, zaman yönetimi ve davranış yönetimi boyutlarında “yeterli” oldukları sonucuna ulaşmıştır.

Araştırmanın bir diğer bulgusu, öğretmenlik eğitiminin öğretmen adaylarına Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme alanında kazandırmış olduğu yeterliklerin “Ölçme ve Değerlendirme Yöntem ve Tekniklerinin Belirlenmesi” boyutunda olduğudur. Ancak “Değişik Ölçme Tekniklerini Kullanarak Öğrencinin Öğrenmelerini Ölçme”, “Verileri Analiz Ederek Yorumlama, Öğrencinin Gelişimi ve Öğrenmesi Hakkında Geri Bildirim Sağlama” ve “Sonuçlara Göre Öğrenme-Öğretme Sürecini Gözden Geçirme” alt yeterlikleri alanındaki yeterliklere ait kazanımları edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir. Bu durum öğretmen adaylarına verilen “Öğretimi Planlama ve Değerlendirme” derslerinin etkili olmamasından kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Araştırmaya ait bu bulgu Yeşilyurt (2012)’un araştırması ile paralellik göstermektedir. Yeşilyurt (2012) tarafından yapılan araştırmada, öğretmen adaylarının ölçme ve değerlendirme alanının temel kavramlar ile ölçme teknikleri boyutlarına ilişkin yeterlik algısının “yeterli”, istatistiksel çözümleme ve raporlaştırma boyutuna ilişkin yeterlik algılarının ise “orta düzeyde yeterli” olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Benzer şekilde Birgin ve Gürbüz (2008) yaptıkları araştırmada, sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının “ölçme ve değerlendirme” kavramlarıyla ilgili tanımlara ilişkin yeterli düzeyde bilgi sahibi oldukları, alternatif ölçme-değerlendirme yaklaşımları hakkındaki bilgilerinin yeterli düzeyde olmadığı sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Coşkun, Gelen, Öztürk (2009) tarafından yapılan araştırmada ise Türkçe öğretmeni adayları, öğretimi planlama, uygulama ve değerlendirme alanlarındaki yeterlik algılarının çoğunun yeterli düzeyde olmadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının, Okul- Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri yeterlik alanındaki kazanımlarından yalnızca “Çevreyi Tanıma” ve “Çevre Olanaklarından Yararlanma” boyutlarında kazanımlarının olduğu görülmektedir. Bu durumun öğretmen adaylarının hizmet öncesi dönemde, okul çevresini tanımaya yönelik gerçekleştirdikleri etkinliklerin yalnızca “Okul Deneyimi” ve “Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları” dersleri ile sınırlı olması ve uygulamaya yönelik etkinliklere yeterince yer verilmemesi ile ilişkili olduğu düşünülebilir. Araştırmanın bu bulgusu Numanoğlu ve Bayır (2009)’ın öğretmen adaylarının “Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri” alanındaki yeterliklerinin “düşük düzeyde” olduğu sonucu ile paralellik göstermektedir. Ancak Gelen ve Özer (2008), araştırmalarında öğretmen adaylarının “Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri” boyutundaki yeterliklere sahip oldukları sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Araştırmada son olarak Program ve İçerik Bilgisi yeterlik alanında öğretmen adaylarının “Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaçları ve İlkeleri” ve “Özel Alan Öğretim Programı Bilgisi”ne sahip oldukları ancak “Özel Alan Öğretim Programı Uygulama Becerisi” ve “Özel Alan Öğretim Programını İzleme, Değerlendirme ve Geliştirme” becerisi edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir. Bu durum, Özel Alan Öğretim Programını Uygulamaya yönelik etkinliklere programda yeterince yer verilmemesi ile açıklanabilir. Numanoğlu ve Bayır (2009) da araştırmalarında öğretmen adaylarının Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaç ve İlkeleri boyutundaki yeterliklere sahip olduğu, ancak Özel Alan Öğretim Programı Uygulama Becerisi konusunda eksik kaldıkları sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

Araştırmada genel olarak, öğretmen adaylarına verilen öğretmenlik eğitiminin teorik/bilgiye dayalı yeterliklerin kazandırılmasında etkili olduğu ancak uygulamaya yönelik yeterliklerin kazandırılmasında eksik kaldığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Ayrıca alan bilgisi derslerinin, öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik tecrübesi edinmesi sürecine önemli katkıları olduğu görülmüştür. Bunun yanı sıra Rehberlik gibi teoriye dayalı ve Okul Deneyimi gibi uygulamaya yönelik Öğretmenlik Meslek Bilgisi derslerinin öğretmen adaylarına, hizmet öncesi dönemde, mesleğe ilişkin önemli katkılar sağladığı görülmüştür. Bu bağlamda, Eğitim Fakültelerinin programlarında yer alan uygulamalı derslerin ağırlıklarının artırılması ve öğretmen adaylarına uygulamalar yoluyla öğretmenlik tecrübesi edinecekleri ortamların sağlanması önerilmektedir.

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E-Öğrenme Öğrenme Ortamları

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Özet

Gelişen teknoloji ile birlikte e-öğrenme (çevrimiçi öğrenme) denilen internet altyapısının katkısıyla yeni öğrenme ortamları oluşmaktadır. e-Öğrenme, gittikçe kabul gören evrensel bir kavram haline almaya başlamıştır. E-Öğrenme aynı zamanda önemli bilgilere ulaştıran bilgi sistemlerini elektronik ortamda destekleyen bir terimi de ifade etmektedir. E-Öğrenmeyle birlikte m-Öğrenmeden de söz etmek gerekir, zira m-Öğrenme mobil öğrenme demektir ki, günümüzde bilgisayar ortamında uygulanan sistemlerin önemli bir kısmı mobil olarak akıllı telefonlar tarafından da kullanılabilir. Bu iki sistemin bir araya gelmesinden “mobil e-öğrenme” (me-öğrenme) mümkün olabilmektedir, bu yüzden artık “me-öğrenme” de yeni bir öğrenme ortamı olarak eğitim ve öğretimde yerini almaya başlayacaktır. e-öğrenme ortamı (çevrimiçi ortam), aynı zamanda Hiper Öğrenme Ortamı (Hyper Learning Environment) olarak da adlandırılır. Ayrıca Harmanlanmış öğrenme Ortamından da söz etmek gerekir; bu öğrenme ortamının en kısa ifadeyle Kerres ve Witt (2003) tarafından “yüz yüze öğrenmeyle teknoloji destekli öğrenmenin birleştirilmesidir” şeklinde tanımlanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler.

Giriş

Kişinin içinde bulunduğu öğrenme ortamının çok daha ilgi çekici duruma gelmesi ve eğitimciler tarafından ele alınıp incelenmesi, gelişen teknolojiye paralel olarak artma ve değişme göstermiştir. Günümüzde, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojisi araçlarının her geçen gün yenilenmesi ve gelişmesiyle birlikte giderek artan kullanımı; yeni bir yaşam şeklini beraberinde getirmiştir ve “Bilgi Toplumu”nun oluşumuna zemin hazırlamıştır. Gelişen teknoloji ile birlikte sınıf duvarlarının çoğu kez ortadan kalktığı bir durum ile yeni öğrenme ortamlarından söz etmek mümkün olmuştur.

Gelişen teknoloji ile birlikte e-öğrenme (çevrimiçi öğrenme) denilen internet altyapısının katkısıyla yeni öğrenme ortamları oluşmaktadır. e-Öğrenme, gittikçe kabul gören evrensel bir kavram haline almaya başlamıştır. *e-Öğrenme, internet gibi bir ağ üzerinden eğitim ve öğretimi destekleyen çevrimiçi öğrenme demektir.* e-Öğrenme, aynı zamanda herhangi bir zamanda ve herhangi bir öğrenmeye de imkân vermektedir. E-Öğrenme aynı zamanda önemli bilgilere ulaştıran bilgi sistemlerini elektronik ortamda destekleyen bir terimi de ifade etmektedir. E-Öğrenmeyle birlikte m-Öğrenmeden de söz etmek gerekir, zira m-Öğrenme mobil öğrenme demektir ki, günümüzde bilgisayar ortamında uygulanan sistemlerin önemli bir kısmı mobil olarak akıllı telefonlar tarafından da kullanılabilir. Bu iki sistemin bir araya gelmesinden “mobil e-öğrenme” (me-öğrenme) mümkün olabilmektedir, bu yüzden artık “me-öğrenme” de yeni bir öğrenme ortamı olarak eğitim ve öğretimde yerini almaya başlayacaktır. Bu yeni öğrenme ortamının hem okuyucunun kendi hem de öğretim hedeflerini karşılayacak yeni ortama uyumluluğu desteklemesi gerekir. Mesela simülasyon gibi interaktif uygulamalar, zaman kaydırmalı ve gerçek zamanlı tartışmalar, video, sesli konferans ve birçok öğrenme araçlarıyla desteklenmelidir.

Genel olarak bir ortak e-öğrenme ortamının geliştirilmesi ve tasarımını içeren bir metod, öğrenme sürecinin geliştiren bir model düzenli bir belirtim tekniğini kullanmalı ve aynı zamanda kullanıcıların istedikleri her yerde bazı modelleri uygulamak ve çalıştırmak için ortak e-öğrenme ortamını da sunmalıdır. Bir e-öğrenme ortamı, birden fazla kullanıcının bilgi üretebildiği ve paylaşabildiği bir sosyal alan olarak da kullanılabilir. Bu sosyal alan içinde başlıca kullanıcılar olan öğretmen, öğrenci, alan uzmanı ve yöneticilerden oluşan her kullanıcının bir hiyerarşisi olmalıdır.

Hiper Öğrenme Ortamı (Hyper Learning Environment)

E-öğrenme ortamı (çevrimiçi ortam), aynı zamanda Hiper Öğrenme Ortamı (Hyper Learning Environment) olarak da adlandırılır. Dolayısıyla yukarıda ifade ettiğimiz açıklamalar aynı zamanda Hiper Öğrenme ortamını da izah etmektedir. Hiper Öğrenme, İnternet/İntranet (yerel ağ) ya da bir bilgisayar ağı üzerinden, bireyin kendi

kendine öğrenmesini gerçekleştiren, bilgiye ulaşmada zaman ve mekân sınırı tanımayan, eş-zamanlı ya da eş-zamansız olarak diğer öğrenenler ve öğretmenler ile iletişim kurabilen, bilgisayar teknolojisinin sağladığı görsel ve işitsel araçlar ile etkileşim kurulabilen, sosyo-ekonomik statü engellerini ortadan kaldıran ve bireylere yaşam boyu eğitimin üstünlüğünden yararlanma imkânı sağlayan bir öğrenme ortamıdır.

Gelişen öğrenme ortamlarında birkaç çeşit Hipermedya sisteminden söz etmek mümkündür. Uyarlanabilir Hipermedia sistemleri, başlıca şu kategorilere ayrılır: Eğitimsel Hipermedia, Online Bilgi Sistemleri, Online Yardım Sistemleri, Geri Bildirimli Bilgi Sistemleri ve Kurumsal Hipermedia. Burada bizi daha çok ilgilendiren Eğitimsel Hipermedyadır.

Uyarlanabilir hiper ortamlar, kullanıcının çeşitli özelliklerini yansıtan bir kullanıcı modeli oluşturarak, bu model doğrultusunda kullanıcılara kişiselleştirilmiş seçenekleri otomatik olarak sunan sistemlerdir. Uygun bilgiye erişimi kısıtlamadan aşırı bilgi yüklemesini azaltmayı amaçlayan uyarlanabilir sistemlerin aşağıda belirtilen üç kistası yerine getirmesi gereklidir.

- Bir hiper metin veya hipermedya sistemi olmalı,
- Bir kullanıcı modeli içermeli ve
- Sistem bu modeli kullanarak, çeşitli yönleriyle kullanıcıya uyarlanabilmelidir.

Web tabanlı Hipermedya sitemlerinde uyarlama, öğrenenin sistemle iletişimi boyunca uygun kullanıcı modeller tarafından sağlanır. Değişik yönlerden gelen eksik bilgi, hali hazırdaki uyarlanabilir sistemlerin yapılarından kaynaklanmaktadır. Bu durum özellikle de geleneksel ortamlarda kullanıldığında ve web üzerinde tıklayarak yapılan gezintilerde ortaya çıkmaktadır. Şaşılacak bir durum da şudur ki, mevcut uyarlanabilir Hipermedya modellerindeki bilgi kusurlarının belirgin bir şekilde görmezden gelinmesidir. Halbuki sanal ortam operatörü, öğrenme ve öğretime uygun bir sanal ortamı oluşturmak için öğrenen veya kullanıcılar tarafından kendisine gönderilen talepleri her daim almalıdır. Yönetici, öğrenenlerden gelen talepler ve kısıtlamaları toplayıp bunun karşılığında gereken uyarlamaları yapmalıdır.

Harmanlanmış Öğrenme Ortamı (Blended/Mixed Learning Environment).

Harmanlanmış öğrenme modelleri, eğitim ve öğretim için farklı dağıtım yöntemleri ile farklı öğrenme stillerini kolaylaştırmak için kullanılan bir metot olarak tanımlanır. Harmanlanmış öğrenmenin tanımı en kısa ifadeyle Kerres ve Witt (2003) tarafından “*yüz yüze öğrenmeyle teknoloji destekli öğrenmenin birleştirilmesidir*” şeklinde tanımlanmıştır. Hem öğrenci-öğrenci hem de öğrenci-öğretmen etkileşimiyle beraber, çevrimiçi öğrenmenin faydalı yanlarının alınarak öğrenmenin gerçekleştirilmesi olarak ortaya konan bu öğrenmede, bazı dersler veya konular eş zamanlı verilirken, diğerlerinin farklı zamanlı verilmesi söz konusudur. Uluslararası alanda “blended”, “hybrid” veya “mixed”; Türkçede ise “harmanlanmış” veya “karma” öğrenme olarak adlandırılan bu öğrenme ortamı; yüz yüze öğrenme ile elektronik veya uzaktan öğrenmeyi bütünleştirme, farklı öğrenme kuramlarını, yöntem ve tekniklerini birleştirme, sınıftaki öğrenme sürecini çeşitli çevrimiçi teknolojiler ile destekleme şeklinde tanımlanabilmektedir.

Harmanlanmış öğrenme, şu unsurların birleşiminden oluşur:

- Mültimedya teknolojisi
- CD ROM video grupları
- Sanal sınıf
- Sesli ileti, mail ve (canlı bağlantılı) konferans konuşma
- Online metin animasyonu ve video grupları

Bütün bunlar geleneksel öğretim sınıflarıyla toplu olarak çalıştırılmalı, bir ondan bir bundan destek alınmalıdır. Öğrenme stilleri, bu durumda insanların öğrenmeleri için birçok yolu göstermektedir. Harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamı, yeni öğrenen tiplerini kapsayan teknoloji kullanımı yoluyla sınıf içi faaliyetler oluşturmak için kullanılır.

Osguthorpe ve Graham (2003), öğretmenlerin harmanlanmış ortamları tasarlarlarken benimseyebilecekleri altı hedef belirlemişlerdir. Bu hedefler şöyle sıralanmaktadır:

Pedagojik zenginlik (Pedagogical richness) : Bütün öğrenme ortamlarında olduğu gibi harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamlarında da asıl amaç, öğrencinin öğrenmesini arttırmaktır. Harmanlanmış ortamlarda çevrimiçi teknolojilerin kullanımı ile herhangi bir etkinlik için sınıfta kullanılan bazı zamanlar boşa çıkabilir. Örneğin sınıfta sunulacak olan bir Powerpoint sunusu önceden web sitesine konulması ile öğrencilerin sunuya göz atarak derse hazırlıklı gelmeleri sağlanabilir. Böylece sınıfta sunu yapmak için harcanacak olan zaman yerine konuyu derinlemesine inceleyerek tartışma veya konuya ilişkin örnek olay ve problemleri çözme fırsatı yakalanmış

olacaktır. Bu açıdan bakıldığında çeşitli çevrimiçi ortamlar sayesinde sınıfta daha zengin ve farklı öğrenme-öğretim yöntemlerini kullanmaya vakit kalacağını söyleyebiliriz.

Bilgiye erişim (Access to knowledge): Öğretmenler, öğrencilerin bilgiye erişimini artırabilmek için harmanlanmış ortamları kullanabilirler. Öğrencilerin kitapları okuyarak veya internet üzerinden araştırma yaparak ulaşamayacakları veya ulaşmaları için çok fazla zaman ve emek harcamaları gerektiren bilgiler, öğretmen tarafından derlenerek dersin web sitesinde yayınlanabilir. Örneğin öğretim tasarımı konusu ile ilgili farklı modeller ve bu modellerle ilgili farklı uzmanların görüş ve tespitleri, farklı sınıf ortamlarında ve bu farklı öğretim tasarımı modellerinin nasıl uygulandığına ilişkin video çekimleri gibi bilgiler dersin web sitesinde yayınlanarak öğrencilerin hem farklı bilgilere hem de farklı bakış açılarına ulaşabilmeleri sağlanabilir.

Sosyal etkileşim (Social interaction): Öğrenme sosyal bir ortamda etkileşim ile gerçekleşmektedir. Öğrencilerin herhangi bir problemi paylaşmaları, kavramlar ve fikirler üzerinde tartışıp görüş bildirmeleri, kendi fikirlerini savunurken diğer arkadaşlarının fikirlerini de etkin bir şekilde dinleyerek öğrenmeleri vb. becerileri kazanmaları etkileşimli ortamlar sayesinde gerçekleştirilebilmektedir. Tek başına çevrimiçi sistemler etkileşim açısından halen zayıf kalmakta, yüz-yüze etkileşim ise sadece sınıf ortamındaki ders saati ile sınırlı kalmaktadır. Harmanlanmış öğrenme ile sosyal etkileşim, farklı zaman ve mekânlarda farklı ortamlarda (sınıf, forum vb...) sağlanabilmektedir.

Öğrenenin kontrolü (Personal agency-Learner control): Öğrenenlerin kendi öğrenme süreçlerinde seçimler yapabilmeleri, ne çalışacakları ve nasıl çalışacakları hakkında karar verebilmeleri için fırsatlar tanınmalıdır. Öğrenene farklı düzeylerde kendi öğrenmesini kontrol etme fırsatı sunulmalıdır. Harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamları, öğrenenler için kişisel seçim yapma ve karar verme konusunda farklı seçenekler sağlayabilir. Örneğin; öğretmen, konuya ilişkin geliştirdiği ders notlarını metin, görsel veya animasyon gibi farklı ortamlar kullanarak dersin web sitesine yükleyebilir ve öğrenciler de tercih ettikleri ortam ile kendi öğrenme hızlarında öğrenmeyi seçebilirler. Ya da öğretmen sınıfı tartışma veya forum gibi çevrimiçi tartışmaları kullanarak öğrencinin tercih ettiği ortamda tartışmaya katılmasını destekleyebilir. Bu örnekler elbette çoğaltılabilir. Aslında öğrenme ortamı ne kadar zengin tasarlanırsa, öğrencinin öğrenme sürecini kontrol etmesi amacıyla farklı seçimler yapmasına imkân tanınabilmektedir.

Maliyet etkililiği (Cost effectiveness): Harmanlanmış ortamlar, sınıfta harcanan zamanı mümkün olduğunca aza indirebileceğinden dolayı maliyeti de en aza indirebilmektedir. Öğrencilerin, dersin web sitesinden edindikleri temel bilgiler veya alıştırmalar ve etkinlikler yoluyla kazandıkları beceriler ile hazır bulunuşluk düzeyleri arttıkça, sınıf ortamında öğretmen konuyu tekrar anlatmak yerine, öğrencilerin anlamakta zorlandıkları veya yapamadıkları noktalarda onlara geri bildirim verebilir. Öğretmen, öğrencilerin kazandıkları bilgi ve becerilerin gerçek hayata transferini sağlayabilecek öğrenme etkinliklerini gerçekleştirebilir ve tartışmalar yaptırabilir. Bu sayede dört saat sınıfta işlenen bir ders, iki saat sınıfta ve iki saat ise çevrimiçi ortamda işlenecek şekilde düzenlenebilir. Bu da tam zamanlı çalışan öğretmenlerin yerine, yarı zamanlı çalışan öğretmenlerin yaygınlaşması, sınıf ortamının getirdiği diğer maliyetlerin düşmesi gibi çeşitli maliyetlerin azalmasını ve zamanın daha etkili kullanılmasını sağlayabilir.

Yeniden gözden geçirip düzeltme kolaylığı (Ease of revision): Çoğu harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamları, öğretmenlerin kendileri tarafından tasarlanır ve geliştirilir. Çevrimiçi ortamda sunulan bilgiler rahatlıkla değiştirilebilir, yeni bilgiler eklenebilir ya da güncellemeler kolaylıkla yapılabilir. Bütün bunları yapabilmek için öğretmenlerin çok detaylı programlama bilgisine sahip olmasına da gerek yoktur. Harmanlanmış bir sistemin tekrar düzenlenmesindeki kolaylık; zaman içerisinde geliştirilen farklı materyallerin, etkinliklerin ve uygulamaların sisteme rahatlıkla eklenebilmesine imkân tanımakta ve öğrenme ortamının daha zengin olmasını sağlamaktadır.

Yukarıda kısaca açıklanan bütün bu esaslar aslında harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamlarının birer avantajı ve güçlü yanı olarak da anlaşılabilir. Harmanlanmış bir öğrenme ortamı tasarlayıp geliştiren öğretmenler, yukarıda açıklanan hususları göz önüne aldıklarında daha etkili ortamlar tasarlayabileceklerdir.

Harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamının sağladığı başka avantajlardan da söz edilebilir. Bunları şöyle özetlemek mümkündür:

- 1) Öğrenci, aynı anda pek çok hedefe yönelebilir ve odaklanabilir.
- 2) Öğrenci, özel öğretmenlerle etkileşime geçebilir.
- 3) Öğrenci, akranlarıyla etkileşime geçebilir.
- 4) Öğrenci, öğrenme materyallerine kolayca erişebilir.
- 5) Çeşitli tekniklerle, değişik teknolojilerden en üst düzeyde istifade edilebilir.

Harmanlanmış Öğrenme Ortamının Avantajları

Tek bir bilgi dağıtım yöntemi her türlü eğitim için ideal değildir. Bir şey için hem farklı konu hem de farklı eğitim yöntemleri gereklidir. Harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamları şu avantajları sayılmaktadır:

- 1) Öğretim için geniş ulaşım yolları
- 2) Kolay uygulama
- 3) Maliyette verimlilik
- 4) Etkin sonuç
- 5) Değişik ihtiyaçları bulma
- 6) Olumlu eğitim tepkileri geliştirmek.

Sonuç

Teknolojinin sağladığı yeni öğrenme ortamları, genel eğitim için yeni avantaj ve imkânlar ortaya koyduğu gibi, bütün bunların din eğitimi alanında da kullanılması mümkündür. Günümüzde din eğitimi alanında kısmen kullanılan e-öğrenme veya diğer adıyla Hiper Öğrenme Ortamının daha da yaygınlaşması ve daha geniş sahalarda kullanılması beklenmektedir.

Eğitim alanında ortaya çıkan yeni öğrenme ortamlarının Din Eğitimi alanında da kısmen uygulanabildiği görülmektedir. Özellikle İlahiyat Fakültelerince desteklenen ve yürütülen İLİTAM Programlarında kısmen çoklu ortam denilen Hiper Öğrenme ortamının birçok derste uygulandığı bilinmektedir. Web destekli bu öğrenme ortamının bütün derslere yaygınlaştırılabileceği gibi, sınıf ortamına da taşınarak örgün eğitim içerisinde de Harmanlanmış Öğrenme Ortamının gerçekleştirilebileceği bir öğrenme ortamına rahatlıkla dönüştürülebilir.

Din eğitiminin her alanında, İmam Hatip Liselerinde, İlahiyat Fakültelerinde, Diyanet İşleri Başkanlığı Hizmetiçi Eğitim faaliyetlerinde hem Hiper Öğrenme Ortamı hem de Harmanlanmış Öğrenme Ortamı rahatlıkla uygulanabilir. Zira bu öğrenme ortamları hem bilginin süratli bir şekilde ve zaman engeli ortadan kaldırılarak paylaşmayı sağlamakta hem de maliyetleri düşürdüğünden iktisatlı olmaktadır.

Türkiye genelinde Din Eğitimi hizmeti veren okul, fakülte ve kurumların istifade edebileceği ortak bir portal oluşturulmalı ve burada her dersin uzmanlarınca hazırlanmış, simülasyon, zaman kaydırmalı ve gerçek zamanlı tartışmalar, video, sesli konferans ve benzeri sunular konulmalı ve öğrencilerin istifadesine sunulmalıdır.

Bunun yanında benzer ders içeriklerine sahip diğer İslam Ülkeleriyle de işbirliğine geçilerek ortak bir “Din Eğitimi İşbirliği Örgütü” kurulmalı, bu işbirliği çerçevesinde din eğitimi alanında gerçekleştirilen eğitim uygulamaları ve tecrübeleri paylaşılmalı ve aynı zamanda ortak web portalları oluşturularak işbirliğine katılan her ülkenin öğrencilerinin bunlardan istifade etmeleri sağlanabilmelidir.

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Abstract

The study on Revitalizing the Philippine Army Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) Program of Instruction (POI) in the Context of the Internal Peace and Security Plan (IPSP) reviewed related literature and secondary data; conducted key informant surveys among University of the Philippines Los Baños (UPLB) students and National Service Training Program (NSTP) Faculty from 13 regions of the Philippines; and, analyzed secondary and raw primary data using descriptive and quantitative (Chi-square test) procedures, on selected elements of National Security of the IPSP. The conclusions include: a) the PA ROTC POI can be revitalized by adjusting its hour allocations in consideration of the NSTP Common Module; and, b) the non-parametric quantitative test of significance using the Chi-square test affirmed significantly that aggregately the respondents' suggested projects/activities on Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and "Others" were moving towards a significant consensus that these suggested projects can revitalize the PA ROTC POI.

Keywords.

Introduction

Background of the Study

The Students' Transformation and Enrichment for Truth-Values Integration and Promotion (STET-VIP) Incorporated is a Non-Government Organization (NGO) duly accredited by the Philippine Commission on Higher Education (CHED), Department of National Defense (DND), and the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) to carry out the NSTP stipulated under Republic Act 9163. The NSTP is a program aimed at enhancing civic consciousness and defense preparedness in the youth by developing the ethics of service and patriotism while undergoing training in any of its three program components, namely: ROTC, Civic Welfare Training Service (CWTS), and Literacy Training Service (LTS). The ROTC as a component of the NSTP is "designed to provide military training to tertiary level students in order to motivate, train, organize, and mobilize them for national defense preparedness." The PA Reserve Force Expansion Program of the Army Reserve Command (ARESCOM) considerably hinges on the ROTC enrollment. Thus, STET-VIP Inc. conducted this study in support of the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP) – IPSP "Bayanihan" and the ARESKOM PA Reserve Force Expansion Program by addressing the need to revitalize the ROTC POI and increase the ROTC enrollment.

Statement of the Problem

The main problem of the study is: **What activities and projects can revitalize the PA ROTC POI to increase student enrollment?** More specifically, the study sought to answer the following:

- What activities/projects on *ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, and moral-spiritual consensus* were suggested by the respondents for inclusion to the PA ROTC POI as perceived by UPLB students and NSTP faculty members from thirteen regions of the Philippines?
- What other activities and projects did the respondents want to carry out aside from those pertaining to ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, and moral-spiritual consensus?
- Among the activities and projects identified by the respondents, what were the priority activities suggested by most respondents for each of the three elements of national security?
- What were the significant differences between the responses of UPLB students and NSTP faculty members from thirteen regions of the Philippines?

Scope and Delimitation

As stated in the national strategic guidance of the IPSP culled from His Excellency, President Benigno Simeon C. Aquino III “the current vision of the national leadership for the Philippines is a country with a re-awakened sense of propriety, organized and widely shared rapid expansion of the economy, mobilized the people’s skills, responsibly harnessed natural resources, and public institutions rebuilt on the strong solidarity of our society, and its communities”. Given this broad policy, consultations from various stakeholders must be done to arrive at a responsive, relevant, and comprehensive national security policy. It is to this end that the scope of this study intends to contribute through the PA-ARESCOM ROTC.

There are seven (7) elements of national security listed by the National Security Council (NSC) of the Philippines and adopted by IPSP as the “significant characteristics of the area of operation” under Strategic Environment. Only three (3) of these seven (7) elements were included in this study namely: ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, and moral-spiritual consensus. The remaining four (4) elements which were not included in the study are: territorial integrity, socio-political stability, economic solidarity, and external peace. As to the AFP-IPSP “Bayanihan” **Winning the Peace**, its **strategic approach** of people-centered security and the **strategic imperative** of “involvement of all stakeholders in the pursuit of internal peace and national security” were used in this study. The study did not include the **strategic approach** of “whole nation approach” nor did it deal with the strategic imperative “adherence to human rights, international humanitarian law, and the rule of law”. Hence, the delimitation of the study in so far as the AFP-IPSP “*Bayanihan*” is concerned.

Conceptual Framework

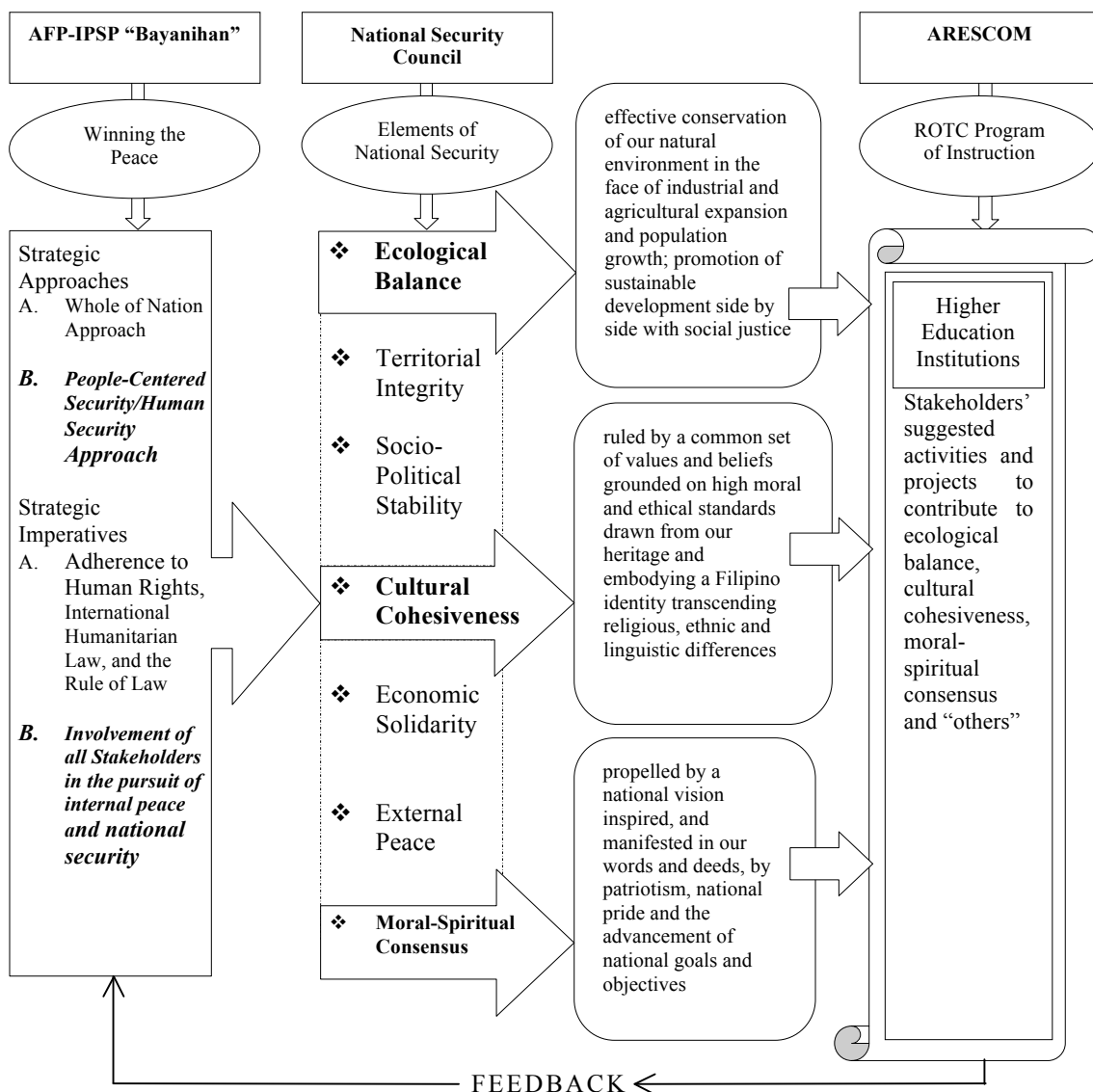


Figure1. A Conceptual Framework on Revitalizing the Philippine Army ROTC Program of Instruction in the context of ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, moral-spiritual consensus and “others”.

Figure 1 illustrates the interrelationships among a) AFP-IPSP “Bayanihan”; b) NSC’s Elements of National Security; and c) the ROTC Program of the Philippine Army. In keeping with DND Secretary Hon. Sec. Voltaire Gazmin’s noble invitation to “take part in the shaping of our nation’s peace and security” and in order to address ARESKOM’s concern for the downtrend of the ROTC enrolment and taking into consideration its implications to the Reserve Force Expansion Program there is a need to engage Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) to support the IPSP through the ROTC Program.

The full support of HEIs through the implementation of the PA ROTC Program can play a major role in the realization of the IPSP Bayanihan at the community level. Using the Civil Military Operations (CMO) activities of the ROTC students, the IPSP Bayanihan can be operational at the barangay level where the HEIs carry out NSTP activities, particularly on ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, moral-spiritual consensus, and others.

The feedback mechanism from HEIs’ PA ROTC Program can provide significant inputs to IPSP Bayanihan’s strategic approaches and imperatives to achieve the ultimate goal of winning the peace. Through encouraging and supporting ROTC activities promoting ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness and moral-spiritual consensus, HEI’s will not only contribute to IPSP but increase ROTC enrolment as well. Thus, to generate HEI’s support, assistance and participation, a survey on the NSTP Faculty members’ suggested activities and projects to contribute to the afore-mentioned three elements of national security was conducted.

Methods and Procedures

The method of research used in this study was both descriptive and quantitative using non parametric variables. Open-ended survey questionnaires were distributed to two groups of respondents namely, UPLB Students and NSTP Faculty Members from 13 regions of the Philippines to identify projects and activities which they believe can contribute to the realization of the three elements of national security namely: *ecological balance; cultural cohesiveness; and moral-spiritual consensus*. Respondents were asked to suggest as many activities and projects as they can for ROTC students to carry out in order to contribute to the aforementioned three elements of national security. In addition to these three elements of national security another column labelled as *others* was included. This was done to give the respondents a free hand to include activities/projects which they believed should be included in the ROTC POI.

The same survey questionnaire was answered by 65 NSTP faculty members from 13 Regions of the Philippines. These respondents participated in the 56th STET-VIP NSTP CAT/NSP Qualifying Course for Coordinators, Instructor-Facilitators, Volunteers and Stakeholders at Maryridge Healing and Renewal House, Iruhin West, Tagaytay City on April 29 to May 1, 2012.

The sampling frame for undergraduate students consists of 156 students from the eight (8) colleges of UPLB. A random sample of respondents was taken from each sampling unit. The total population of the sampling frame is 10,433. The sample size is about 1.5% or 156 students proportionately distributed among the sample units of the colleges.

From the open-ended responses of both UPLB Students and NSTP Faculty Members content analysis was undertaken. Common responses were grouped into frequency distribution where descriptive analysis was done. From the responses of the two groups, contingency tables were generated for non-parametric quantitative analysis using the Chi-square Test of Independence.

Results

The frequency distribution by total number of UPLB Students' Suggested Activities/Projects per Element (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus) and "Others" indicated that modally, (33%) UPLB Students had more suggested activities for Ecological Balance than the other elements of Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and "Others" suggested activities, which shared around 1/5 each of all responses (Table 1).

Table 1. Frequency Distribution by Total Number of UPLB Students' Suggested Activities/Projects per Element (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness,

Moral-Spiritual Consensus) and "Others"

Elements	Frequency	Percent Distribution (%)
I. Ecological Balance	221	33
II. Cultural Cohesiveness	161	24
III. Moral-Spiritual Consensus	137	21
IV. Other Suggested Activities/Projects	142	22
TOTAL	661	100

On the other hand, the frequency distribution by total number of NSTP Faculty Members' Suggested Activities/Projects per Element (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and "Others") also indicated that they have more suggestions on Ecological Balance (46%) as compared to the other elements of Cultural Cohesiveness (24%), Moral-Spiritual Consensus (23%) and 7% for "Others" (Table 2).

Table 2. Frequency Distribution by Total Number of NSTP Faculty Members' Suggested Activities/Projects per Element (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus) and "Others"

Elements	Frequency	Percent Distribution (%)
I. Ecological Balance	134	46
II. Cultural Cohesiveness	71	24
III. Moral-Spiritual Consensus	68	23
IV. Other Suggested Activities/Projects	20	7
TOTAL	293	100

The Chi-square (χ^2) test was used to evaluate the statistical significance of independence of the suggested activities/projects among the selected groups (UPLB Students and NSTP Faculty Members). In testing for independence of suggested activities/projects by specific respondent group, the analysis used the basic χ^2 test of significance.

The responses of the four elements taken together as suggested by the UPLB students and NSTP Faculty Members indicated that the χ^2 test was very highly significant at 1% alpha. The calculated χ^2_c was high at 34.52, while the tabular χ^2 was 11.35 at alpha 1%. These results provide that the responses/suggested activities/projects by the two groups of respondents are statistically significant (Table 3).

Table 3. Observed and Expected Frequencies of UPLB Students and

NSTP Faculty Members from 13 Regions on the Four Elements (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus) and "Others"

Respondent	Elements				Total
	Ecological Balance	Cultural Cohesiveness	Moral-Spiritual Consensus	Others	
UPLB Students	221 (245.9)	161 (160.7)	137 (142)	142 (112.2)	661
NSTP Faculty	134 (109)	71 (71.3)	68 (62.9)	20 (49.8)	293
TOTAL	355	232	205	162	954

Note:() Expected Frequencies

Chi-square independence test

Ho: $R+ = R-$; the responses/suggested activities/projects by the two groups of respondents are independent

Ha: $R+ <> R-$; the responses/suggested activities/projects by the two groups respondents are not independent

Test Statistics: Chi-square at alpha = 5% and 1%

Decision Rule: Reject Ho if chi-square computed > tabular value (alpha, 3) fail to reject otherwise

Computations:

chi-square computed, $\chi_c^2 = 34.52$

chi-square tabular, $\chi_{(0.05,3)}^2 = 7.82$

chi-square tabular, $\chi_{(0.01,3)}^2 = 11.35$

Decision: Since $34.52 > 11.35$, reject Ho.

Conclusion: At alpha = 1%, the responses/suggested activities/projects by the two groups of respondents are statistically significant

In summary, both the descriptive and quantitative non parametric analysis demonstrated that most of the suggested activities/projects by the UPLB students and NSTP faculty members were statistically significant and is not independent from each other. There is therefore enough logic to consider the suggested activities/projects on Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and “Others” to be included in the ROTC POI to generate more ROTC enrollees.

Conclusions

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions were deduced:

- There are three major elements of National Security (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, and Moral-Spiritual Consensus) for which respondents were asked to enumerate their suggestions on what projects/activities should be included in the PA ROTC POI. For Ecological Balance, the projects/activities can be categorized into four: 1) Information, Education, and Communication Campaigns, 2) Fund Raising, 3) Carrying-out Specific Environmental Activities or Projects, and 4) Holistic/Broad Project Proposals/Monitoring of Existing Projects. For Cultural Cohesiveness, the projects/activities fall into four categories, namely: 1) Cultural Presentations and Showcasing of Local Products, 2) Bayanihan/Socio-Cultural Activities, 3) Seminars/Lectures/Competitions, and 4) Community Development Work/Outreach Programs with Indigenous People. In terms of Moral-Spiritual Consensus, suggested projects/activities can be divided into four major categories: 1) Convention/Seminars/Speaking Contest/Film-Making on Patriotism, National Pride, Ethics, Political Lectures and Drills and Public Display of ROTC Activities, 2) Team Building/Leadership Trainings/Prayer Meetings, 3) IEC Materials Featuring National Concerns/Heroes, and 4) Field Trips/Camp Nights/Sport Activities and Community Service.
- There were other suggested activities respondents were interested in carrying out which they perceive do not necessarily fall under Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, and Moral-Spiritual Consensus. These include Feeding Programs, Fun-Runs, First Aid Seminars, Fashion Shows, and Government watchdog type undertakings.
- Both UPLB students and NSTP faculty respondents prioritized the same type of activities for two elements

of national security, namely, Ecological Balance and Cultural Cohesiveness. In Ecological Balance, respondents were interested in carrying-out specific environmental activities such as tree planting/nurturing. The respondents also expressed cultural presentations and the showcasing of local products as priorities under Cultural Cohesiveness. As for Moral-Spiritual Consensus, UPLB students were interested mainly in field trips, camp nights, sport activities, and community service while NSTP faculty prioritized conventions, seminars, speaking contests, film-making on patriotism, national pride, ethics, political lectures, drills, and public display of ROTC activities.

- The difference between the responses of UPLB students and NSTP faculty members lies in their priority of activities under the national security element of Moral-Spiritual Consensus. UPLB students were interested mainly in field trips, camp nights, sport activities, and community service while NSTP faculty prioritized conventions, seminars, speaking contests, film-making on patriotism, national pride, ethics, political lectures, drills, and public display of ROTC activities.
- The non-parametric test of independence of responses using the Chi-square test, affirmed significantly that the suggested projects on Ecological Balance, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and “Others”, (except Cultural Cohesiveness) were moving towards a consistent consensus that these suggested projects will revitalize the ROTC POI. Aggregately, for the four elements taken together, the Chi-Square test demonstrated very high level of statistical level of confidence of one (1) percent at 3 degrees of freedom for the χ^2 test.
- All the chi-square tests were significant, except for Cultural Cohesiveness. The chi-square test’s insignificant finding on cultural cohesiveness affirms the NSC’s statement on external threats, among others: “Ethnic, religious and cultural conflict pervades many regions and nations, including our own. It is constantly exacerbated by mass poverty, limited access to resources, denial of human rights, lack of national integration and international issues.”
- While the nature of ROTC is “defense preparedness,” engaging the ROTC students in activities contributory to ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, and moral-spiritual consensus, can harness their military discipline, advance their character development, patriotism, and nationalism as they contribute to AFP IPSP Bayanihan’s Winning the Peace.
- The current PA ROTC POI hour allocations can be adjusted to include IPSP-NSC’s three elements of National Security, namely: Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, and Moral-Spiritual Consensus; Corresponding adjustments can also be made in the current PA ROTC POI towards the revitalized PA ROTC POI.

Given the above conclusions, STET-VIP Inc. as a social development NGO accredited by the Philippine Council for NGO Certification (PCNC) reaffirms its commitment in carrying out undertakings towards **advancing excellence in character and competence in service to humanity**. Thus, the Virtues In Pinoy (VIPinoy) movement was launched on May 1, 2012. The STET VIPinoy refers to a Filipino with the exemplary practice of the four cardinal virtues of prudence, justice, temperance, and the three theological virtues of faith, hope, and love over an extended period of time out of just and worthy service by contributing to ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness and moral-spiritual consensus. Finally, it is with faith in humanity that STET-VIP Inc. ardently hopes that for love of all, through institutions at the local, national, and international levels, **virtues in global citizenry** be a reality.

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A Comparison of Habit Formation of First Graders Swith and Without Preschool Education

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Abstract

Habits are behaviors that are constant, make the people's lives easier and increase their life quality. There are critical habits that the pre-school children must gain and must turn them into habits in this period. The behaviors which haven't been internalized in this period will hardly be a habit in the ensuing years. The critical behaviors which haven't turned into a habit will affect the children badly in the future years. In this study, the habits which must be gained in the pre-school period and how they will be earned have been studied. The habits which must be gained in the pre-school period have been addressed in the subtitles. Continuity of habits of the 1st grade students who had a pre-school education before was evaluated by the help of "habit rating scale". The survey results were analyzed using SPSS 17.0 statistical software.

Keywords. Early childhood education, habits, toilet habits, nutrition habits

Introduction

Behaviors that constitute basis for gaining habits begin with the birth of a child, become explicit by being enhanced in the early childhood and elementary school periods. Main factors of gaining habits are determination, regularity and sensibility which are seen while a mother provides her child's nourishment, hygiene and love needs. If child's experiences are positive in this first period, it might be easier for the child to adopt favorable behaviors in the period of gaining permanent and actual habits. On the contrary, If mother does not feed her child timely, not start to move to relax her child when the child wets himself or feels pain or not show any positive reaction to show her love towards her child, all of these attitudes and behaviors may cause child to perceive the other people and outside world negatively. Kids whose first experiences with their mothers are not so good, may be counted as candidate for being individuals who escape from people and don't trust them, even bear hostility toward people in their future life. It should not be forgotten that first experiences will affect children lifelong. First habits gained by children who don't have healthy interaction with their parents, are far away from being positive behaviors that make them fit into the society as well (Oktay, 2002).

As every adult, children also live with their habits. Behaviors obtained throughout lifetime, are behaviors that are extending over a period of time and especially obtained by repetition. Habits are beneficial as long as they make life easier. Sometimes we see that behaviors transforming into habits make one's life tougher and sometimes make one's life easier and more flexible. Whether it makes our lives easier or not, man starts to get a set of habits. What is important in this point is helping of parents and teachers to children in making proper behaviors, habit. When we consider that learning begins with birth and last lifelong, children start to get their basic habits in family environment and keep enhancing and adding new habits to their habits obtained through

the pre-school education and schooling. In this process ,parents and teachers' supporting the child positively, their being role-model in child's getting new behaviors and following a systematic way while the child is gaining habits, have importance because bringing a positive behavior or changing an undesirable behavior is a patience and labor demanding process(Civelek,2008).

Classrooms are well -arranged places for behavior management because they are relatively restricted environment and teacher can usually check children's behavior in a strict way(Bacharach and Baumeister,2003).However, we should notice the difference that children will get behaviors that parents don't do at home as habit more hardly. For instances; a child whose parents don't brush their teeth will be more resistant to brushing with regard to a child whose parents brush their teeth. Teachers' being in cooperation with parents from the beginning moment of gaining habits will make this process easier.

Being consistent, systematic and patient should be the most important support point of parents and teachers. As children grow older, it will be necessary for parents to develop creative strategies for protecting their children and teaching them appropriate behaviors. Children integrate their parents attitude and expectations into their behaviors with consistent nature and instruction (Özmert, 2006). It shouldn't be forgotten that habits gaining's first step is obtaining behavior. First of all, behavior should be obtained properly then it should be turned into a habit. In addition, the most effective way for gaining target behavior is being a model, especially for children in 2-7 age range since it is incarnated enough (Mackenzie, 2010). Bringing good habits for children is responsibility of Parents and Teachers. Parents' behavior will play an important role in children's personality. Parents and teachers playing this role should be model in obtaining good habits by being aware of the seriousness of the situation (Yavuzer, 1998).

Cleaning Habit: The most important means of keeping an individual and other people healthy is cleaning. Cleaning is not just body cleaning, keeping everything and everyplace clean is requirement of being clean. In order to be preserved from diseases threatening individual health, personal and environmental cleaning is necessary. Children, 24-30 months old, should be provided with an environment to do cleaning practices taught mostly doing personally by parents, teachers or educator. For example, washing his hand should be a habit of a child after making his toilet and before touching the food (Megep, 2009).

Dressing Habit: 36-72 months old children are at a level that they can practice skills related to dressing and undressing. Parents at home, teacher in education environment should behave patiently and guide kids in some activities that they can do on their own such as dressing, clothes folding or hanging them and if needs be, parents and teacher should support children. Children's dressing on their own will improve every passing day as in children's learning eating, trying to draw picture skills. You can also utilize children's toys while making children obtain this habit. A kid trying to dress his dolls will try same act on himself. Especially girls like dressing their dolls (Megep, 2009).

Toilet Habit: Although Children have individual differences, they get ready to take potty training when they are 18 months old. When they are 36 months old, most of them will be gained toilet habit but once again there are individual differences. However some children may not be ready to get potty training until they are 4 years old. Even though they got potty training, sometimes day wetting and bedwetting may be seen for some children. To get this habit, children may be forced to sit on the potty after each meal for a few minutes. A careful mother may understand that his child needs toilet by looking at his child's behaviors. In this kind of situations, if we let the child relieve himself with the help of potty without giving any chance to wet himself, then this act is going to be habit of the child, therefore, when the child needs toilet, he will use potty then finally he will use bathroom. (Yavuzer, 2011)

Sleeping habit: Babies sleep more than twenty hours of their time in the following weeks of the birth. As they grow, sleep need decreases. The 13-15 hours need for sleep from 6 months old to one year old decreases 12-13 hours at the age of 1,5. At the age of 6, the need is 10-12 hours and after the age of 10 it is 10 hours. (Saygılı, 2012). Regular sleeping has important role in child's healthy growth. There should be sleeping hours in pre-school education and at home during daytime, children with difficulty in sleeping should lay to relax in that time. After-dinner nap is indispensable for lots of children in early childhood especially first years of this period. In colloquial language, there are some sayings such as, "Children grow while sleeping" and "Uyusunda Büyüsün". Since growth hormone is released while sleeping, regular and enough sleep is important in children's growing. If Children, who are constantly astir during the daytime, don't rest, these children may have attention deficit, deficiency of social development, hyper-activity and restlessness. Most of the time, this situation leaves teachers and parents in a difficult situation. Psychological and mental development deficiency is unavoidable for those who don't take enough night sleep. That's why children should be provided with enough night, daytime sleep and resting (Aktürk, Z, Turgut, A. 2013).

Habit of obeying social rules: Social skills are behavioral patterns, basis of which are constituted during the pre-school period. Awaiting one's turn, serving others, seeking one's right without hurting someone else, expressing your happiness and anger by caring others' emotions, postponing your desires, etc. Behaviors should be given to the children in the behavior training program including social and emotional aims as part of curriculum after these behaviors are obtained, students will use them whenever needed. Teacher should use positive reinforcement to students' appropriate and timely behaviors to make students obtain this behavior as a habit. Teacher should take necessary precautions to let students live their emotions and disappointments caused by other students, by not allowing these disappointments to turn into hostility and conflict and should develop activities to bring social skills. (Aktürk, Z, Turgut, A. 2013)

Nutritional Habit: Pre-school period is an important process for development of healthy nutritional habit. Nutritional habits are generally formed by those taking care of the child. These habits are finishing one's plate, dessert eating, eating meat regularly and using of food as a reward (Branen and Fletcher, 1999). Having

nutritional habit means that an individual takes necessary amount of nutrition. Proper diet is so important for psychical and mental development of children especially for those who are infant. Sometimes, nutritional habit, necessary thing to man to survive, comes up as a vital educational problem. The child, who doesn't have breakfast habit, will have some kind of problems such as starvation, tiredness, weakness in school. These problems will pose a big obstacle to focus in activities. Since hungry one has low level of energy, it will affect even the social life of the person.

The Objective of the Study

Target of this study is comparing in terms of habit training of first grade students who went to the Nursery School and students that didn't go the preschool in 2012-2013 school year in Malatya

The importance of the Study

Early childhood, known as golden years of the life is the most critical period to get some habits, shaping our life and to ensure continuity of these habits. In this period, giving planned and systematic training of habits may help children to make good habits, expected by society, turn into behaviors in the next years. There are not so many studies about commitment of students who took their training from educational establishment, giving this training in a planned and systematic way. Drawing attention to the importance of habit training, given in preschool education, is aimed with this study.

Problem Sentence

Are there any explicit differences in habits between first grade students who went to the preschool and those who didn't go in 2012-2013 school year in Malatya?

Assumptions of the study

It is assumed that students' parents who take place in the study, give correct answer to the quantitative data collection vehicle and answer should be related to the subject of the study.

Limitedness of the study: In the study, Students were chosen by random sampling way from 5 different schools' 1st grade students in Malatya. 45 students taken preschool and 45 students not taken preschool were given call for their parents and 80 of them returned call. The study is restricted with 80 students whose parent return call.

Method

Research Model: This study has the characteristic of Survey modeling. Survey Model is a research approach aiming to describe a situation which was existent in the past or it is still existent with its existing form. Case, individual or object being subject to the study are defined with their own situation and as they is (Karasar, 2002)

Population and Sample

1st grade students studying 2012-2013 spring semester of school year in Malatya constitute population for this study. Since it is not possible to reach the whole population, Sampling is chosen to be carried out and 5 elementary school in Malatya is taken as sample due to their reliability and convenience. 90 students, some of whom went to Preschool and some didn't are asked to fill in the questionnaire in these schools and this research includes 80 of them who accepted to take part in the survey. 40 of them went to the preschool and 40 of them didn't.

Data Collection Tool

The first thing done in the study is literature review and field study and survey methods were used to reach the information. A questionnaire were formed which had been never used before to survey habits that students obtain in the preschool period. The questionnaire was subjected to the applied pre assessment. Acceptability and reliability of the questionnaire were tested. According to results, 2 questions were changed and acceptability was realized. In The study, Habits were categorized in 6 sub-category. These are Cleaning Habit (skin, face, hand, foot, hair, mouth and dental), dressing habit, Toilet habit, sleep and rest habit, habit of obeying social rules. Each Sub-category consists of 5 article and 4 point likert scale was used. In the scale, expressions "Never",

“Sometimes”, “Often” ,”Always” were used in an order .All questions were coded in a positive way. Each sub-category’s point average was calculated and evaluated. All of the questionnaire forms were given to the parent of student by teachers.

Evaluation and Analysis of Data:

To get the result of the research, Data of the survey was analyzed and evaluated by using SPSS17,0 analysis package software

Results and Commentaries

Findings and Comments

Table1.Distributuion by Gender of Participants:

Gender of the participant	f	%
Female	56	70,0
Male	24	30,0
Toplam	80	100,0

As it is seen in the table, 56 of the Participants (%70) are female and 24 of them (%30) are male.

Table2 Participants’ Distribution by age

Age Of The Participants	f	%
Between 20 – 30	22	27,5
Between 31 – 40	46	57,5
Between 41 – 50	11	13,8
51 +	1	1,3
Total	80	100

As it is seen in the table,22(%27,5) of the Participants are in the 22-30 age range,46(%57,5) of them are in the age range of 31-40,11(13,8) of them are in the age range of 41-50 and one (%1,3) of them is above the age of 51.

Table 3 Participants’ Distribution by Educational Status:

Educational Status of The participant	f	%
Higher Education	3	3,8
University	12	15,0
Technical college	8	10,0
High School	19	23,8
Secondary School	18	22,5
Primary school	20	25,0
Totaltttr	80	100,0

As it is seen in the Table,3(%3,8) of the participants are Master Degree Taken,12(%15) of them are post-graduate,8(%10) of them academy graduate,19(%23,8) of the high school graduate,18(%22,5)of them are secondary school graduate,20(%25) of them are elementary school graduate.

Table 4 Participants’ Distribution by Economic Conditions:

Economic Condition of The participant	f	%
Lower than 450 TL	4	5,0
Between 451-750 TL	15	18,8
Between 751-1700 TL	39	48,8
Between 1701-2500 TL	15	18,8
2501TL and +	7	8,8
Total	80	100,0

As it is seen in the table,4(%5) of the participants are earning 450TL and less,15(%18,8) of them are earning between 451-750TL,39 of them(%48,8) are earning between 751-1700TL,15(%18,8)of them are earning between 1701-2500TL and 7(%8,8) of them are earning 2500TL and more.

Findings related to the habits of Children who received Preschool education and those who didn't

Table 5 Findings related to the cleaning habit:

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	15,00	3,29	78	5,22	.00
Didn't receive	40	17,98	1,48			

*p < 0,05

In Table5 , Subcategory of "Cleaning Habit" s average of students who didn't go to the preschool is stated as 15($\bar{X} = 15,00$) and its standard deviation is 3,29(S=3,29).Average of Students that went the preschool is 17,98($\bar{X} = 17,98$) and its standard deviation is stated as 1,48(S=1,48).According to the results, statistically significant difference (t=5,22,p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of Cleaning Habit. As it is evident from that, cleaning training which is given in preschool establishments took effect in the 1st grade .It is found that some cleaning habits is harder to be obtained by those who didn't go preschool.

Table6 Findings related to the dressing habit

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	17,25	3,06	78	3,33	.00
Didn't receive	40	19,00	1,30			

*p < 0,05

In Table 6, subcategory of " Dressing Habit" s average of students who didn't go to the preschool is 17,25($\bar{X} = 17,25$)and its standard deviation is stated as 3,06(S=3,06).Average of students who went to the preschool is 19,00($\bar{X} = 19,00$) and its standard deviation is stated as 1,30(S=1,30).According to these results, statistically significant difference (t=3,33,p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of dressing habit. It is a sign of that dressing habit training which is given in preschool education is important.

Table7 Findings related to Toilet Habit

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	18,60	2,05	78	2,93	.00
Didn't receive	40	19,63	0,84			

*p < 0,05

In Table7, subcategory of "Toilet Habit" s average of students who didn't go to the preschool is 18,60($\bar{X} = 18,60$) and its standart deviation is stated as 2,05(S=2,05). Average of students who went to the preschool is 19,63($\bar{X} = 19,63$) and its standard deviation is stated as 0,84(S=0,84). According to these results, statistically significant difference(t=2,29,p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory toilet habit. Early childhood children postpone their toilet especially when they focus

on games. Even sometimes they wet their clothes since they hold their urine so much. This situation is very usual for kids. Sometimes warning them about this may be beneficial(Aktürk,Z.,Turgut,A.2013).Preschool Education Establishments which frequently give these kind of warnings and help to students to get toilet behaviour , have an important place for continuity of this behaviour.

Table8 Findings related to the sleep and rest habit:

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	16,13	3,67	78	2,42	.02
Didn't receive	40	18,85	6,10			

*p < 0,05

In the table8, subcategory of "Sleep and rest habit" s average of students who didn't go to the preschool is 16,13(\bar{X} =16,13) and its standard deviation is stated as 3,67(S=3,67).Average of the students who went to the preschool is 18,85

(\bar{X} =18,85), its standard deviation is stated 6,10(S=6,10) . According to these results, statistically significant difference(t=2,42,p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of sleep and rest habit. After -dinner nap is indispensable for lots of children in early childhood especially first years of this period. In colloquial language, there are some sayings such as ,"Children grow while sleeping" and "Sleep, Grow up". Since growth hormone is released while sleeping, regular and enough sleep is important in children's growing. If Children, who are constantly astir during the daytime, don't rest, these children may have attention deficit, deficiency of social development, hyper-activity and restlessness (Aktürk, Z, Turgut A.2013).It is apparent that Students who went preschool ,obtain such a important habit better than those who didn't go preschool.

Table9 Findings related to the habit of obeying social rules:

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	16,15	3,31	78	2,19	.03
Didn't receive	40	17,55	2,33			

*p < 0,05

In Table 9,subcategory of "Habit of obeying social rules" s average of students who went to the preschool is 16,15(\bar{X} =16,15) and its standard deviation is stated as 3,13(S=3,31). Average of the students who didn't go to the preschool is 17,55(\bar{X} =17,55), its standard deviation is stated 2,33(S=2,33). According to these results, statistically significant difference(t=2,19,p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of "Habit of Obeying Social Rules". It is measured that Individuals who graduated from preschool are more sensitive to obeying social rules.

Table 10 Findings related to the nutritional habit

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	13,20	3,74	78	3,30	.00
Didn't receive	40	15,58	2,60			

*p < 0,05

In 10, subcategory of "Nutritional Habit" s average of students who didn't go to the preschool is 13,20(\bar{X} =13,20) and its standard deviation is stated as 3,74(S=3,74).Average of the students who went to the preschool is 15,58

(\bar{X} =15,58), its standard deviation is stated 2,60(S=2,60) . According to these results, statistically significant difference(t=3,30,p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of Nutritional Habit. When kids live with obese people in their family, their risk of being obese is high .This situation may result from preschool period children's taking parents or other family members as a model while forming their Nutritional Habit. To prevent obesity of Children ,parents' adiposity state should be checked and precautions should be taken(Yabancı and ark.2009).That's why nutritional habit given in preschool has an important place in fighting against the obesity which is one of the ever-increasing problems of our country.

Results and Suggestions

Results

This study of compilation which takes as a subject how and which habits will be given to the preschool period children, emphasizes on the behaviors that should be turned into habit. It is displayed how important preschool education is for obtaining habits. Our Habits are behaviors that affect our society deeply. It is not accidental to make a mention of eating habit, Toilet habit or Cleaning habit even when describing a nationality. We should ensure that the habits which we think they are affecting the society should be given to the society and in this way we should hand down these nice habits to the next generation. As long as every parent and teacher is aware of this, they will never be a wrong model to kids. Children growing with right models will grow up as an individual having good habits and they will live healthier and happier life. Period of 0-6 age range named as preschool period is one of the most critical period of life in which development and growing is in the fastest phase. It is known that habits ,skills and knowledge obtained in this period has continuing effects on future years of life. We need a systematic training in obtaining some habits, shaping our lives. Preschool educational institutions were established to give this systematic training in a planned and scheduled way to the individuals. When the survey results were considered, there is a scientifically significant difference between 1st grade students who went preschool and those who didn't. In other words ,habits which are essential to be obtained, such as Cleaning Habit(Skin, face, hand, food, hair, mouth, dental),dressing habit, sleep and rest habit, toilet habit ,the habit of obeying social rules were obtained by Students who went to the Preschool and result of success in obtaining these habits were significant. It shows that preschool education makes a positive contribution to the process of individuals' habit obtaining.

Suggestions

Following the results of this study, we emphasized that how important preschool period is for children to gaining habits and these habits will be more permanent with planned and systematic training. Thus, we can give some habits more permanently to our kids under the roof of a preschool educational institutions in the preschool period which is the most critical period for habit gaining. Due to limited opportunity and time, this study was done based on short term observation and with a small sample for serving as an example. If the education given in preschool institutions will be examined with systematic observation ranging to several years. The results obtained may be more reliable and valid. Despite everything, Parents and teachers of students going preschool should cooperate to benefit from the Preschool period known as golden years of life in the most effective way because practice of habits training given in preschool is performed in family environment. For this reason, Parents' following a way of training which is promoter to the habit education given in the school, will be helpful. When the result of the study is considered, it is seen that preschool education is significant in giving some favorable habits. Instead of training only in the preschool education institutions, Habits may be given in home and social life by carrying out different education programs with parents. This is directly proportionate to the importance given to the preschool educational institutions. Therefore, %100 Schooling can be achieved with Preschool education's being included in compulsory education.

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Transformation from Teacher-Centered To Subject-Centered Mathematics Education

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Abstract

Collective learning and multiplying understandings are some of the phenomena which my students and I have experienced in a mathematics classroom a few semesters back. In this paper, I will attempt to ground these classroom experiences in the complexity theory of teaching and learning as outlined by Davis & Sumara (2007), and try to describe how the complexity theory of teaching and learning, in turn, informed my classroom practices. I will also outline some alternative ideas based on a post-modern perspective with several focus points on the concepts of connectedness, non-linearity, holarchy, and creating spaces for an inclusive community of learners.

Keywords.

Introduction

The perpetual fear of the unknown and uncertainty, and the comfort of the known and familiar certainty combined together create the basis for the Western obsession with control, which is aimed at eliminating uncertainty (Quinn, 1995). Tentacles of this obsession with control pervade at many levels and in a number of aspects of our society. Needless to say, this obsession with control dominates our educational system and tightly grasps our classrooms as well. Most teachers, in general, are very reluctant and afraid of letting go of control in their classrooms. Teacher identities and desire for control in classrooms are often tied in together. According to Scott (2008), three broad categories are proposed for teacher identities. These proposed teacher identities can be outlined as retrospective, with strong classification and framing tendencies; prospective, with strong concerns for efficiency, and decentered identities, with either instrumental or therapeutic tendencies. Decentered teachers identities situate teachers in principled discourses about the purpose of education, and are inclusive in nature (Scott, 2008). A decentered teacher identity is one of the facets of the notion of control in a classroom environment.

The power to control or to have a control in a classroom environment or a classroom community can be perceived as having some security or feeling more secure in the classroom. However, the idea of controlling a classroom community tightly, in turn, creates an apparent dualistic distinction between the controller, the teacher, and the controlled, the student. As a possible result of this dualistic distinction, and rigid boundaries between the students and the teachers in a classroom created by our desire to have control, several issues and concerns including, but not limited to, mutual trust, respect, cooperation, and creativity might emerge, and negatively affect the growth of the students and the teacher, individually and the group, collectively.

My own narrative in terms of how I was to teach a calculus course is, in essence, somewhat similar to, but yet based on a deeper and more personal dilemma than that of the narratives described by Meier & Rishel (1998), who express their narratives for having a desire to “do something different” regarding teaching their calculus course. I suspect my narrative can be traced back to a bifurcation point in my teaching limit cycle of “doing the same.” According to the systems theory, when or how a bifurcation point occurs cannot be precisely predicted. When small changes are fed back into a complex, non-linear system at some point the interruption of a limit cycle and subsequent bifurcation point(s) occur. I suspect that as a result of personal reflections on my studies of systems theory, several feedback loops have been forming in terms of my teaching practices. I felt strongly, in the sense of Palmer’s (2007) notion of “divided no more”, about changing how I was teaching calculus and transform the classroom environment of which my students and I were to be a part. My personal need and the subsequent decision to live “divided no more” are centered on the concept of theory informing practice, not on the intent of assaulting or criticizing my colleagues, whom I happen to notice, when walking in the hallways, engaged in transmitting information in lecture-and-listen classroom settings. But it is rather an observation of, at

a personal level, how strong and powerful it can be to name and claim one's identity and integrity. I have once come across a phrase which read "there is nothing more powerful than an idea whose time has come." Although I have often pondered, and time to time reflected on this phrase, I realize that only now I can truly relate to the feelings of the person who might have articulated these feelings so eloquently.

According to Catalano (1995), any transformation from a teacher-centered classroom is considered to be a fundamental change, and that it will meet with resistance in several ways. Resistance from some colleagues can be expressed as a judgment that any classroom other than a teacher-centered classroom must be without sufficient rigor. Since most of the teachers have received their formal training in the teacher-center model, many teachers tend to believe that they should certainly teach as they were taught in order to have rigor. Catalano (1995) asserts that far too often rigor is the last refuge for ineffective teaching. One of the aims of sharing my experience of the calculus classroom environment in this paper is based on the Green's (1988) concept of going from a personal sphere to a public sphere in the hopes of reaching other colleagues, teachers, and individuals to form a community of congruence that offer mutual support and opportunity to develop a shared vision.

Literature Review and Background

Generally, the content in calculus courses is linearly and hierarchically ordered as to start with limits, then in detail to discuss derivatives, and to end the course with integral calculus. I propose to dispute the conventional curricular approach and its implied assumptions regarding teaching calculus via lecture-and-listen mode as a sequence of disjoint topics padded with a series of techniques, and offer a different vantage point. The conventional approach of lecture-and-listen mode of teaching calculus might lead students to view calculus as a fragmented list of formulae and procedures taught in isolation without any interconnectedness established among the main ideas and concepts. This particular view of calculus created and promoted by the current lecture-and-listen classroom practices impresses upon our students, while they are in the classroom and still long after, an image of calculus as a disconnected collection of formulae. Needless to say, this distorted image of calculus also may lead to the common sentiment about calculus among general populace that can be summarized by the following passage taken from Peterson (1998), who states that "[t]here is something about calculus that can evoke a mixture of both wonder and dread."

Many teaching methods used in calculus, especially prior to the calculus reform movement of the 1990s, can be qualified to be structuralistic in nature (Tall, 1996). The structuralistic approach is based on the principle of transmission, especially via lecture-and-listen mode, of a logical structure within a scientific system. The popularity of this approach is attributed by Doorman (2005) to the fact that the theories themselves seem elegant and compact description of what is to be learned. Even though a structuralistic approach to the teaching of calculus combined with lecture-and-listen classroom practices and deficit-based evaluations seem to be "less messy" in comparison to what I propose here, the problems associated with a structuralistic approach to teaching of calculus are well documented in the literature (Doorman, 2005). The "perfect" lesson plans created, implemented according to a script, and transmitted in a lecture-and-listen classroom environment tend to be mostly at the expense of the potential contingencies of the classroom as a collective learning community. It is important to qualify the last sentence, however, by indicating that I am not taking a dualistic stance and imply that lesson plans are useless and should be discarded for good. Organizing learning in a classroom environment is just as important and requires a considerable amount of advance preparation on the part of the teacher. The concept of intermittence as outlined by Briggs & Peat (1999) in their *Seven Lessons of Chaos* to intertwine the two approaches as needed seems to be what we may consider here in lieu of a dualistic either or approach.

Theoretical Framework

It is very difficult for researchers to communicate the nature of new ideas without a framework on which to base new classroom practices. A framework can also be a useful tool in helping teachers understand the types of thinking that need to be fostered in students. Even though it was originally developed in the fields of mathematics and physical sciences, complex systems theory has been also widely proposed as a new theoretical framework in social and cognitive sciences, including language learning (Harshbarger, 2007). For the most part, the classroom practices presented here are grounded in the complexity theory of teaching and learning as outlined by Davis & Sumara (2007), Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al (2004), and Davis, Sumara and Luce-Kapler (2000).

Complexity science points out that hardly any event or activity can be reduced to being just a "thing" in isolation. Teaching, being not an exception, is not reducible to what a teacher does and/both does not do in a classroom. As a result of this realization about the nature of teaching, there seems to be a need to make a

commitment to an open and inclusive pedagogical approach which values students' opinions, seeks and welcomes students' contributions to the classroom community of learners. This open and inclusive pedagogy was described by Davis & Sumara (2007) as being "oriented toward unimagined and not-yet-imaginable possibilities." Davis & Sumara were not simply interested in finding a neat encapsulation. Their interest was to integrate some of the elements of complexity theory into the teacher's role in learning, and outline "some of the specific guidelines that complexity thinking offers on how to enhance the possibilities of collectives by ensuring that the conditions for complex-self organization are in place". Next, I will proceed to offer several segments of my own calculus classroom experiences, and try to tie them to the framework offered by Davis & Sumara (2007).

Complexity of Teaching and Learning Calculus

The classroom environment, which I envision, is based on small group learning strategies and activities specifically designed to foster the main traits of an integrated calculus curriculum in order to develop students' understandings through sustained interaction, conversation, and discussion. This vision, in essence, aligns nicely also with Doll's (1993) post-modernist and process oriented ideas of curriculum built from the base of a constructivist and experiential epistemology. The commitment on my part to an open and inclusive pedagogical approach, which values students' opinions, seeks, and welcomes students' contributions to the classroom community of learners, needed to be communicated to my students during the first class meeting. Not being used to any other type of an environment except the traditional lecture-and-listen mode, it took some time for my students to begin to realize that an unconventional approach and a classroom environment were shaping up. I also paid specific attention to carefully fostering, and developing a sense of belonging, mutual respect and responsibility by designing collective experiences such as collaborative activities and group presentations based on those activities. According to Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al. (2004), the aims of schooling, from a point of view of complexity research, shift our mindset to thinking in terms of being parts of larger social, cultural, technological, and ecological systems. I was committed to have a classroom environment toward helping individuals contribute and, maybe more importantly, have a sense of belonging to a community of learners. Breaking away from the role of teacher as a figure with centralized control and increasing neighbor and group interactions were some of the critical ideas on which I needed to focus. I believe that a genuine sense of belonging, on the part of students and teacher, and being responsible to and for one another are the necessary conditions for more ambitious learning in a classroom environment.

Based on what Whitehead (1929) suggested on avoiding an education filled with inert ideas, I decided that I should be introducing the few and important main ideas of calculus into my students' education, and as a community of learners, including myself as the teacher and a part of that community, investigate these main ideas as they are "thrown into every imaginable possible combination", as well as the relations among these main ideas. I decided not to sweat the small stuff or have us bogged down in the proofs or in the rote memorization of formulae. I took up Whitehead (1929) on his suggestion and I did abandon "the fatal habit of cramming the students with theorems, which they do not understand and will never use." For example, the concept of rate of change and the differentiation of a few fundamental polynomials, $\sin x$ and $\cos x$ were achieved easily with the aid of geometry. This approach, to which I affectionately and colloquially refer as "don't sweat the small stuff", resulted in creating spaces to discuss concepts which really influence thought.

Palmer (2007) argued for a pedagogical circle to be neither teacher-centered nor student-centered, but subject-centered. I considered this subject-centered pedagogical circle to be very suitable to our classroom environment, and I shared this idea with my students. It should be noted, however, that a subject-centered pedagogical circle does not by any means imply that students are ignored. On the contrary, a subject-centered approach, as Palmer (2007) envisions it, has strong implications for opening spaces where students can have an ongoing conversation with the subject and with each others. In order to open such spaces, I, as a teacher, realized that I needed to break away from the old habit of "covering the field" via lecture-and-listen mode and to strive to teach more with less. Hence, I aim to create spaces and simultaneously investigate the subject in a much deeper level than just at a glance.

Following some of the practices suggested by Wheatley (1991) on establishing learning environments conducive for students to construct their own mathematics in social settings, I used, in particular, problem centered learning with the intention of providing opportunities for learners to share their ideas for solutions both within small groups and within the whole community of learners in the classroom by way of group presentations. I encouraged students to select the problems they would like to investigate from a variety of sources including, but not limited to, the pool of problems I have collected and created over the years. Several of the students were also in a variety of engineering courses and chose problems from their respective engineering

fields of study. I also encouraged students to form their own small groups consisting of two or three people. By encouraging students to make those decisions regarding their learning and classroom environment, I aimed to break away from the deeply entrenched modernist assumption that the teacher should be in control of the classroom, learning, and the outcomes. Doll (1993) views self-organization to be the central concept around which a post-modern education emerges. Following up on this idea Fleener (2002) points out that “self-organization occurs not when there is a control...” The modernist assumption that the teacher should be in control is so entrenched among us as individuals and in society that it took some time for a good number of my students to get comfortable with the “unconventional” approach. Three weeks into the semester, a couple of my students were disturbed enough by this emerging classroom environment to ask me, on two different occasions; one privately and one publicly in class, if “this was going to be how the class would be taught the entire semester and if I was going to start teaching them.” Upon sharing my response, as well as my philosophy, which was, in essence, that we were all learners and teachers in a collective community of learners, the two students unfortunately switched over to another section of the course. A third student, about six or seven weeks into the semester, indicated being misadvised into enrolling into calculus without indeed needing the course, and dropped the course.

Breaking away from the deeply entrenched modernist assumption that the teacher should be in control of the classroom required me to be flexible, and also stay responsive to the needs and the contributions of my students. For example, in investigating one of the student selected problems we all embarked on a grand tour of ideas from critical points and inflection points to implementation of rational zeros theorem and onto synthetic division and Descartes’ rule of sign change, and finally to Newton’s Method all in only one problem and over a period of several days of immersion. I thought of this particular segment of our classroom experience to be a vivid illustration and a strong evidence of a widely accepted learning theory based on social constructivism, which views learning as building schemas, picking up concepts, procedures, skills, and making sense of these by establishing links among them over time (Begg, 2004). The collective sense of accomplishment generated, as a result of such an experience of teaching and learning, among the members of the community of learners would not have been possible if the students were not to have a say in selecting the problems which they would want to investigate. I certainly would not have picked such a “messy” problem had I been following a linear lesson plan that was teacher controlled and objective-driven. As Davis & Sumara (2007) indicated, “the lesson plan had to be non-linear to allow for unexpected changes.” The predictability and certainty we have grown accustomed to expecting from a mechanistic system is not a valid expectation or assumption of the behavior of a complex learning system, as was the case for this particular community of learners in a calculus classroom. Hence, it is only natural to have neither reasonable predictability nor any certainty in the classroom, unless the classroom as a learning system is forced to be a closed system and made to yield to control and prediction. Davis & Sumara (2007) indicated that the living systems, as well as human systems, “resist prediction because they constantly interact with one another and actively learn and adapt.” If a system such as a community of learners in a calculus class is forced to yield to control and prediction, the life support for the system is significantly severed and the collective learning process and growth as a community of learners gradually diminish.

I would like to offer another brief segment of my own calculus classroom experiences, which I think may be a parallel to the example of “multiplying understandings” offered by Davis & Sumara (2007) who posed the question “What is multiplication?” As a short essay assignment, I posed the question “What is a derivative?” to my twenty or so calculus students, all engineering majors. They were given about 15-20 minutes to generate their responses. Generally speaking, I found that most of my students struggled not with a response to the question, but rather with the question itself, as was the case for students with whom Davis & Sumara were working. Several of my students were insistent on giving an example of a particular function, expression, etc. and were wanting to illustrate the derivative numerically, graphically or symbolically (i.e., process of finding the derivative-differentiation). They were having difficulties writing about what a derivative was, because they were focusing on the how aspect, on the skills, rather than the what aspect of the derivative as a concept.

The diverse educational backgrounds of the students in our classroom ranged from two or three students already with B.S. degrees to a few sophomores, and a few freshman students just out of high school. Davis and Sumara (2007) described internal redundancy, the complement of diversity, as a common ground of participants in subject matter as well as culture, language, history and expectation. At times in our calculus classroom some level of the internal redundancy, especially in subject matter, was necessary in order for this diverse community of learners to be able to contribute to the collective learning system individually, as well as a group, collectively. The development of some common vocabulary, concepts, meaning-makings and experiences are necessary for meaningful interactions to take place in the classroom environment. For example, a certain redundancy in factoring of algebraic expressions and the function notation are required prior to discussing the essential ideas of calculus. More often than not, this redundancy is to be (re)-established at the beginning of many calculus classes.

I have found myself having to do just that a couple of times during the semester in order to break off the limit cycle in the collective self-organization so that the classroom system could bifurcate into a different level of the evolution of teaching and learning.

In terms of the problem selection and assignments, it was not certainly a case of no guidelines, but the nature of the guidelines was not constraining or restrictive. The guidelines were provided for what possibilities were there to investigate as opposed to what was not acceptable. Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al. (2004) articulated this paradoxically as “enabling constraints.” The students were to prepare their problem solving presentations to illustrate their understanding and share their findings; they were not to do just anything. And the students had the freedom within the limitations set out in the guiding rules. When these guiding rules are organized appropriately, in neither too narrow nor too open ways, they allow for unpredictable and often imaginative outcomes (Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al., 2004). I was not expecting at all, but pleasantly surprised, that a group of my students did develop their presentations as video clips and loaded them up to YouTube.

By way of having frequent problem solution presentations in our classroom environment, I aimed to allow opportunities for the different ideas and thought patterns of my students around the subject matter to interact with one another in a dynamic and non-linear state. These types of collective dynamics, in which the individual ideas bump into and bounce off each other, were identified by Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al. (2004) as “neighboring interactions.” They pointed out that these dynamic interactions offered the very real potential for innovative and insightful knowledge to emerge. Based on these dynamic interactions, several ideas for various types of formulation and notation were developed collectively. For example, an unconventional formulation for the Chain rule emerged, as opposed to the conventional function composition (i.e., $(f \circ g)' = f' \circ g \cdot g'$) and the Leibniz (i.e., $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$) notations. Instead, the Chain rule emerged from the dynamic interaction of ideas during the classroom presentations was based on the notions of inner and outer functions, and was somewhat unconventionally formulated as $O'(I(x)) \cdot I'(x)$. The problem solution presentations were done in a group format with two students presenting two problems. This particular format of presentations seemed to encourage students not only to combine several of their ideas together but also to incorporate the ideas of others as well. I regard these diverse contributions as forming a considerable basis for the generation of knowledge among the community of learners. I would tend to agree with Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al. (2004) that this particular approach to generating knowledge among the community of learners by the community of learners shifts the role of teacher from a controller to an integral participator in a recursive process of opening up spaces for not-yet-imaginable new possibilities while exploring the existent spaces.

Conclusions and Implications for Future Research

In this study, I investigated an alternative approach to a lecture-and-listen mode mathematics classroom. The alternative approach I explored was based on the complexity theory of teaching and learning. Even though one can never be sure of one's influences, I hope, in accord with the butterfly effect concept, that the experiences I shared here may be taken up by other mathematics classrooms and amplified until it transforms the entire community of mathematics classrooms into something new.

We need to be mindful of and responsive to the experiences that frame learners' cognitive developments in a classroom environment. Teaching mathematics solely based on rules and as purely mechanical and repetitive drill exercises will neither engage nor interest learners in our efforts to support and sustain a community of learners in a classroom environment. Mathematical content knowledge for teachers also plays an important role in helping learners' cognitive development. Being prepared as a teacher with a substantial amount of knowledge base in mathematics instills confidence in teachers to move away freely from a scripted lesson plan and venture into exploring the unknown territories of mathematical topics with the students. The explorations into these unknown borderland territories are best illustrated for me by the Mandelbrot fractal set metaphor articulated by Fleener (2002). Treading through the very fine border between the known and unknown territories of the Mandelbrot set provides a vivid representation of a post-modernist mathematics classroom in which teaching and learning takes place in the borderland between the known and unknown territories of various mathematical ideas and concepts.

There are ample amount of teaching and learning activities in the literature with an emphasis on developing an appreciation for and deeper understanding of various mathematics concepts among students and pre-service teachers. On the other hand, creation of one's own material, albeit a challenge, is a much needed process, especially if one desires to seek further insight. However, it is important to realize that there are no best practices or an ideal set of activities. A suitable set of activities for one particular group at a given time might be

completely inappropriate at another time, even for the same group, let alone being inappropriate for another group at another time.

Assessment is considered by many researchers to be an integral part of any curriculum development. The traditional deficit based assessment practices and exam questions seem to be focusing much more on the final product. Re-conceptualizing of assessment practices, which focus on and reward for the process and progress just as much as the final product, as well as reflecting on what we value and assessing what we value need to be an integral part of the classroom environment. The accidental and intentional characters of teaching suggest a Janus-faced like aspect for the teaching profession. These two characters of teaching are to be considered not as an either/or setting but as a both/and circumstance.

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Design is Our Nature Disseminating Design Practices in K12 Education

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Abstract

Creativity and innovation matter in today's global economy. Yet diversity of human creativity is lost as students drop out of school and disengage from our educational systems. To ensure responsiveness and resiliency, teacher education needs new pedagogy to connect students' tacit knowledge with the essential skills necessary for productive and purposeful lives. Teachers need adaptable assessment methods and agile approaches to contemporize curriculum to retain human creativity. Design connects traditional subjects with real practices and integrates individual's creativity with possibilities. It delivers motivation and passion with productivity. Design As Nature Workshops support teachers as designers with introduction of hands on activities, new 21st century STEAM skills and eLearning virtual field trips, digital interactivity and global connections. The eLearning designopedia, NEXT.cc, disseminates design opportunities networking k12 to college nurturing imagination, enhancing learning moments and improving outcomes.

Keywords. Creativity, Innovation, Design Education, Teacher Education, 21st Century Learning

Introduction

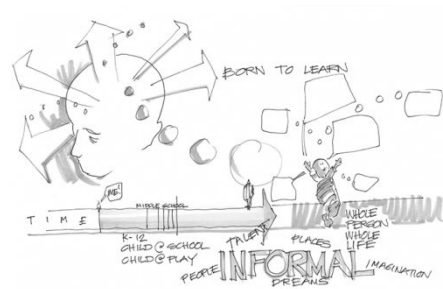


Figure 1: We are born to learn. NEXT.cc 2014

WE ARE BORN DESIGNERS

We are born to learn. We are born to create. We are born designers. Our brains through 7 million years and 350,000 generations have been wired with over one hundred billion neurons set to learn 24 hours a day. Inside we hold the repository of everything human- the skills that have developed and the music, writing, dance, art and stories that have been told. All of this is ready to be awakened in our imagination. Scientists now know that parts of our brain lie waiting to be triggered in certain stages of our life by certain events; if we miss these triggers much of the potential to awaken this imagination disappears. Before children sit in desks in school to learn, they trigger imagination through everyday play, exploration and problem solving. They learn on their own through informal learning, or the tacit knowledge that each of us brings to light by who we are, the talents we have, the people we know, the places we visit, the music we listen to and the dreams we dream.



Figure 2: Nine Scales of Human Intention, NEX.T.cc

WE ARE ALL CREATIVE

Our research celebrates education's need to nurture curiosity and imagination with a mandate to connect children's informal learning with directed instruction to motivate life long learners and engaged citizens. It is founded on the fact that creativity is an inherent human trait that knows no specific, race, creed, age or income. It respects education's intent to support each individual's potential for a life of purpose. This approach, prefaced years ago by Dr. Howard Gardner demands that teachers be equipped with a variety of strategies and techniques to choreograph learning for each individual (Gardner 1983). Design is human intention and forms the basis for how humans evolve, create and coexist in the world. Most people live in designed worlds. Many people spend ninety percent of their lives indoors surrounded by designed objects, leaving to take a designed object to another environment designed by someone, somewhere, sometime. Our research aims at increasing awareness of the necessity of design learning and disseminating design opportunities (curriculum, pedagogy and assessments) to reach teachers (and their students). As Herbert A. Simon, pioneer of computer science and artificial intelligence writes, "Everyone designs who devises course of action aimed at changing existing situations into preferred ones." This, for most of us, is a life of purpose.

The need for design learning is great. Design learning connects potential of each student with purpose or opportunities for successful contribution to the world. Unfortunately the majority of United States population is denied design. It is not introduced in K12 education (Davis, 2008). Currently only three states have art and design standards (Wisconsin, Michigan and New Jersey). Most teachers have never been exposed to the creative design fields that make up the built environment. Meredith Davis, author of *Design As A Catalyst for Learning* reports that design education is (was) basically non existent in the US (Davis, 2008). Her NEH study discovered that K12 educators were not trained to introduce design as an investigative research tool critical to human ecology. Design, if it was introduced, was simply aesthetic and formal rather than the messy confluence of investigation and iteration, trial and error. Less than half of middle school students have access to art, much less design, instruction. Music, drama and art budgets are among the first to be cut in terms of time and budgets. In addition, almost half of US children are bussed to school and bussed home afterwards omitting exploring the outdoors except in diminished short spurts during recess on denatured asphalt playgrounds. Where is responsibility for the built and natural environments, human well-being and sustainable future cultivated? Where and when is all education environmental(Orr, 2004)? Where and when in schools is creativity nurtured and allowed to flourish?

Every day thousands of students in the United States drop out of school. Our current educational system, forged in the 19th century, is based more on directed instruction than on connection to informal learning or each child's interest, talents and potential. Teaching emphasizes assessments and grades rather than on nurturing passion to learn, play and create (Wagner, 2012). Education is, in its current common core state, with all good

intentions, flattening human creative potential and diversity to solve problems facing our sustainable future. Other countries such as New Zealand are shifting effective teaching from delivery of instruction to make learners fit into a system of testing assessment to building an education system and curriculum around the potential of the learner (Bolstad & Gilbert, 2012). In addition, learners develop desire and aptitude for continuous learning even after school. They are equipped with cultural and linguistic diversity in preparation for global practices.

Americans for the Arts report that if a child fails even one class in middle school they are 50% more likely to drop out of high school making the middle school years formative to success in school and possibly in life. In support of nurturing creativity, they report that students who take art in middle school are four times as likely to be successful in high school (AFA, 2012, p. 03). Students with creativity education are more likely to attend college. They are more likely to succeed in the workplace and in life. Education needs to embrace creativity allowing students to use what they know (AFA, 2012). In addition, 93% of Americans believe that the arts are key to a well-rounded education (AFA, 2005, p. 23). As or more important is the finding that 72% of employers site creativity as an important ingredient for new hires (AFA, 2012, p.13).

Sir Ken Robinson in *Changing Education Paradigms* (RSA Animate, 2011) reports that while almost all young children claim to be creative the numbers drop off drastically by middle school and high school. In addition Americans for the Arts report that arts education is declining most rapidly in underserved populations (AFA, 2011). Our research in over one hundred workshops with teachers reveals what IDEO founders, Tom and David Kelly, and many Design Thinking Entrepreneurs report, “We’ve been so excited to find at IDEO and the d.school at Stanford that it turns out people are all kind of wildly creative.” (O’Leary, 2013). Moving learning from directed instruction to student led inquiry raises ‘the need to know’ and creates motivation in the classroom. Project Based Learning, another active learning strategy, cultivates student responsibility, ownership and choice in selecting projects to develop.

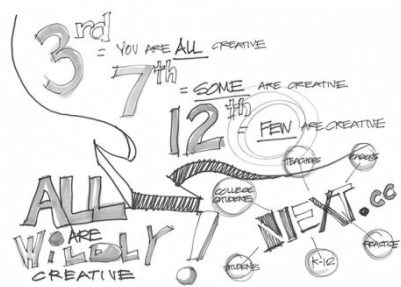


Figure 3: People of all age, income, race and creed, are creative. NEXT.cc 2014

DESIGN IS 21st CENTURY LIBERAL ARTS EDUCATION

Design introduces creativity and critical thinking. To be a designer, one naturally develops criticality. A charming example is presented in Expeditionary Learning’s Video, Austin’s Butterfly: Building Excellence in Student Work-Models, Critique and Descriptive Feedback(Berger 2010). First grade children are shown giving feedback about a student’s butterfly drawing. This process shows the ability of children to look more closely, form perceptions, offer critique and realize differences and excellence. Design is the continuous cycle of looking, developing perspective, forming feedback, changing course. It develops conceptualization, critical thinking and resilience. This introspection and careful looking of youth can be nurtured at any age.

More challenging is creativity and its messy, yet rigorous, investigation. It does not fit neatly into 50 minute periods that then must shift to another topic. Creativity flourishes on melding information from diverse fields and approaches, experimenting, exploring, testing and trialing. Designers call this ‘informed design’. New Next Generation Science Standards ask teachers to integrate engineering and technology into science education. While this is an exciting move for design, few teachers are equipped to work fluidly between physical modeling and testing and creative use of the broad band of new and emerging digital tools. This is the practice of STEAM by Design. The designing mind connects Dr. Howard Gardner’s Five Minds For The Future- Respectful, Synthesizing, Creative and Ethical (Gardner, 2006). Gardner writes about acquiring mastery in a discipline taking ten years; this matches with Gladwell’s “ten thousand hours’ for innovation (Gladwell, 2011). Design is always redesigning itself, looking to new tools and new ways of knowing. It demands continuous learning.

Design attaches itself to ever changing situations demanding resilient responses. Design incorporates creativity and critical thinking, messy investigations, material testing and construction of ideas and solutions. Design opens minds to life long learning.

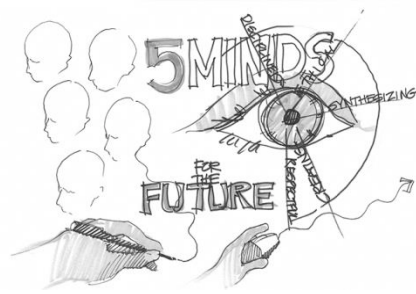


Figure 4: The designing mind connects Gardner’s five minds for the future. NEXT.cc 2014

Design builds a work ethic. Design, in its approach to looking at the world, proposes the need to investigate, experiment, test and share ideas over a period of time with diverse audiences. It moves the imagination fluidly from divergent to convergent thinking conceptualizing ideas, responding to diverse criteria, synthesizing information and driving to share ideas and see ideas realized. The design process by its very nature builds perseverance and focus.

Design learning melds teaching with student led inquiry. As FutureLab and Microsoft’s Enquiring Minds report states, “...it is a distinctive approach to teaching and learning which takes seriously the knowledge, ideas, interests and skills that students bring into school” (Morgan, J., Williamson, B. Lee, Tash & Facer, K., 2010, p. 9). Design introduces systems thinking, or the connection and influence of at least the next smaller and next larger scale in subjects. Systems thinkers expand specific empirical knowledge to local and then global practices, pulling learning from a point in time to a horizontal stretching of information, association and understanding. Design introduces systems thinking as it considers complex information from diverse fields as interconnected.

Design employs dynamic processes that exercise imagination, challenge critical thinking, develop and mature skills. Design in K12 leads to many areas of expertise for life long learning and practice. Some emerging design fields employ high school graduates directly. Some design professions require additional schooling and internships. Design practice becomes a life long acquisition of knowledge and expertise.

Design cultivates engagement. As teachers and students become engaged in projects they communicate and collaborate. They learn together. Teachers become facilitator and life long learners. Learning together builds community. As students invest in projects, they want to share their projects and activate change. Design, by necessity, is the 21st century liberal arts education. It moves from what one knows to what one can do with that knowing. The Design Learning Network started by Doris Wells-Papanak draws upon Dr. Betty Garner’s cognitive research in “Getting to Got It!”. For K12 learning they both call this the “Learn Think Do” approach. This approach, spread out over interconnected steps of exploration, experimentation, conceptualization, ideation, iteration, prototyping, etc., is the core of design.

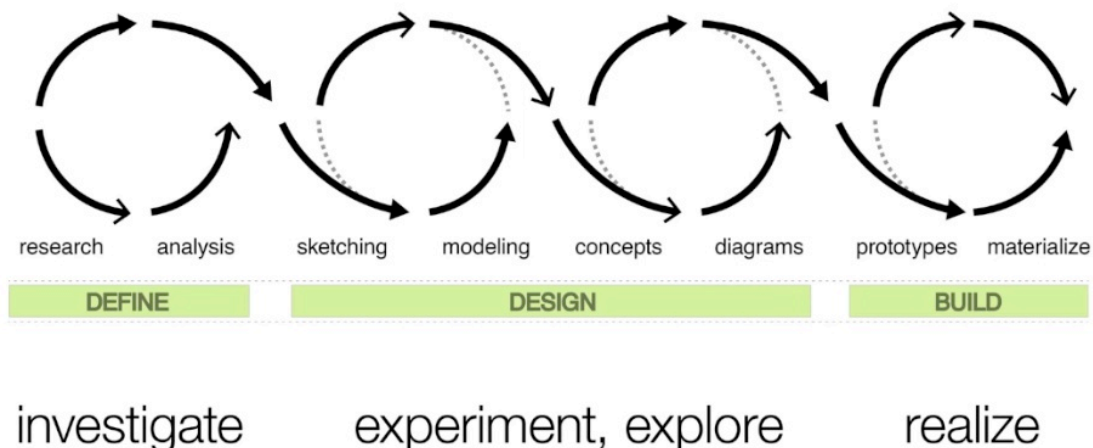


Figure 5: The define, design, build process. NEXT.cc 2014

Design opens the environment, both the built and natural, as fertile exploration and experimentation ground for 21st century K12 pedagogy. Drawing upon Dr. Howard Gardner's Five Minds for the Future, design integrates the disciplinary mind, the respectful mind, the synthesizing mind, the creating mind, and the ethical mind (Gardner, 2006). Introducing what design is, what design does, and why design is important with place based activities draws individuals informal learning knowledge together with K12 directed instruction to establish the foundations for life long learning (Keane & Keane, 2009).

A 2012 National Governor's Association Report promotes the importance of design linking art with science with the environment for cultural sustainability. **New Engines of Growth: Five Roles for Arts, Design and Culture (NGA, 2010)** presents the importance of art and creativity education in K12 as a driver to produce students who will be better prepared in the workforce. They also predict that art, culture and design will form creative knowledge clusters that can catalyze cultural districts and initiate community revitalization. Designing design education to nurture imagination across broad bands of population strengthens the collaborative culture of communities with direct affinities to specific places and specific schools.

DESIGNING TEACHER EDUCATION

Designing education changes teacher education, assessment and curriculum. The Grattan Report details how countries that score the highest in PISA standards have revamped teacher education (Grattan Institute, 2012). To educate for resiliency, adaptability and creativity, teacher education needs design pedagogy, new assessment methods and new approaches. The report finds that the top four ranking countries have created a "strong culture of teacher education, research, collaboration, mentoring, feedback and sustained professional development" (Grattan Institute, 2012). Not surprisingly, this sounds very much like the culture of a design studio, where aspiring students collaborate, research, receive and give mentoring and feedback and begin sustained professional development!

The Partnership for 21st Century Skills Framework (Partnership 2009), asks that global themes such as the environment, health and well-being, and the economy be presented with traditional school subjects challenging application of students' baseline knowledge to global issues. These complex issues face society today and need to be present in everyday teaching. Developing a personal affinity with place and continued exposure to site specific outdoor experiences are key in developing 21st century eco literacy. Designers are involved in mediating human interactions with constructed systems in the natural environment.

Dr. Yong Zhao's book, *World Class Learners: Educating Creative and Entrepreneurial Students*, champions the importance of second language instruction. Second languages introduce students to other cultures and other economies. The Fulbright Program, founded by the late Senator William Fulbright in 1946 requested cross cultural pollination and exchange; encouragingly, the percentage of students studying abroad has grown to 10% of the US College Student population in the last few years. Design offers avenues to become acquainted with other cultures through study, travel, and work abroad. Design offers access to international individuals and practices that are responding to specific culture, place and climate. Teachers (and their students) given the opportunity to take virtual field trips, play geography games, 'travel' to other other cities, meet careers and classes on the opposite side of the globe, expand curiosity about other while broadening understanding of human diversity.



Figure 6: 21st century learning introduces systems relationships between our economy, culture and environment. NEXT.cc

In addition, a growing awareness of our planet's changing climate charges the need for heightened environmental skills and sensibilities. Digital tools and methodologies of inquiry can be incorporated in the classroom and outside of on the school campus. New tools for making and learning contribute new ways of knowing. Design practices are continuously involved in developing and utilizing new tools for research, iteration and construction. With ubiquitous cell phone use and home computers on the rise, schools need to be wired to allow access to learning online. Teachers can be empowered to use technologies with friendly, non-intimidating introduction to creative incorporations of technology in everyday instruction.

The EU Open Discovery Space (ODS) project addresses the challenge of modernizing school education by connecting teachers, students, parents and policymakers in creation of a pan- European e-learning environment. Their goal is to promote more flexible and creative ways of learning to improve the way educational content is produced, accessed and used. Opening up institutional learning to the public, with free access to tools, knowledge and systems, is a step in the right direction to nurturing creativity. The power of the web can deliver high quality learning curriculum directly to individual teachers and students. The Internet of Things (for children) asks collaborators to share openly resources, methodologies, strategies, digital knowledge and curriculum to introduce everyday use of technology in humane ways. Design of learning systems is a way of facilitating open and generous sharing of knowledge.

DISSEMINATING DESIGN OPPORTUNITIES

While education seems to separate art as creativity education from traditional subjects such as language, math, science, etc., global design practices work cohesively across subjects to create systems, products, experiences and environments. Architecture is an integrating discipline that does not separate art from science, language from health, math from the environment. Design fields, or fields that produce what humans needs, use and celebrate, do not treat creativity as an elective.

Next Generation Science Standards' new focus on engineering practices is transformative. The integration of engineering and technology into the structure of science education will raise engineering and design to the same level as scientific inquiry. Design, like engineering, imagines the future through an iterative process with parameters. (NEXT.cc).

Our research builds upon our design experience teaching art, architecture and design students at the undergraduate and graduate levels at The School of the Art Institute of Chicago and the University of Wisconsin Milwaukee. As architects, trained and experienced in design that includes science with art, technology with engineering, the natural with the built, a trans disciplinary approach to teaching and learning is our nature. We started a Young Architects Club at the University of Wisconsin Milwaukee where inner city youths were bussed to the campus for a Saturday workshop. We drew with them, introduced vocabulary, tested materials and explored modeling and building. We introduced built environment education in elementary, middle and high school career days in local public school districts. Quick subject introduction followed by hands on activities spurred curiosity, interest, and excitement about project based learning (outside of the art room). In addition, when a local school referendum called for maintenance and replacement, we worked with students, teachers and community professionals to raise awareness of reusable energy sources, best storm water management practices, urban agriculture beds, outdoor learning experiences and the importance of prioritizing the environment across the curriculum. Our high school received a Green and Healthy School Certification for installing solar panels, photovoltaics, bioswales and a water filtering athletic field.



Figure 7: Project based workshop for ESL students without access to art instruction.

DESIGNING ACCESS TO DESIGN THINKING AND MAKING

“A good education system should provide all who want to learn with access to available resources at any time in their lives...” Illich (1971)

NEXT.cc is an eLearning designopedia created by principals, teachers, architects, artists and college art, art education, design and architecture students (MIT, Harvard, NYIT, CCAC, Parsons, SAIC, UWM). Available 24/7, it introduces informal learning curriculum connected with art, design, science and environment practices to design denied teachers (and students) in remote classrooms. Participants move from the computer into the community and learn about themselves, their neighbors, and their friends as they engage history and culture of place and explore sustainable design possibilities (NEXT.cc, 2014).

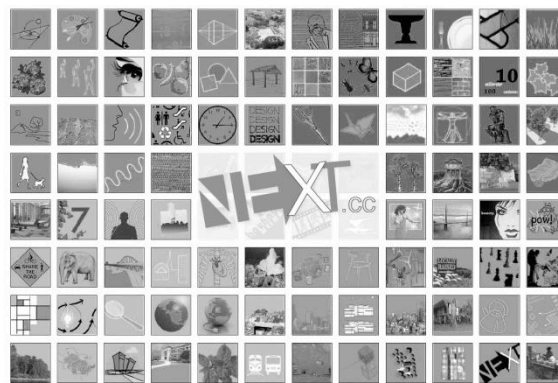


Figure 8: NEXT.cc introduces TOOLS, LANGUAGES, DISCOVERY, DESIGN Opportunities.

Blurring learning with play, work and fun, NEXT.cc’s Journeys offer TOOLS, LANGUAGES, DISCOVERY and DESIGN activities connecting across the consilience of nine connected scales - nano, pattern, object, space, architecture, neighborhood, urban, region, world. Mixing standards assessed disciplinary core ideas, which previously dominated instruction, with science and engineering practices and cross cutting concepts allows students to generate personalized responses, test ideas and learn from convergent and divergent thinking. Self directed exploration of journeys awakens curiosity and supports imagination at work in creative applications in the classroom, on the school campus and out in the school community. Journeys link topically with virtual field trips, museums, institutions, and contemporary global practices bringing creative economies to remote classrooms all over the world.

Since 2007, we delivered over one hundred teacher and student workshops in the Midwest. We learned with the teachers the need to introduce digital tools in non-intimidating ways. We learned to connect design journeys and activities to required Art and Design and North American Environmental Education Standards. We connected Next Generation Science Standards to correlate with 21st century skills. We created cluster models of curriculum for schools. Cluster models create curricular opportunities for teachers of different subjects to join together to work as facilitators in assisting student led projects .

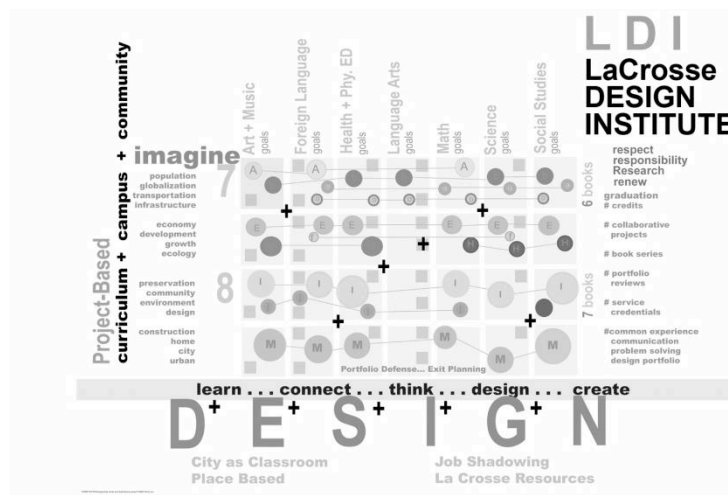


Figure 9: Design introduces trans disciplinary project learning that clusters work from two or more classes in projects connected to the community. NEXT.cc & DLI 2009.

Teachers became empowered to use creative digital tools to spark interest, play games and awake attention and build motivation. Teachers invested in place base project learning and raised appreciation of the value of connecting their teaching with the school community’s culture, economy and environment. Teachers became life long learners and move from directed instructors to collaborative facilitators of students led inquiry. As follow up, we work with teachers to develop projects on the school grounds that introduce sustainable practices. We work with teachers to inspire projects specific to school communities that strengthen school culture. NEXT.cc’s topical links generate excitement, raise enthusiasm and increase 21st century aptitudes. Teachers coordinated new journeys to expand their instruction and alternative assessments for short, medium and long-term projects. Teachers changed the choreography of the classroom.



Figure 10: Teachers are introduced to phased STEAM projects that blur the boundaries of learning, work, play and fun. NEXT.cc & ASM 2013.

NEXT.cc’s integrative journeys deepen project research and connect real world careers for students. NEXT.cc combines visual, digital and hand skill development with vocabulary acquisition maturing students’ abilities to create, communicate and collaborate. NEXT.cc becomes a weekly eLearning exploration of possibilities and practices informing student inquiry. Teachers and students continue free access to the design resources of NEXT.cc during homeroom, after school clubs, conservation and enrichment clubs. NEXT.cc is assigned over the summer for portfolio development.

TEACHERS ARE INVIGORATED WITH DESIGN PRACTICES

Teachers need first hand experience of design projects to gain confidence as creators, makers and problem solvers. Teachers need opportunities to find, analyze and apply knowledge from a range of curricular subjects to generate solutions to complex problems. Teachers need encouragement to connect classroom teaching with careers and industry partners in the school community. Teachers need introduction to easy to learn digital tools

and techniques to stay one step ahead of their students. Teachers need practice at developing design assessments for project based learning. The shift from grading correct answers to reflecting on outcomes and evaluating design takes practice. Most teachers have critical eyes and insights and can easily engage in critique of each others work. They understand and appreciate design's role in connecting with community and with current issues. They see that design allows for active learning opportunities.

After experiencing high energy hands on workshops with a series of design challenges, teachers report that they understand the relevancy in design learning. They enjoy the range of activities integral to thinking about design, brainstorming ideas, testing ideas and constructing ideas. They learn basic tools for initiating design thinking, comparing approaches, empathizing with users, evaluating outcomes. They can communicate their concepts and ideas. They are excited to use new digital tools and to become skilled in using them. Teachers move quickly from choreographer of instruction to coaches of learning.

CONCLUSION

Education plays a highly important role in creating a sufficient and sustainable economy. Design education, specifically, encourages teachers to look at their creative side and develop an innovative approach to their teaching. Teaching design encourages learning from the world, engaging the world and finding ways to improve the world. Using design as K12 methodology channels student led interest and experiences into ideas that inform the content and daily process of teaching and learning. A commitment to personalised learning, embracing diversity, rethinking learners' and teachers' roles, forging new partnerships — all fueled by disciplined innovation and new technologies — are identified as the key dimensions of a redesigned, connected and coherent 'learning system'. Teaching teachers and children design principles builds basic knowledge and confidence to become an involved citizen. Design for students involves not only a visual, artistic approach, but also a hands-on, **tactile** way of learning that puts students out into the world connecting with their interests and informal learning capabilities in the built and natural environments. By creating common knowledge of design, individuals evolve into educated adults that can confidently take part in designing their community through collaboration in addressing local and global issues.

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The Impact of Teaching Biomimicry to Enhance Thinking Skills for Students of Art Education in Higher Education

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Abstract

This paper studies the impact of teaching biomimicry to enhance thinking skills for students of art education in higher education. Descriptive, analytical and experimental methods are used in this research. The results of the study are expected to be beneficial for the development of students' performance in higher Education. The study sample consists of 30 students of the third level, batch 2012 – 2013, from the faculty of Education at the University of Khartoum: Republic of the Sudan.

Biomimicry has a number of major benefits. Firstly, it offers spiritual development as it is an area that enables us to meditate and appreciate God's creation. Secondly, this subject makes students realize that nothing is superfluous in nature: everything in nature has a purpose and a function. Thirdly, this subject can positively impact early year's education. The results showed that biomimicry has long-lasting effects skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking. Finally, these results indicated that biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills. This skill is crucial for today's visually dominant society. This research has a number of practical recommendations for example, teachers should be teaching the subject of biomimicry to students of art education in higher education.

Keywords. Teaching biomimicry, art education, higher education, thinking skills.

Introduction

Nature is inventive, synchronised and methodical. Furthermore, our natural world has stimulated and inspired human beings throughout history. Nature can teach mankind about various systems, materials, structures and designs. The term biomimicry stems from two Greek words 'Bios' which means life and 'Mimesis' that means imitation. The term biomimetics, which was coined by Otto H. Schmitt (Schmitt 1969), represents the studies and imitation of nature's methods, mechanisms and processes. Biomimicry involves emulating successes within the natural world and this is a growing area of research within fields such as architecture, design, electronics, biology and engineering. This multi-disciplinary approach operates on the basic belief that within its 3.8 billion year history, nature has already found solutions to a myriad number of problems.

Primitive human tribes and cultures were dependent on nature to provide them with food, clothing, medicine etc. Nowadays society seems reliant on the industrial world yet this often lacks sustainability and regeneration. Biomimicry is a new way of observing and appreciating nature. It introduces an era based not on what we can extract from the natural world, but on what we can learn from it (Benyus, 2002).

Life on Earth has evolved throughout its 3.8 billion years of existence. In comparison, humans have been present for only a tiny fraction of this time period. Excluding humans, Earth's inhabitants have endured billions of years of life without consuming their ecological resources. Species alive today hold the secret to survival. These species have learned how to survive, evolve, and adapt to their surroundings throughout time. Creating a built environment, which functions more like the natural world may address human caused problems such as the depletion of natural resources, global warming, pollution, overpopulation, starvation, etc. (Benyus, 1997).

Background

Janine Benyus coined the term “biomimicry” in 1997 when she published her book *Biomimicry: Innovation Inspired by Nature*. She created this term by combining bios, which refers to life or living things, and mimicry, which means to copy or emulate. Biomimicry simply means copying life.

Benyus describes biomimicry as “the conscience emulation of nature’s genius.” “Conscience” implies intent to integrate nature into your design process. “Emulation” suggests that biomimicry goes beyond mimicking nature’s shapes and forms; it is about extracting the best ideas and the strategies from nature and incorporating them in our designs. “Nature’s genius” reminds us that the forms, processes, and systems found in nature are truly ingenious compared to our own technologies. As Thomas Edison once said, “Until man duplicates a blade of grass, nature can laugh at his so-called scientific knowledge.”

For design practitioners, biomimicry is a sustainable design tool based on emulating strategies used by living things to perform functions our technologies need to perform – everything from creating color to generating energy. Biomimicry, like nature, is continually evolving and can help to improve designs. There are three levels of mimicry; the organism, behavior and ecosystem. Indeed, a crucial part of biomimicry is mimicking ecosystems as described by Benyus (1997) and Vincent (2007). Ecomimicry is a term that describes this mimicking process within design (Lourenci et al., 2004, Russell, 2004).

There are two main approaches to using biomimicry as a design process. These are design looking to biology or biology influencing design (Biomimicry Guild, 2007). Firstly, design looking to biology involves designers observing the natural world for solutions to their specific problems. What would nature do? An example of this approach is the Bionic Car. The prototype of this car was based on the aerodynamic boxfish. Due to biomimicry the car is more fuel-efficient as it mimics the boxfish. McKosky (2002) indicates that it is fundamental to consider the natural form, process and system that can be found naturally within nature and then mimic its process (McKosky, 2012).

Secondly, biology influences design which is reliant on architects/designers possessing an inherent understanding of biological/ecological research. For example, the self-cleaning ability of lotus flower was applied and utilized to enable buildings to be self-cleaning. Mimicking existing ecosystems and species provides a stimulating vision of our future world and the way in which humans’ lives can be intertwined with other habitats.

Innovation Inspired by Nature

Nature is the foremost superior designer. Janine Benyus 2002, is one of the leading researchers in the field of Biomimicry and she recognized that modern society is removed from nature compared to our descendants. In her book *Biomimicry: Innovation Inspired by Nature* Benyus proposes principles in her work that govern natural design and processes such as: Nature as Model; Nature as Measure and Nature as Mentor. Firstly, she suggests that biomimicry can be used as a model/design solution to solve human problems and rejuvenate our weathering world (Nature as model). Biomimicry is a new science that studies models within nature and then imitates or takes inspiration from these designs to solve human problems. Biomimicry can be used as a tool to create more sustainable design solutions. For example, consider the Eastgate Centre in Harare, Zimbabwe, which demonstrates biomimicry principles and is ecologically sensitive. This concrete structure has no conventional air-conditioning yet regulates itself by utilising design methods inspired by the self-cooling mounds of African termites. Learning from the termite model has helped humans create sustainable buildings.

Secondly, Biomimicry uses a standard (Nature as Measure) to evaluate the effectiveness of our concepts and designs. Nature can be viewed as a measure. Biomimicry uses an ecological standard to review the validity and reliability of our innovations. After 3.8 billion years of evolution nature has learned these three fundamental principles: what works; what is appropriate and what lasts. Nature has taught us that designs that work remain in use: they last. Finally, Nature is seen as a teacher, a mentor that enables us to view and appreciate nature (Benyus, 1997). This is an incredibly competent universe with an array of successful living examples freely available for us to learn from.

Nature's creatures and the texture of their skin can teach us a lot about life's genius. For example, the texture of sharkskin has provided design inspiration for medical technologists and even swimsuit designers. The texture of their skin is ingenious as it consists of dermal denticles or "little skin teeth" which serve a number of functions. Firstly, this texture is streamlined and the denticles result in water moving more effectively over the shark. Fraunhofer Institute developed a paint based on the textured skin of sharks that could be applied to planes and ships to make them more efficient. In addition, the designers of the Speedo Fatskin swimsuit took their

inspiration from nature as their design mimics a shark's skin, which enables it to reduce water drag hence making the swimmer quicker.

Secondly, sharkskin also proved to be an effective defense against bacteria. The texture can reduce the incidence of microorganisms and hospital-acquired infections such as MRSA. Dr Brennan and Sharklet technology demonstrated a biometric technology inspired by the texture of sharkskin. The impression/texture of these dermal denticles are organised in a diamond pattern with tiny riblets. They are deliberately created to inhibit the growth of microorganisms from settling.

In addition, the surface texture of the Blue Morpho butterfly is similar to roof tiles with overlapping ridges, which enable water and dirt to literally roll off the wings. The microscopic texture of these wings has enabled researchers to develop surfaces, which enhance fluid flow and prevent surfaces from getting dirty. This natural genius can be mimicked and used in a variety of surfaces for aircraft and medical equipment. In a similar way to sharkskin, this texture could prevent the growth of bacteria. Textures in nature require designers to think about purposes and reasons for designs. Biomimicry can teach design students that everything in nature has a function.

The idea of thinking skills as being fundamental to learning has a long and illustrious history. There is a considerable canon on the subject, much of it influenced recently by the work of Robert Fisher (1995a, 1995b, 1998, 2000) who seeks to establish approaches to help children develop critical, creative and imaginative states of mind. He argues that this can be achieved by improving their thinking skills, thus helping them make more sense of their learning and their lives. This study links into Fisher's work and argues that through a study of biomimicry we need to encourage students to think critically why certain textures like spots/lines exist in nature and then how biomimicry can be applied in their own designs.

Ultimately, the role of designer encompasses problem solving. Designers must apply thinking skills and creative ability to discover unique solutions to collective questions. These questions may consist of how to best market a brand, how to connect with a specific target audience or how to correspond across ethnic boundaries (Simmons, 2011). Yet in today's world there are fundamental issues in modern society such as the need for community, and sustainability (McKosky, 2012). However, there are still millions of people and potential clients who have never heard of biomimicry or find it hard to see its purpose. Future designers and educators should be informed of this approach and the exciting role it could and should play in our society. Using nature as a model, mentor and measure may provide maintainable and ecological solutions for this generation and upcoming generations.

Importance of the study

- 1) The researcher is expecting to teach the subject of biomimicry to students of art education in higher education, whereby enhancing the design process.
- 2) The study will provide teachers with an effective strategy to develop their performance and improve the current teaching methods.
- 3) The researcher predicts that this study enables an area for further studies to develop different strategies in the field of teaching biomimicry.
- 4) This study recognizes the importance of teaching students about texture and the purpose of textures within nature. If they study texture they may then find the benefits.

Objectives of the Study

- 1) To identify the impact of teaching biomimicry to enhancing thinking skills for students of art education in higher education
- 2) To develop means and methods to ensure the development of student's skills.
- 3) Development of a scientific program based on Biomimicry containing complete information to assist the teacher.
- 4) Introducing new methods that help teachers develop their understanding and teaching methods concerning biomimicry.
- 5) Think of other things in nature that we could use as inspiration to develop student abilities.

Hypotheses of the Study

- 1) Biomimicry has long-lasting effects which includes the development of skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students.
- 2) Biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills.

Methodology of the Study

The descriptive analytical and experimental methods were used in this research. The target population consists of students from the Faculty of Education, University of Khartoum: Republic of the Sudan. The study sample consists of 30 randomly selected students from the Faculty of Education: students of years (2012 – 2013).

Firstly, the 30 students were asked to draw a texture design such as a carpet, blanket or clothing. This test was marked out of 10 using the criteria below. Then there was a 2-week wash out period. After this period, the specific biomimicry program was taught which included the theory of biomimicry, examples from nature; independent research on the Internet; references and visits to explore for themselves different textures in nature. Each student was then given the same task to undertake: draw another design based on texture. The task was marked out of 10 marks. The task was chosen as a valid measure of critical thinking.

The total score for the test is 10 marks and the marks were distributed as follows:

- 1) Idea and design. Three marks.
- 2) Utilization of nature. Three marks.
- 3) Implementation of biomimicry. Four marks.

A teacher from the school that was not directly involved in researching this project marked the task work. A discussion with the students after the test also revealed that students were more confident with their designs after being participants in the Biomimicry program and they explained their ideas thoroughly. They also indicated that in the future they would use nature to help them think and develop their design choices.

The collected data was analyzed by the statistical program (STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE, SPSS) using the appropriate statistical treatments. The T- test for independent data was conducted to verify the significant differences between test scores before and after the implementation of the Biomimicry program.

Results and Discussion

Data analysis of the first hypothesis

Biomimicry has long-lasting effects skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students.

Table 1 Statistics Test

Variable	Sample Size	Arithmetic Mean	Standard
Experimental Before	30	4.30	1.00
Experimental After	30	7.63	1.88

Table 2 T. Test for two samples

Variable	T. Test Value	Degree of Freedom	Potential Value
Before – After	-17.028	29	0.00

Since the potential value = (0.000) is less than (0.05), it means there is a significant difference between the students' test grades before and after the biomimicry program.

The above tables (1-2) showed that there is a significant difference between the students of the experimental group before and after the implementation of the program through the potential value, which amounted to (0.000). This potential value is less than the level of error allowed (0.05%) for the benefit after applying the program through the arithmetic mean value, which is amounted to (7.63) that is greater than the arithmetic mean value before implementing the program, amounting to (4.30).

Through analyzing the results, the researchers noted that before the implementation of the biomimicry program the students were not able to apply thinking skills, and did not use nature in their design. The results showed there is a significant difference between group's performance before and after the program. This confirms that the students' self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students improved after the biomimicry lesson.

Data analysis of the second hypothesis

Biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills.

Table 3 Statistics Test

Variable	Sample Size	Arithmetic Mean	Standard
Experimental Before	30	1.71	1.59
Experimental After	30	7.76	1.13

Table 4 T. Test for two samples

Variable	T. Test Value	Degree of Freedom	Potential Value
Before – After	-19.12	29	0.00

The above tables (3-4) demonstrate there is a significant difference between the performance of the experimental group before and after the implementation of the program through the potential value, which amounted to (0.000). This value is less than the level of error allowed (0.05%) after applying the program through the arithmetic mean value, which is amounted to (7.76) that is greater than the arithmetic mean value before implementing the program, amounting to (1.71).

Since P. (Value = 0.000) is less than (0.05%), this means that there are significant differences before and after the test which confirms that teaching biomimicry enhance thinking skills for students of art education in higher education. The results of the study indicated that the use of biomimicry has effectively improved the learning process.

Results of the study indicated that the use of multiple teaching aids have effectively improved the learning process. The results showed there is a significant difference between group's performance before and after the program. This confirms that the students' design decisions and thinking skills improved among the students.

After an analysis of the results both hypothesis can be accepted. Firstly, biomimicry has long-lasting effects which includes the development of skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students. Secondly, Biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills.

The results revealed that the students' design decisions and thinking skills for students improved after the Biomimicry program. Therefore, it could be argued that this program assisted the students' designs, boosting their creativity and thinking skills. Biomimicry can teach design students that everything in nature has a function. The test asked them to think about the purpose their texture could be used for e.g. clothes or curtains and studying this subject will help their thought processes as they will look to nature as their teacher because nature has everything. Designers worldwide are working together to integrate the principles of biomimicry and sustainability into all aspects of design (McKoskey, 2012). The complexity of real life systems must be appreciated so that designers can utilize the wisdom of nature.

The work of Robert Fisher has been supported in this study as thinking skills are crucial to all students to enable them to develop a better understanding of themselves as learners. The implementation of biomimicry into the art education curriculum could prove productive to pedagogical approaches involving the development and encouragement of thinking skills. Through a study of biomimicry students will question why the zebra has stripes whilst other animals have spots because each texture has a different function depending on the purpose of that animal or the environment in which they live. Students can utilise the genius of nature and harness their own creativity.

This study has demonstrated that students will practice applying biomimicry to arrive at sustainable design solutions. To accomplish this objective, students must understand that utilizing biomimicry as an instrument is more complex than simply viewing one aspect of nature as a design model, measure, and mentor. Since nature functions as a whole structure with many different interconnected elements, biomimetic designs must use an integrated systems thinking approach to include disciplines such as biology, biophysics, and material science (John et al., 2005).

Practical recommendations from this research include the need to consider this topic as a main component of the design education system. Design students indicated the need to establish and impart a fundamental teaching module that focuses on inspiration transmitted through nature. The findings revealed that students were

interested in this topic as an aid to the development of their designs. Lecturers should advocate looking at nature in new ways and ultimately this can inspire and motivate their students.

Results

- 1) There is a significant difference between group's performance before and after the program, in addition is a significant difference between the experimental group and control group before and after the test. This confirms that the biomimicry has long-lasting effects which includes the development of skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students.
- 2) There are significant differences between group's performance before and after the program, in addition is a significant difference between the experimental group and control group before and after the test. This confirms that the biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills.

Recommendations

In the light of the results obtained the researchers recommends the following:

- Teachers should be teaching the subject of biomimicry for students of art education in higher education.
- The students should be encouraged to conduct mini-debates on biomimicry and elements of nature such as texture in order to develop their thinking skills.

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Students' Emotional Responses Related to the Teaching Activity

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Abstract

In this paper, the author deals with students' emotional responses that occur during the teaching process. The author distinguishes two broad categories of students' emotional responses. The first category consists of academic emotions, while achievement emotions stand out as a separate category. Emotions play an important role in the classroom since students remember emotionally appealing contents longer and devote to them more studiously. Also, with the help of attitudes associated with emotional judgements, academic achievement can be predicted. Students are more successful in learning activities in which they feel joy and pleasure as opposed to boredom. Within this broad area, the author focuses on the positive functions of students' negative responses, and singles out only those emotional responses that are most important for the teaching activities: pleasure, boredom, apathy, the feeling of not being accepted, rejection, inferiority, worthlessness, worry, trust, doubt, pride and self-esteem.

Keywords. Students' emotional responses, teaching, achievement emotions, academic emotions

Introduction

It is known that the teaching process is full of emotional responses. Some authors distinguish between positive and negative (Chabot and Chabot, 2009). Everyone is familiar with the emotional responses to teaching such as : shyness, fear, dissatisfaction, envy, disappointment, hope and satisfaction, rejection, inferiority, worthlessness, worry, trust, doubt, pride and self respect. All these can be categorized into the emotional reactions directed towards the subject of the teaching process (students,teachers,parents) and the emotional reactions between the participants of the teaching process (students relations). From the point of view of the school pedagogy it is interesting to distinguish between the emotional reactions that happen inside the teaching process and those that engage outside school. From the didactic perspective it is interesting to observe the emotional reactions that occur during the teaching process (boredom, excitement) and those related to the results of the teaching process (fear, anger, sadness). In this paper the author will use the term academic emotions when referring to them.Reinhard Pekrun 2006. Uses this term to refer to all emotions that occur during teaching process and its evaluation, in other words all emotions experienced by students in the school environment. "Academic emotions are defined as emotions closely related to the process and results of the learning process."(Pekrun, 2006.:316) The author of academic emotions distinguishes them according to different criteria. According to the direction of emotional responses he differentiates between those that are related to the teaching activities (emotional responses that appear during learning process or during teaching process such as enjoyment of subject or boredom during lesson) and those related to the result of the teaching process (the emotion of achievement). The latter type can be called exam emotional responses since they are related to the emotions studens go through immediately before, during or after the examination process. The emotional reactions of students during the teaching process are not new but uptil recently this hasn't received enough attention in educational studies. This comes as no surprise considering the focus on the cognitive and the perception of emotinal as something irrational and outside reason. Although it is popularly said that "the heart wants what the heart wants" without being in touch with the reason , the real truth is different, the ratio cannot function without the support of emotions (Slunjski, 2013:14)

Pestalozzi insisted on the importance of the unity of heart, mind and hands in the learning process. This perspective is supported by the recent discoveries in the field of neuroscience that are more welcomed into the field of pedagogy and didactics. Researches point towards the key role emotions play in the process of thinking, memorizing and learning.(Salovey,Sluyter,1994; Boller,1999; Bognar,2009; Burman,2001) The research of the emotional responses of students in the teaching process reveals that the dominant emotions are boredom and fear and that the negative emotions are overall predominant.(Kolak,Majcen:2011; Bognar,Dubovicki, 2012) It is also

possible to change this and achieve the dominance of positive emotions. Students are more successful in learning process where they feel joy and comfort rather than boredom and emotionally more attractive content is more easily remembered and stays in the memory longer time while students address such content with more attention and dedication. Buckley and Sarni (according to Macklem, 2008) point out that the attitudes closely related to emotional experiences are indicative of academic success, where the student with more negative emotions towards school also have weaker academic results. Thus all those included in the making of the teaching process share responsibility of creating an atmosphere which encourages positive emotions.

The dynamics of teaching process and students' emotional responses

The teaching process is complex and there is a connection between its dynamics and the students' emotional reactions (Kolak, 2010) The dynamics of the teaching process is explained as "didactic-methodical solution of the methodological scheme of the movement of the objective reality" (Poljak 1967:17) The representatives of the new school pointed out that the teaching has to be active and dynamic. Herbart also pointed out the problem of dynamics in the teaching process and he gives the methodological basis of the quadruple structure of articulation : clarity, association, system and method. Some authors point out that education is never static but rather always dynamic and that this should be reflected in the teaching process (Kerschensteiner, according to Zaninovic,1988) while others pay special attention to distribution and exchange of activities to avoid boredom (Ferriere, 1935) Analysis of the dynamics of the teaching process will easily show its close relation to the students' activities in the teaching process. Competent lesson planning significantly contributes to the dynamics of the teaching process and provides a solution to the demanding complexity of its task. In order to achieve this it is necessary to use different methods and tools, different media in the classroom, create a positive learning atmosphere in the classroom as well as use different sociological forms in the teaching process. Some didactics scholars direct to the development of skills that will improve the dynamics of the teaching process (Kyriacou, 2001; Jones, 2007) Human brain remembers information acquired through positive emotions and it suppresses and forgets the information acquired through negative emotions. This mechanism is especially obvious in the teaching process because the students remember longer the contents introduced in the pleasant teaching climate. (Suzic,2008). Research has shown that those students who took part in an interactive learning process after six months show statistically significantly better results although the initial results of the experimental and control group were similar (Suzic, 1981). Other researches also show the importance of students' emotional response in the teaching process (Crossman, 2007) The dynamics of the teaching process is closely related to the emotion of boredom during the teaching process. Some researches show that boredom is one of the most common students' responses during the teaching process. We can easily conclude that in this case the demand for the dynamic teaching process hasn't been met since it is hard to cause boredom in a dynamic environment. In a wide research conducted for the purpose of evaluation of the experimental introduction of some elements into the Croatian educational standard (Sakic, 2006) students were asked about boredom during the teaching process. It is encouraging to see that the average results were found below the neutral range of the scale towards the values that indicate rare occurrence of boredom. The results show the difference between younger and older students where the older students are significantly less represented in the responses that indicate they are never bored. Opinions also differ with regard to the beginning or the end of the school year, one third is never bored at the beginning while at the end it is only one fourth that is not bored during lesson. The feeling of boredom is a kind of frustration experienced by the subject (student) in those situations that he or she interprets as without satisfaction for any of his or her desires (Milivojevic, 2007)

Boredom is physiologically related to certain changes in the nervous system causing disbalance between basic nervous processes – stimulation and control. Feeling of boredom is related to control of the nervous system since the monotonous activities stimulate always the same areas of the brain which causes saturation in them and is manifested through increase of breaking and control (Poljak, 1967) There are two types of boredom that may appear in the teaching process: situational and structural. Structural boredom is less interesting from the didactic point of view. It represents subjective manifestation due to the students individual disorder in the structure of desires. In this group belong those students that are hard to engage in spite of the diverse didactic solutions. Hence this type of boredom would belong to the domain of the school pedagog. Situational boredom is more significant for the teaching process. In this case the student is aware of his or her needs and desires but for some reason cannot get out of the situation they are in. Reasons for that can be both intrinsic and external. Though the external reasons are usually considered to be situational, eg. hospitals, prisons, sometimes the school has the same effect on the student due to the dynamics of the teaching process. When the student is considering leaving class because he or she is bored but at the same time is aware that this would lead to certain sanctions, we are talking about intrinsic reasons. Usually students stay in class in spite of the feeling of boredom, but there is

apparent agitation. This can be recognized by unnecessary actions and behaviour: rocking on a chair, tapping fingers, scribbling, biting fingernails...The purpose of agitation is wasting away of the emotional tension caused by boredom. This often interrupts the teaching process and creates a new problem of indiscipline. Although boredom is predominant in adolescence it is present in all phases and periods of education.

Students' emotional responses in the teaching process

When defining emotions Oatley and Jenkins (2003) stress the process of evaluation and consider the category of awareness as irrelevant. They say emotion is "usually caused by intentional or spontaneous evaluation of an event related to an important goal; it is felt as positive when the objective is being realised and negative when its realisation is obstructed" (Oatley, Jenkins, 2003:93) The word emotion comes from the Latin verb *motere*, to move. Emotion has the word motion inside it. Emotions drive us to certain actions and at the heart of emotion is the ability to act. Hence our primary emotions (fear, anger, sadness, disgust, contempt, surprise, joy) are important for survival. Each of these emotions has its characteristics and can be found in all cultures regardless of race, language or religion.

For example, fear is caused by a potential danger and it drives us to escape; anger drives us to attack when there's an obstacle on the way to realisation of our goals. Sadness is related to loss and it causes withdrawal, and the feeling of disgust causes rejection. Surprise is activated in an unexpected situation and joy occurs in desirable situations and causes bonding. The following Table 1 gives an outline of these emotional responses regarding teaching context and school system and it is focused on the positive aspects of students' negative emotional responses.

Table 1: Positive function of students' negative response (Kolak, 2013)

Emotion	Teaching situation	Students' positive action
Concern	Student is concerned because he/she thinks he /she did poorly at the exam.	This mobilizes the student to revise the material covered in the exam and to practise more. The student finds the best solution in the present for the problems that may occur in future.
Sadness	Student is sad because he/she cannot enroll in the school of choice due to poor exam results.	Student makes reconstruction of value system. He distances himself from the imagined desire and affirms the real possibilities. He finds a school that suits the situation.
Anger	Student is angry with a classmate who interrupted him during exam.	The goal of anger is to drive the other person to change his behaviour. The student shows the sense of self esteem through anger.
Guilt	The student didn't complete his part of the project so the whole team got a lower grade.	The discomfort of the feeling of guilt drives the student to change the behaviour that caused it. He wants to recompensate, apologizes and accepts his responsibility.
Jitters	Student has jitters before a public performance.	This drives the student to thorough preparations and consultations .
Envy	Student wants to have the abilities and talents like his classmates, eg. in sports.	Envy helps the student to identify his own desire. He joins a sport activity in free time.

Oatley and Jenkins (2003) see emotions as central to human life and as structures that " govern our lives, especially our relationships with others" (Oatley and Jenkins, 2003:124) Hence it is important what are students' emotional responses towards school and the teaching process because this will influence their behaviour. Magda Arnold has introduced the term of evaluation of significance as key factor in studying the shaping of emotions and she based it on Aristotle's theory that emotions are based on evaluation of events in view of their importance within personal and interpersonal life (Jenkins, Oatley and Stein, 1998). Frijda (according to Oatley and Jenkins) stresses the necessary condition in determining the occurrence of emotions to be the change in attitude towards action. Many authors (Goleman, 1997; Chabot and Chabot, 2009) agree that each emotion supposes inclination towards action. Campos and assistants (according to Oatley and Jenkins, 2003) define emotions as processes

which "establish, maintain, change or end the relationship between the individual and his surroundings in matters important to the individual" (2003:122) while Frijda (1986) considers emotions to be the result of interaction with real or expected consequences of events that the subject considers important and that they can be expressed directly or indirectly, the object being to influence the behaviour of others. Milivojevic (2007) agrees that emotions always appear as reactions to certain occurrence and for him emotion has the meaning of qualitatively personal reaction to a life situation hence he uses the term emotional response, which is accepted and applied in this paper. The teaching process is a place of many events and experiences that include success and failure, comfort and discomfort, complaints and praises, unexpected results and sudden events. These present opportunities for different positive and negative emotional responses that can cause certain behaviour. Thus success usually leads to happiness and enthusiasm which lead to further motivation and interest while failure can cause sadness and withdrawal which are reflected in lack of motivation for participation in the teaching process. Pleasant emotions such as curiosity, joy and enthusiasm help the learning process and make it more successful, while the state of vulnerability (usually related to exams and testing) blocks the higher cognitive functions, in other words, students find it hard to think clearly (Miljkovic and Rijavec, 2009). Joy is a special type of satisfaction directed towards the future. It occurs when there is a high probability of fulfillment of a desire in the near future (Milivojevic, 2007). The student can feel joy upon completing an exam for which he will earn a high grade. The student is content if one of his desires has been fulfilled during the teaching process. The student can solve a task successfully, in practical science projects or group projects...For the emotional response of satisfaction it is important that the student has a desire. The purpose is to award the student for the type of behaviour that led to the fulfillment of the desire. In the teaching process we sometimes find the emotional response of indifference which is defined as absence of emotion. If the student has no needs or desires, as well as no values he wants to protect, we say he is indifferent. In pedagogy it is important to differentiate between situational and structural indifference. Structural indifference cannot be dealt with in the frame of pedagogy, while situational indifference can be affected by different methodological scenarios. Thus it is important to differentiate between suitable and unsuitable indifference (Milivojevic, 2007) Unsuitable one is found at those situations where it is expected from the student to have emotional response while suitable indifference is linked to certain characteristics of the student's personality so we usually describe that particular student as calm. Student can feel worried during the teaching process. He is anxious that some circumstances during the teaching process might endanger his values or something he considers his responsibility (eg. he is the team leader in a group project and he estimates that the team will not be able to meet all the objectives). The purpose of concern is to activate those potentials that might change the undesirable outcome in the future. The student is searching for a solution in the present that will decrease or prevent the unwanted outcome in the future. Pride is one of the pleasant emotional responses in students during the teaching process. The student is proud in those situations that make him feel he contributed towards a positive image in the eyes of authority (usually a teacher), for example he has successfully completed a given task. This emotional response is very important in the teaching process because it allows the student to create a positive self image since it has been confirmed by the authority, the teacher. In this particular emotional response the role of the teacher is very important. This is especially true in the first years of primary education. When later during the education process the student separates his self image from others' opinions he becomes capable of feeling self approval and self respect. Respect is then reflected in other relationships, towards people as well as things. The theory of human rights stresses that every human being has the right to dignity which means that being human gives us the right to exist and be respected (Milivojevic, 2007) The student respects those teachers and classmates who have the qualities he finds highly valuable and important. In analogy, he feels self respect when he identifies those same values in himself. If the teaching process puts the student in such situations and challenges through which the student can confirm his personal values, the student will develop the feeling of self respect which is of great importance for his future development.

Emotional responses between students

The teaching process in the school system is organised in hierarchical subsystems. One of them are classes of peer groups. In peer groups the students satisfy the need for intimacy, form self image, develop social skills, learn to help, share and cooperate. Class groups have great importance in students' development since during the primary school years the group becomes an important social context. Even though children as young as two years old sometimes adjust their behaviour in the interest of the group, the true socialization begins in the primary school years (Vasta, Heith, Miller 2005) Emotionally important events in a class are more often related to the students' relationships than to the teachers (Ulich, 2001; acc.to Kiper, Mischke, 2008) so they are of crucial importance in creating the teaching process. A class typically consists of a larger number of students, although

this number varies. Typically these students haven't known each other prior to that so we can say it is an artificially created group. This group will spend several hours together every day over a long period of time in a very close and direct contact. Therefore it is no surprise that the emotional responses that occur in these relationships are extremely important for the functioning of the educational process. In practice they are usually diagnosed through different sociometric techniques (Kolak, 2013) that help determine the student's status in the class. Coie recognizes five categories when talking about status in the peer group. These are: the popular student, the rejected student, the neglected student, the controversial student and the average student (acc. to Klarin, 2006). Other authors (MacDonald, 1991; Legault, 1993; Torrey, Wright, 1996; Kolak, 2010) single out four categories with regard to the degree of preference or rejection of the student by others. The student with many negative nominations is a rejected student. The student with a few positive and a few negative nominations is an isolated student. The student with many positive and many negative nominations is said to be controversial. The student with many positive nominations is called star student. The status of the student in a particular class greatly influences the emotional responses of that student during the teaching process. According to the cognitive-developmental approach peers are an important motivator in the educational process. Piaget and Kohlberg point out that the ability of accepting others' opinions comes out of the cognitive conflict with one's peers (Vizek-Vidovic, 2003) while Vigotski's theory stresses the educational influence of the more competent peers. Scholars who support the cognitive-developmental theories claim that the students' perception of peers shapes their behaviour towards them. According to the social learning theory peers are a behavioral model, they reward or sanction certain actions and represent one of the criteria of self efficacy (Vasta, Heith, Miller, 2005). Most important negative emotional responses among peers to be considered in the teaching process are the emotional response of unacceptance, rejection, inferiority and worthlessness. Unacceptance and rejection are normal parts of the emotional response spectrum (Milivojevic, 2007.) and it is normal to go through them. In the emotional responses among peers the problem arises if the response of rejection and unacceptance lead to feelings of inferiority and worthlessness. There are cases of rejection of one student by another student or group of other students that include ignoring and humiliation. The presence of dehumanizing labeling deeply affects the self image of the student. The student feels inferior because he is convinced he does not have the necessary qualities present in other peers. Further on there is a negative response of a higher degree – the feeling of worthlessness. The student feels worthless when he perceives he has no qualities necessary to belong to the peer group. The emotional response of trust or doubt are also present among peers. When the student perceives that others' intentions are good, that they are capable and responsible the student has the emotional response of trust. When he sees others as mean, incompetent and unreliable, he feels suspicion. Both trust and suspicion help the student to find his place inside the class.

Conclusion

The growing importance of emotional responses in the school system has followed many researches and discoveries of neuroscience. Didactics and pedagogy have come to recognize these factors in shaping teaching scenarios. Since emotions are at the root of all human behaviour it is quite unusual that they are coming at the focus of educational studies only recently. Understanding the emotional responses will help dealing with different types of problems in the learning process. There are many indicators that show close relation between students' emotional responses and their academic achievement. This is the field of "emotional pedagogy" which promotes the approach based on studying emotional responses since they precede the learning process.

This paper dealt with those emotional responses that are related to the teaching process. The greatest challenge in this segment is the feeling of boredom as a negative emotional response that affects the dynamics of the teaching process. Since we cannot protect the teaching process from the negative emotional responses it is necessary to direct these towards their positive function as well as use evaluation and diagnostic tools for those emotional reactions that are indicative of more serious problems and hinder the learning process and the development of a positive self-image.

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Organizational Dynamics in Declining US Male College Enrollments

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Abstract

Academic journals have witnessed an increasing body of research investigating gender ratios in U.S. college enrollments. Since the mid-1990s, the popular press has also been publishing articles on the declining percentage of men in U.S. college enrollment. There is also an international component to this issue: countries such as Germany, England, and Australia have begun to look more closely at their male college enrollments. The present study consists of three phases. Phase I consisted of focus groups conducted with male college students. Phase II, reported in this article, reviews relevant literature. Phase III will incorporate quantitative survey research methodologies for data collection. This article includes research that reviews what is being done on college campuses in the United States, specifically California, to address the issue of male college enrollments in higher education. Research presented includes A.A. degree-granting junior colleges, and M.A.-granting and Ph.D. granting colleges in Northern and Southern California, and investigates what organizational interventions are addressing changing college enrollments. Research shows that California public higher education has yet to become actively involved in this issue.

Keywords.

Introduction

The topic of men's enrollment stagnation in higher education has gained increasing attention in both the popular press and academic research journals. Men's share of total college enrollment has fallen steadily from a high of 71% to 43% in 2005. The issue has also received attention in countries other than the United States. Stories in the popular press typically give the national numbers with hyperbole that implies a crisis. Some examples can be found in The New York Times, such as "Addressing the Gender Gap in College Aspirations". The articles; point out that for every 100 woman enrolled there are 77 men; for every 100 women that graduate only 73 men accomplish that goal. The issue of a racial component has also been written about, such as in the article. "Colleges Struggle to Help Black Men Stay Enrolled," which discusses enrollment at Medgar Evers College (Brooklyn, New York) where 97% of male students are black and the number of male students is only 22% of the total enrolment. These articles and others have created a panic that Mills (2003)calls "backlash blockbusters."

Both the popular press and academic journals point a real issue in higher education and society. The stagnation of male college enrollments will have real consequences for society. If men lack the education and credentials to assume leadership roles with their female counterparts in society, how will this affect men and society? What types of careers will be available to men without college degrees or credentials? How will the new roles of men without college degrees and credentials play out in society? How will mate selection and other societal functions play out in a world with fewer men obtaining degrees? These trends will bring about "uncertainties about men's social position and status". Social locations will also occur with this societal dynamic as noted: "This trend could have serious implications for returns in the labor market as well as social outcomes such as marriage and fertility" (Long, 2004).

A related concern about declining male educational attainment has been reported in the U.S. popular media. Incidents such as the shootings at Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado, has "placed boys, their socialization and questions of power and privilege, and violence at the center of public attention" (Weaver-Hightower, 2003). Thus, masculinities and more specifically violence has raised the concerns of men's lives in society as a concern unlike issues surrounding female college enrollments.

Male-female achievement has also received attention with articles such as "At College, Women are Leaving Men in the Dust" (NYT, 2006). This article discusses the role of male student efforts in college. Women care about their grade point average (GPA) but men less so. This notion of academic achievement is also noted in

academic research examining male achievement (Burke, 2007). In addition, the Times article cited U.S. Census sources indicating that men, whatever their socioeconomic status, are less likely than women to get bachelor's degrees. Forbes magazine looks at male-female enrollment differences at private and public institutions (Forbes 2012). Public institutions fared best in their gender ratios with male-female ratio at 43.6:56.4 whereas at not-for-profit institutions the ratio was 42.5:57.5. Private school data show a male-female ratio of 40.7:59.3. In contrast to these enrollment numbers is that the male-female ratio among people 18-24 years old, the ratio slightly favors men at 51:49 (Forbes, 2012). An additional dynamic is that there are slight differences in the sex ratio across states: Utah has a 50:50 split whereas Alaska has a male-female ratio of 55:45. Finally, there is a regional dynamic. Three of the five states with the largest male-female disparities are in the southwestern United States.

The prognosis is not positive. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* notes that men's share of college enrollments is expected to continue to decline (Chronicle, 2010). The article reports that the U.S. Department of Education forecasts that by 2019, women will make up 59% of total undergraduate and 61% of post-baccalaureate enrollment. These numbers are mirrored in the private sector, which has also experienced a 44% increase in enrollments from 2000 to 2008 (Chronicle, 2010). The U.S. Census Bureau recently issued a report stating that 57% of undergraduate students are female and that female graduate school enrollment is 60% (NCES-11). These trends have been tracked for over a decade. The popular press reported that these numbers appeared to be stable at the time (*USA Today*, 2012, p. 15). Enrollment trends show a pattern: it is not the decline of male college enrollments that is the issue, rather that male college enrollment has been stagnant while female college enrollments have steadily increased.

Academic researchers have been investigating and writing about this phenomena since the mid-1990s. The literature can be broken down into several general categories. The bulk of articles investigate the critical variables that have an impact on college enrollment rates. Some of these variables include family background, socioeconomic status of household, rates of parents' college attendance, and race of students. Other research looks at outside factors such as parents background and the role of teachers. A third line of research looks at specific aspects of students, such as GPAs and credits earned towards graduation. Finally, research has looked at male "culture" and its role in this debate and the trend of fewer male college students. Research on this topic has looked at many facets of the issue, such as a growing female advantage in college completion (Buchmann & Diprete, 2006). Tied into this advantage are factors such as family background (Buchmann & Diprete, 2006). Research shows these gaps in college completion growing greater (Diprete & Buchmann, 2006; Charles & Luoch 2003). Some research reviews GPA and credits earned toward degree (Burke, 2007).

The role of parents in educational aspirations is well-documented (Dryler, 1998). Researchers know that parents play a fundamental role in their children's lives. Those early influences affect many of the decisions that children make in later life. Fundamental to those later choices is their desire for education in general and college in particular.

Central to much research is the role of class and race (Bennett & Gist, 1964). In addition are precursors in the gender gap in education which has been tied into to the aspirations of children and expectations on them for the future (Blackhart & Augar, 2008). These concerns also beg the question about the pipeline and future trends for male enrollments. That is, how many students are currently in the K-12 system and what are the potential populations that would qualify to attend institutions of higher education?

Research also has investigated the role of teachers, male performance, and college enrollment (Dee, 2007). Teachers, like parents, spend considerable time with children as they move through the educational system. Thus, teachers have high levels of contact and by default influence children in their formative years. How teachers view their students is extremely important, as seen in the "Pygmalion effect" (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1966). Scholars have investigated how the gender of the teacher potentially affects students. This research confirmed that same-gender teachers significantly improved the performance of both girls and boys (Dee, 2007, p. 528). In addition, this research found that same-sex teacher assignments also improved the perceptions of student performance by the teachers (p. 528).

There are many articles dealing with male culture (Weaver-Hightower, 2003, 2010). These articles focus on the typical characteristics of men and their learning styles. This is an important aspect of the issue attempting to disentangle pieces of the issue. One needs baseline data on how men learn in order to create an effective learning environment for men. This brings up a political aspect about men and their potential need for help. Will that help detract from many of the advances that have benefitted female students (Hightower-boy turn)? Terms such as a

“crisis of masculinity” refers to men in society acting in harmful ways towards themselves or others due to the culture, or economy (Faludi, 1999).

An increasing number of scholars are investigating the differences in college enrollments based on race (Bohon, Johnson, & Gorman, 2006). In this article is views the difference within racial groups for example Cubans, Puerto Ricans and Mexicans (Bohon et al., 2006). And other placing the issues of race, class and gender as the central tenants of the discussion (Beaties, 2002).

There is an international component of male college enrollments. Research on the issue of male college going rates, male success rates, and other issues related to male success in education and society has been conducted in England and Australia (Weaver-Hightower, 2003, p. 472). Germany researchers have also began raising questions about male success rates in Germany. One of Germany’s most respected weekly publications has published on the topic (*Der Spiegel* on-line Oct 16, 2012). Germany's minister of education coordinated a controversial conference on men's role in society. The issue in Germany is not unlike the issues being raised in the United States: Is action needed to reverse the trend? In recent years, men in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland have come together in their respective countries to establish associations focusing on problems facing men. The Austrian Labor Ministry has even created a section devoted specifically to the subject. In 2004, the Ministry held the first ever European fatherhood conference (Spiegel 2012).

Some institutions of higher education have taken steps to address these trends. Two recent examples are University of Oregon and Pearson College Community College in Washington. These two institutions are beginning to address ways to better serve male college students in a way that makes them successful (Weaver-Hightower, 2010, p. 30).

Other programs include the Louis Stokes Alliance Minority Participation, which is supported by the National Science Foundation. This program's target population is male and female minority students. Augustana University has taken a creative path with its Fraternity Alumni Network (FAN). Fraternity men on campus have noted that networking is one of the most significant benefits of being involved in Greek life. The program works on helping with employment upon graduation and with their social networks.

The University of Portland has a program called the League of Extraordinary Gentlemen (LXG). This is a discussion group for men that addresses their needs and desires. It is a group that exists “to give men an opportunity to come together to talk about something deeper than sports and video games” (<https://pilots.up.edu/web/lxg/home>). LXG is a one-year program for men to come together to discuss issues in a nonthreatening environment. Men are encouraged to continue with the program after the first year to more fully develop ideas raised and discussed in the first year. There is extensive suggested structure on how to lead discussion groups (<https://pilots.up.edu/web/lxg/structure>).

M-Pact is a religious-based program focused on mentoring men for “lives of meaning and making a difference” (<http://mpactmensgroup.webs.com>). It is intended to get men involved in service, leadership, spirituality, vocational reflection, and authentic relationships. M-Pact encourages men to stand up against violence and abuse of power. Finally its web site notes work to overcome pressures that men face from society and unbalanced masculinity. Another development in the area of male college enrollments is the American College of Personnel Association (ACPA). The ACPA had their first conference on masculinities, “Institute of College Males,” in 2007. It appears that there is a critical mass forming around the topic of masculinity and higher education and men's changing roles in society.

This investigation was designed to collect data on public higher education in Northern and Southern California and to see what programs, if any, are being offered to male college students. All three segments of public higher education were investigated, including community colleges, the California State University system, and the University of California system. This article targeted a largestate with over 38 million residents (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013) to look at a large state and to investigate whether its enrollment data mirrored national data and to investigate educational systems to see whether any actions were being undertaken or contemplated to address the issue of male enrollments. (California public higher education enrollments are noted in Table 1.)

Table 1

Year	Higher Education System	Gender	Students
2010	University of California	Men	113,048
		Women	121,114
		Unknown	302
	Higher Education System Total (University of California)		234,464
	California State University	Men	175,553

	Women	236,819
Higher Education System Total (California State University)		412,372
California Community Colleges	Men	772,308
	Women	903,986
	Unknown	20,019
Higher Education System Total (California Community Colleges)		1,696,313
CCC District Office	Men	16,669
	Women	32,991
	Unknown	713
Higher Education System Total (CCC District Office)		50,373
Year Total (2010)		2,393,522

California Postsecondary Education Commission. (n.d.). California county comparison: Fiscal, economics, & population

Methods

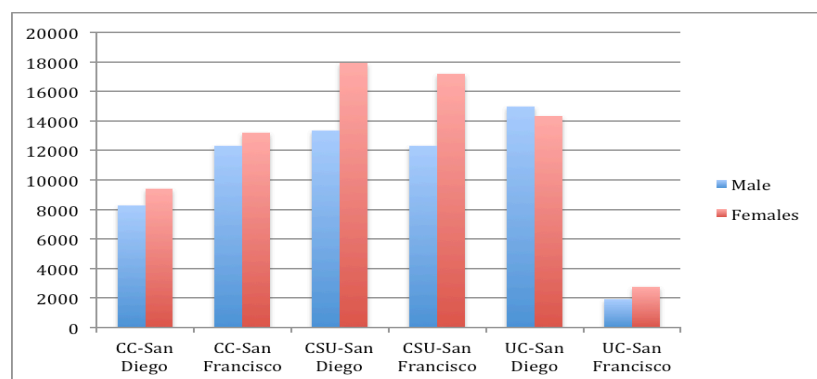
This research utilized secondary data analysis. I analyzed enrollment data from all three segments of public higher education in California including community colleges, the California State University system, and the University of California system. Regions for data collection included San Diego and San Francisco. This sample was chosen for two reasons. First, these two areas comprise the largest population centers in the state. Second, both of these areas have all three segments of higher education. Follow-up telephone interviews in which enrollment data and student outreach efforts were reviewed with all segments of the sample.

The first set of data details the current enrollments at target institutions. Prior to the telephone interviews, the Web sites of all campuses were searched for programs related to attempting to recruit, retain, and/or assist men to graduate.

Data

As can be seen in Figure 1, there are variances in the data for male and female enrollments. The variances, however, are all below the national averages cited in the newest federal report, which currently lists the ratio of female and male enrollment at 56 to 43% (Weaver-Hightower, 2010m p. 30).

The California State University (CSU) system data are represented below. Data from the CSU system mirror national data with a ratio of 57% female and 43% male. The shift occurred in the CSU in Figure 1.



Note: UC-SF has few undergraduate programs.

Programs Offered

All the campuses in the sample were contacted to investigate whether they had any programs to support men in their studies and to aid in graduation rates. Campus outreach offices were contacted to ascertain whether programs were offered to recruit, retain, and/or graduate men. There are currently no specific programs in San Diego or San Francisco at public institutions of higher education that could be identified as targeting male students. Data show that although female–male ratios are an important topic for the academic community, it has

not yet reached a “tipping” point to begin action. The topic of male college enrollments needs further study concerning when action can be taken and what type of action should be taken.

These data confirm Phase I of this research. Focus group data covered the topics that male college students shared with researchers. The participants noted that there were no programs on their campus expressly designed or designated for men. Immediately following these comments, several men shared that a men center would be great but that they would never visit it. When asked why they would not support a center that they feel is needed, there were a variety of responses. Some men thought that seeking help could expose a potential weakness, which scared them. Others expressed anxiety on being labeled negatively, especially by other men but also by woman.

Another aspect that was discussed in focus groups was how young American men view education. Many stories were given as examples that education is intended to control and limit them. Many spoke of their high school experiences. It was an experience that many noted turned them off to education in general. They noted that teachers viewed them as “trouble makers” and tried to limit their actions, movements, and all other facets of their educational experience in order to have an orderly classroom. Thus, many viewed education almost as the enemy.

There are two important issues for future research on the topic. First, higher education sees a problem but has not yet engaged in finding solutions. Second, a potential population needing support is not yet ready to accept that support. That will make implementation challenge.

Conclusion

This presentation examined the number of male and female students attending public higher education in California and what organizational strategies are being employed to address current enrollment trends. On the surface, the research appears unimportant given that institutions have not yet responded to the problem. However, on deeper inspection this “non-result” is significant. It is clear that a “tipping point” has not yet been reached; hence few actions have yet to be taken by public institutions of higher education in California. What was also apparent is that there are no specific programs in public higher education that target men to increase their college entrance, participation, and graduation rates. All focus group participant comments were related to student retention in general rather than men as a target population. Many leaders in higher education are aware of static male college enrollment since they appear on a regular basis in articles in scholarly journals and the popular press.

The phenomena of fewer men attending college has been documented by researchers, reported by the popular press, and captured in government reporting. In viewing data from one large state, what is apparent is that the ratios in California reflect similar ratios in national data. What has not been discussed in the literature is the “tipping point” for higher education to take collective action. This is a difficult discussion because it is where data and politics collide. There are many barriers to tackle with one of the main critical issues is making a convincing argument to help men become more successful with creating programs that men wish to take part in. Once a tipping point is agreed upon and recognized, then the difficult work of creating curriculum, programs, or other interventions that can help men receive a quality education and lead the productive lives begins

As noted in this paper, there are two examples of institutions of higher education outside the project samples taking pro-active steps in the static male college enrollments as detailed with the University of Oregon and Pearson Community College in Washington.

Institutions can and must play in role of the betterment of society. One example is the CSU’s Troops to College initiative. In this program, the CSU made the commitment to help, using university resources and intellectual support for this program. The Troops to College program was launched in the system to help US military members to reenter society with a university education. The rationalization for the program was in part patriotic in supporting military troops helping them successfully return to society after war. The program has had its successes and shows that low cost interventions can occur that result in positive things for CSU students and society as education integrates an influx of newly minted college graduates into the economy.

Research cited in the introduction is reflected in the qualitative interviews with men that were conducted prior to Phase II of this research. This in turn will lead to Phase III: quantitative research that will be generalizable to a larger population.

In these times of tight budgets in higher education it is difficult to dedicate funding to any specific concern. One can be creative in offering basic support for programs that will have low costs but potentially high rewards. Further discussion on the topic is needed along with research. It is hoped that this presentation will be a catalyst for that research. It is important that all members of society have a pathway to success..

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A History of Teacher Training, Training Models, and Recent Developments in Turkey

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Abstract

Teachers, having assumed the most important role in training the future generations soundly and fitting them up with the adaptation to conditions changing, are the people educating the generations who will shape the future of a country. Teachers prepare us for the society we live in. Their contribution to healthy societies is great. They have also profound influence on enhancing the quality of educational systems of societies. In this context, teachers, who undertake significant roles for both individual development and educational processes, are required to have the attributes to change student behavior and educational quality (Hussain S., Ali R., Khan M.S., Ramzan M., Qadeer M. Z. 2011). A teacher equipped with the universal values of our global world can easily transfer these values to the coming generation. Teacher training systems of societies is also of importance in the training of future generations who are crucial to sustenance of social life. Therefore, societies should place emphasis on teacher training systems, and be in pursuit of certain new structuring (Erdem, 2012). This study dwells on the history of teacher training in Turkey, qualified education, qualified teacher training, teacher training models, and new structuring in the Turkish teacher training system. This paper has been prepared by using the archival analysis method.

Keywords. Teacher Training, Teacher Training Models, History of Teacher Training

Introduction

Recently many countries have been forced to revise their teacher training systems due to the some persisting problems pertaining to teacher quality. Turkey is one of these countries seeking to solve this problem. Assuming vital roles in raising perfect future generations and preparing the individuals to changing conditions, teachers function as the keystones of education (Dahar M. A., Dahar R. A., Dahar R. T., Faize F. A., 2011). Moreover, they have a great impact on enhancing the quality levels of the education systems of societies (Adıgüzel and Sağlam, 2009). In this context, undertaking significant roles for both individual development and educational process, teachers are required to have enough attributes to change student behavior and educational quality (Hussain et al. 2011). Training qualified teachers has a great effect on the educational accomplishment of societies, too. Teacher training systems of societies are also important to the education of future generations that are to sustain the social existence. Therefore, societies should place emphasis on teacher training systems, and be in pursuit of certain new structuring (Erdem, 2012). In this respect, Turkey seems to be noteworthy with its structuring efforts under way aiming to solve the problems experienced in teacher training system (Kavak and Atanur Baskan, 2009).

Teacher Training System In Turkey

Early Developments

Historical account of teacher training in Turkey can be traced back to year 1848, when the first institution, Darülmualim (Teacher Training College) was founded. This institution, referred to as Darülmualimin-i Rüşdi (teacher training college for primary education), was commissioned to train teachers for primary school education. In 1870, another educational institute, Darülmualimin-i Aliye (teacher training college for high schools) was opened to train teachers for high schools. In the Republic Era teacher training commission was devolved by the Village Institutes. The main purpose of the village institutes, opened in 1940s, was to train not

only teachers but also other occupational categories that are beneficial to the country (Atanur Baskan, 2001). According to Öztürk, having met a great amount of the teacher requirement of primary education in the countryside, village institutes, an authentic model for Turkey in its history of teacher training, provided approximately 15.000 teachers and 2.000 paramedics within the period of 1940-53. This was seminal to the opening of first co-training teacher college in 1954 (Üstüner, 2004).

Regulations On Teacher Training (Significant Decisions)

New regulations on teacher training systems in Turkey started in 1974. These new decisions and applications can be summarized as follows:

In line with the Fundamental Law of National Education No. 1739 two-year education institutes opened in order to train primary school teacher in higher education institutes. Main objective of these schools was to train primary school teachers. 30 of these institutes, which amounted to approximately 50 in 1976, were later closed (Üstüner, 2004). Then, in 1980 the number came down to 13. However, in 1987 the number of these schools again increased and became 17 (Ataünal, 1987). According to Baskan, these schools could not yield the desired results between 1975-80 years due to some overwhelming problems such as the political events and oppression, and lack of faculty staff.

The most significant step taken towards teacher training systems in Turkey after 1974 was the decision made in 1981. This regulation brought all teacher training institutes belonging to the Ministry of National Education together as universities attaching them to YÖK (The Council of Higher Education) on July 20, 1982 (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2007). After this regulation primary school teachers and high school teachers began to be trained by higher education schools and faculties of education, respectively (Atanur Baskan, Aydın, Madden, 2006).

In 1989, two-year higher education schools were turned into four year faculties by a decision of the Council of Higher Education (YÖK) on May 1989. Hence, Higher Education Schools began to provide an education equal to that of Faculty of Education (Özoğlu, 2010).

As of 1992-93 Academic Year, training primary school teachers continued within the primary school teacher training departments of Faculties of Education (Atanur Baskan, Aydın, Madden, 2006).

Restructuring On Teacher Training Systems

Restructuring efforts in Turkey can be investigated under the following groups:

1998 Regulations: Restructuring Of Faculties Of Education.

YÖK-World Bank Pre-Service Teacher Training Project, which started in 1994 as a result of Ministry of National Education and YÖK cooperation, was put into effect in 1998. Within the frame of this project, "Restructuring of Education Faculties" application was implemented as of 1998 (Atanur Baskan, Aydın, Madden, 2006).

Main objectives of this new application were to bring forth the quality dimension of teacher training and remove the deficiencies in the training program.

Taking the activities of 1998 restructuring into consideration new regulation can be listed as follows:

Previously determined 4-year education duration for preschool and primary school teacher candidates was retained (Kavak, 2009).

Moreover, together with this new application "minor" (secondary field) certificate became possible. According to Baskan this application specifies music, art, sports or computer teaching as a secondary field for primary school teachers, and provides the primary school branch teachers with the opportunity to select at least one minor (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

Master's programs without dissertation began for the secondary school teacher nominees, which also led to fixing the duration of secondary school branch teacher programs in education faculties as 5 years. The new

application required that the undergraduates of education faculties take the field courses in the first 3.5 years (7 semesters), and complete the teaching formation courses within the remaining 1.5 years (Özoğlu, 2010).

Undergraduates of Faculty of Science and Letters could also benefit from master's program without dissertation. Completing the four year graduate program, those graduates of these faculties who want to be teachers, could go on with the 1.5 year master's program without thesis and become teachers at the end of a 5.5 year education (Kavak, 2009).

Number and credits of "Pedagogical Formation" courses were subject to some changes through the 1998 structuring with the decision made related to formation courses. Hence,

Basic Courses of Education (history of education, philosophy of education, sociology of education), except psychology of education, were removed from the program. Furthermore, most of the general culture courses were also omitted.

Allocating application class hours for most of the formation courses, applied dimension of the program was improved. Moreover, raising the application hours (hands- on- work) of the nominees at schools, cooperation between the education faculties and schools was enhanced (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2007).

Furthermore, a new course, "Planning and Evaluation in Teaching", was added to the program depending on the principle of associating the classroom teaching and evaluation with planned implementation of teaching and program development efforts carried out at various levels (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

In line with the notion that an effective teacher should manage his class efficiently and create a good learning environment, a "Classroom Management" course was also added to the program (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

1998 restructuring raised the application time allocated in the teacher training programs, strengthening the cooperation between the faculties and application schools (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 1998). According to Baskan, application activities in schools related to pre-service teacher training constituted a significant step for the teacher nominees to put what they had learned throughout the graduate program into practice and try themselves in the very classroom environment (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

By a 19.9.1997 resolution No. 97.8.144 of the Council of Higher Education Turkish National Committee for Teacher Training was also established (Özoğlu, 2010). This committee mainly was to function as an advisory body for the Council of Higher Education in teacher training. The committee consisted of the representatives of the Council for Higher Education and Education Faculties. Working in coordination and cooperation with the faculties of education, this committee was expected to fulfill the main objectives as raising the quality, determining the standards for pre-service training and applying them, developing quality and control mechanisms to evaluate and improve the quality of teacher training (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

Regarding 1998 regulations Özoğlu maintains the following views : "Upgrading the secondary school teacher training programs to master's program level was favorable. However, availability of master's diploma through the course given in the master's program without dissertation has created problems. Furthermore, granting master's program without thesis to the faculties of science and letters has led to excessive student load in these faculties, which already had as many as 170.000 (Özoğlu, 2010).

Kızılcıoğlu states, "Teacher nominees are exposed to despair and alienation from the field by the 3.5+1.5 and 4 +1.5 applications. Moreover, 5 year duration of the undergraduate programs create economic difficulties (Azar, 2006). Without-thesis master's programs for secondary education teacher training granted to the faculties of science and letters will lead to great problems in the coming years and bring up the unemployment issue.

2006-2007 Regulations

Following the 8 year term after 1998 , the first comprehensive regulation on "modification (update) of education programs" was done in 2006 (Kavak, 2009). Issues resolved by the regulation are below:

In the applications before 2006, secondary education teacher training programs provided a field training for 3.5 years, and then a teacher formation training lasting 1.5 years. As of 2006 this application was terminated, and from 2007 on field training and formation training in the education faculties were planned to be a 5-year

integral program. Formation courses were distributed over the years and a 5 year consolidated (combined or composite) education started (Özoğlu, 2010).

Secondary school branch teacher training master's program without thesis (4 year + 1.5) given by the faculties of science and letters was to be maintained provided that the training program be revised (Kartal, 2011).

Percentage of the general culture courses and selective courses removed on a great scale by the 1998 regulations were raised again with 2006 restructuring. This application required the implementation of the courses comprising 50-60 % field knowledge, 25-30 % formation, and 15-20% general culture knowledge. The main purpose of increasing class hours of general culture courses was to provide the teacher nominees trained at university level with the necessary capacity for an intellectual person. Courses such as History of Science, History of Turkish education, and Introduction to Philosophy were introduced as new general culture courses (Erdem, 2012).

Due to the difficulties in finding application schools, class hours were later reduced again (Kartal, 2011).

New program put an end to minor (secondary field) branch application as it was not required. Hence, it would be possible for the teacher candidates to acquire a profound knowledge of their own major fields (Erdem, 2012).

List of courses, course definition and credits were rearranged (Kartal, 2011).

A new course, "Social service Applications" was added to teacher training programs. The purpose of the course was to enable the teacher nominees tackle with social problems more easily (Kartal, 2011).

Furthermore, this new course was to encourage the teacher candidates to participate in scientific activities such panels, conferences, congresses, and symposiums as listeners, lecturers or organizers (Erdem, 2012).

Özoğlu expresses his views about the 2006-2007 regulations: In 2006-2007 regulations, the Council of Higher Education stepped backward regarding many of the issues of 1998 regulations. This situation shows that the changes on teacher training should be dealt with comprehensively and integrally in accordance with the realities of the country (Özoğlu, 2010).

New Regulations In 2008: Reducing Secondary School Branch Teacher Training Master's Program Without Dissertation To One Year

In virtue of 2008 regulations master's program without thesis was rearranged in terms of both duration and course program.

After 2008 on the academic length of science and letter faculties and education faculties became equal.

2009 Regulations

In 2009, The Council of Higher Education made new decisions on the secondary school branch teacher master's program without dissertation. These decisions were:

On August 27, 2009 Uludağ University, Istanbul University and Marmara University were authorized by The Council of Higher Education to complete teacher formation courses in their faculties of science and letters, and theology within the four year academic program.

Then, upon the objections of Dokuz Eylül, Erciyes, İnönü, and Selçuk Universities, the other science and letters faculties were also entitled to the same rights (Özoğlu, 2010).

This regulation of 2009 was a great inequity against the candidates in studying in the education faculties, who were to complete their education in five years.

2010-2011 Regulations

In 2010 the Council of Higher Education decided to dissolve master's programs without dissertation. Instead was opened Pedagogical Formation Certificate Training program.

Later on 2010 -2011 Pedagogical Formation Certificate Training program was rearranged. Science and letters faculties were also allowed to apply the same program. Undergraduates of these faculties were allowed to follow this program during their time of education, and the graduates were also given the chance to benefit (Azar, 2006).

Prerequisites of the program were: presence of an education faculty at the university to give the program, having qualified academic staff, starting the program at the fifth term and complete in four terms, and at least 2.5 average credit for the nominees to follow the program (Özoğlu, 2010).

As a matter of fact, this regulation was a return to the Pedagogical Formation Certificate Training program implemented until 1998. Introduction and implementation of a previously tested and failed program seems to be interesting.

2012-2013 Regulations

Teacher Training Working Group had a convention on 21.03.2012 at the end of which a set of proposals related to teacher training systems were made and presented to the Council of Higher Education. Proposals were evaluated at the General Meeting of the Council on 05.04.2012 and decided that (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2012a):

Graduates of science and letters faculties with pedagogic formation would not be assigned as teachers (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2012b). The council declared that the application would not cover the undergraduates and graduates of universities at the time of the decision, stating that they could apply pedagogic formation programs to be opened. This new decision would be valid for the undergraduates to be registered in 2012-2013 Academic year and on (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2012a).

However, this new direction of the Council was not applied by the universities in the 2012-2013 Academic year. Pedagogic formation certificate programs were opened at the universities in the first semester of 2012-2013 Academic year confirms this situation. For instance, in its website Ankara University issued the criteria that the undergraduates or graduates must have to be admitted to the pedagogic formation program, and declared that the program would be carried out under the direction of the Faculty of Education.

Conclusion and Suggestions

An evaluation of teacher training policies and the restructuring efforts carried out in this field shows that no permanent solution has been found to the problems pertaining to teacher training systems so far. The results of PISA exams, recently administered in Turkey too, also brings out the idea that Turkey should review its teacher training systems (Eraslan, 2009). PISA results have put forth that accomplishment level of Turkey is lower compared to other countries. One of the basic reasons for the failure in PISA is the lack of qualified teachers in the education system (Eraslan, 2009). In this respect, priority should be given to training more qualified teachers in order to enhance student accomplishment.

Training qualified teachers depends primarily on the development of the strategies which can provide permanent solutions to teacher training. It is clear that secondary education master's program without dissertation at the science and literature faculties, which was developed as a solution to teacher training problem in Turkey, has been ineffective in solving the problem permanently. The program, originally started as remedy to lack of teachers, caused the birth of a gradually growing public unemployment problem due to the increase in the number of teacher nominees. The reason for this situation was the absence of a strategy to implement for a solution. In its 2010-2014 Strategy Plan, Ministry of National Education pointed out the fact that requirements and expectations in teacher training could not be met sufficiently (Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, 2009).

A total survey of all the restructuring actions taken indicates that they have been realized to find some temporary solutions to the problem. Following are some suggestions that may be used to solve this problem:

Graduates of science and letters faculties with pedagogic formation are entitled to be teachers. This application keeps these institutions gradually away from their basic function of training scientists and scholars. Moreover, it results in decrease in the number of these scientists, and adding up to the already growing unemployment problem. Increase in the number of teachers makes the teacher employment a grueling issue. To this is end the first thing to be done is the terminating the pedagogic formation certificate programs at the science and letters faculties, and entitling solely the education faculties to train teachers.

Furthermore, to enhance the qualifications of teachers, teacher nominees must be subjected to a more reliable and discriminating testing and evaluation prior to their entrance to education faculties. Teacher training institutions of Belgium, Britain, Poland, Finland, and France may well set examples for Turkey with their evaluation systems in the entrance exams. Teacher training institutions of these countries try to select the candidates, whether they have a flair for teacher training, through interviews in addition to the written test (Şahin, 2006). In Finland, where student accomplishment is very high, applicants first take an interview, and then are asked to deliver a sample class performance with which their speaking, presentation, and management skills are tested (Eraslan, 2009). Turkey should also prize teacher qualifications and review its evaluation systems accordingly as in the aforementioned countries.

Limited share of the vocational courses in the program, as low as 30 %, remains an impediment to the training of well-informed teacher nominees who are expected to have professional competence. Therefore, another significant change to be done is an increase in the class hours of the vocational courses in the formation program.

Moreover, class hours of applied courses must also be increased. Vocational accomplishment of a teacher candidate depends mostly on the vocational experiences gained by doing and living personally in the classroom atmosphere. Great difficulties prevail in this matter. The most important step taken towards application schools in Turkey is the “university at school” application, started only in one university, though. Nominees in this new application practice teaching as a profession in real classrooms interacting with the academicians and experienced teachers. Faculty of education has moved the training area of teacher candidates to their real place: the schools. Thus, on one hand candidates learn actively through doing and experiencing in the designated schools within the country or abroad, and on the other hand they consolidate knowledge taking the theoretical courses from the academicians. It is a pity to have this application applied only in one university in Turkey. To solve the problem at hand such applications should be started at the other universities, too, as soon as possible.

Another suggestion is that taking the teacher demand in Turkey into consideration new strategies should be developed to utterly solve the problem. Additionally, there must be quota restrictions for the redundant branches at the universities.

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Özet

Elektrik enerjisi ve elektrik projelerinin kalitesi, çağımızda her geçen gün önemi artan bir konu haline gelmiştir. Meydana gelebilecek bir hata durumunda oluşacak adım ve dokunma gerilimlerinin insan hayatını tehlikeye sokacak mertebede olmasını önlemek veya bu tehlikeli gerilimleri tamamen ortadan kaldırmaktır. Elektrik sistemlerinin devamlılığı ve insan hayatını güvenceye almak için elektrik sistemlerinde, gerilim altındaki kısımlar yalıtılırlar. Toprağa karşı yalıtımda, çeşitli sebeplerle, her zaman bozulma meydana geldiği görülmüştür. Topraklama ağının iyi tesis edilmiş olması her tesiste önemlidir, orta ve yüksek gerilimli trafo merkezlerinde tesis edilen topraklama ağının empedansının selvaz yöntemiyle ölçülmesi gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmanın hem sahada çalışan Elektrik Mühendisleri hem de mezun olacak elektrik Mühendisliği öğrencileri için faydalı olacağı hedeflenmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler. Elektrik Enerjisi, Tesis Topraklaması, Toprak Direnç Testleri, Toprak Empedans Ölçümü, Selvaz Yöntemi

Giriş

Toprak, sonsuz büyüklükte iletken bir kitledir ve bütün elektrik tesislerinin bulunduğu yapıları bünyesinde barındırır. Toprak direncinin doğru ölçülmesi, sağlıklı çalışan bir topraklama sistemi düzenlenmesinde önemli bir yer tutar. Enerji tesislerinin topraklanmasındaki genel amaçlar; [1]

- İnsan ve hayvan ölümlerinin önüne geçmek,
- Teçhizat ya da aygıtların elektrik arızalarında hasar almasını önlemek,
- Enerjinin güvenilirliğini ve sürekliliğini arttırmaktır.

AMAÇ VE HEDEFLER

İnsanların ve hayvanların bulunduğu alanlarda toprağa geçiş direncinin mümkün olduğunca küçük tutulması önemli ve hayati bir meseledir. Topraklama direncinin mümkün olduğu kadar küçük olması atmosferik elektrik boşalmalarında yıldırımdan korunma tesislerinde meydana gelecek yan atlamaları ve tehlikeleri azaltacağından bu hususa önem verilmelidir. [2]

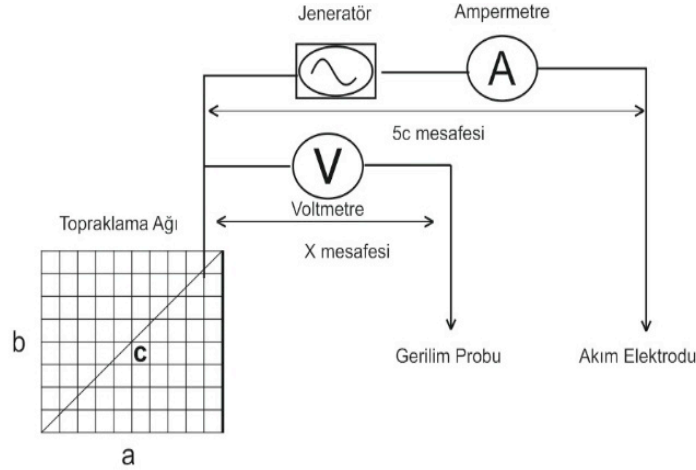
Topraklama direncinin azaltılması için mümkünse aşağıdaki toprak tiplerinden biri seçilmelidir;

- Islak bataklık zemin
- Kil, balçıklı toprak, sürülebilir toprak, killi toprak, az miktarda kum ile karışık killi toprak veya balçık
- Değişik oranlarda kum ile karışık kil veya balçık, çakıl ve taşlar
- Rutubetli ve ıslak kum seçilmeli
- Kuru kum, çakıllı tebeşir, kireç taşı, granit ve çok taşlı zeminler ve genç kayaların zemine çok yakın olduğu alanlardan kaçınılmalıdır.

Elektrik güç sistemlerinin etkin olarak topraklanmaya başlamasıyla beraber topraklama direncinin doğru olarak belirlenmesi birçok çalışmaya konu olmuştur. Topraklama direncinin ölçümünde son yıllarda selvaz(selectedvoltage amper -z) yöntemi ön plana çıkmaktadır.

SELVAZ YÖNTEMİ

Ölçüme başlanmadan önce trafo merkezinin şalt kısmının etrafı kontrol edilir ve kenar uzunlukları tespit edilir. Testlere başlanmadan önce ise şalt sahasının tüm enerjisi kesilir ve şalt sahası çıkış ve giriş fiderleri hem merkezden hem karşı taraftan açılır.



Şekil 1. Akım Kazıklarının Toprağa Çakılmış Hali(Çanakkale Akçansa TM)

Hesaplanan c uzunluğunun 5 katı mesafede seçilen uygun zemine 5-8 adet akım kazığı 70 cm derinliğinde daire oluşturacak şekilde çakılır. Çakılan kazıklar uygun noktalarından birbirlerine halka şeklinde kısa devre edilir. Akım elektrodu olarak kullanılan kablo bu kazıklara bağlanır. Akım ve gerilim elektrodları arasındaki açı 90 dereceden küçük olmalıdır.

Şekil 2.Selvaz Ölçüm Şeması

Cihazlar fens telinin hemen yanına kurularak şalt sahası toprağı ile akım elektrotu arasında 5-10 amper aralığında akım akıtılmalıdır. Mesafenin uzunluğuna göre 25m ya da 50m aralıklarla gerilim elektrotundan V_0 - V_1 - V_2 değerleri okunur. Her ölçümde V_p ve Z değerleri hesaplanır. [3]

Bu işlem $5c$ uzunluğunun birkaç işlem sonrasına kadar devam eder. Toprak potansiyeli test formülü aşağıda verilmiştir.

$$V_p = \sqrt{\frac{V_1^2 + V_2^2}{2} - V_0^2} \quad Z = \frac{V_p}{I}$$

V_p : Toprak Potansiyeli

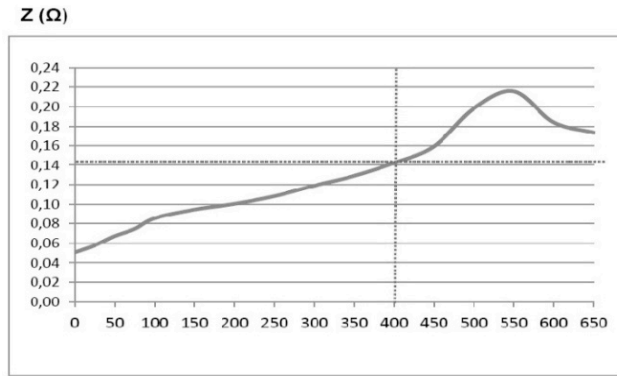
V_0 : Test akımı yokken okunan gerilim

V_1 : Test akımında okunan gerilim

V_2 : Test akımını 180 derece ters bağladığımızda okunan gerilim

Z empedans değeri şu şekilde bulunur;

- Yapılan ölçümler ile empedans-uzunluk grafiği oluşturulur.
- Grafiğin tepe noktasına denk gelen L mesafesinin 3/2 mesafesinde okunan direnç değeri Z empedans değerini verir.



- Şekil 3. de tepe noktası 550m'ye denk gelmektedir. 550*3/2=366m'dir. 366m den sonra en yakın ölçüm noktası 400m olduğu için 400m ye karşılık gelen 0,14ohm değeri sonuç olarak alınır.

Şekil 3. Yapılan Ölçümlere Ait Örnek Grafik

ADIM VE TEMAS GERİLİMİ

Adım Gerilimi Ölçümü

Şalt içerisinde herhangi bir noktada, 1 metre ara ile iki kazık çakılarak kazıklar arasında okunan gerilim bize adım gerilimini verir. Adım gerilimleri ölçülürken sistem kurulu vaziyette olmalıdır. V_0 - V_1 - V_2 gerilim değerleri alınır ve kaydedilir. Bu testler

0-1, 1-2, 2-3, 3-4 ve 4-5 metrelerde tekrarlanır.

Temas Gerilimi Ölçümü

Şalt sahası içerisinde bulunan teçhizatlar (Akım trafosu, KGT, Kesici, Parafudr, Trafo vb.) ile onlara dokunan insan arasında, insanların zarar görmemesi için ve kriter olarak belirlenen 42 Volt ya da daha altında bir gerilimin belirlenmesi için temas gerilimleri ölçülür. Temas gerilimlerinde sistem kurulu vaziyette ölçülür. Akım akıtılmak suretiyle V_0 - V_1 - V_2 gerilim değerleri alınır ve kaydedilir. Numune olarak bazı teçhizatlar seçilir. Seçilen teçhizat ile onun 1 metre ilerisine kazık çakılarak arasındaki gerilim okunur.

Şalt alanına bağlanan koruma tellerinin şaltın topraklama ağundan ayrılması şarttır, aksi takdirde şalt topraklamaya paralel girerek değeri düşürür. Ölçümlerin yapılması için gerekli olan enerji jeneratör vasıtasıyla temin edilir. Teste başlarken akım akıtılmıyorsa toprak direnci büyük demektir. Bu durumda toprak direncini küçültmek için akım kazıklarının dibine tuzlu su dökme gibi yöntemler uygulanabilir. Bu testlerde ölçüm yapılırken filtre devresi kullanılarak 50Hz dışındaki kaçak gerilimlerin okunması engellenir. Hataları minimuma indirmek için polarite değiştirilerek ölçümler her iki polaritede de yapılmalı ve ortalaması alınmalıdır.



Şekil 4. Selvaz Metodu ile Kurulan Toprak Empedans Devresi

SONUÇ

Bütün boyutları ve iletkenliği önceden bilinen bir iletkene karşılık toprak, birçok özellikleri bilinmeyen çok karışık bir iletkenidir. Bu nedenle insan ve hayvanların güvenliği için toprak yapısı iyi incelenmeli ve test edilmelidir. Bu inceleme ve sonuçlar doğrultusunda daha kaliteli topraklama projeleri tasarlanmalıdır. Z empedans değeri yeni yönetmeliğe göre, 380 kV şalt tesislerinde 0,5 ohm ve daha küçük değerde, 154 kV şalt tesislerinde ise 1 ohm veya daha küçük değerlerde olmalıdır. Şayet empedans, bu değerlerin üzerinde ise şalt tesisindeki teçhizat ve insanlar için tehlike arz edeceğinden şaltın topraklama ağının artırılarak direncin düşürülmesi sağlanır[4].

Bu çalışmada Selvaz yöntemi ile önerilen topraklama sisteminin, elektrik mühendisleri için tesislerin topraklama devrelerini tasarlanmasında yeni bir görüş ve kolaylık sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

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Murabbic Values as A Prerequisite for Teaching: IKRAM-MUSLEH's Experience

Noor Azlan Ahmad Zanzali Megat Mohamed Amin Rushami Zien Yusoff *

Abstract

The common belief that teachers play vital roles in developing the character of the young has been accepted by many educators. But depending on one's definition of what is education, these roles need to be further elaborated so as to be in parallel with one's view of the philosophy of education. IKRAM-MUSLEH believes that teachers' roles are much more than what has been practiced and emphasized, in any educational institution. In order to achieve the goals as mentioned in the Islamic philosophy of education, the process of tarbiah (character building) must be implemented together with the instilling of pedagogic skills of teachers. In some cases the attainment of the tarbiah values becomes the prerequisite of other skills. Teachers, being the most crucial link in any education system, have a major role in the process of tarbiah. They specifically play the role of a murabbi. Murabbis are mentors that exhibit exemplary roles to their mutarabbis (mentee). In addition, they are capable of instilling in their mutarabbis strong commitments to dakwah (invitation to Islam), improving the capabilities of their mutarabbi; befriending them, loving them, and monitoring their progress, utilising approaches in dakwah, acknowledging individual differences, capitalising on the mutarabbi's strength, unleashing their potentials and activating them towards amal soleh (noble deeds). Murabbi are also exemplary in the realms of aqidah (faith), akhlak (honorable character), ibadah (religiosity) and dakwah. These characteristics are not normally acquired through normal teacher training programmes. This paper will describe in further details, the murabbic values of a teacher and how these characteristics can be instilled in them.

Keywords. Murabbi, dakwah, characteristics, exemplary, characteristics, tarbiah.

Introduction

The role of teachers in developing the character of their students has been well documented in many educational reforms. This paper traces the process of teaching, based on the assumption that the aim of teaching is not limited to the transmission of knowledge so that effective learning can take place, but more importantly, student-centred pedagogy should help in character building of students. We would further argue that for such noble aims to be achieved, the teacher needs to possess noble murabbic values in advance such as true faith, appropriate religious actions, noble character, financially independent, knowledgeable, physical fitness, sacrifices, systematic in daily affairs, excellent time management and being beneficial to others. (Muhamad Hamed Elawa. 2012).

The common belief that teachers play vital roles in developing the character of the young has been accepted by many educators. But depending on one's view of the definition what is education, these roles need to be further elaborated so as to be parallel with one's view of the philosophy of education. IKRAM-MUSLEH believes that teachers' roles are much more than what has been practiced and emphasized in any educational institution. (Megat Mohamed Amin, Noor Azlan Ahmad Zanzali. 2011). Teachers specifically play the role of a *murabbi*. *Murabbis* are mentors who display exemplary roles to their students. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Teaching and learning need also be steered by the philosophy and goals of the education. (Khodori, M. 2001). Teachers need to appreciate and thus internalise, personifies and habitualise the goals of education as envisaged by the founders of the educational system. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a). Thus the job of teaching is not that simple. Teachers need to, not only be equipped with the current pedagogical approach but also possess the ability to influence and unleash the potential of the students under their care. (Megat Mohamed Amin. 2010). From the IKRAM-MUSLEH perspective, they need to possess the murabbic values viz a viz *mua' alim*, *mudarris*, *muaddib*, *murabbi* and *mursyid*.

The Characteristics of the IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher

Based on the principles of Islamic education, we believe that the teacher should possess the attributes and the values embedded in the qualities of a *murabbi*. Subsequently, we present the qualities associated with *murabbi* which are *mudarris*, *mua'alim*, *muaddib* and *mursyid*.

The Teacher as a Murabbi

The term *murabbi* is specially chosen as it represents someone who not only teach and educate, but also someone who will guide his students in their capacity building as a confident muslim in the context of our contemporary world. A *murabbi* is a social agent in developing strong muslim individuals who is knowledgeable, strong in their faith and above all, be a truly practicing believer of the Islamic faith who is able to contribute for the betterment of our shared humanity. (Megat Mohamed Amin, Mahani Mokhtar. 2006).

In the context of teaching and learning situations, the teacher must fulfil certain minimum requirements as stipulated in the *manhaj tarbiah* and thus enhance his ability to guide, inspire and motivate the students under his care to become good knowledgeable muslims. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a). In short, the teacher as a *murabbi* possess the qualities of a *muallim*, *mudarris*, *muaddib* and *mursyid* (Jawatan Kuasa Pendidikan IKRAM. 2012). All these are arabic words which essentially means the same; but there are some distinct differences between them which will be elaborated.

Murabbi is from an arabic word *rabba* which means to administer, manage, to reform and to lead. Also, *rubbiya* means who is being mentored or coached. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a)

A *murabbi* does all that is done by the *mudarris*, *muallim* and *muaddib*. But he does more than that. A *murabbi* habituates and personifies Islam as a way of life. He is exemplary to the students. He develops the affective, cognitive and psychomotor aspects of his student but his focus is on developing the affective aspect of the student so that his student practise Islam as a complete way of life. Allah s.w.t. says in Surah al-Isra:24 “.. And lower to them the wing of humility out of mercy and say, "My Lord, have mercy upon them as they brought me up [when I was] small.”

A *murabbi* teaches, educates, inspires and guides his students. He manages the school *biah* (environment) so that it becomes conducive for an effective and efficient teaching and learning process to take place. He ensures that the school *biah* includes not only the physical aspect of the school but also the school culture. Significant school culture includes strengthening team work, mastering knowledge and practising Islam as a way of life.

A *murabbi* looks after his student like the farmer who looks after the seedlings he planted. He does research work to upgrade his skills, always innovative and creative in pedagogy, feels accountable, makes reviews and reflections. His centre of value is to seek the pleasure of Allah s.w.t. Rasulullah s.a.w. and the Prophets (peace be upon them) are excellent role models for him.

He is fully aware of the trust given to him, not only by the management of the school, but more importantly, the trust given by Allah s.w.t to educate the students.. He therefore has a sense of guilt whenever the educational objectives are not achieved and a sense of sin whenever he deviates from being a role model.

A *murabbi* is not only a teacher of knowledge, in school or elsewhere, but also someone who educates a person holistically – intellectually, physically and spiritually – so that the person will habituates and personifies his knowledge and understanding. A *murabbi* therefore focusses on developing the character, attitude and behaviour of a person so that he practises Islam as way of life.

The Teacher as a Mudarris

The word *mudarris* comes from the arabic root word *darrasa* which means to teach. A *mudarris* is a teacher who teaches in school as a profession and divulges in lessons and instructions in classrooms. He imparts knowledge, based on the school curriculum, to his students via appropriate pedagogy, utilising teaching and

learning strategies, approaches, methodologies and techniques so as to unleash the students' potentials. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

He may be a muslim or non muslim and has been entrusted by school stakeholders to educate his students.

A *mudarris* is also the students' educational manager in school. He ensures that the teaching and learning process in school is effective and efficient. He enhances school culture and makes schooling environment conducive for character development and academic excellence.

He is passionate about knowledge and information critical to the development of his students, always keeping himself updated, well informed, deepens his understanding and widens his experience. He is, however, quick to admit that he does not know the answers to all questions but he will strive hard to find the answers at a later time.

He teaches until the students understand meanings, concepts and formulae, become learned, develop positive attitude and acquire relevant skills. He ensures that the knowledge is holistic, balanced and continuous, encompassing spiritual, emotional, physical and social aspects, so that the students can apply, analyse, assess and synthesise their knowledge and to enable them to function satisfactorily in society, locally and globally. (Yusuf al-Qardhawi. 2004).

A *mudarris* strives to ensure that his students are able to differentiate between good and bad, truth and falsehood, beneficial and detrimental, benevolence and damage. He uplifts his students' ability to think and make decisions based on criteria, requirements and circumstances according to contexts.

A *mudarris* pinpoints the motives of his students coming to school and corrects their motives where necessary. He identifies their *mahzumat* (unprincipled attitudes) and change them to *mahmudat* (principled attitudes).

A *mudarris* facilitates his students to make changes which are often difficult and complex. From a constructivist viewpoint, he only prepares the basics. Thereafter, he leaves matters to the students to explore, investigate and adventure; so as to develop their skills and capacity building. He also ensures that students work as a team and guides them to make social interactions based on *syariah islamiah* (islamic law and ethics). All these are done through cooperative and collaborative learning.

A *mudarris* teaches innovations and creativity via innovative and creative teaching methodologies and techniques.

A *mudarris* is, therefore, a guide, a coach, a mentor, a facilitator, a consultant, a lecturer, a tutor, a motivator and a social agent all in one.

The Teacher as a Muallim

It is from an arabic word *allama* which means to impart knowledge. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Muallim, in many ways is like a *mudarris*. He does what a *mudarris* does. He imparts knowledge to others via strategies, approach, methodologies and techniques so as to develop their potential and make them a better person. The role of the *muallim* is based on the hadis, whereby Rasulullah s.a.w. had commanded that every muslim should transmit from Rasulullah s.a.w. even though it is merely a single sentence.

But unlike a *mudarris*, a *muallim* may or may not necessarily teach in school nor teach as a profession. He is more like a lecturer or preacher. Therefore, most of us, who have been imparting knowledge to others are a *muallim* at one time or another.

A *muallim* deals with 2 types knowledge; *aqli* (academic) and *naqli* (revealed knowledge). *Aqli* knowledge relates to "worldly matters" such as politics, economics, social and technology. *Naqli* knowledge are those

revealed to us as documented in Al-Quran and As-Sunnah which comprises knowledge on *aqidah*, *syariah* and *akhlak*.

The Teacher as a Muaddib

It is from an arabic word *addaba* which means to instill noble values. *Adab* means noble values. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Adab relates not only to fellow human beings, but also *adab* of human beings towards the seen and unseen creations of Allah swt such as flora, fauna and Angels; and more importantly, *adab* to Allah s.w.t.

A *muaddib* is like a mentor and coach. He develops the students holistically – affective, cognitive and psychomotor. To do that, he provides endless guidance, encouragement, motivation and inspiration; and he is always there to lend a shoulder when tragedy strikes.

A *muaddib* focusses on character building of his students and instill in them aspects on ethics, positive attitudes and soft skills. He identifies the aspects in them which are lacking and comes out with strategies on how to inculcate those missing aspects and subsequently implements the strategies.

He instill in students respect and love for others. He drills discipline, perseverance and resilience; and become a team player. With these *adab* embedded, the student would have the ability to fend himself from dishonourable acts and unbecoming behaviours viewed by society.

The Teacher as a Mursyid

It is from an arabic word *irsyada* which means to guide. The word *al-rusyd* means mind, truth, awareness, advice, opinion, consideration and guidance. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

A *mursyid* does all that is done by the *mudarris*, *muallim*, *muaddib* and *murabbi*. But he does more than that. A *mursyid* is a master guide particularly on the affective aspect of the student, providing spiritual guidance to the student, leading him to the truth, closer to Allah s.w.t. and subsequently attaining *iman* and *taqwa* (strong faith).

He continuously seeks the pleasure of Allah s.w.t. and guides his students to do the same. Cleansing his soul of sins (*tazkiyatun nafs*) and sincerity in actions and deeds is his strength. (Mustafa Masyhur. 2000). His methodology and technique is in line with Al-Quran and Sunnah Rasulullah s.a.w.

A *mursyid* is a person who shows and guides. They focus on *tazkiyatun nafs* (purification of the soul). According to the Sufis, they are being tasked to lead and give spiritual guidance to muslims strengthening their faith to Allah s.w.t. based on the Sufi methodology. They were given the authority by those before them right up to Rasulullah s.a.w. Therefore, they are normally the descendents of *ulama*' (muslim scholars).

A *mursyid* is a perfect role model and is such a central figure in society, his views is always consulted.

In short, we envision that the teachers in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools possess the characteristics of a *murabbi*. IKRAM-MUSLEH attempts to inculcate the characteristics of a *murabbi* which includes having true faith as envisaged by the Quran and Al-Hadith; who continuously conduct appropriate religious actions; habitualises noble character; are financially independent; knowledgeable on basic *aqli* and *naqli* knowledge; physically fit; ever willing to sacrifice for the sake of Islam; systematic in his daily affairs or activities; excellent time management and beneficial to others. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

To be knowledgeable, for example, a *murabbi* needs to have a good understanding on selected academic disciplines; which includes *Dirasat Islamiah* (islamic studies), *Tarbiah* (character building programmes), Psychology, Human behavior, Organisational Management and Management skills. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Principles of IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher's Training

Admittedly, training our teachers to be murabbic in character is not an easy task. A huge amount of effort, expenditure and expertise need to be used in such efforts. Nevertheless, the training program will be based on the basic principle as stated by said Hassan Al-Banna

“O Ikhwan! .. Prepare yourself and be focused on the appropriate tarbiah processes and assess its effectiveness and efficiency via your actions and deeds. Truly, the most difficult tasks upon you are those which are detested by the lustful mind; it is of utmost importance that you divorce your actions from lustful minds and blind rituals” (Hasan al-Banna. 1983. Pg 37).

Based on the above suggestions, IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher's training success is based on 3 main tarbiah principles; as follows: (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

The pillars of *tarbiah* are *murabbi* (mentor), *mutarabbi* (mentee), *manhaj* (curriculum) and *biah* (environment).

The process of *tarbiah* must be effective and efficient. It must be varied, simple and enjoyable. Topics, depth of knowledge and lingo must be suitable to mentees. Achievements must be appreciated and encouragement given such that mentees are left eager to come back for more learning experience.

The characteristics of *tarbiah* process are as follows:-

Rabbaniyah (Godly).

It is about purifying the soul to enhance strong iman (faith) to Allah s.w.t., done based on the teachings of al-Quran, as shown by as-sunnah of Prophet Muhammad s.a.w. and human nature. Seeking the pleasure of Allah s.w.t. is the ultimate. Love for *Akhirat* (Hereafter) must be solid. Cleansing the soul from sins must be based on the sunnah of Prophet Muhammad s.a.w. Ridding the person's character of *mazmumah* (negative attributes) must be continuous. Supplications, *basmalah* (in the name of Allah), *tadarus* (recitation of Al-Quran), *hafazan* (memorisation of Al-Quran), *istighfar* (seeking forgiveness), *tazkirah* (spiritual reminders), *ikhlas* (sincere), *wudhu* (ablution), *ihsan* (submissiveness), reading stories from muslim greats and congregational prayers as daily rituals are a must. Evidently, they have great influence on the mentee's affections, emotions and frame of mind which are then translated into beneficial actions and deeds to the society. The heart must be hopeful of the *rahmah* (blessing) from Allah s.w.t., fearful of His punishment s.w.t. and believe that, one day, every soul will return to Al-Mighty Allah s.w.t.

Syumul (comprehensive).

It is a complete, holistic and well balanced system which fulfils every aspect of a person's life based on *syahadatain* (the Islamic ideology). It covers aspects of cognitive, affective and psychomotor which includes knowledge, outlook, point of view, feelings, work, deeds, actions, mind, heart, limbs, quality, quantity, horizontal and vertical progress. The person which undergoes the process of *tarbiah* therefore must always be humble and never arrogant. Existing circumstances and situations, however, is a major factor which determines the final details of programmes and activities.

Tajmiah wa tazimiah (gather and organise).

Lessons learnt from the historical occasion of *Baiatul Aqabah*, shows that new recruits must be gathered, organised, managed, assigned, inspired and disciplined. During *Baiatul Aqabah*, there were 72 men and 2 women whereby Rasulullah s.a.w. selected 12 *naqib* (leader) from amongst them. In fact, Rasulullah s.a.w. once said that 3 persons is enough to be considered a group and that a leader from amongst them must be elected without delay.

Harakiah (Movement)

A key forte of Rasulullah s.a.w. was his ability, by the will of Allah s.w.t., to move men into action towards reforming the society, establishing the Islamic State in seeking the pleasure of Allah s.w.t. He successfully reformed individuals into men of outstanding calibre and consequently through them, managed to change society which accepted Islam as way of life based on Al-Quranul karim wa sunnah Rasulullah s.a.w. Efforts to reform society will not work until and unless the muslims themselves interact, intermingle and interrelate (*muayasyah*) every individual in society, inviting them to Islam, enjoining that is good, forbidding that is evil and believe in Allah s.w.t. They display abundant love and respect, get to know more on each and everyone of them, the positives and negatives and afterwards make improvements and reforms. Individually, they make visits, exchange gifts, send messages, participates in programmes, accepts invitations, make personal calls, offers financial help and tuitions, make personal notes and appointments, celebrate birthdays, confides on personal issues, giving trust and sharing common interest. Collectively, they perform *jamaah* prayers, *katibah* (night

prayers), *iftar jamaei* (breaking of fast), *tadarus* (Quran recitation), *solat dhuha* (morning prayer), usrah outside homes, play sports, do *rehlah* (excursions), campings, *daurah* (seminar), physical workouts, group work, meals preparation, reunions, receptions, “kutu”, hangouts, convoys, active in fb, egroups, visits, have eating out, clean ups, half-way house, discussions, role as God father, enjoy movies, meet up parents, collecting donations, cordial with pet names, active in community service, exchange gifts, witty, personal touch, massages, haircuts and car washes.

Continous (kaizen).

The process of *tarbiah* is a lifelong process which will continue until death. Inspiration and motivation unleashes potentials and sharpens the mind. *Tarbiah* can be liken to nourishment for *dakwah*. The process, therefore, must not merely be continuous but also makes the individual a better person, the next day.

The outcome of the application of the principles of *tarbiah* in the teacher’s training process is the creation of teachers who possess the Murabbi characteristics and values.

The Process of Instilling Murabbi Values Amongst Teachers (Graph 1)

All teachers, besides undergoing the normal teacher training programme, which is normally conducted on a part time basis, are expected to undergo the “*tarbiah* process”. For IKRAM-MUSLEH administrators, this part of the training (that is the “*tarbiah* process”) is the most important part of the overall training of teachers. In fact, the ability to attain the murabbi values becomes the main condition before they can be confirmed as full time teachers in the schools. Teachers with adequate academic qualifications, but do not have the murabbi values, will not be required to teach in the schools.

IKRAM-MUSLEH teachers are given training so that they would progress through levels 1 to 5 as indicated below:

Level 1

The teacher (murabbi) is made aware of the constructs to be assessed

Level 2

The teacher (murabbi) acquires knowledge and comprehension about each construct

Level 3

The teacher (murabbi) practises and habituates the construct selected

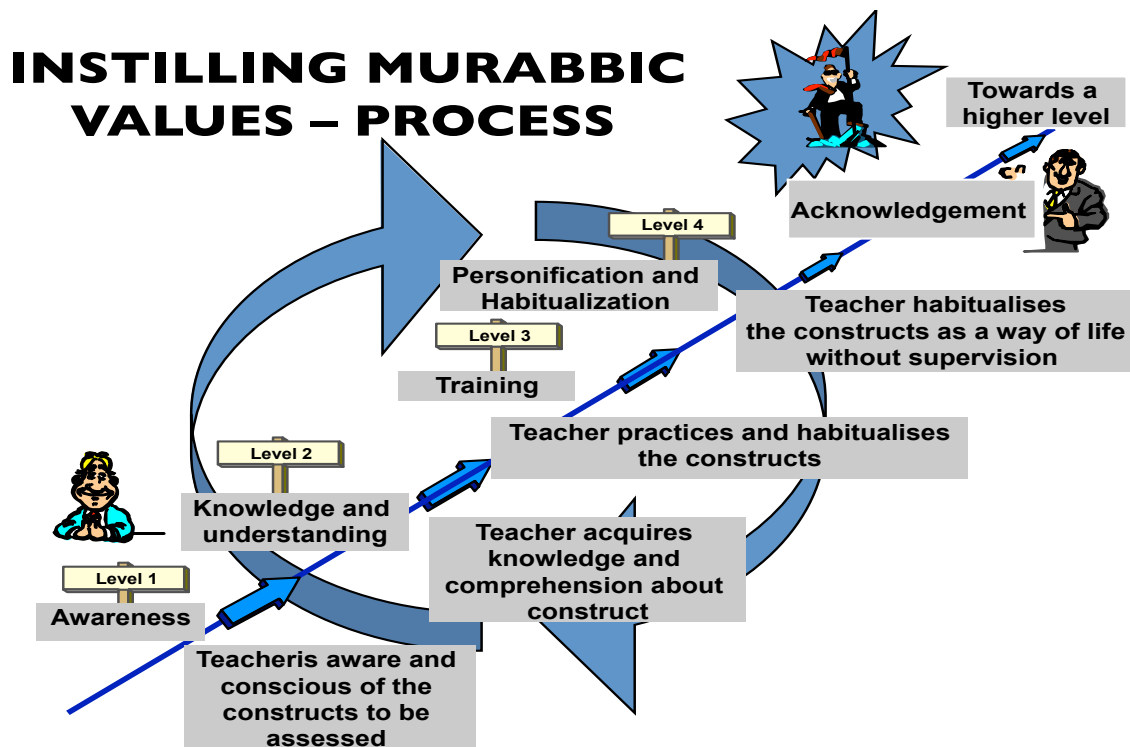
Level 4

The teacher (murabbi) habituates the constructs as a way of life without supervision

Level 5

Accomplishments by the teacher is acknowledged, recognised and encouraged for further personal development.

Graph 1 describes the levels that all teachers need to undergo.



Methodologies (*wasail*) and Techniques (*uslub*) of teacher training are described below. There are 7 methodologies; namely: (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Liqā' usari (study group)

It is the foundation for the development of *ukhuwah fil Islam* (brotherhood in Islam) *dakwah*, *tarbiah* and *jihad* (sacrifice). *Ukhuwah fil Islam* is a central objective in *tarbiah*. It can be nurtured via *taarof* (introduction) cheerfulness, hugs and kisses, sharing, offers to assist, “I love you lillahi taala” and sitting closely. It is done weekly for a specific period whereby elements of *taarof*, *tafahum* (understanding) and *takafol* (mutual help) is fostered. *Liqo usari* may done via group sittings, interface or online. Bonding based on love for Allah s.w.t. is strengthened. Close monitoring on current issues is also an important itinerary in *liqo' usari*.

Katibah (night prayers)

It is done monthly to develop *ruhi* (spirituality). Different venues may be selected.

Rehlah (excursions).

It is done quarterly to develop social relations. Itineraries may be varied and different locations selected.

Mukhayyam (camping).

It is done annually which focuses on physical fitness and discipline. Programmes and physical test may be changed accordingly.

Daurah (group discussion).

It is done twice annually to develop ideological knowledge on Islam such as “*ibadah*”, “*jihad*”, and “*politics in Islam*”.

Nadwah (seminar).

It is done annually to update members on current issues and allow differences of opinions but seeking the truth based on sound arguments and facts.

Muktamar (conference).

It is done annually to update members on issues related to the organisation so as to bring the organisation to a higher level of success and capability.

Techniques of *tarbiah* must be varied and interchangeable. However, the most effective technique in *tarbiah* is *qudwah hasanah*.

Empirical Evidences on the Impact of IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher's Training

Although, there are several variables which would affect students' excellence and high performing schools, it is undeniable that the role of teachers remains the most important. (Noor Azlan Ahmad Zanzali, Megat Mohamamed Amin, Md. Nor Bakar. 2011). Below are some evidence indicative of the impact of IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher's Training on the schools

Teachers

More than 20% of teachers in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools have achieved the level 03 (highest level is 05) of the *manhaj tarbiah*. Operationalization of the concept and measurement for the level in the *manhaj tarbiah* is based on the system theory which objectively look into the Input-Process-Output of the *tarbiah* and murabbic values achieved.

Schooling environment, culture and values

It is evident that the teachers in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools strives to uphold islamic ethics and disciplines, implement programmes based on *sunnatullah* and seek the blessings from Allah s.w.t. Noble values are being given top priority: *sidq* (truthful), *amanah* (trust), *tabligh* (convey) and *fatonah* (wisdom). There is a loving and joyful atmosphere in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools via rewards and punishments, an atmosphere of thankfulness to Allah swt, much supplications, many suprerogatory deeds (like fasting and prayers), purification of the soul and much remembrance of Allah s.w.t.

Students

Public examination results confirm the fact that the performance of students in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools are amongst the best in the district, state and even at national level. Amongst the current achievements shown in appendix 1. Performance of students in co-curricular activities demonstrate that their skills and attitude are at par or even better than the top students in the country as well as at the international level.

School image

IKRAM-MUSLEH schools are highly rated, given strong community support and registration of new students have always be oversubscribed. Parents have also shown their support to IKRAM-MUSLEH schools by sending all their children studying there. IKRAM-MUSLEH schools have been refered to as showcase private Islamic schools by the Ministry of Education (MOE) and consulted for their experience and expertise. The MOE have recognised the contributions of IKRAM-MUSLEH schools in a number of aspects; namely:

- Academic performance in public examinations.
- Annual IIUM Students Debating Championship (English, Arabic, Malay).
- Annual Musleh International Students Debating Championships (English, Arabic, Malay) – finalist from IKRAM-MUSLEH schools.
- International programmes participated by Kelab Remaja Sekolah Musleh (KRS Musleh).
- Community service programmes (Kembara Dakwah) organised by KRS Musleh in remote villages in Sabah, Sarawak and indigenous communities in peninsula Malaysia.
- Islamic Studies curriculum and teacher training modules specifically designed and implemented
- Teaching of arabic language starts from year one primary up to year five secondary school.
- Affordable charges for school fees.
- In the year 2013, 5 IKRAM-MUSLEH schools have been awarded grade 5 (excellent) for SKIPS by State Education Department. 1 school has been awarded grade 4.
- Almost zero disciplinary incidents amongst students and teachers in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools.

Despite the fact that most IKRAM-MUSLEH schools lack facilities as compared to the mainstream schools, our achievements were on par, in fact, better than to even the premier schools in all fields such as the academic, cocurricular and community programmes.

Conclusion

Developing one to be a good *murabbi* is a never ending process. *Murabbi* should not stop doing *tarbiah*. For teachers at the IKRAM-MUSLEH schools, attaining the virtues of a *murabbi* is the ultimate aim in the process of being a good Muslim. The responsibilities of the teachers with murabbic values go much beyond the acts of teaching in the context of imparting knowledge. They are the role models showing good examples for people under their care and at the same time make significant impacts on the character development of their pupils. Their success is not assessed by the number of pupils that do well academically, but by the number of potential future *murabbis* they have developed effectively.

Note:

For a more complete and detailed description on the process of instilling murabbic values, please refer to:

- IKRAM-MUSLEH (2013a). Manual Sistem Pengurusan Manhaj Tarbiah Ikram-Musleh (SISTEM). Sekolah Menengah Islam (SMI). 2013.
- IKRAM-MUSLEH (2013b). Manual Sistem Pengurusan Manhaj Tarbiah Ikram-Musleh (SISTEM). Sekolah Rendah Islam (SRI). 2013.

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Appendix 1

Data below shows students performance in SPM for year 2012 under IKRAM-MUSLEH schools:

No	Schools	Candidates	Overall Average Grade	% Pass	% students who scored more than 6 "As"	Number of students who scored all "As"
1.	SMI Hidayah Johor Baharu	106	3.02	88.68	49	10
2.	SMI Al-Amin Gombak	103	3.02	98.91	39.2	6
3.	SMI Al-Amin Bangi	56	3.82	94.4	20	3
4.		27	3.38	98.5	33.3	1
5.	SMI Hira Jeram	74	3.76	81.1	23	2
6.	SMI Aman Binjai	37	5.73	87.88	3	-
7.	SMI Al-Irsyad Kuantan	21	5.35	100	14.28	-
8.	SMI Al-Hidayah Ipoh	31	4.32	100	25.81	0
9.	SMI Al-Islah Sg Petani	40	3.62	97.6	40	2
10.	SMI As-Saidiyah Seremban	35	5.18	52.9	-	-
11	SMI Al Azhar	12	2.74	100	58.3	1
12	SMI Arab Tahfiz	20	5.36	81	1	0

Data below shows students performance in PMR for year 2012 under IKRAM-MUSLEH schools:

No	Schools	Candidates	Overall Average Grade	% Pass	% students who scored more than 6 "As"	Number of students who scored all "As"
1.	SMI Hidayah Johor Baharu	138	1.75	78.26	44.9	22
2.	SMI Al-Amin Gombak	130	1.72	97.97	50.8	18
3.	SMI Al-Amin Bangi	84	1.55	99	54.8	16
4.	SMI Al-Amin Kemaman	51	1.74	98	45	4
5.	SMI Hira Jeram	88	1.82	85.23	42	17
6.	SMI Aman Binjai	42	2.42	93.92	31	2
7.	SMI Al-Irsyad Kuantan	33	2.23	52	27.27	-
8.	SMI Al-Hidayah Ipoh	45	2.38	100	17.77	1
9.	SMI Al-Islah Sg Petani	71	1.97	96.4	25	6
10.	SMI As-Saidiyah Seremban	39	2.85	43.6	-	-
11	SMI Al Azhar	39	1.7	92.3	46.2	5
12	SMI Al Itqan P.Pinang	18	2.74	33	11	-

Radiness of Nursing and Health Sciences Faculty for Adopting the Student-Centeredness Approach in the Learning-Teaching Process at Bethlehem University

Amal Abu Nijmeh Etaf Maqboul Naji Abu Ali *

Abstract

Student's centeredness-approach (SCA) can be defined as an approach to education focusing on the need of students rather than those of others involved in the educational process such as teachers and administrators. The main goal of this research is to assess the readiness of the nursing and health sciences faculty for the student-centered approach in the learning-teaching process at BU from student's perspective. A quantitative research method was used. The selected sample was a purposive sample, which include 223 students from Nursing and health Sciences Faculty. A questionnaire was developed by the researchers. Alpha reliability coefficients were between 0.77 and 0.85. The results showed that the majority of participants moderately agreed with the transition to students-centeredness approach 99(44.4%). They said it is possible and very possible to adopt this approach 99(44.4%), 25(11.2%), Students and teachers are ready to some extent to adopt the student's-centeredness approach with crucial needs to do some changes in the infrastructure.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Student centered-approach can be defined as an approach to education focusing on the need of students rather than those of others involved in the educational process such as teachers and administrators. It focuses on the various learning styles of the students in guiding teaching strategies has been a major focus of researchers since 1960s (Faucet, 1963, Sund, 1974, Glasgow, 1997). Moreover, student centeredness focus on the need of students to guide academic institutions strategies has received very little attention (Popejoy, 1994, McConbs, 1997). The academic institutions that adopt Student's-Centeredness Approach (SCA) will be more successful in terms of more achievements and student's motivation, in-addition, using this approach still conflicting evidence (Kinhead & Harris, 1993). The teaching-learning process is a shared one between the students and teachers.

As lecturers in the Nursing and health Sciences Faculty since long time we believe that our main concern is not limited to the fact that students do well on written tests of recognition and recall, however, we expect from our students to be more active in their learning process, independent, use critical thinking skills during their practice and apply what they have been taught in lecture rooms to the care of their patients. In addition these students should be also able to recognize when their knowledge and skills are not enough to certain clinical situations, therefore, they should look for the needed information and skills to such a situation. According to our knowledge and experience we can say that most of the lecturers are following the conventional or the traditional approach in teaching here, this approach is no longer appropriate since it limits the students' participation in their learning process. As we live in a society with many rapid changes, high technology, high demographic changes which is highly competitive, it is important to guide the development of the profession to adapt and inspire change, we need a transformation in the health systems, as we need transformational leadership; we need change in organizational learning climates and change in leadership style. The students should be prepared to join their profession society.

RESEARCH GOALS

- 1.To assess the readiness of the Nursing and Health Sciences Faculty for adopting the Student-Centered Learning Approach (SCLA) in the teaching-learning process at Bethlehem university.
- 2.Improve the quality of the teaching- learning process in the Nursing and Health Sciences Faculty.
- 3.Create a culture of learning among students that promote their critical thinking abilities.

METHODOLOGY

Research Site

The study was conducted at Bethlehem University, mainly in the nursing and health Sciences Faculty.

Survey Design

A non-experimental, cross-sectional, descriptive survey was used in this study. A self-administered questionnaire was used.

Sample

The sample included all students in Nursing and health Sciences Faculty who are enrolled in the four programs: Nursing, Physiotherapy (PT), Occupational Therapy (OT) and Midwifery. The sample size was 305 students who met the eligibility criteria of: Student from Nursing and health Sciences Faculty, under graduate and full-time student. 223 questionnaires were completed and returned back by the students with a response rate of 74%. The selected sample was a purposive sample, which includes all students from Nursing and health Sciences Faculty.

Instrument

A questionnaire was developed by the researchers. The questionnaire consists of four sections or sub-constructs. The first section (Section A) consists of 12 items related to demographic data. Section B consists of 9 items related to educational process with a Likert scale. Section C consists of 14 items related to educational environment with a Likert scale. And Section D consists of 4 different items related to the students' suggestions and opinions about the possibility of adopting the student's centeredness approach in the learning-teaching process.

Validity and Reliability Of The Instrument

For reliability, the researcher calculated alpha coefficient to check the internal consistency of the instrument as shown in Table 1. Alpha reliability coefficients were between 0.77 and 0.85. All domains are above the approved level of 0.70, as shown in (Table 1).

Table 1- Alpha coefficients for each domain for the instrument.

	N	Number of statements	Cronbach's alpha
Educational Process	223	9	0.77
Educational Environment	223	14	0.85

For content validity the instrument was evaluated by three experts for clarity and adequacy; changes were made according to their suggestions. Besides, instrument validity was examined by calculating Person's correlations between questions and the overall result, the correlations were statistically significant ($P=0.01$).

Data Collection: Administering Questionnaire

The questionnaires were delivered using similar methods over a two-week period for the purpose of standardization. All questionnaires were sent to the students contained a cover letter, which included introduction about student centeredness approach, the purpose of the study and instructions on filling in and submitting the questionnaire.

Ethical Considerations

Polit et al. (2004) outlines three ethical principles to guide ethical conduct in research: beneficence, respect for human dignity and justice. The participants were free from any foreseeable risk of harm while potentially contributing to teaching learning process by exploring the problem of student centered approach. Moreover, this

study assured the freedom from any exploitation; participants were assured that their participation or any information that they may provide will not be used against them in any way. Therefore, people agree to participate in the study as they may perceive direct personal benefits or as they may benefit the students in general. Respect for human dignity was the second principle articulated in this study and included the right to self-determination and the right to full disclosure. The right to self-determination ensured participants the right to decide voluntarily whether to participate in the study without risking any penalty or prejudicial treatment. They also have the right to ask questions and ask for clarification. The right to full disclosure was assured in this study by full description of the nature of the study and all participants in this study were aware that the study is completely voluntary. The third ethical principle in this study concerned justice, which included participants' rights to fair treatment and their right to privacy. All students were treated the same if they meet the inclusion criteria of selection. The right to privacy was observed in this study by assuring anonymity and confidentiality. All these rights were protected, assured and cleared in the cover letter of the instrument that used in this study. Permission to proceed with this study was obtained and the voluntary, anonymous and confidential nature of the study was emphasized.

DATA ANALYSIS

Educational Environment

The total degree of educational environment statement was moderate, the mean of statements was 3.33 (SD= 0.65) as shown in table 2.

Table2: Educational Environment statements' results

Educational Environment	Mean	SD
The library services fulfill my academic needs	3.72	0.92
The students receive adequate help in the university library	3.60	0.92
The number of students in each course is suitable with the class room size	3.53	1.17
The faculty laboratories are well equipped with the needed equipment for training	3.51	1.07
The university computer center provides the needed help for the students in their education	3.43	1.10
The classrooms are equipped with computers, LCD and sound system	3.43	1.15
The square area of each classroom is suitable	3.42	1.06
It is easy to find a computer in the university whenever I need it for my study	3.40	1.10
The library course offered in the university assisted me in my university education	3.36	1.12
The number of computers in the university meets my academic needs	3.28	1.05
The students receive adequate and suitable services in the university computer center in terms of guidance and assistance	3.28	1.04
The university library has enough online data base	3.19	1.10
In general, I am satisfied with the current educational process in the faculty which involves lectures, exams and power point presentations	3.05	1.23
The classrooms are suitable in terms of seats, light, temperature and ventilation	2.90	1.20

The above table describes the most important points in the educational environment at BU which were arranged in order from the higher to lower means, the statement with the highest mean was that the library services fulfill my academic needs, and the lowest was that the classrooms are suitable in terms of seats, light, temperature and ventilation.

Application of the Students Centeredness

To explore respondents' opinions about application of the student centeredness in the learning -teaching process, three questions were administered in the questionnaire.

The first question was Do you agree with the transition from the teachers centeredness to the students centeredness in the learning- teaching process? The answers of the question are presented in the following graph:

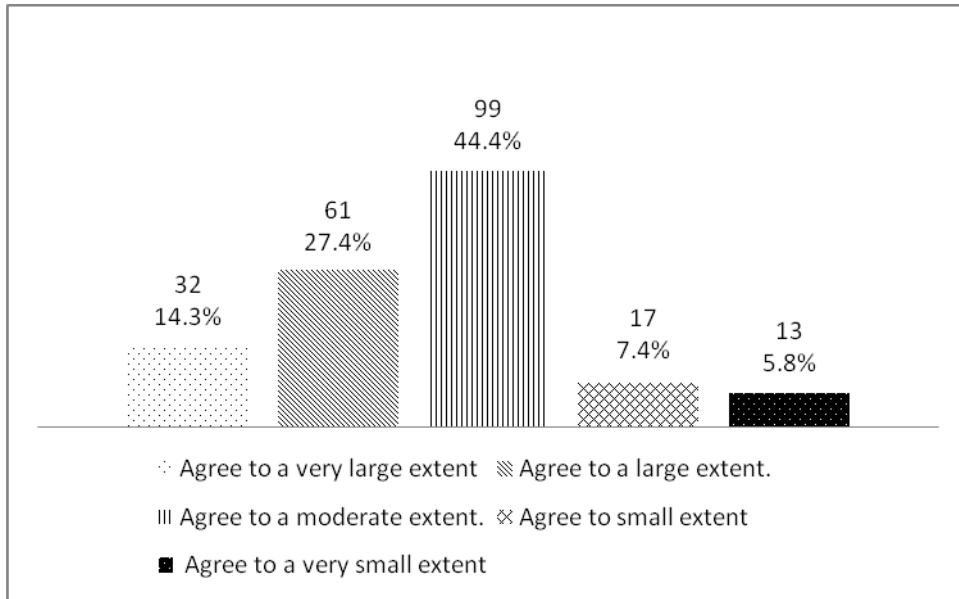


Figure 1: Distribution of participants in relation to the extent to transition to student approach.

The figure shows that the majority of participants moderately agreed with the transition to student's Centeredness approach, 99(44.4%).

The second question was is it possible to shift from the teacher's centeredness to the student's centeredness in the learning – teaching process? The answers of the question are presented in the following graph:

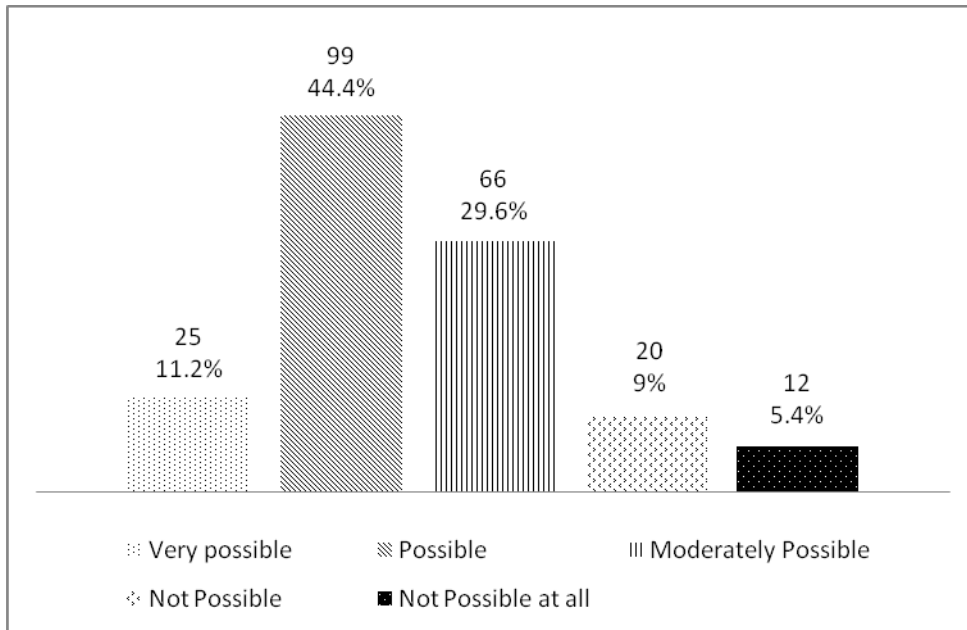


Figure 2: Distribution of participants in relation to the possibility to transition to student approach.

The figure showed that the majority of participants said it is possible and very possible to adopt student's centeredness approach, 99(44.4%), 25(11.2%).and only 32 (12%) said it is not possible or not possible at all to adopt such approach.

The third question was: Is the faculty ready to adopt the student’s centeredness in the learning-education process. The answers of the question are presented in the following graph:

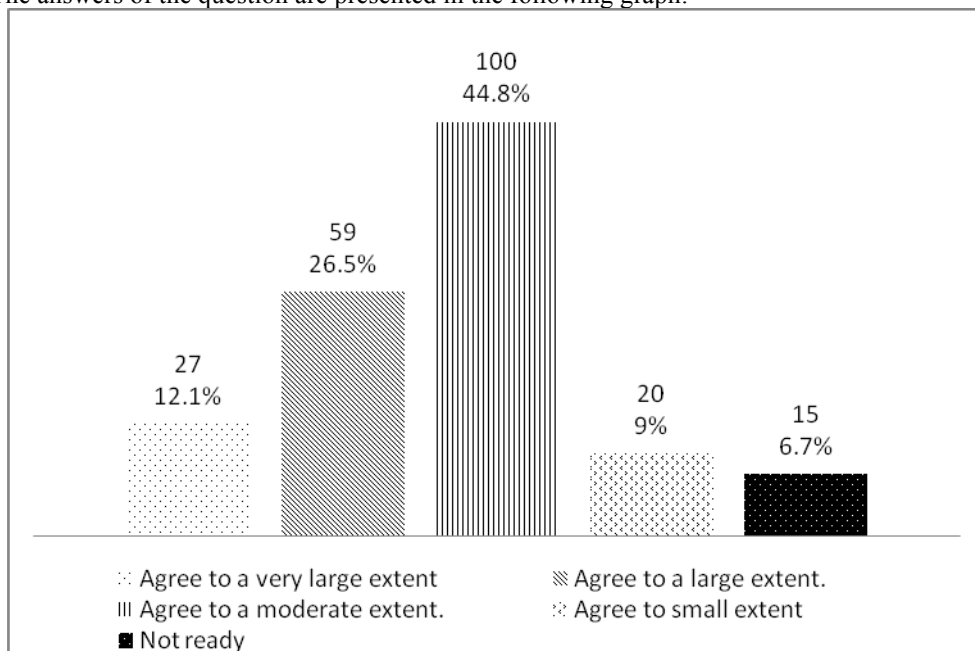


Figure 3: Distribution of participants in relation to the readiness of faculty to transition to student centeredness approach.

The figure shows that the majority of participants said that the faculty is moderately ready for transition to student’s centeredness approach, 100(44.8%). While only 15(6.7%) think the faculty are not ready to adopt such approach

Suggestions To Shift To Students Centeredness

The numbers of respondents who agreed with the suggestions are presented in the following Table :

Table 3: Suggestions of respondents

Suggestions	N of respondents who suggested	Percentage (%)
The student should be oriented to her/his centeredness in the teaching learning process from the first year of study.	195	87.4
The teacher should be trained in the students’ centeredness approach.	170	76.2
The library resources should be upgraded with books, journals and electronic materials.	166	74.4
Upgrade the computer centers in terms of numbers of computers and services.	154	69.1
Train the students to use the library services resources, computer and internet services.	164	73.5
Decrease the number of students in each course in order to facilitate the application of the student’s centeredness in the learning-teaching process.	130	58.3
Change the current applied lecturing methodology to different methodology that promotes the students participation in order to foster his/her centeredness in the learning-teaching process. Please give examples for this	125	56.1

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The Current Educational Process:

The students reflected on this concept with moderate agreement: they agreed that the teacher is the centre of the learning teaching process, beside the student plays a major role in this process. This reflection could be related to the uniqueness of the health professions that need both student and teacher to be actively involved in the learning teaching process especially with the clinical component. Also the faculty concentrated on the

participation of the students and the teacher uses a variety of teaching methods, which is part of the student's centeredness approach.

In addition, the evaluation criteria of the courses consider the students participation. Moreover, the students asked to be involved in the need assessment phase, meet with them on regular basis and to consider their recommendation.

The discrepancy in the student's responses that came out with a moderate agreement on the items of the educational process can be justified by the variations among the students due to their major and the year of the study. Also the teachers in this faculty don't follow a unified system in their teaching as some of them more actively involve the students in their learning than other teachers who mainly follow the teacher- centeredness approach.

The Educational Environment:

Generally, the majority of students agreed to some extent that the educational environment satisfies their educational needs, however, they disagreed with the suitability of the classroom in term of seats, light, furniture, temperature and ventilation, moreover, almost half of the students didn't agree that the number of students is suitable with the classroom size in each course. In addition, they also did not agree with the laboratories equipment that the faculty use for training, beside they also reported that it is not easy to find a computer when they needed due to the limited number of computer centers and computers. These results could be due to increased number of students at BU without enough parallel expansion of the university facilities and spaces. Regardless the students major and year of study almost half of them are not satisfied with the services offered in the computer, this result may be due to the increased number of students who need help in these labs and the limited number of staff who work there, in addition, about

One third of the students claimed that the library course did not assist them enough in their educational process. This result may be due to the fact that the students take this course in their first year of study without enough application for it at this level and the students don't receive additional training in library services after this.

Application of the Student's -Centeredness Approach:

The majority of the sample agreed with the transition to the SCA. This agreement was among all the students regardless their year of study and major, in addition, the students and faculty in the focus groups agreed with this transition. These results support the students' comments about the current education process at BU. These comments clarified the students' relative disagreement with the current process since they consider it as teacher-centeredness with an indoctrination and traditional method in which the student has limited role and depends on the teacher for the knowledge. So it creates a passive student who lacks the analytical and critical thinking abilities and these will negatively impact on the student's exams results and also on the graduate future career. Beside this, the majority of the students believe in the possibility of adopting the SCA and these students think that the faculty is ready for this transition and they had some suggestions to help in this transition.

They indicated that the student should be oriented to the SCA as early as possible in their university educations moreover, these students suggested that the teachers should be trained to this approach in addition to more upgrading and expansion of the university facilities as classroom, training lab, computer centers and decreasing the number of students in each classroom.

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the readiness of the faculty of nursing and health sciences to adopt the SCA. The results showed that the faculty's students and teachers are ready to some extent to adopt such approach, the student's need this transition as it gives them the opportunity to develop themselves in certain skills such as critical thinking analytical abilities and to be more involved in decision making in relation to their learning process as in assessment and evaluation. Moreover, there is a need to invest more in BU infrastructure, in the computer and faculty laboratories, library resources, and in the classroom environment such as seats, ventilation, space and light. Beside these, there is a crucial need to orient and train both the teachers and students on skills related to the SCA. To facilitate the success of this transition, it is important to get the support from BU administration to adopt the SCA on the university level. It is recommended to increase the faculty and student's awareness about the student's -centeredness approach by training workshops. Adopt gradually the student's-centeredness approach in the faculty of nursing and health sciences.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- 1) Increase the faculty and student's awareness about the student's -centeredness approach by training workshops.
- 2) Upgrade the nursing and health sciences faculty laboratories.
- 3) Improve the infrastructure of the university in relation to library resources, computer laboratories and the classroom environment.
- 4) Decrease the number of students in the major courses and not to have more than 20 students in each course.
- 5) Communicate with other universities that adopt the student's- centeredness approach to learn from their experience.
- 6) To have a policy on university administration level that considers the adoption of the student's centeredness approach among all faculties.
- 7) Adopt gradually the student's- centeredness approach in the faculty of nursing and health sciences.
- 8) Increase the school teacher's awareness about the student's centeredness approach through training workshops.

Acknowledgment

We would like to express our deep gratitude and appreciation to all those who have supported and assisted in the course of preparing this study:

Br. Peter Bray, vice chancellor of Bethlehem University for his continual support to the internal research grant, special thanks to Br. Robert Smith, Vice president and Dr. Irene Hazou, assistant vice president for academic affairs, for their nomination and encouragement.

Sincere thanks and appreciations to Dr. Sami Adwan for his valuable comments and advice. Our thanks to the students who who completed the questionnaire.

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The Effectiveness of Self-Controlling Instruction on Attention Increase and Educational Progress of Students With Writing Disorder

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Abstract

According to universal estimation eight percent of children especially boys have learning disability that, in some cases is followed by attention deficit which itself aggregates the disorder. Medication is mostly used in order to treat the attention deficit which itself has side effects for the child. This research focuses on behavior reformation with self-controlling method and its reinforcement. The investigative project in this research is the single subject method performed with ABAB reflexive and follow-up method in writing disorder student. It also focuses on the instruction of self-controlling method and its administration in all stages of treatment observation by case and researcher, and its effect on educational progress. In order to make progress in this research and its obtained results, diagrams, tables, descriptive and deductive statistics have been used. The obtained result of this investigation is the attention increase by using the self-controlling method and its positive effect on educational progress.

Keywords. Self-controlling, Writing disorder Students, Attention Increasing.

INTRODUCTION

Writing for many people especially for those with learning disorder (LD) is a challenging process. Even expert writers sometimes face problems in planning, editing and evaluation of writings, so it is not surprising that many students face problem in writing process, for example recent studies have shown that out of every five elementary students, just one has the knowledge of skill of writing (Don Jean, 2003). Silver (1990) reported that between 15 -20 % of students with LD has Hyperactivity which often co morbid with attention deficit. In contrast to reading disorder, writing disorder is recognized after the first grade of elementary school. Limited and rational needs of writings of first grade elementary students rarely might be dependent to concept or use of language grammar use. So parents and teachers might report that the appearance of writing disorder is obvious in grade 3 and 4. In fact grade 3 and 4 are when writing problems appear because of school programming. During grade 3 to 6, the growth of thought related to writing and use of language grammar increase a lot and most of writing problems appear during these years. (Kratowill & Shapro, 2003) Children with learning disability often have attention deficit disorder which exacerbates LD, as the result has direct impact on the instructional procedure and educational progress in such students. (Lloyd & Bateman, 1989) This problem is related with different perceptual disorder. A child with LD who has attention deficit cannot concentrate on one activity more than a few minutes and his attention to irrelevant stimuli of activity is easily deviated. The child even with awareness about the problem understands that concentration on one specific activity is extremely difficult for him. One of these methods to recover attention deficit is teaching self-controlling method. (Hallohan, Kneedler, Liloyd, 1983) Attention self-controlling as one of the cognitive behavior therapy skills consists of measurement and recording of quantity of behaviors, which show the importance of homework. Paying attention on homework is one of the most important goals of instruction of self-controlling in the class because studies show that attention deficit is related to low educational performance. The effectiveness of teaching self-controlling in attention in many studies have proven (Hallohan, Hudson, 2002), (Montague, 2007), (Shapro, Kratowill, 2003), (Blink, 1971). Belink (1971) in a study investigated the instruction of self-controlling method on attention and its maintenance during the time in three groups of children with LD, mental retardation and behavior disorder. The result showed the increase of attention behavior and its maintenance during the time after omission of self-controlling method. Gelin, Thomas (1973) and Rock, Tead, (2007) by omission of self-controlling method found that students' attention would be kept even with the omission of the reinforcement of stimulus. According to the above notes as most of the students with LD consist of students with writing disorder and according to the

importance of rule of self controlling, researchers are apt to investigate the theory of effectiveness of teaching self-controlling method in improvement of attention and educational progress of students with writing disorder.

METHOD AND PROCEDURES

The method of this study is case study which investigated the subjects in the form of A-B-A-B design with follow up. The A-B-A-B design represents an attempt to measure a baseline (the first A), a treatment measurement (the first B), the withdrawal of treatment (the second A), and the re-introduction of treatment (the second B). In other words, the A-B-A-B design involves two parts: (1) gathering of baseline information, the application of a treatment and measurement of the effects this treatment; and (2) measurement of a return to baseline or what happens when the treatment is removed and then again applying the treatment and measuring the change.

The statistical population in this study was all students with writing disorder in Mashhad, Iran. To do this research 7 students with writing disorder were selected randomly after the administration of diagnostic test such as WISC-R, Rutter Behavior Disorder questionnaire (1976) after selection of subjects. Researchers observed students for a week, especially when students needed attention and concentration while teachers were teaching and showed behaviors which represented attention deficit. After a week direct observation A-B-A-B design and follow up were done, and to ensure and raising attention each level continued for 12 days.

WISC-R: in order to measure the subjects' IQ who have writing disorder it is used.

The Rutter Children's Behavior Questionnaire (Rutter, 1967) for completion by teachers is a 26- item survey designed to evaluate children's behavior at school. Answers are rated on a scale of 0 to 2, with higher ratings indicating more severe presence of the symptoms. Possible ratings on the scale range from 0 to 52.

Educational progress:

In pretest, students' dictation frequently were investigated which were six essays during twelve days. In equal period of time each essay had approximately round 120 words with equal difficulty. In post test, students again had 6 spelling tests in equal period of time and the kind of spelling errors were again analyzed and the mean was calculated.

The instruction of self-controlling method:

- 1) Pretest step (baseline- A1): After the exact description of inattention behaviors, in a week in every 50 minutes session the testee was reminded by the researcher to check himself every five minutes to see whether he has attention to the teaching or not, for having attention behavior he put a positive mark and for every inattention behavior a negative mark for himself.
- 2) Treatment method step (intervention- B1): In this step attention and inattention behaviors were exemplified. Attention behaviors such as good seeing, good hearing and complete attention to the teacher and inattention behaviors were playing with pencil and eraser, having wandering eyes while the teacher is teaching and etc. During two weeks the researcher had to fill a table which consists of ten parts and in every 50 minutes session by observing any attention behaviors a token economy was given to the testee as an encouragement and reinforcement.
- 3) Return to the baseline (A2) step: In this step the researcher just observed the testee's behaviors again while the testee himself filled the table in order to have reduction of inattention behaviors as a result of treatment method (step2).
- 4) Treatment method step (B2): The attention behaviors of testee were recorded by the researcher every 5 minutes like step 2 and he received token economic.
- 5) Follow up: two weeks later, the testee again recorded his behaviors without any reinforcement.

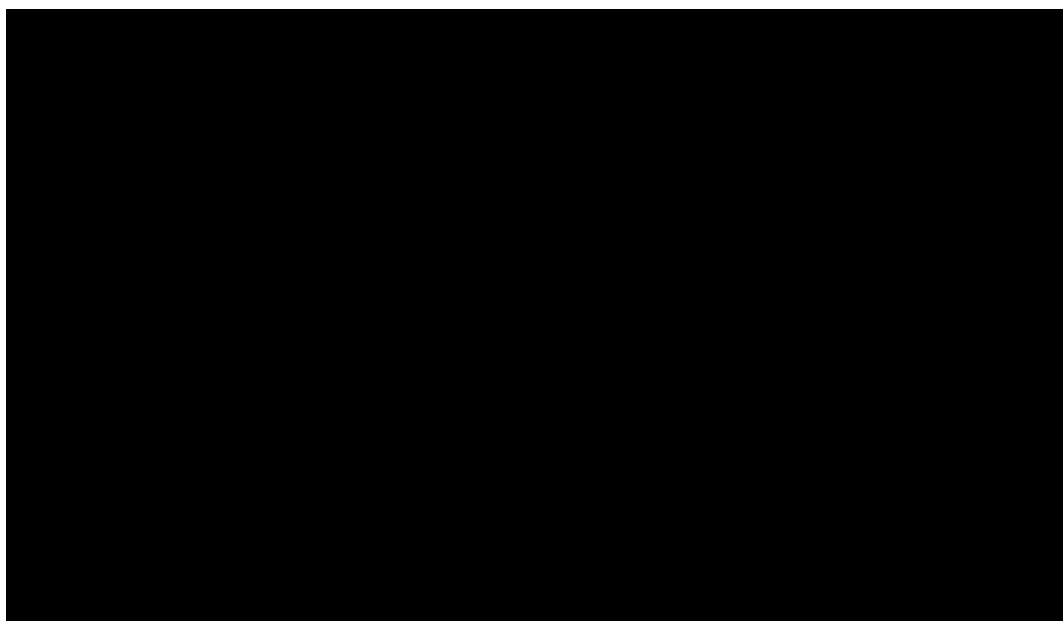


Fig. The related data to the way of subjects function inattention behavior based on self- controlling

RESULT

As seen in Figure, according to the report of students, self-controlling and its improvement in subjects 1,2,3,4 had significant raise and about subject 5, it was less but the increasing procedure was observed. Subject 6 and 7, also had attention rising which was slower in comparison to other 4 subjects. The performance of subjects in baseline was rising while in instructional level attention graphs were raising too, and it can be observed in follow up. As seen in Table, In comparison of subjects’ spelling errors in A1 level and follow up, it can be concluded that in spelling error there is the significant lowering of attention while the spelling errors (visual memory, audio sensation, instruction and omission of words) did not have any significant difference.

Table1. Comparison of subjects’ spelling errors in A1 level and follow up.

X2	Df	P	Follow up Percent	Follow up Number	A1 Percent	A1 Number	
6/5	1	0/01	17/5	31	31/7	38	attention
1/2	1	0/3	7/5	9	11/7	14	Visual memory
0/9	1	0/35	6/7	8	10	12	Audio sensitivity
0/35	1	0/55	10/8	13	13/3	16	Instruction
1/3	1	0/25	1/7	2	4/2	5	Omission of words

CONCLUSION

In general, conclusions have shown that self-controlling method instruction and its improvement cause the increase of attention in children with writing disorder. The results of this research is coordinated with the ones which have been done by other researches such as Hallohan and Hudson (2002), Montague (2007), Glynn and Thomas (1974) , Maclaughlin (1976) and Harris (1986) which show that self-controlling method by subject with LD causes attention increase , furthermore it shows that attention is kept consistent during the time. This method was effective in the increase of attention and as a result decreases of spelling errors, the comparison of spelling errors of graph before and after the interference level shows the educational progress and as a result self-controlling method has positive impact on attention increase and finally educational progress. This study is coordinated with the researchers of Hallohan, Kneedler and Lioloyd (1983), Maclaughlin (1976) which show educational progress.

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Educational Leadership Development in the Context of the United Arab Emirates: Participant Perceptions in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program

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Abstract

The Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) has invested heavily in providing professional development to school leaders, to ensure that their skills and abilities match the competencies needed to reach ADEC goals. This qualitative narrative study provides insight into the lived experiences of several members of the first cohort group of aspiring vice-principals, in a professional development program conducted by ADEC, in partnership with a local university. Results reveal that participants have a shared history of education which includes rote memorization and authoritarian leadership. Participants viewed the program as helpful but sometimes lacking in practical application. After the program, the participants faced difficult circumstances with little ongoing training or support. It is hoped that the results of the study will be used to enhance the quality and contextualization of future leadership development programs in Abu Dhabi.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is an oil-rich state, which has seen a vast influx of capital in the past several decades from oil production. Sheikh Zayed (peace be upon him), the founding father of the UAE and Emir of Abu Dhabi, summed up his aspirations for education in the country, stating, “The real asset of any advanced nation is its people, especially the educated ones, and the prosperity and success of the people are measured by the standard of their education” (UAE Embassy, 2012). The Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) is the major governing body of education in Abu Dhabi; it was established in 2005. Current reform efforts in Abu Dhabi are focused on the rapid improvement of the schooling system, with a focus on professional development. Research concerning school reform shows that school leaders, especially principals, are important change agents in school improvement (Davis et al. 2005; Halawah, 2005; Hess & Kelly, 2007; Styron & LeMire, 2009). ADEC has invested heavily in providing professional development to school leaders, to ensure that their skills and abilities match the competencies needed to reach ADEC goals. A number of professional development provider companies, and both local and foreign universities, have been charged by ADEC with providing professional development for school leaders. The programs are grounded in (mostly Western) best practices in leadership development programs and endeavor to align training to local needs. However, at this point, there is little research about the effectiveness of such programs in targeting and meeting Emirati school leader needs related to school reform initiatives in the UAE. This study will provide insight into the lived experiences of several members of the first cohort group of aspiring vice-principals, in a professional development program conducted by ADEC, in partnership with a local university. It is hoped that the results of the study will be used by decision-makers to enhance the quality and contextualization of future leadership development programs in Abu Dhabi.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore participants’ perceptions of the effects of the various components of the [XXXX] Professional Development program, including learned theory, on-the-job assignments, and the opportunity to form a professional learning community (PLC) with their colleagues, on their perceptions about their own effectiveness as a school leader.

Research Question.

What are the perceptions of members of the cohort group of candidates for the vice-principalship who are involved in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, regarding the effectiveness of the program?

Sub-Questions are:

- 1) What are participants' perceptions about the cultural appropriateness of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program?
- 2) What are participants' perceptions about the relevance of the information presented in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, as it relates to their experience in the UAE context?

The researcher will utilize a qualitative research design, with a narrative approach, using a semi-structured interview protocol.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Leadership Development Programs—Best Practices from a Western Perspective.

Effective professional development for school leaders begins with effective professional development practices for educators, overall. Research suggests that effective professional development must be of an adequate duration (both within the session and across sessions) to allow educators to utilize the information effectively (Garet, et al, 2001; Cocoran, 1995; Hunzicker, 2011). High-quality professional development must also be aligned to the improvement goals of the individual and the organization (Garet, et al, 2001; Guskey, 2009; Cororan, 1995; Hunzicker, 2011). Active learning and opportunities for collaboration are also noted as keys to successful professional development for educators (Garet, et al, 2001; Guskey, 2009; Cororan, 1995; Hunzicker, 2011).

Hess and Kelly (2007) undertake a large-scale review of syllabi of various principal preparation programs to ascertain their content. They state, "School leadership is the key to school improvement. In a new era of accountability, where school leaders are expected to demonstrate bottom-line results and use data to drive decisions, the skill and knowledge of principals matter more than ever" (Hess & Kelly, 2007, p. 1). They endeavor to answer an important question—one that has been long ignored by educational scholars: What is taught in principal preparation programs? The authors identify "seven areas of principal responsibility [...] [which] are: managing for results, managing personnel, technical knowledge, external leadership, norms and values, managing classroom instruction, and leadership and school culture" (p. 4). Results show that educational leadership programs in the U.S. remain, as in the 1980s, heavily weighted toward day-to-day management tasks of the school (i.e., technical knowledge), rather than instructional leadership. Hess and Kelly's work highlights disparities between the current educational landscape and administrator preparation programs.

In *Turnaround Leadership*, Fullan states that for turnaround to be successful, "a culture of distributed leadership that grooms new leaders for the next phase must be established" (Fullan, 2006, p. 31). He identifies a model of "capacity building with a focus on results" (Fullan, 2006, p. 31). A culture that promotes capacity building, Fullan states, is in accordance with Kanter's turnaround solutions model and includes three essential elements: accountability, collaboration, and initiative. In these environments, people "share information and take responsibility"; work together"; and "feel what they do matters, that they can make a difference in outcomes." Fullan's work highlights the importance of successful succession planning to foster long-lasting positive turnaround outcomes.

The authors of the *School Leadership Study* from Stanford identify features of effective principal preparation and development programs, which include content (i.e., research-based, coherent curriculum), methods (i.e., field-based internships, problem-based learning, cohort groups, mentors), and structure (i.e., collaborative partnerships between university programs and school districts). They state that no matter what type of program, "context is found to be important for key functions of schools, such as instruction, community-building, and change management" (Davis et al. 2005, p. 7). They state that "principal preparation and professional development programs [are] both more productive for schools and more sustainable for those who aspire to lead" (Davis et al. 2005, p. 20).

In an article promoting mentorships, Brown University cites research that shows benefits of mentoring, which include increased confidence, job satisfaction, recognition among peers, and productivity among those who have been mentored (Brown, 2003, p. 11). Characteristics of successful mentoring programs include organizational support; clearly defined outcomes; screening, selection, and pairing; training mentors and protégés; a learner-centered focus; adequate time allotment; and a focus on building a mutually enhancing relationship (Brown, 2003, p. 16). Ultimately, the conclusion of the authors is, "When it comes to training principals, there really is

nothing better, as long as the mentor is guiding you in the right direction and has the skills to help you get where you need to go” (Brown, 2003, p. 35).

The Wallace Foundation highlights the increased prevalence of principal mentorship programs in the U.S. While they regard this as a welcome trend, their research is an illustration that “many if not most existing mentoring programs are falling well short of their potential” (Wallace Foundation, 2007, p. 3). Common failings in mentorship programs are identified as vague or unclear goals, insufficient focus on instructional leadership, insufficient time or duration, lack of meaningful data, and underfunding. Hallmarks of successful programs include high-quality training, adequate funding, adequate duration, and a clear goal—“to provide new principals with the knowledge, skills and courage to become leaders of change who put teaching and learning first in their schools” (Wallace Foundation, 2007, p. 4). They cite benefits of mentoring not only for the mentee, but also for the mentor and the learning organization (Wallace Foundation, 2007, p. 6).

Professional Development in Government Schools in the UAE

Stephenson, Dada, and Harold (2012) used a longitudinal case study approach to identify themes and focal content areas during the implementation of a teacher-leadership development program. The objective of the PD project was to “develop teacher leadership capacity at the school level through a collaborative action research model, which draws on theories of social learning” (Stephenson et al., 2012, pp. 54–55). Shared leadership was found to be important to success, while some cultural factors limited its effects. A lack of trust (e.g., a fear that work would be “re-appropriated to others’ credit”), fear that participants were being evaluated by supportive observers, and participants’ need to “‘maintain’ face by claiming that they already knew everything and that the workshops included ‘nothing new for them’” were observed to detract from the effects of the projects (Stephenson et al, 2012, pp. 58–59). They observed that during the course of the project, [participants] overcame cultural issues and began collaboratively to create shared assumptions, values, and beliefs.

Stephenson (2010) writes about applying the principles of “a range of professional learning models including an action research (AR) model and a communities of practice (CoP) model” in four professional development projects in UAE.. Across the projects, building relationships and fostering collaboration were identified as important factors in the success of the project. Some limiting factors were participants’ desires for “templates or ‘recipes’ for how to do things rather than work through tasks together. Other participants indicated that they only valued professional development as workshops, where experts provided their input and their role was one of information receiver” (Stephenson, 2010, pp. 154–155). The author concludes by stating, “In the UAE there has been an over emphasis on the one-off workshop model of professional development. [...] However, times are changing ... [and] there are many more opportunities to implement ... a collaborative practice-based model.” (Stephenson, 2010, p.155) In a research base that is very narrow, Stephenson provides valuable insight into the climate and culture of PD in Abu Dhabi.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to explore participant perceptions of the effectiveness of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program. Secondary considerations are participant perceptions of the cultural and contextual appropriateness of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program.

Setting

The [XXXX] Professional Development Program is a joint venture between a local university and ADEC. To conduct the interviews, in all but one case, I travelled to the participants’ schools and met with them in their offices. One interview was conducted at the ADEC offices, at the request of the participant.

Participants

All nineteen participants in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program were hand selected to take part in the program sponsored by ADEC leadership, through a rigorous interview and vetting process. All of the participants in the program speak English well, which precluded the necessity for translation in the study. Program participants are newly designated acting vice-principals. All of the participants are Emirati women who currently work in ADEC government schools. The researcher obtained permission to discuss the project with the program participants after obtaining IRB approval and the appropriate approvals from the ADEC Research Office. Despite the fact that all nineteen program participants were invited to participate in the study, only four participants elected to do so. All participants who indicated their willingness to participate were included in the

study. Three of the four participants who elected to participate in the study were from the same geographic region. This presents a limitation of the study.

METHODS

Qualitative research is generally employed when: variables needed to conduct the study are unclear; the researcher wants to explore trends or explanations; and/or problems “need to be explored to obtain deeper understanding” (Creswell, 2008, pp. 17–19). Narrative qualitative research “begins with the experiences as expressed in lived and told stories of individuals” (Creswell, 2013, p. 54). The researcher collects and tells stories with a narrative approach (i.e., beginning, middle, end) to tell the stories of individuals (Creswell, 2012, p. 22). Clandinin and Connelly (1998) state “narratives of experience are both personal—they reflect a person’s life history—and social—they reflect the milieu, the contexts in which teachers live” (Clandinin & Connelly, 1998, p. 150). Given the current state of education in Abu Dhabi, in which major contextual changes are taking place, a narrative approach is desirable. This approach will provide unique insight into the lives of women who are taking part in a pioneering professional development and certification venture. A narrative approach is also well suited to a cross-cultural study, as it naturally takes into account the context in which the lived experience of the participants takes place.

Cross-cultural research is defined as research that compares behaviors or phenomena across two or more cultures; includes researchers and study participants who have different cultural backgrounds; and/or uses measurements developed for one cultural context that are implemented in a different context (Clark, 2012, p. 28). When conducting this type of research, it is imperative that the researcher remains aware of the need for cultural awareness and sensitivity at all times throughout the research and that ethical considerations are given great weight in the research process. Ford et al. highlight the important role of the cultural factors that influence the way the researcher goes about his/her work (e.g., life experiences, values, personal experiences) and state that the context in which research takes place cannot be ignored, marginalized, or trivialized, if research is to be conducted appropriately (Ford et al., 2008). The authors state that “racially, culturally, and linguistically responsive researchers have self-awareness, cultural awareness and understanding, strong feelings about social justice, and a range of skills and strategies” (Ford et al., 2008, p. 87). Culturally competent researchers focus on developing effective communication and data gathering skills to work with diverse participants, aim for the highest levels of cultural competence, and have an increased sensitivity to diversity (Ford et al. 2008, pp. 88–89).

The purpose of the interview in qualitative research is to give “an informant the space to express meaning in his or her own words and to give direction to the interview process” (Brenner, 2006, p. 357). A semi-structured interview protocol will be utilized, which has the benefit of allowing the researcher to work from a prescribed list of questions but also frees him/her to ask follow-up questions based on participant responses (Brenner, 2008, p. 360).

Data was analyzed using a problem-solution approach. The problem-solution approach was applied to the current research because it offers a “linear approach [which leads] to a logical sequence of events for the story ... a sequence that flows from characters, setting, and problems first, followed by actions or events, and finally a resolution” (Ollerenshaw & Creswell, 2002, p. 343). This approach provides a clear and linear format to tell the stories of the participants, which can be easily accessed (or even translated).

Validating is the process of ensuring that data are accurate, through the process of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2008, p. 259). Qualitative researchers must ensure that their work achieves standards of accuracy and trustworthiness to be considered valid (Creswell, 2008, p. 259). When working with cross-cultural qualitative data, Ford et al. (2008, p. 86) state two methods to overcome bias: reliability checks and member -checking. In the current study, some limitations were apparent, with regard to the use of reliability checking and member checking. Conducting research in a location far from the university meant that I conducted my research largely in isolation. I did attempt to employ member checking; however, I received very limited feedback from participants. This presents a limitation of the study.

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to describe the lived experiences of four aspiring vice-principals in the first cohort of trainees to complete a leadership certification program offered by ADEC. Four participants (Hessa, Khawla, Mariam, and Fatima) were interviewed and data were analyzed using narrative analysis, with a problem/solution approach, as defined by Ollrenshaw and Creswell. This process resulted in the identification of themes. Some of the themes which emerged were: Character and background; experiences as a student; pathway

to teaching; experience as a teacher; prior experiences with school leaders; master's degree programs and prior professional development; beliefs about leadership; appointment as a VP; experience in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program (participants, content and tasks, timing, positive and negative aspects of the program, suggestions); current role (daily life, problems faced, Electronic Student Information System, community, collaboration with peers, future aspirations); and suggestions for future programs.

Background and Character

All of the women in the group were hand-selected by ADEC leadership and underwent a rigorous interview process. Shared qualifications included more than five years of successful teaching experience, a high degree of English proficiency, and a master's degree. The perception of rigor in the interview process contributed to a high degree of status affiliation within the program. Hessa summarized this feeling, stating, "We are the new Vice-principals that Dr. Mugheer had chosen, according to high criteria." The women in the study generally identified themselves as being capable and highly qualified. Khawla said, "I always wanted to ... be there somewhere to make decisions, to let people know okay you can do it this way. I am very good at that, designing." Hessa focused on the strength she found from a difficult upbringing, stating: "Maybe I was a leader before that [program]. I have been by myself, I consider myself raising myself by myself, and nobody raised me. ... So I am an independent person ... When [I] face a problem I have to solve it."

Despite their high degree of confidence and status from being in the program, several of the participants referenced the difficulty of becoming an educational leader after experiencing rote, traditional schooling and authoritarian leadership role models.

Experiences as a Student and as a Teacher

All of the participants attended government schools in Abu Dhabi and all echoed the sentiment of Mariam, who said, "My education ... was a kind of traditional teaching so it was based on memorizing the text books, only the text book. ... just memorizing, memorizing, memorizing. ... There was no enjoyment... It was boring; it was boring."

Three out of four participants shared that they had a complete lack of interest in entering the education field, initially. Only one participant attributed her career choice to personal agency. Fatima said, "I became a teacher to be honest, something... it's related to our culture because our family has always direct us to become teachers because they think we will work in a safe place with all females, yes, so this is only, was the reason in that time."

Despite their initial reluctance to join the profession, all three women described themselves as dedicated teachers. The one participant who joined teaching out of a personal desire to do so, Mariam, described her early feelings about teaching stating, "When I was little I gathered my brothers and my sisters and our neighbors and I teach them [...] I like to teach how to write and read. I loved the core of teaching, I loved that."

Three out of four participants referenced experiencing very traditional school leaders, as teachers. Hessa and Khawla echoed statements made by Fatima, who said that as a teacher, she had "no interaction with administration unless we have meeting, unless we have something that we have to hand it to them.... But working with them as a member of their team, no I didn't have the chance to do that." Only Mariam described teaching in a school with a more distributed leadership style.

Three of four participants expressed a lack of understanding about ADEC reforms and the New School model, before entering the leadership development program. Khawla, who was also a Cycle 2 teacher, said, "I had no clue about ... the New School model ... it was the traditional way of teaching, of teaching and the administration." Despite the authoritarian leadership faced by the participants and a lack of specific knowledge about NSM by most, they all identified themselves as leaders within their classroom and expressed pride in their use of updated educational techniques.

All four participants participated in the PPP program, as teachers. Fatima said, "Already I had this information [from PD during the PPP program] ... I know all these theories but I need them to help me in applying these theories in my classrooms so I had a lot of concerns during that time." Both Khawla and Hessa had strong negative feelings about the PPP program. Expressing great frustration, Hessa said:

They used to force us to teach certain materials while these materials were not proper for the age that I used to teach.... They demoted my evaluation and they tried to press on me a lot and I was about to quit teaching. ... I am against [those companies] totally.

Three of the four participants undertook master's degree programs to prepare them as educational leaders and they all expressed satisfaction with the rigor of their master's programs and pride in their accomplishments. The idea of trying to be a pioneer as an educational leader in a landscape rife with authoritarian and traditional methods, was a common theme for participants.

The [XXXX] Professional Development Program

The initial intensive program took place over a six-week period, with full-day meetings twice per week. Additional planned activities included six months of practical follow-up activities, on-site mentoring, and a trip to the U.S. to visit a major university and conduct school site observations. However, additional planned follow-up activities did not occur during participants' first full year as VPs, due to staff changes and other factors. All of the participants except Fatima expressed some degree of trepidation before beginning the course. Khawla summarized this feeling, stating, "We said when we came into the program, what are they going to teach us? What are they going to tell us? We know nothing about being a principal." Hessa and Mariam both lauded the organization of the program. Mariam described the program thusly:

The program took place [at the college] in Abu Dhabi. The presenters or our lecturers were experienced people from ADEC, two of them I think they were cluster managers [...] They consider the [five] elements [of the ADEC Principal's Leadership Standards [Leading People, Leading the Community, Leading Organizations, Leading Strategically [and] Leading Teaching and Learning] ... So we discussed each one, each element it has five tasks and most of them are written tasks. We went home and read it and it was about answering a lot of questions. Those questions are really deep questions, we need to go and investigate and ask so you can't find the answers in books or find the answers on the internet.

Several program participants remarked about the utility of the tasks that were assigned, such as Hessa, who said, "They give us tasks to investigate in our school which is, I told you this was the most marvelous thing happened that time."

Because the tasks required follow-up by participants at their schools, the level of support provided by their principals affected their ability to complete the tasks successfully. Although some participants, such as Mariam, reported that her principal was pleased by her curiosity, others had a more negative response. Fatima said, "You know maybe they [future VP program participants] can ask their principal and vice-principal questions, but sometimes I tried before. When you ask, they will not answer. They won't give you the right answer, you know."

Participants' reactions to the tasks varied with regard to their feelings about the depth of the tasks. Mariam believed, "They were really deep deep questions. I reflect and ask experienced people. ... So, really we discovered a lot of things, a lot of hidden things in our field." However, Khawla said, "I wish the program was much deeper ... the tasks that we were given, they were very good I think. ... But maybe they need to work on it to make it better."

Participants also had mixed reactions to the practical utility of the tasks. Hessa stated that the program "opened my eyes to see things that I did not know about in the administration." However, Fatima felt some frustration, stating, "If you have theories without implement... there is no use for reading or studying about this theory if you are not going to apply it." She believed that the program "was like lecturing, working, and discussing things in theory. It is not like hands-on activities, something like I will do it actually in the school." However, she conceded, "We found some information about different things that we didn't know about it before as teachers."

In addition to the tasks, other components of the program included guest speakers, a trip to visit a local government school, lectures, and discussions. Mariam stated:

The most useful thing [was] our visit ... to one of the new schools in Abu Dhabi ... the vice-principal there [presented] her experience as a VP in one of their new schools. She told us a lot of secrets, a lot of things. So—and don't be shocked of this; don't be surprised of this. That was really helpful.

Mariam also described a visit from a female Emirati Cluster Manager, stating that she was a “model from the field to our class.” Two participants, Mariam and Khawla, explicitly referenced the opportunity to express themselves as an empowering element of the program. Khawla said:

I found myself in this program, really ... I never had the opportunity to be allowed to talk, only in like, in [my] master’s [degree program] ... to be addressed, you know, recognized I think I just found myself there. I found that I have abilities there because these people they encourage a lot.

All four participants referenced discussions and collaboration as essential to the success of the program, as exemplified by a statement from Hessa, who said, “We were discussing all the time, calling each other, trying to solve things, ... Alhamdulillah we managed and it was not that difficult, it was proper and achievable, we can do it.”

Although the program lasted for only a few weeks, participants referenced its structure and content as providing them with a great deal of benefit.

Hessa, Fatima, and Mariam all believed the program was highly contextualized and appropriate to the culture; however, Khawla suggested that further attention to contextualization would strengthen the program. Hessa said that the program “contained everything which ADEC represents. It’s nothing from outside or not linked to our culture, it represents ADEC ... really it was suitable.” Fatima concurred, stating, “We were very lucky to work with... [these] teachers, or doctors these people, yes. ... They know exactly what we will go through when we become vice-principal.” Mariam said:

They [the program leaders] considered our identity, they considered our culture, everything, everything. Even when we welcome some males, some lecturers, they respect everything. Even, I am wearing Niqab [a face-covering veil] outside and they respect everything.... They know, I think they know about our culture and understand everything.”

However, Khawla offered some advice for ensuring that program materials are appropriately adjusted to the culture:

Okay, I understand that the person who put this program maybe he is Westerner but maybe there are not like people, professional people in that field like Emirati. I feel that some people want to Westernize things so in order to put our cultural aspect in it it’s like a challenge or difficult. ... I think the program should be put by or reviewed by people who understand the culture and think how it can be more applicable, can be more effective when it is applied in our system.

Overall, most participants believed that it would be better to change the timing of the program and release the teachers from teaching duties before the commencement of the program. Despite some suggestions for improvement, most participants expressed generally positive feelings toward the program, especially concerning the knowledge and dedication of the program faculty.

Upon completion of the six-week program, the participants presented a showcase event to Dr. Mugheer and to other dignitaries from ADEC. During the ceremony, Khawla told Dr. Mugheer Al Khaili, Director General of ADEC, “thank you for that [program], because you gave us an opportunity. It is like empowering women.” After her first year as a vice-principal, Khawla reflected on her statements to Dr. Mugheer after the initial intensive program; she said:

We realize that we learned ... the theoretical part of it but in practice it would be different, we realized that. But it was so different, so harsh, but I think this is life. It is not as like what is in the book, you read the book okay but when you go into the reality it is something different, different.

Experience as a First-year Vice-principal—Hessa

Hessa and Khawla both experienced a unique difficulty in their initial experience as vice-principals because they were assigned to schools that were not yet built, with principals who had not yet arrived from overseas. Hessa described her situation, stating, “The difficulty, the difficult thing was when we graduated we thought that

we will be in schools which are already prepared. [We faced a] difficult situation to build a school from nothing. It shouldn't be like that." When she was initially hired for her position, she found "the building is not finished, no staff, nothing and I am, I have to collect the children from two schools and I have to build the school and I am the only employee in the school." She described her responsibilities:

I have to check the building with the engineers so I run like a crazy person between four places. Collecting. Solving problems. Fighting with the principals who they distributed my staff between schools and I have to collect them back. [...] They hired the new AMTs who came from private schools and they are Egyptians and other, Arabic ex-pats. And they do not know anything about ADEC's new model schools. Nothing, modern schools sorry, nothing, and I have to do all of that to establish the school from zero.

However, despite her unsteady beginning, Hessa said that she was "laughing all the time. It did not break me. Really, I was amazed. I thought that I am dreaming [...] I started to laugh and Alhamdulillah, it did not affect me. I was okay." Once her principal arrived, Hessa found a partner and advocate as they worked together to open the school.

Hessa described her major frustrations with her current role, stating, "I want to do my role as a vice-principal and it can be done but because of [registration and other online record-keeping] it is very hard." She said that this issue keeps her from practicing her "role in that area—in the academic... And I am sorry for that. If it's to me I would be with the teachers, with the children and everything but I am not involved, that much with them. I'm trying but I can't."

Just before the vice-principals entered their schools, Dr. Paul retired and the [XXXX] Professional Development Program was suspended. Hessa was particularly disappointed by the lack of follow-up from the program. She said she hoped to "Go to America, to London to take those courses ... about leadership. ... And I think these are... will make a difference." Goals for Hessa include becoming more involved with the academic aspects of KG, and working more with the teachers.

Hessa identified her relationship with her principal as a strength in her current situation, stating, "If you ask me to [about being] professional yes I've learned a lot from Gina. She helped me with... to understand things—academic things," concluding "I have a wonderful principal here that helps me a lot, She helps me a lot. So I am Alhamdulillah... content."

Experience as a First-year Vice-principal—Khawla

Khawla faced a similar situation to Hessa; she was assigned to a school building which was not yet finished being built. She was assigned several classrooms in "another KG, which was built in the 70s, and the system is... people with old traditional mentalities although they are doing the New School model." She described her initial situation as a "school within a school," which she managed with the help of a HoF-E. Khawla "had my desk, I had the HoF, I had my teachers, I had to manage them, I was responsible for their attendance, everything, and we didn't know who is our principal." With the help of the HoF, Khawla began to learn about KG; she said, "KG is a different world for me. I was in Cycle 2, and ... it was different. It was like a totally different world for me."

Khawla's relationship with the rest of the school leadership team, after her new principal arrived, was sometimes a source of frustration and difficulty for her, although she consistently expressed admiration for both the HoF-E and her principal. By the end of the school year, Khawla said that she was "Now working with my Principal and she is very knowledgeable, she knows but she can be like, my way or the highway. But she is knowledgeable and [...] I learned a lot of things from her." In addition to building her relationship with the rest of the school leadership team, Khawla enhanced her content knowledge. She said, "Alhamdulillah, I am very good now, in KG curriculum."

Khawla, who expressed a high degree of satisfaction with the support provided in the initial portion of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, felt abandoned when that support was withdrawn. She said, "They told us there would be an induction program for us but when we graduated, they just, they forgot about us ... graduation and then *ma salama* [good-bye]. ... they neglected us." In the difficult situation she faced as a new vice-principal, she felt that ADEC had a responsibility to her, asking, "Okay what did you do for this leader as a support?" She went on to say, "We need to have mentors. Yes, who come and tell us this is right, this is wrong." She said, "There should be a follow up from ADEC with their principals and telling them that these people are the leaders in the future, you will need to do whatever is necessary to help these people."

Khawla takes pride in her accomplishments in her first year, particularly breaking negative stereotypes about Emirati leaders. She says many people think Emirati leaders “don’t want to learn, they don’t want to do, they just come here and I think I broke that, that image that they have put us there.” She described a conversation with a teacher that made her feel proud, stating that the teacher, a local, “told me I am really proud of you. She said, like we have an Emirati and who is dedicated, who is a good leader, who tries and learns and who is very active. I think... she really made me happy.”

Experience as a First-year Vice-principal—Fatima

Fatima faced very different challenges than Hessa and Khawla. However, out of all of the participants, she exhibited the highest degree of frustration with what she perceived as her lack of preparation for the difficulties of being a first-year vice-principal and with a lack of ongoing support. She appeared to face a very resistant teaching faculty and seemed to lack support from some other members of her school leadership team. Fatima described her induction into the school:

In my case I came here, I didn’t meet with the [previous] vice-principal. I came here, she was resigned from this work, I just spent few hours with her, she was working with the schedule, she print it out and she gave it to me and she said bye, see you, okay. So imagine that. I was here in her office alone and my principal also she’s a new principal [to this school] ... and then I was in her office with all files for last year and I don’t know what to do, I have no one to tell me, I have no one to tell me this is your role, you have to do this and that.

This reality seemed to conflict with the perception of her new role; she said, “For example, they [other teachers?] told us, ‘Ah you are vice-principal now. You are relaxing now, don’t have much work like teachers,’ but it is the opposite.” Fatima “was alone for one whole semester, the only vice-principal in this school. So I was doing almost everything, academic and student service.” Like the other vice-principals, Fatima also described ESIS and community relationships as an ongoing issue. Additionally, she spoke frankly and consistently about the challenges she faced at her school site concerning teacher absenteeism, refusal to cover classes, resistance to professional development, attendance taking, and duty coverage.

Fatima expressed a high level of frustration, stating, “Sometimes people ... don’t accept that you are new you are fresh, you have no experience at all about this job ... and in the meantime you are in charge of taking care of the whole school and you are new and you are alone.”

She described specific details of information, which she wished she had known before starting work, such as, “which files do I have to keep in my office? ... I don’t know how to write a report to my principal about particular things. This stuff we need to train people to do it before they join the workforce.” She went on to describe her lack of preparation concerning, “SIP, budgeting, the budget of this school and the maintenance of the school, it is really, you have like security that will have contract, cleaners, the companies, canteen, these... all stuff... I have no idea how to run this stuff.”

She summed up her feelings, stating that she would like to “focus more on the students’ learning, you know, and the students themselves. But until now, I am far away from them because I am busy with other stuff that maybe I should learn from the beginning, before I started my real job.”

Fatima was realistic about change, stating, “As a leader, you will not make the change by yourself. It depends on other people. ...I don’t want [teachers] to follow me just because I am their vice-principal. ... They have to believe about the change, change their mentality, change their way of thinking.” She hopes to inspire positive change at her school, ensuring a better education for all students; she believes, “a real teacher, they will not leave any students in the classroom without help, they will try, they will kill themselves to help the students. To improve.” Despite the difficulties she faced, Fatima described herself as a change agent and expressed her commitment to her work as a divine calling, stating, “It is my destiny I think. It is from God. He puts me in this position and this place to do something useful I think, yes.”

Experience as a First-year Vice-principal—Mariam

Like the other vice-principals, Mariam faced a difficult start at the beginning of the school year. She was placed in an old Cycle 1 boys’ school, which was feminized (staffed with female teachers and administrators). She described the reception the female staff received from the community, stating that feminization was “really

a shock for [this] community.” Many parents reacted angrily, believing “we are not trustworthy... some of them [were] shouting, ‘Why are women here? Women are not strong; they cannot control the boys.’”

Feminization meant not only a transition for the community but also that every single teacher and school leader was new to the school. This issue was exacerbated by the fact that the principal arrived in November, after the school began. Mariam described some of the challenges she faced:

The most difficult challenge was really the school system, the school rules, to put everything in its place, even with the teachers, even with the children because most of them were new teachers, new teachers even for the EMTs and AMTs. I was lucky to have English HoF but I did not have Arabic HoF, so I was with them, was working with them so everything was new so I was running here, there and there.

Like Hessa, Mariam and her principal seemed to function well together; she said, “We are fine. She’s [the principal] with us now and we are fine.” Similar to Fatima, Mariam reported resistance from teachers as a problem but one that she believed that she was addressing successfully. She said, “I will not again go outside and say I’ve had teacher resistance. Why do they resist? Because they are not satisfied about something. Fix it in the school, that thing, and they will be satisfied and you will see the wonderful performance from them. It is not a challenge.”

The idea of caring was a consistent theme in Mariam’s discussion of her own role. She said, “Actually being responsible in our field [means] that you really care, so responsible mean caring, caring, so you care for those kids.” Mariam described the children at her school as “really lucky because they have that New School model. ... They are playing, enjoying their time, projects... They early learn how to be responsible and they learn how to be self-confident.”

Despite her generally positive comments about her school, Mariam described some negative consequences in her personal life because of her increased commitments as a vice-principal. She described her feelings, stating, “Only one word, really I felt alone [...] ...Really I miss my friends, I miss the teachers’ life, the teacher’s lounge I miss that life.” She also described feeling isolated from her family because of the burden of taking work home, stating, “I can’t concentrate [around the family], I have to stay alone. So that’s no life.” However, she appeared to see this as a temporary situation, saying, “I miss a lot of things I know, but I enjoy it Sarah, maybe it is the first year. I will say I don’t know.”

Mariam described a great deal of hard work and effort undertaken in concert with her principal over the course of the year to build a school community and to connect with parents. By the end of the year, she said that the parents, many of whom were very angry or upset at the beginning of the year, “are fine. ... Most of them [now say] Alhamdulillah, thank god that we have mothers for our children. We have mothers, and we need mothers.”

Electronic Student Information System (ESIS)

All of the program participants who were interviewed referenced the student information system (ESIS) as a major part of their job responsibilities. Their comments indicated that this system was extremely cumbersome and several participants expressed frustration regarding the drain on their time and energy, which they believed was a result of their responsibilities with ESIS. Fatima summarized the tone of the group’s feelings about ESIS, saying, “ESIS, oh my god it’s a whole different story. ESIS, they have to train new vice-principals how to deal with ESIS.”

Khawla, Mariam, and Fatima all indicated that ESIS interfered significantly with their family life. Hessa and Khawla both indicated that they were unable to engage fully with the academic aspects of their job because of ESIS. Khawla said, “I have to be in the classrooms, not here, sitting on the desk!” Fatima expressed a high degree of frustration with the system and with the lack of training. She said, “There’s no time that you will take your time to learn, no, you have to do it, find a way to learn about it and just finish with it. They will not give you a time.” Mariam said, simply, “You know, Sarah, most of our work now [is] in ESIS.” Program participants uniformly expressed a high degree of frustration with ESIS, which they perceived to be an inefficient and time-consuming system for which they had received inadequate training.

Community Relationships

Another issue, which was a major theme across all of the interviews, was a lack of support from ADEC for building and maintaining positive community relationships. It is possible that one of the limitations of the

study—the fact that three of four participants were in a similar geographic area—amplified this issue; however, it was addressed in detail by all program participants. ADEC initiatives, such as feminization, the introduction of co-education in Cycle 1, and inclusion for students with special needs were cited by participants as areas in which they needed additional support. All of the program participants expressed a high degree of commitment to the idea that parent involvement is essential to student success. Mariam said, “If we are looking for high outcomes from the students we need their parents’ support so they need to know about the New School Model to support us with it.”

Fatima stated that in her experience, most parents believe, “teaching is the school responsibility, it is not our responsibility.... [Parents think] we take care of his health, his food, clothes you know but not education part, it’s the school responsibility.” However, Hessa believed that ADEC shares responsibility for not building relationships with parents. She asked, “Why do we ask [parents] to participate when it is suiting us? And when it is something really concerns their children like [mixing the genders in Cycle 1] we do not need their opinion, we just force it.” She suggested “ADEC—they should consider the parents’ opinion, to listen to all of their concerns, [and] come up with a solution in the middle.” Khawla provided some suggestions for improvement, such as “having a TV, like a channel that is only for ADEC that talks about accomplishments, ... like a newsletter which can be, which goes with the newspaper, like it can be monthly for example. Which about, like our vision, what are the things we are aiming for.”

Mariam said, “the problem [is] that we need ADEC’s support or we need ADEC to help us with the community. So it is the culture. A lot of things, we need to change but it is the culture. ... So I think we need ADEC to support us with the community.” Despite many challenges, Khawla stated, “I think what we have accomplished in ADEC is phenomenal and in a very short time... It has to do with having good leaders actually ... who believe in this program, who believe that the change can happen with the resistance.” All of the program participants expressed a strong belief in the work ADEC is doing and in the importance of parent and community support in enhancing student achievement; they expressed a desire to have more support from ADEC in order to support these essential relationships effectively.

Suggestions for Program Improvement

The program participants offered several specific suggestions for improving the program in the future, including: more practical information, mentorships, internships, communications skills, and guest speakers. In particular, Fatima hoped that future programs would concentrate more on practical issues, such as SIP, budgeting, maintenance, security, safety, and ESIS.

Several participants mentioned site visits and internships as a way to make the training more connected to practice. Hessa suggested that it would be good, “If they involved us more in the administration to go there and to stay with some people and to work with them for like, for a period of time to see what they are doing, to get experience.” An internship, Fatima said, would provide scaffolding for future vice-principals; she said, “Let them work or stay in a school for few months ... as a trainee. ... You are responsible and learning at the same time, it is really difficult. Give them time to train and learn and then put them in a real situation.”

Communication, which several participants referenced as an area for their own growth, was also an area in which more training might be helpful. Fatima said, “Yes, you need to be able to communicate with different mentality [...] so it depends on the people, that you are communicating with.”

Mariam suggested including more guest speakers, including “Western principals...who face really the challenges here and we would like to hear from them ... and even the successful Emirati principals. ...they have wonderful practices in their schools, so we want to know those practices.”

Mentorships were another suggestion from some of the participants. Khawla said it would be helpful to have “someone who mentors you like once a week comes to see you and you feel that he’s like a critical friend, a coach, like a life coach or someone professional who can help you without judging you then you will feel very comfortable and you will benefit a lot.” Mariam also hoped to avail herself of future training and mentorship opportunities; she suggested that she would benefit from further training in leading people and leading strategically, although she said, “Just tell me and I will do it. So, I went to learn, about myself, so what can I do more, just to be a good leader or better leader.”

All four participants interviewed indicated that a strong network had emerged, which was a source of information and support. Mariam described her experience:

From that day [at the beginning of the program] I established my network. ... Sometimes we share a lot of our problems, our issues, our concerns.... I can say it is network—a strong network, really a strong network and it is really starting to be bigger and bigger, [from Al Ain] to Abu Dhabi zone and ADEC and even sometimes in the West region.

Khawla wished for greater opportunities to network, saying, "I wish if we could be able to network better with others so they can help us. It helped a lot. ...Networking is one of those things that really helps."

Summary of Findings

Research question one is "What are the perceptions of members of the cohort group of candidates for the vice-principalship who are involved in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, regarding the effectiveness of the program?" Findings indicate that all four program participants interviewed believed that the program increased their preparedness to address the rigors of the first year of the vice-principalship. However, participants identified a large gap between the theoretical knowledge imparted in the program and the often-harsh realities they faced as vice-principals. Additionally, the gap in programming mid-year was perceived by some participants as an abandonment of ADEC's responsibility to support them. Particular areas in which much more training was needed include: ESIS/online registration, curriculum (for those assigned outside of their teaching cycle/area), school management (e.g., duty schedule, substitutes, budget, busses), parent/community engagement, and communication. Aspects of the training that were perceived to be most helpful were; guest speakers; the practical tasks that participants completed at the schools; caring, encouraging, and nurturing relationships with program leaders/teachers; and the opportunity to form a caring and collaborative network with their peers. Although the program participants faced many challenges in their first year as vice-principals, they all exhibited a high degree of personal belief in their ability to enact positive change, in order to support student achievement and ADEC reform efforts.

Concerning sub-question one, "What are participants' perceptions about the cultural appropriateness of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program?" all of the program participants indicated that the training was culturally appropriate and contextualized. One participant, Khawla, suggested that further contextualization (e.g., a review from an informed Emirati national or small committee) would strengthen the material further. She cited one incident when the material seemed "so, not to UAE context," stating, "I think the program is very good ... just not to bring like a ready-made experience and put it here." The remaining three participants were adamant in their belief that the material was appropriately contextualized. Several participants lauded the program leaders for their attention to cultural appropriateness and efficacy. Mariam said, "They [the program leaders] considered our identity, they considered our culture, everything, everything.... They know, I think they know about our culture and understand everything."

Concerning sub-question two, "What are participants' perceptions about the relevance of the information presented in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, as it relates to their experience in the UAE context?" the participants generally indicated their belief that the training was helpful to them in preparing to become vice-principals; however, the degree to which each participant truly struggled through the first trimester indicates that beyond information, they needed a much greater degree of mentorship and support in order to be successful. Participants indicated that an internship before placement, ongoing mentoring and coaching, more practical information, and communication training would benefit future trainees.

CONCLUSION

It is clear that the development of future leaders in ADEC is an essential component of ADEC's vision and mission and accords with national priorities, in terms of Emiratization. After a review of the literature and interviews with four participants in this program, it is my conclusion that several important areas should be taken into consideration by future program designers. These are: participants' educational background, leadership role models, reality in ADEC schools, and some gender issues (particularly as they relate to the decision to join the teaching profession). Additionally, the participants voiced the need for much more support for ADEC's electronic systems (such as ESIS) and for communicating with the community.

Program participants had many similarities in terms of their background. Program designers may want to consider these background characteristics specifically when designing program activities, particularly with regard to supporting participants with moving beyond the rote pedagogy and poor leadership role models that all of the interviewees referenced having experienced. Khawla explicitly referenced the temptation for Emirati teachers to "get back to the way their teachers taught us and we were taught in a very traditional way." Poor role models are not unique to the Emirati context; Buskey and Topolka-Jorissen outlined the danger of new leaders "emulating" poor role models in their work in the U.S. (Buskey & Topolka-Jorissen, 2010, p. 115). However, all of the program participants referenced having experienced almost exclusively rote traditional teaching and authoritarian leadership. This may be a shared history, which provides context to program designers. Additionally, leading teachers who have experienced this type of teaching may require a unique skill set.

Although only one program participant said that she believed the program would benefit from more contextualization, the disconnection between theory and the reality faced by practitioners in ADEC schools was a consistent theme, both in the literature review and as voiced by participants. After the [XXXX] Professional Development Program showcase, Khawla said that she knew “the theoretical part of it but in practice it would be different, we realized that. But it was so different, so harsh...” Again, a disconnection between theory and reality in education is not unique to this context; however, the degree to which this issue was raised both in the literature and by participants suggests that this issue may warrant further consideration by program designers.

Much further study is warranted to assess the contextualized needs of female leadership candidates in the UAE context. Three of four program participants interviewed indicated that family pressure played an essential role in their decision to enter education. Hessa indicated that as a vice-principal, who needs to work with men from ADEC as a part of her role, she needed to learn “to face the men...you have to be firm, when you say no which means no. If they are willing to negotiate you have to convince them but... with etiquette which suits the culture.” Further study is needed to determine what type of communication training may be necessary, if any, to support female leadership training fully. Fatima indicated her belief that societal pressure for women to become teachers is a detriment to the profession. She asks, “So who are responsible about [students’ low performance]? People. In my opinion, teachers.” She continues, stating, “When you do something you really like and you really feel that you can give the best that you can, you will do it in a fabulous way, in a good way.” Leading teachers in this context may require contextualized training; further study is needed concerning this contextual issue.

As a researcher, there is a natural desire to find an “aha” moment, a “so-what” that will change the world, even just a little. In narrative research, this moment is elusive. It is hoped that the power of the work is in the journey itself, in the participants’ words, which the researcher attempts to capture and record as faithfully as possible. As a program leader myself, my conclusion is that I need to spend more time listening and engaging with local educators and leaders; I hope that others will learn from my experience and spend more time listening to the educators we serve.

Recommendations for Program Leaders

- 1) All participants, either implicitly or explicitly, indicated their belief that the program was helpful and should be continued; however, several potential program modifications were suggested.
- 2) Training should be revised to prepare more specifically aspiring leaders for the reality they will face in schools and should include an increased focus on day-to-day school operations.
- 3) The follow-up phase of the program is critical; ongoing support needs to be built not only into this program but also into a continuum of services for aspiring leaders. No leadership training should be provided in isolation; all programs should be aligned carefully to ensure scaffolded support throughout the future leaders’ careers.
- 4) Leaders should have access to training and follow-up particularly concerning practical needs (e.g., registration, ESIS, scheduling, budgeting, time management, report writing) in addition to ongoing leadership training.
- 5) Aspiring leaders should be paired with a mentor as a part of a structured mentoring program. Training should be provided to both the mentor and the mentee, in addition to ongoing follow-up to gauge the effectiveness of the relationship.
- 6) Aspiring leaders should be provided with the opportunity to see successful schools in action. This could involve trips inside of the UAE to visit successful schools, both government and private, and to schools outside of the country.
- 7) Specific communication supports and training should be provided to aspiring leaders. Aspiring leaders should be provided with training and support materials to ensure their ability to communicate effectively with stakeholder groups, including ADEC personnel, teachers, students, and parents. This training may need to address specific contextual issues.
- 8) Training cohorts should be kept intact.
- 9) Networking activities between and among both aspiring leaders and current leaders (particularly nationals of the same gender) should be fostered and encouraged.
- 10) The continuum of services for aspiring leaders should be tailored to meet the unique needs and goals of the trainees and should allow them to access high-quality research-based leadership programming that is contextualized to the UAE.
- 11) ADEC Professional Development division should conduct periodic and systematic program evaluations (including both qualitative and quantitative measures) to ensure that leadership development programs meet the needs of the participants and the organization.

Recommendations for Future Study

The field of study in leadership development throughout the world is narrow; in the UAE context, it is non-existent. Every facet of education in this context would benefit from far greater study. Some specific issues raised in this work include:

- why teachers enter teaching and what effects this has on their career development;
- the relationship between university teacher preparation programs and the reality in government schools;
- the relationship between university leadership preparation programs and the reality in government schools;
- the unique issues faced by female leaders in the UAE context in the workplace;
- family/work balance, particularly for female leaders in this context;
- parents' perspectives on current school reform efforts
- the role of the parent in supporting learning in this context;
- the effectiveness of various professional development programs and initiatives (program evaluation);
- pathways to leadership (Who becomes a leader? Why? How?); and
- relationships between and among Arabic-speaking and English-speaking school faculties.

APPENDIX

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. In your current role, what are your major job responsibilities?
2. What professional development programs have you taken in the past?
 - Were these programs helpful to you? Why or why not?
3. What qualities do you believe are necessary for future leaders in ADEC? Why?
4. Why did you want to join the [XXXX] program?
5. If I was an aspiring VP and I wanted to take part in this program, how would you describe the program to me? Please describe the program in detail (location, times, participants, etc.).
6. What aspects of the program have been the most and/or least helpful to you?
7. Sometimes, Emirati participants in PD programs find that some aspects of the training are not consistent with the UAE culture. Please describe any aspects of the [XXXX] program that you found to be inconsistent with the UAE culture.
8. Please tell me about how your professional learning community with your colleagues in the course has developed during this program.
9. How have you developed as a leader throughout the [XXXX] program?
10. What are some of the specific challenges at your school?
11. How do you think the [XXXX] program has or will help you address these problems? What would you like to learn more about, in order to be an effective leader or teacher-leader at your school?
12. If you were speaking to the leadership at ADEC about developing future leadership development programs, what would you tell them?
13. Overall, please state your feelings about the [XXXX] program.
14. Please share any additional information that you think would be helpful.
15. In your opinion, what are the biggest problems facing education in Abu Dhabi right now?

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The ESP Students' and Instructors' Perceptions About Students' Learning Needs: An Explanatory Case Study

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify the learning needs of the students engaged in an ESP program offered by the Faculty of Fine Arts at one of the private universities in Istanbul, Turkey. A sample of fifty-nine students and sixteen instructors participated in this study. Data were obtained through a needs analysis questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The findings of the study revealed significant implications with respect to the design and implementation of the ESP program at the Faculty of Fine Arts.

Keywords. English for Specific Purposes, needs analysis, learning needs.

INTRODUCTION

In the twentieth century, developments in science and technology led to a world of international relations. Since communications among people all around the world, through different kinds of channels, are limitless, the English language is deemed to be meaningfully important in nearly every field of discipline (Williams and Burden, 1997; Freeman, 2000; Celce-Murcia, 2001; Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.6) indicate that after the end of the Second World War, the spread of developments in educational psychology have contributed to the growth of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) by giving emphasis to the central importance of the learners and to their learning attitudes. Learners' motivation to learn and the effectiveness of their learning are seen to be influenced by the various needs and interests they have.

Needs analysis is the primary step to be taken in the design and development of any educational program. According to Altschuld and Witkin (1995, p.20), needs analysis is "a set of systematic procedures pursued in order to establish priorities based on identified needs, and make decisions attempting improvement of a program and allocation of resources". Specifically, needs analysis includes activities that gather information for the development of a curriculum that meets the needs of a specific group of learners.

Needs analysis studies have mostly focused on identifying the learning needs of the students enrolled in language preparatory or undergraduate programs (Ekici, 2003; Mutlu, 2004; Özkanel, 2009). However, there has been little research on specifying the learning needs of the students engaged in a specific program which aims to provide them with instruction related to their field of study (Rahman, 2011). To fill this gap, the present study aims to identify the learning needs of the students and instructors engaged in an ESP program designed by the Faculty of Fine Arts at a private university in Istanbul, Turkey.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In order to identify the learning needs, fifty-nine (N=59) students and sixteen (N=16) instructors enrolled in the ESP program participated in the study. Convenient sampling was used to regulate the participants because of the time constraints and availability.

Data were collected through a needs analysis questionnaire and a semi-structured interview administered to the two groups of participants. A combination of qualitative and quantitative strategies was used for data analysis to ensure internal validity.

This study employs a case study as a research design. Since the main purpose of this study is to obtain detailed information in order to evaluate an ESP program in a specific setting, a descriptive case study was

chosen as a research design defined as “an intervention or phenomenon and the real-life context in which it occurred” (Yin, 2003, p.4).

Data Collection Instruments

For the purposes of this study, the data came from a needs analysis questionnaire and a semi-structured interview given to the students and instructors about their perceptions referring to students’ learning needs.

The needs analysis questionnaire given to the students and instructors about the perceptions of the students’ learning needs

The needs analysis questionnaire was given to both the students and instructors enrolled in the ESP program offered by the Faculty of Fine Arts. The questionnaire was adapted from a study conducted by Ekici (2003), which aimed to identify the learning and target needs of the Tour Guidance students in one of the most prestigious universities in Turkey. Specifically, phrases and words that were related to tour guidance department (e.g. speaking in tour operations, reading itineraries, writing tour commentaries) were extracted from the questionnaire.

The questionnaire contained three parts. The first part was designed to identify the learning needs of the students in terms of the four language skills. There were forty-five (45) items in total. Twelve (12) of the items were related to speaking, ten (10) to listening, fifteen (15) to reading, and eight to writing. Each item in the scale was accompanied by a 4-point Likert scale ranging from ‘very important’ (A) to ‘unimportant’ (D).

In the second part, the instructors’ and students’ perceptions of the importance of the four main skills, namely speaking, listening, reading, and writing were examined. The questions mainly targeted two fundamental areas of knowledge: specialist knowledge and speaking. The participants were expected to rank the skills from 1 to 6 by their importance.

Finally, the third part consisted of an open-ended question on whether the students and instructors think that equal importance is given to the four language skills in the program. If not, they were asked to briefly explain the reasons.

Before the questionnaire was carried out, it was piloted with seven ESP students from different fields of the Fine Arts Faculty. Reliability estimates for the four language skills of learning needs were $\alpha=0.734$ for speaking, $\alpha=0.792$ for listening, $\alpha=0.831$ for reading, and $\alpha=0.729$ for writing. A high internal consistency of the items was found since the reliability estimate for the whole scale was $\alpha=0.902$ (Gliem and Gliem, 2003).

Semi-structured interview given to the students and instructors about the perceptions of the students’ learning

In an attempt to identify the students’ learning needs, a semi-structured interview was carried out with six ESP students and six instructors randomly selected by the researcher. The interview comprised six questions. The questions were prepared parallel to the items of the needs analysis questionnaire. The first question was about the perceptions of the students and instructors on the primary aim of the ESP program. Then, both groups were asked to rank the four main skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) and specialist vocabulary and grammar from “1 (most important)” to “6 (least important)”. The third question was related to the most effective strategies to be emphasized in ESP courses to improve the students’ performance in the four skills. This question was divided into the four main skills, namely speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The fourth question aimed at finding the most effective tasks in the instructors’ and students’ opinion to be emphasized in ESP courses in order to improve the students’ performance in the four skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing). The fifth question was about the opinions of the students and instructors on the major strengths and weaknesses of the program. Lastly, the participants were asked whether they had further comments on the program.

Data Analysis Procedure

The data gathered from the needs analysis questionnaire were tabulated and analyzed statistically using Statistical Package for Social Sciences 16.0 (SPSS). Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) were estimated to identify the perceptions of the students and instructors.

The data gathered were supported via semi-structured interviews carried out individually with the two groups of participants. According to Bogdan and Biklen’s (1998) framework, the interviews were first transcribed, and then by reading each participant’s transcripts, the conceptual themes were identified by the researcher according

to the recurring words and ideas. These conceptual categories were used to create a matrix of major themes, which were sorted under specific headings. Finally, the supporting quotes from each participant were listed and discussed under each heading.

RESULTS

The Results of the Needs Analysis Questionnaire

In this part, the needs analysis results related to the perceptions of the students and instructors about the students' learning needs are reported according to their performance in the four language skills namely, speaking, listening, reading and writing.

Perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of items referring to speaking skills as learning needs

This part presents the statistical analysis of the perceptions of the students and instructors considering the importance of speaking subskills referring to students' learning needs. Table 1. shows the descriptive statistics of the two groups in terms of the importance given to each item.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) of the importance given to the speaking subskills perceived as learning needs by students and instructors

Speaking subskills	Very Important		Important		Of Little Importance		Unimportant		M	SD	
	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %		Ss	Is
Asking questions	50.8	60.0	45.8	20.0	-	-	3.4	20.0	1.55	0.67	0.89
Answering questions	45.8	80.0	25.4	-	13.6	20.0	15.3	-	1.60	1.10	0.89
Expressing yourself	60.3	66.7	31.0	33.3	6.9	-	1.7	-	1.40	0.70	0.57
Summarizing	25.9	50.0	60.3	25.0	10.3	25.0	3.4	-	1.50	0.70	0.95
Describing	47.5	75.0	39.0	25.0	11.9	-	1.7	-	1.33	0.75	0.50
Comparing-contrasting	45.8	20.0	39.0	60.0	13.6	20.0	1.7	-	1.91	0.76	0.70
Solving problems	40.7	40.0	44.1	60.0	11.9	-	3.4	-	1.75	0.78	0.54
Reasoning	44.1	60.0	39.0	20.0	11.9	20.0	5.1	-	1.67	0.85	0.89
Making presentations	62.7	100	35.6	-	-	-	1.7	-	1.60	0.59	0.00
Criticizing	39.0	100	44.1	-	13.6	-	3.4	-	1.00	0.79	0.00
Reacting to speech and lecture	47.5	40.0	33.9	60.0	15.3	-	3.4	-	1.81	0.84	0.54
Wording quickly	44.1	40.0	42.4	20.0	8.5	20.0	5.1	20.0	1.74	0.82	1.30
									2.20		

Note: Ss=Students; Is=Instructors.

As shown in the table above, the range of the means of items for the importance of the speaking subskills was 1.40 – 1.98 for the students and 1.25 – 2.60 for the instructors. Specifically, the subskills perceived highly important (as a combination of very important and important) by the two groups were indicated as follows: making presentations (Ss=98.3%/Ts=100%), asking questions (Ss=96.6%/Ts=80%), expressing yourself (Ss=91.3%/Ts=100%), summarizing (Ss=86.2%/Ts=75%), describing (Ss=86.5%/Ts=100%), wording quickly (Ss=86.5%/Ts=60%), comparing-contrasting (Ss=84.8%/Ts=80%), solving problems (Ss=84.8%/Ts=100%), criticizing (Ss=83.1%/Ts=100%), reasoning (Ss=83.1%/Ts=80%), reacting to speech and lecture (Ss=81.4%/Ts=100%), and answering questions (Ss=71.2%/Ts=80%).

Perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of items referring to listening skills as learning needs

As for the importance of students' performance in listening subskills, both students and instructors expressed their positive feelings. Table 2. illustrates the descriptive statistics of students and instructors attaching importance to each item in listening subskills.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) of the importance given to the listening subskills perceived as learning needs by students and instructors

Listening subskills	Very Important		Important		Of Little Importance		Unimportant		M		SD	
	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss	Is	Ss	Is
Obtaining gist	37.3	100	52.5	-	5.1	-	5.1	-	1.77	1.00	0.76	0.00
Obtaining specific information	64.4	40.0	28.8	40.0	3.4	20.0	3.4	-	1.45	1.80	0.72	0.83
Listening for summarizing	52.5	60.0	30.5	40.0	11.9	-	5.1	-	1.69	1.40	0.87	0.54
Listening for taking notes	50.8	60.0	28.8	20.0	16.9	20.0	3.4	-	1.72	1.60	0.86	0.89
Recognizing language structure	54.2	40.0	32.2	40.0	11.9	20.0	1.7	-	1.61	1.80	0.76	0.83
Understanding complex sentences	62.7	60.0	18.6	40.0	13.6	-	5.1	-	1.61	1.40	0.91	0.54
Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words or word groups	42.4	60.0	45.8	40.0	10.2	-	1.7	-	1.71	1.40	0.72	0.54
Evaluating the importance of information	37.3	60.0	47.5	40.0	13.6	-	1.7	-	1.79	1.40	0.73	0.54
Extracting the information not explicitly stated	30.5	60.0	50.8	20.0	16.9	20.0	1.7	-	1.89	1.60	0.73	0.89
Recognizing speech organization patterns (lecture, announcement)	40.7	75.0	45.8	25.0	11.9	-	1.7	-	1.74	1.25	0.73	0.50

Note: Ss=Students; Is=Instructors.

According to the results of this table, the range of means of the listening subskills was 1.45–1.89 for the students and 1.40-2.80 for the instructors. The following listening subskills were perceived to be highly important (as a combination of very important and important) by the participants: obtaining specific information (Ss=93.2%/Ts=80%), obtaining gist (Ss=89.8%/Ts=100%), deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words or word groups (Ss=88.2%/Ts=100%), recognizing speech organization patterns (lecture, announcement) (Ss=86.5%/Ts=100%), recognizing language structure (Ss=86.4%/Ts=80%), evaluating the importance of information (Ss=84.8%/Ts=100%), listening for summarizing (Ss=83%/ Ts=100%), understanding complex sentences (Ss=81.3%/Ts=100%), extracting the information not explicitly stated (Ss=81.3%/Ts=80%), and listening for taking notes (Ss=79.6%/Ts=80%).

Perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of items referring to reading skills as learning needs

As for the perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of reading subskills referring to learning needs, Table 3. reports the related findings.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) of the importance given to the reading subskills perceived as learning needs by students and instructors

Reading subskills	Very Important		Important		Of Little Importance		Unimportant		M		SD	
	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss	Is	Ss	Is
Predicting	61.0	60.0	33.9	40.0	3.4	-	1.7	-	1.45	1.40	0.65	0.54
Scanning	42.4	60.0	47.5	40.0	6.8	-	3.4	-	1.71	1.40	0.74	0.54

Skimming	52.5	60.0	39.0	20.0	5.1	20.0	3.4	-	1.59	1.60	0.74	0.89
Reading intensively	44.1	80.0	40.7	20.0	11.9	-	3.4	-	1.74	1.20	0.80	0.44
Guessing the meaning of unknown words from context	66.1	60.0	25.4	40.0	6.8	-	1.7	-	1.44	1.40	0.70	0.54
Referencing (focusing on pronouns, numbers)	52.5	40.0	32.2	60.0	13.6	-	1.7	-	1.64	1.60	0.78	0.54
Analyzing	55.9	40.0	30.5	40.0	10.2	20.0	3.4	-	1.61	1.80	0.80	0.83
Synthesizing	49.2	60.0	32.2	20.0	15.3	20.0	3.4	-	1.72	1.60	0.84	0.89
Making inferences	37.3	60.0	45.8	20.0	15.3	20.0	1.7	-	1.81	1.60	0.75	0.89
Reading for note taking	35.6	40.0	45.8	40.0	15.3	20.0	3.4	-	1.86	1.80	0.79	0.83
Identifying main ideas	50.8	40.0	37.3	60.0	8.5	-	3.4	-	1.64	1.60	0.78	0.54
Paraphrasing	44.1	60.0	45.8	40.0	6.8	-	3.4	-	1.69	1.40	0.74	0.54
Summarizing	39.0	60.0	44.1	40.0	11.9	-	5.1	-	1.83	1.40	0.83	0.54
Transferring information	35.6	60.0	52.5	40.0	8.5	-	3.4	-	1.79	1.40	0.73	0.54
Responding critically	42.4	60.0	42.4	20.0	11.9	20.0	3.4	-	1.76	1.60	0.79	0.89

Note: Ss=Students; Is=Instructors.

The range of means for the students was 1.44-1.86 and 1.20-2.60 for the instructors. Specifically, the reading subskills rated to be important by both groups for the students' language development were: predicting (Ss=94.9%/Ts=100%), skimming (Ss=91.5%/ Ts=80%), guessing the meaning of unknown words from context (Ss=91.5%/Ts=100%), scanning (Ss=89.9%/Ts=100%), paraphrasing (Ss=89.9%/Ts=100%), identifying main ideas (Ss=88.1%/Ts=100%), transferring information (Ss=88.1%/ Ts=100%), analyzing (Ss=86.4%/Ts=80%), responding critically (Ss=84.8%/Ts=80%), reading intensively (Ss=84.8%/ Ts=100%), referencing (focusing on pronouns, numbers) (Ss=84.7%/Ts=100%), summarizing (Ss=83.1%/Ts=100%), making inferences (Ss=83.1%/Ts=80%), synthesizing (Ss=81.4%/Ts=80%), and reading for note taking (Ss=81.4%/ Ts=80%).

Perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of items referring to writing skills as learning needs

The perceptions of the students and instructors about the importance of the writing subskills referring to learning needs are shown in Table 4. below.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) of the importance given to the writing subskills perceived as learning needs by students and instructors

Writing subskills	Very Important		Important		Of Little Importance		Unimportant		M		SD	
	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss	Is	Ss	Is
Structuring sentences	39.0	80.0	49.2	20.0	10.2	-	1.7	-	1.74	1.20	0.70	0.44
Addressing topic	54.2	60.0	32.2	40.0	10.2	-	3.4	-	1.62	1.40	0.80	0.54
Developing ideas	45.8	60.0	44.1	20.0	8.5	20.0	1.7	-	1.66	1.60	0.70	0.89
Linking ideas	62.7	40.0	23.7	40.0	11.9	20.0	1.7	-	1.52	1.80	0.77	0.83
Organizing the product	37.3	60.0	54.2	40.0	6.8	-	1.7	-	1.72	1.40	0.66	0.54
Using appropriate vocabulary	50.8	60.0	37.3	20.0	11.9	20.0	-	-	1.61	1.60	0.69	0.89
Expressing your ideas clearly	44.1	60.0	49.2	40.0	5.1	-	1.7	-	1.64	1.40	0.66	0.54
Spelling correctly	45.8	60.0	35.6	20.0	15.3	20.0	3.4	-	1.76	1.60	0.83	0.89

Note: Ss=Students; Is=Instructors.

The range of means of items according to their importance with respect to the writing subskills was 1.52-1.79 for the students and 1.20-2.40 for the instructors. To put it simply, the importance was given to the items such as expressing ideas clearly (Ss=93.3%/Ts=100%), organizing the product (Ss=91.5%/Ts=100%), developing ideas (Ss=89.9%/Ts=80%), structuring sentences (Ss=88.2%/Ts=100%), using appropriate vocabulary (Ss=88.1%/Ts=80%), addressing the topic (Ss=86.4%/Ts=100%), linking ideas (Ss=86.4%/Ts=80%), and spelling correctly (Ss=81.4%/Ts=80%).

The Results of the Semi-Structured Interviews

The data obtained through the needs analysis questionnaire were supported by the semi-structured interviews conducted both with the ESP instructors and students. Specifically, the gathered data were mainly based on identifying the general aim of the ESP program and the perceptions of the participants related to the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) referring to students' learning needs.

The perceptions of the instructors and students related to the general aim of the ESP program

When the instructors and students were asked about the primary aim of the ESP program, both groups stated that it attempts to meet the students' specified needs by providing them with the necessary background knowledge to follow their undergraduate courses effectively. Specifically, the program is based on the students' reason for learning. In relation to this point, both groups made the following comments:

The primary aim of the ESP program is to meet the specified needs of the students by providing the necessary background knowledge to help students follow the undergraduate courses effectively. In short, the program is based on the students' 'reason for learning'.

In addition, the participants indicated that the program focuses on teaching specific vocabulary related to the students' field of study as follows:

The ESP program focuses on introduction of the specific vocabulary based on the field of study.

Lastly, the two groups agreed on the ranking of the specialist vocabulary, speaking, listening, reading, writing, and grammar concepts according to their order of importance. One of the instructors and students made the following comments:

Although the ESP program aims to develop the specialist vocabulary, four language skills, and the grammatical component of the language, there is an order of importance is followed as; specialist vocabulary, speaking, listening, writing, reading, and grammar.

Speaking

Taking into consideration the students' speaking abilities, both instructors and students stated that strategies such as making presentations and participating in discussions/debates should be integrated in the program in terms of improving the students' performance in speaking. The two groups of participants made the following comments:

In the ESP program, the instructors try to give some strategy training to help the students' improve their speaking skills. For example, students receive instruction on how to make presentations or participate in discussions/debates.

Listening

As for the importance of the listening skill, the two groups stated that the students should learn how to use the necessary strategies in given tasks effectively shown in the excerpt below:

Listening is one of the important components of the ESP program. The students should learn on how to listen for main idea or details of a lecture.

Reading

In relation to the students' progress of their reading skills, both groups expressed that predicting, skimming, scanning, paraphrasing, guessing from the context, and previewing are among the essential strategies to be emphasized in the program. The participating instructors and students said:

Guessing from the context, paraphrasing, and previewing are among the vital strategies that should be given importance in the program to improve the reading ability of the students.

Writing

On being asked about the importance of writing strategies, both groups of participants indicated that expressing minor and major ideas, organizing ideas clearly, combining sentences, and using specialized vocabulary are among the essential strategies to be focused on in writing. They made the following comments:

It is very important for the learners to be able to express their ideas in writing, combine sentences and organize ideas clearly in order to make progress in their writing.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to identify the perceptions of the students and instructors referring to learning needs to be emphasized in the ESP program offered at the Faculty of Fine Arts at a private university in Istanbul, Turkey.

The returned needs analysis questionnaire and semi-structured interviews indicated that the ESP program should emphasize improvement of the four language skills and subskills referring to students' learning needs. To

illustrate, according to the perceptions of the students and instructors, the ESP program should include tasks and activities that would provide the students with the opportunity to apply the subskills such as making presentations, obtaining specific information, predicting, and expressing ideas clearly in given tasks and activities which would help them develop their four language skills.

Implications

The present study has both practical and empirical implications for the design of the ESP program. As mentioned in the findings obtained through the needs analysis questionnaire and semi-structured interview, the nature of the ESP program should be based upon the students' learning needs to specify the content (i.e. goals and objectives, materials, language teaching approach and testing) of the program.

According to what has been discussed in the previous parts of this study, training programs should be provided to the preservice and inservice teachers of ESP students to raise their awareness on the initial steps of needs analysis. Full collaboration between the coordinators, instructors, and students is needed to attain success in the program. In this sense, the findings of this study should be emphasized while designing the ESP program in various disciplines.

Limitations

Although the current study revealed some interesting and important findings, there were a number of limitations. Therefore, the findings should be taken as suggestive rather than definitive for further research. To begin with, the focus on this study was simply on the students' and instructors' perceived learning needs. Other types of needs such as language and objective needs were not identified due to time constraints. Finally, the study particularly focused on the perceptions of the students and instructors in Faculty of Fine Arts at a private university. Therefore, it lacks external validity and generalizability. Although this study has some limitations, it is significant for the field of identifying learning and target needs since it provides basis for the further research.

Recommendations for Further Research

In this study, there are several recommendations for further research. First of all, analyzing the needs of the students will provide the basis for other research topics such as materials development, testing, and program evaluation. Future research should also attempt to investigate different types of needs, such as communicative, objective, situation and subjective needs, so that they can be examined in future research.

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Internationalization Status of Selected Teacher Education Institutions in the Philippines

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Abstract

This study assessed the level of internationalization of ten Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the Philippines. These institutions were assessed in terms of their strengths and weaknesses in four domains in teacher education and nine dimensions of internationalization using a 4-pt scale rubric developed by Balagtas & Associates (2012). The results reveal that none from the selected TEIs are internationalized to a great extent in all the four domains of teacher education based on the scale. They were, however, internationalized to some extent in academic standards and quality (domain 2), knowledge creation and appreciation (domain 1), and growth, efficiency, and accountability (domain 4), but internationalized to a little extent in culture of sharing and service (domain 3). In terms of the dimensions of internationalization, they were internationalized to a great extent only in curriculum and instruction but considered weak in all other eight areas of internationalization of HEIs.

Keywords. Assessment, Internationalization, Teacher Education

INTRODUCTION

With the onslaught of technology, the world has shrunk into a global village that people mobility and information generation have increased in unimaginable proportions. Nations needed to reach out to other countries not only for political and economic reasons, but also for educational purposes. This process of reaching out is described in most conferences in education as internationalization.

According to Bernardo (2002), internationalization could be construed as related to educational and development goals. Educational goals are related to assumptions of universal knowledge and the need for collaborative international efforts and perspectives. The development goals, on the other hand, are related to the mission of developed countries to provide assistance and support to less developed countries in their efforts at improving their capabilities in their higher education institutions.

Internationalization is considered a compelling reason for an academic institution to change or modernize its programs and practices in order to compete globally. With the advent of global rankings of countries and universities, everyone in the academe becomes conscious of how one's country or institution can be included in the ranking as such is an indicator of progress, quality and capability.

Internationalization of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) has also been among the challenges of the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) in the Philippines because of the collaboration and intercultural exchanges in the global village. According to Bernardo (2002), there are some opportunities for internationalizing higher education, namely, student and staff mobility; internationalizing curricula through international studies; research collaborations; international networks; transnational distance education; twinning and articulation programs; and international quality assurance. Likewise, Padama et al. (as cited by Balagtas et al., 2012), proposed a framework for internationalization of HEIs with nine dimensions, namely, curriculum and instruction; facilities and support system; cooperation and development assistance; diversity of income generation; research collaboration; international and intercultural understanding/networking; academic standards and quality; mobility and exchanges for students and teachers; and international students recruitment.

To translate these dimensions of internationalization in Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the Philippines, Balagtas et al. (2012) developed an instrument that has the dimensions reflective of specific

indicators to improve the programs and practices as institutions offering teacher education programs. This contextualization of internationalization reflects the areas of commitment of the Philippine Normal University (PNU), being the premier teacher education institution in the Philippines and the National Center for Teacher Education (NCTE). The four areas of commitment include 1) Commitment to Knowledge Creation and Application; 2) Commitment to Quality and Excellence; 3) Commitment to Culture of Sharing and Service; and 4) Commitment to Growth, Efficiency, and Accountability (PNU Administrative Manual, 2005).

As NCTE, the Philippine Normal University is mandated by the government of the Philippines to provide technical support to the CHED and to the Department of Education (DepEd) in their programs and projects that chart policies and recommendation on teacher education, teacher training, teacher education curricula, professional development for teachers and educational leaders in the country (Republic Act No. 9647, Sec 3a, 2009). True to its mandate, PNU envisions national and international responsiveness and recognition as a Teacher Education University (PNU, 2012).

In order to act on its mandate and realize its vision, PNU has set five strategies for internationalization: 1) develop an internationalization program that will increase the number and expand diversity of foreign students and faculty; 2) develop an international relations strategic plan to ensure a strategic position within the global teacher education network and academic community; 3) develop and produce scholarly work and products that attract international audience; 4) position PNU as a hub of academic activities and exchanges relevant to teacher education and basic education to ensure its international presence; and 5) participate in international network of TEIs to promote collaboration and partnership in the conduct of research, extension, and production (PNU, 2012).

One project that PNU spearheaded is the creation of the National Network of Normal Schools (3NS). The network serves as the arm of CHED for its project dubbed as “Save Our Normal Schools” which was conceived to address serious challenges faced by Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the country. As the lead shepherd, PNU is expected to lead or collaborate with the other nine (9) member institutions of 3NS in all efforts to improve the quality of programs, operations and services of TEIs in the country.

Cognizant of these strategies, the researchers felt the need to contribute to the realization of PNU’s vision for internationalization. They started this by assessing the level of internationalization of their institution and then the nine other member TEIs in the network so that it can provide a basis for spearheading development programs in teacher education in the country. Assessment as defined by Balagtas & Dacanay (2013) is the process of gathering information and organizing them into an interpretable form for easy decision making. Assessment is imperative then to have basis in determining the capacity of the institution to compete globally. The results of such assessment could show the strengths and weaknesses of the institutions and define the specific actions they have to take in enhancing their programs and practices towards global competitiveness. Internationalization of the institution is one possible concrete action towards global competitiveness.

In this study, internationalization refers to the process where two or more foreign institutions collaborate in the delivery of academic, research, social and economic activities for their mutual benefits and understanding. According to Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry (1997), any activity that involves a cross-country collaboration contributes to the internationalization of the activities of the partners. Examples of such internationalization activities include international students in undergraduate or postgraduate courses; internationalization of the curriculum and comparative curricula studies; international research conferences; international publications; collaborative and/or comparative cross-country research projects; professional development programs; and international consultancies.

Through the examination of the strengths and weaknesses of the 10 normal schools in each of the domains and dimensions of internationalization, the researchers believe that the member institutions of the 3NS will have basis in improving their own internationalization efforts. The analysis will also help them as they synergize with other member institutions in their network to sustain their identified strengths and to improve on the areas they are weak at.

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive research describes the level of internationalization of the 10 surveyed institutions belonging to the Network of Normal Schools (3NS) as assessed by their own internal stakeholders to have basis for the improvement of their efforts at internationalization. Each institution has 23 to 36 internal stakeholders for a total of 308 who served as assessors. About 27% of these are students, 52% are faculty, 7% are staff, and 12% are officials. About 2% of the respondents did not indicate their identity in the instrument. To assess their level of internationalization, the 4-pt scale rubric in assessing the internationalization level of TEIs developed by Balagtas, Atweh, Papangao, Reyes, & Ubiña (2012) was used. This instrument has been content validated and subjected to test of reliability using Cronbach's Alpha ($r=0.88$), in which results indicate high internal reliability coefficient, also high intra-rater reliability ($r=0.88$) as well as high inter-rater reliability ($r=0.76$). For data gathering, the consent of the institution's President was first sought, and those s/he identified as participants mostly from the college offering education programs attended a forum where they were introduced to the framework of internationalization. The forum participants also served as the assessors who gathered a set of documents (e.g. curricular programs with syllabi, technical reports, list of foreign students and faculty, President's reports, annual reports, memoranda of understanding/agreement, etc.) that could gauge the institution's level of internationalization. Descriptive statistical procedures were used to describe the strengths (areas with average rating from 2.5 to 4) and weaknesses (average rating is below 2.5) of the institutions, which served as basis for the proposed developmental program. The average ratings also classified the institutions into five (5) levels, namely, not internationalized (0-0.49); internationalized to a little extent (0.5 to 1.49); internationalized to some extent (1.5 to 2.49); internationalized to a high extent (2.5 to 3.49); and internationalized to a very high extent (3.5 to 4).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Strengths and Weaknesses on Internationalization of the 10 Member Institutions in the 3NS

Institution 1: A Normal School in Manila. Among the nine (9) areas of internationalization, this institution is seen strong in the area of *academic standards and quality* having been rated as 3.14 out of 4, which means **internationalized to a high extent**. The assessment on the level of internationalization of this institution in this area seems to conform to the high performance of its graduates in the Licensure Examination for Teachers (LET), because it has been consistently at the top among those TEIs that have the most number of teacher applicants who passed the examination. Other areas that this institution is seen as strong include the dimension on *curriculum and instruction* (2.69) and *facilities and support system* (2.58). Such results can be attributed to the University leadership's vision of becoming internationalized; hence, its curriculum and instruction including its facilities and support system are designed to be at par with other top rank universities in Asia and in the world. This institution, being the NCTE is also expected to lead reforms in teacher education. An evidence of its leadership is in its curricular programs which are considered alternative to what the CHED provides. These curricular programs are equally effective as those prescribed by the CHED since they also produced graduates with high performance in the LET. The institution, however, is viewed weakest in *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (1.32) and on the dimension of *research collaboration* (1.42). This explains why this institution has been assisted in these areas in an applied research grant by the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade Australian Aid Project through the efforts of the University of New England (UNE) SIMERR, National Research Centre, an institution in Armidale, Australia that has led the development of the Australian National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST). This grant established a national research center called Research Center for Teacher Quality (RCTQ), which was envisioned to provide evidence-based inputs to policy formulation that could improve teacher quality in the Philippines. The other dimensions of internationalization that the institution is also weak at include *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (2.36), *international students' recruitment* (2.23), *cooperation and development assistance* (1.92), and *diversity of income generation* (1.61). As a whole, the institution is considered **internationalized to some extent** (2.29). This means that this institution should continue developing itself "to level up teacher education for a quality nation...as it moves along with global demands" (Ogena, 2013).

Institution No. 2: A Normal School in Palawan. The member institution of 3NS in Palawan is seen strongest in the area of *curriculum and instruction* (2.59) and *facilities and support system* (2.54) since both are interpreted as internationalized to a high extent. However, the institution is viewed as weak or rated as internationalized to a little extent in *cooperation and development assistance* (0.98), *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (1.15), and *research and collaboration* (1.17). Other dimensions such as *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (1.52), *international students' recruitment* (1.51), and *diversity of income generation* (1.71) are rated internationalized to some extent, which area dimensions still considered as also a

weakness. As a whole, the institution is considered of **internationalized to some extent**. This means that the institution has to develop internationally benchmarked programs and practices to continue to be “leaders in Philippines education” (Sespeña, 2013).

Institution No. 3: A Normal School in Bicol. The stakeholders of a normal school in Bicol assess their institution strong in the area of *curriculum and instruction* (3.21), *facilities and support system* (3.03), *international student recruitment* (3.88), and *academic standard and quality* (2.84) with all these dimensions interpreted as internationalized to a great extent. It can be noted that the institution is strong in four areas of internationalization compared to the first two normal schools in Luzon. This strength of the institution could be explained by the international accreditation it has gone through since it is the only ISO certified institution among the 10 member institutions under the 3NS. However, just like other normal schools, the institution is viewed weak in *diversity of income generation* (0.05) and *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (1.2). This can be explained by the fact that the budget of a state university is mostly dependent only on the appropriation in the national budget. The other dimensions that the institution is known weak or rated internationalized to some extent include *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (1.9), *cooperation and development assistance* (1.61), and *research collaboration* (1.69). As a whole, the institution is considered of **internationalized to some extent**. This means that the institution still needs some development programs to continue to help “steer the country towards progress and development” (Lauraya, 2013).

Institution No. 4: A Normal School in Leyte. Stakeholders from a normal school in Leyte rated their institution **internationalized to some extent** with a 1.92 overall rating. Such rating reflects the objective evaluation of the stakeholders of the institution as they see this assessment as input to its improvement. Cruzada (2013) quotes “know thyself; the unexamined life is not worth living.” – an inscription at the Temple of Delphi, a concept that holds true for a person, as it does for the society, and may also be true to an institution. In so doing, respondents from the institution evaluated their *facilities and support system* (3.28) and *curriculum and instruction* (2.8) internationalized to a high extent, which shows that its curricular offerings, its strategies in teaching and the facilities that support its delivery of the programs can well compete with standards overseas. Meanwhile, in regard to *academic standards*, they rated their institution internationalized to some extent (2.05). This means that at least 25% of its programs are level 3 accredited by nationally/internationally known accrediting bodies; at least 20% of the faculty and administrators are recognized for their expertise here and abroad; at least 25% of the administrators and staff have special trainings or exposures abroad; the institution is cited by only 2 recognized international societies or publications as a good institution for learning; and at least 25% of the faculty and administrators are recipients of scholarships, fellowships or grants abroad. However, the stakeholders viewed *research and collaboration* (1.22) and *international/intercultural understanding/networking* (1.22) internationalized to a little extent since the institution has had few researches and twinning programs at the international level. Such perceptions support the stakeholders’ views on mobility of students/faculty and income generation. The institution’s faculty rated their institution poorly in terms of *mobility and exchanges of students and teachers* and in terms of *diversity of income generation* which both got 0.63. Such ratings prove that there have been very few student and faculty exchanges between this institution and foreign institutions. This also means that less than 3 % of the faculty members taught, received trainings, or served as consultants abroad.

Institution No. 5: A Normal School in Iloilo. Stakeholders’ ratings on the level of internationalization of a normal school in Iloilo reached an overall rating of 2.68 interpreted as **internationalized to a high extent**. The institution was evaluated highly for its *curriculum and instruction* (3.43), *academic standards and quality* (2.95), *international students’ recruitment* (2.95), and *facilities and support system* (2.9) – all internationalized to a great extent. Whereas, in terms of *cooperation and development assistance*; *diversity of income generation*; and *mobility and exchanges for faculty and students*, the stakeholders evaluated it internationalized to some extent. These evaluations can well be supported by the fact that the institution has had some of its programs accredited at level 4 by the Accrediting Association of Chartered Colleges and Universities of the Philippines (AACCU). Such evaluation also confirms what this institution has been consistently doing, i.e. “living up to its core values” one of which is “excellence” (Subong, 2013).

Institution No. 6: A Normal School in Zamboanga. The level of internationalization of a normal school in Western Mindanao in the dimensions of *curriculum and instruction* (2.48), *facilities and support system* (2.13), and *research collaboration* (2.07) garnered the highest means and interpreted as internationalized to some extent. The faculty, students, and staff of this university perceived these dimensions as their strength since these are the very reasons why they were awarded as the Center of Development (COD) in Teacher Education. On the other hand, the dimensions on *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (0.47), *diversity of income generation* (1.11), and *international students’ recruitment* (1.26) had the lowest means. The data imply that

these dimensions are the weak areas of this normal school since they are the very areas interpreted as internationalized to a little extent or not internationalized at all. This is easily explained by their geographic and socio-political conditions. The university is located in Mindanao, the southernmost island in the Philippines. Peace and order is problematic in the area, thus, most foreign embassies issue travel advisories to their citizens not to travel to the area. Since many cases of kidnapping of foreigners and locals including conflict situations are often sensationalized abroad, very few foreign nationals go to Mindanao. Overall, this university however, has a mean score of 1.78, which means **internationalized to some extent**. Therefore, the 3NS should gather all its efforts to help this institution “to improve and transform teacher education in the country to meet the challenges posed by globalization” (Ho, 2013).

Institution No. 7: A Normal School in Bukidnon. The stakeholders from the normal school in Bukidnon gave their institution an overall rating of 1.58 with a corresponding description of **internationalized to some extent**. This means that the institution needs development programs in its “journey towards excellence driven by substance and not form” (Barroso, 2013). For a closer look at the areas for development, the respondents rated the institution’s *curriculum and instruction* highest at 2.45, followed by *facilities and support system* at 2.07 and *academic standard and quality* at 1.87, which were both rated internationalized to some extent. Meanwhile, *international and intercultural understanding and networking* had 1.43 rating; *international students’ recruitment* had 1.01; *cooperation and development assistance* had 0.95; and *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* had 0.71 – all interpreted internationalized to a little extent. In contrast, the respondents rated *diversity of income generation* the least at 0.39 which reveals that in terms of creating projects and programs that will help the university gain revenues, this institution cannot yet compete with internationalized benchmarks.

Institution No. 8: A Normal School in Cebu. The top two dimensions of internationalization of a Normal School in Cebu are the *academic standard and quality* (2.76) and *curriculum and instruction* (2.55) which are interpreted as internationalized to a great extent. This indicates that the Normal School is strong in these dimensions. They were able to strengthen these dimensions, thus, the CHED named it as the Center of Excellence in Teacher Education. However, this Normal School was rated weak in three dimensions, namely, *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (0.84), *cooperation and development assistance* (1.19), and *diversity of income generation* (1.19), which are all interpreted as internationalized to a little extent. Like the other Normal Schools which rely on the national government for its meagre appropriations, this Normal School has to strengthen its income generating projects. In addition, this institution was built primarily to educate teachers in the province. In 1902, this Normal School was established as a “tributary school of Philippine Normal School in Manila” (Lopez, 2013). From then on, it has been a strong producer of quality teachers in the Visayas province of Cebu. Recent efforts on internationalization, however, are on their way. Overall, this institution has a mean score of 2.03, which is interpreted as **internationalized to some extent**.

Institution No. 9: A Normal School in Ilocos. The stakeholders of a normal school in Ilocos assessed their institution’s level of internationalization highest in the area of Facilities and Support System having been rated as 2.58 out of 4, which means internationalized to a great extent. The institution is viewed as weak in *diversity of income generation* (0.09) and *cooperation and development assistance* (0.24), both interpreted as not internationalized at all. The other dimensions interpreted internationalized to a little extent are *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (0.54), *research and collaboration* (0.75), *international students’ recruitment* (0.84), and *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (0.99). Meanwhile, the dimensions on *curriculum and instruction* and *academic standard and quality* were considered internationalized to some extent. As a whole, the institution is considered **internationalized to a little extent**. This level indicates that there is really a need for development programs for a higher level of internationalization of this TEI as it continues to be “a bastion of tradition and excellence” in the northern part of the Philippines (Pascua, 2013).

Institution No. 10: A Normal School in Pangasinan. The stakeholders of a normal school in Pangasinan assessed their institution’s level of internationalization as needing improvement in almost all areas of internationalization although it is now working on its Level 4 accreditation status for its teacher education program. Nevertheless, the assessors see their institution as having potential in *facilities and support system*, *academic standards and quality*, and in *curriculum and instruction* since these dimensions were all rated equivalent to level 2 in internationalization, which is interpreted as internationalized to some extent. The institution is viewed as weak in *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers*, *cooperation and development assistance*, *diversity of income generation*, and *international students’ recruitment* as these dimensions were rated not internationalized at all. Moreover, assessors also see their institution internationalized to a little extent in the dimensions of *research collaboration* and *international and intercultural understanding and networking*.

As a whole, this institution sees itself as **internationalized to a little extent**. This means that it needs development programs in all areas of internationalization to have a successful “journey towards global excellence” (Estira, 2013).

Across Institutions. Figure 1 shows the areas of strengths and weaknesses of the 10 normal schools in the 3NS along the nine (9) areas of internationalization. As shown in the figure, the stakeholders of the 3NS see the network as strong or **internationalized to a great extent** in only two (2) areas – *curriculum and instruction* and *facilities and support system*. They have the potential to be strong in *academic standards and quality*, *international and intercultural understanding and networking*, and *international students’ recruitment* as these dimensions are interpreted **internationalized to some extent**. On the contrary, the network needs to strengthen its *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers*, *cooperation and development assistance*, *diversity of income generation*, and *research collaboration*. As a whole, the institutions in the network are internationalized only to some extent; thus, explains the need for development programs for internationalization.

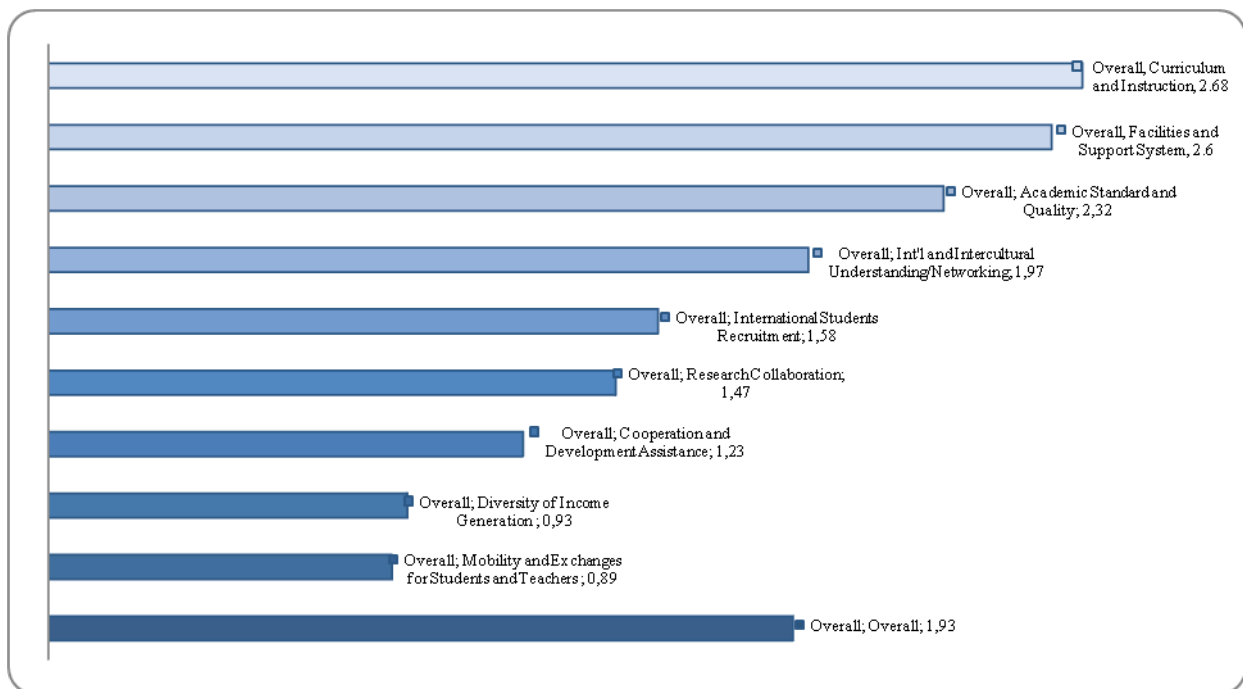


Figure 1: Over-all Level of internationalization of selected TEIs in the Philippines

The results pointed to almost the same deterrents to internationalization of higher education institutions in the Philippines which Bernardo (2002) discussed: programs cost, research capability, lack of involvement in international networks, and inability to comply with quality assurance process.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The analysis made on the strengths and weaknesses of the 10 member institutions of the 3NS in the Philippines gives a picture of the needed development programs in teacher education in the Philippines. Likewise, the results also reveal the capacity of the surveyed institutions to be the country’s resource that could be shared with other countries in terms of the preparation and development of teachers at least in Asia if not beyond it. Apparently, among the nine areas for internationalization, the country’s *curriculum and instruction* could be a potential area for internationalization. As the country prepares for the ASEAN 2015, the government could promote the country’s TEIs particularly their curriculum and instruction in producing teachers for the ASEAN community. The present teacher education curriculum in the Philippines can be considered internationally benchmarked; hence it can also develop teachers in the other countries in the ASEAN region. The *facilities and support system* of these TEIs particularly those belonging to the 3NS are also being improved to effectively deliver the curriculum for teachers. The *standards and quality of their programs and services* are also potential strength including initial efforts for *international and intercultural understanding and networking* as

well as *international student recruitment*. However, to help strengthen TEIs as a country's resource, the government can also facilitate the *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers*; establish *cooperation and development assistance* at least with the ASEAN countries; *diversify the sources for income generation*; and establish *research collaboration*. Since the member institutions of the 3NS are all government institutions created basically to produce teachers for the Filipino people, government efforts and resources should be appropriated for them to produce teachers who are at par with those teaching in top rank universities in Asia. Since ASEAN 2015 is one year away, efforts need to be doubled for TEIs in the country to be of help in making the Philippines a country to consider when it comes to the preparation or development of teachers at least in the ASEAN community.

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Evaluation of Concrete-Mixed Models Use on Optical Isomery Concept Teaching, Under Brazilian High School Chemistry Teachers' Perspective

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Abstract

Concrete-mixed models are important scientific and technological instruments, once they play an essential role in establishing connections between the perceiving reality and the idealized one. These connections have implied on how constructivism can be interpreted. The representation of these models is an important compound of the constructivist theory, constituting the basis of these models' typology. The possible models amplitude is defined throughout their aspects and representation modes, whose typology open the doors to future horizons on teaching and learning research about models in classroom. As objective, this work presents evaluating the use of concrete-mixed models on Optical Isomery (O.I.) concept teaching, under high-school Brazilian teachers' perspective. In order of doing that, the author has raised, tested and discussed hypothesis related to high-school Brazilian teachers' point of view about the use of a specific model on explaining the concept of O.I. After that, low cost concrete-mixed models were developed, aiming to be presented to the participants of this research, as viable instruments of O.I. teaching. Both the abovementioned presented models, as well as the information folder were exhibited to Chemistry teachers of public and private Brazilian high-schools, who have answered to previous and post essays, beyond getting knowledge about the available information. As a result of the descriptive analysis, the author has concluded that the general and specific proposed objectives were reached. In this way, the author concludes that concrete-mixed models are efficient tools on Significant Learning promotion, according to Chemical high-school Brazilian teachers' perspective.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

A model in Science is a representation of a phenomena initially produced to a specific aim. As a "phenomena" is any interesting way of separating a part of the total group of experimentation to a posterior study, the models are presented everywhere. The specific purpose for which any model is originally made in Science (or in specific research) is like a simplification of a phenomena to be used in inquiries to develop explanations about it (Gilbert & Boulter, 2000, 11).

Many models are compound of entities that are concrete, objects seen as they had a distinct existence (a wheel, for example) or even as they were part of a system, like a car wheel, for example. A model of an object can be both smaller than the phenomena that it represents (for example, a train); the same size of it, as the human body, for example; or even bigger than the phenomena (in the case of a virus, for example).

Nowadays, it is more and more acceptable the notion that the cultural formation of human beings in contemporary societies passes through everyday intermediations, characterized by a complexity context, that occur through interpersonal, group and massive communication, and spreading as the improvement of new technologies (BARROS, 1997).

According to the Brazilian National Curricular Standards (PCN), Chemistry teaching shall warrant that "the aspects and technological subjects associated to the scientific and mathematic learning become an essential part of the citizen formation" (Brazil, 1999, 10).

Under that perspective, Chemistry Teaching do not shall limit itself just in preparing students to pre University selection examinations; shall, before anything else, develop skills and competences that permit the formation of a critical consciousness for the students, aiming that they can contribute themselves for the development of a fairer and more equal society. On the other hand, forming critical and consciousness citizens do not exclude their capacity for pre University examinations as well as public contests. Such citizen formation shall anticipate the imposed necessities by a technological and globalized world, which obey ourselves to know

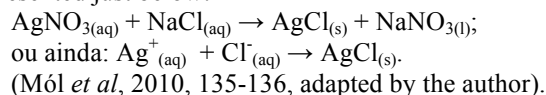
how to deal with technology and the different materials and substances presented in our reality. Such knowledge necessity rules all the people who live in society, independently of their differences. (Mól *et al.*, 2010, 134).

According to Mól *et al.* (2010, 134), Chemistry Science is characterized by the use of theories and specific models, besides using an exclusive language which permits the communication among scientists and technicians of different areas, on which chemical knowledge is necessary. For them, such language is also utilized on the information about chemical substances and materials presented in products, among them aliments, medicine and beauty products.

Under citizen critical and consciousness formation perspective, Chemistry teaching shall offer the acquisition of knowledge to the students, which will make possible the conscious interaction between those students and the abovementioned products, technologically produced (Mól *et al.*, 2010, 134).

Machado, Mortimer and Romanelli (2000) punctuate that, in order of broad learning, Chemistry teaching shall contemplate three different approach levels: representational; phenomenological or macroscopic; and theoretical or microscopic. According to Mól *et al.* (2010, 135), such levels' diversity brings a greater learning difficulty, so that its comprehension demands a good articulation and concept and ideal elaboration capacity.

The first level employed by the chemistries since the origin of that science corresponds to the use of an exclusive symbolization that permits the representation of the substances and its proprieties and transformations. In that way, it is possible to describe the silver chlorate precipitation phenomena by using symbols and equations, as represented just below:



The next approach level refers to the phenomena studied by Chemistry. Here the transformations occur and they are observed the material and substances properties. Thus, whenever observing a commercial alcohol sample combustion, a precipitate formation or [when] determining properties as density and fusion temperature, for example, where are approaching Chemistry on a descriptive and functional way, it means, macroscopically. Generally, Chemistry teaching worries less about this level, although is always explaining it. On formal teaching, that level is quite more characterized by experimental activities' proposals – executed by students or demonstrated by teachers – or whenever studying natural phenomena (as combustion); or laboratory, as a salt precipitation, for example (Mól *et al.*, 2010, 134-135, with adaptations).

In experimental activities or whenever observing natural phenomena, we note the chemical transformation occurrence, throughout system alterations, which point the formation of new substance(s) – color changes, precipitate formation and gases releases – and also throughout instrumental reading, such as thermometers and balances. On that context, experimentation can assume fundamental importance on significant learning promotion in Sciences (Silva & Zanon, 2000). That is why experimental activities are usually used as previous organizers to concept and scientific models teaching, constituting a macroscopic way of Chemistry approach.

The last abovementioned level - microscopic one - by its turn, corresponds to the theories and models used by the chemistries to describe and justify the macroscopic observed phenomena. Due to the great abstraction of the microscopic level, its comprehension demands good ideas and concepts elaboration and articulation. At this level, there are the theories that explain the matter constitution and its behaviors in different conditions. As example of theory used on Chemistry teaching, those which explain the constitution of the matter can be mentioned, describing the atomic structure – atomic theories – and the substance one – chemistry linkage models. That microscopic level is, very frequently, represented on a standardized way, constituting a specific language of Chemistry (Mól *et al.*, 2010, 135).

According to Pacheco (2006, 7), Optical Isomery is usually not broached by High School teachers, although being dealt with higher or lower emphasis by the didactical books corresponding to that education period. Since this intriguing evidence, the author decided to investigate the abovementioned concept, attempting to verify if the concrete-mixed use would be an efficient technique to facilitate the Optical Isomery concept teaching, under high school Chemistry teachers of public and private schools of Distrito Federal, Brasília, Brazil.

Another reference that brings extra subsidy to Pacheco (2006, 7) is Guimarães & Silva (2008, 43), who observed that, “in order of analyzing Organic Chemistry teaching at Basic Education High School Institutions, we have used the subject plans (course plans) which we were offered by teachers of ten public and private schools of Minas Gerais, Brazil. Among them, eight were from the capital - Belo Horizonte”. Besides that, the referred author punctuate that the school identified by her as “J”, joining the public state teaching net and participating of a project entitled “Reference-Schools” developed by Minas Gerais government, follows the curricular proposal of the Common Basic Contents (CBC).

According to the abovementioned project, the CBC are: material properties, material constitution and chemical transformations. They must be offered to students on the 1st Year of High School and deepened on the

following series. On the 3rd Year, it is free to school to teach new contents out of the CBC, maximizing the students' formation and their comprehension of the spoken themes.

On the studied school, Organic Chemistry content is offered at the last Unit (Unit 7), of the 2nd Year (so, all the other units were suppressed of the eight board). Considering the time dedicated to the subject, and detailing that other schools normally dedicate all 3rd Year to it, the offered Organic Chemistry content seems to be administrated in a short and superficial way.

Detailing exploring the subject, Guimarães & Silva (2008, 44) inform that, on 3rd Year Class Plan nothing was mentioned about Organic Chemistry, although there were, among didactic resources, practical laboratory activities, whose themes were not informed by the teacher.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Jean Piaget (1896-1980) was, undoubtedly, the pioneer on constructivist focus to human cognition. His proposals configure a cognitive human development constructivist theory, known as Piaget's cognitive development theory.

Piaget establishes four general cognitive development periods: *sensory-motor*, *pre-operational*, *concrete-operational* and *formal operational*. Each one is subdivided in stages or levels. For this project, the author chose to emphasize only the two last ones of those abovementioned periods, which really interest to the students age group focused on this research, that are students of Chemistry curricular compound of High School 3rd Year.

About the mental development periods proposed by Piaget, it is below presented one of his citations (Piaget, 1977, 127, *apud* Moreira, 2011, 99):

“[...] From 7 to 8 until 11 or 12 years old, the concrete operations are organized, that means, the operatory groupings of thinking relapsing over manipulable or susceptible of intuition. Since 11 or 12 years old and during teenage, the formal thinking is elaborated, which grouping characterize the over reflexive intelligence.”

According to Gravina & Santarosa (1998, 4), that stage is characterized by the operations appearance, the actions in thinking; however, at this phase children are still dependent of concrete objects to change actions in concepts (*concrete-operational stage*).

At about 11 or 12 years old, the fourth and last mental development period starts. It passes through adolescence and reaches adult age: it is the *formal operational period*. The main characteristic of this period is the capacity of ratiocinate with verbal hypothesis and not only with concrete objects. It is the propositional thinking, by means of the teenager, by ratiocinating, manipulates propositions. The starting point is the concrete operation; however, the adolescent transcends this stage: formulates the concrete operation results under propositions' shape and continue to mentally operating them (Moreira, 2011, 98).

Summarizing, it is observed that since seven or eight years old the child is already able to do certain logical thoughts; however, the operations incise directly over the real objects, in a way that impossible is subordinated to real. However, by formally thinking, or else, by ratiocinate about hypothesis, reality stays on second plan towards possibility, and real turns to subordinate itself to possible. So, teenager becomes able of executing hypothetical-deductive thoughts.

Thus, the most important characteristics of this period is the capacity of manipulating mental constructs and, at the same time, recognizing relations among those abstract products internally projected. The formal operation period goes until adult age.

It is a fact that experimentation can assume fundamental importance on significance learning promotion in sciences (Silva and Zanon, 2000). Considering that, experimental activities are frequently used as previous organizers to concepts and scientific models teaching, constituting a way of Chemistry macroscopic approach.

David Ausubel is one of the cognitivism's representatives and, as well, he proposes a theoretical explanation of the apprenticeship process, under the cognitive point of view, similarly to Jean Piaget's theory (Moreira, 2011, p.160).

In the same way of other cognitivism's authors, Ausubel based himself on the premise that there is a structure where organization and integration of determined material is processed, called by him cognitive structure, understood as somebody's total idea content and its organization, or as someone's content and idea organization

in a particular knowledge area, constituting a complex resulting from cognitive processes, by means of which the knowledge is acquired and utilized.

Ausubel's attention is often focused on apprenticeship, as it occurs in classroom everyday at the great majority of the schools. For him, the isolated factor which influences apprenticeship most is what the student already knows, so it is up to the teacher identify and teach accordingly (Moreira, 2011, 160).

According to Ausubel (1978, 41, *apud* Moreira, 2011, 163):

“the essence of significant learning process is that symbolically expressed ideas could be co-related in a substantive way (not literal) and not arbitrary to what the apprentice already knows, it means, to any aspect of its cognitive structure specifically relevant to those ideas' learning. That aspect specifically relevant can be, for example, an image, a symbol, a concept, a proposition, already significant”.

According to Moreira (2011, 164), one of the conditions to significant learning occurrence is that the material to be learned must be related (or incorporable) to the cognitive structure of the apprentice, in a non arbitrary and not literal way. For him, a material with those characteristics is called *potentially significant*.

Gilbert (1993, 9-10) punctuate that models are essential to thinking and scientific works' development. He also argues that Science and its explanatory models are inseparable, once models constitute products, scientific methods and its major learning and teaching tools.

Harrison (1996, *apud* Harrison & Treagust, 2000, 2), by his time, affirms that Science Education divide its interests in models and modeling. In his opinion, while many scientific phenomena cannot be reproduced in classroom, due to time and security restrictions, models of those objects and processes are available. So, models are accessible and teacher know that students like to play with them and that modeling is an important strategy of constructivist teaching. It is also important whenever exploring the manners students build, manipulate and interpret scientific models in Science school lessons.

So, it can be concluded that the different existent cognitivist theories differ one another due to the adopted models to describe the way the construction of cognitive structure occurs, besides how the new assimilated information is incorporated to it, and, yet, information contained on it is recovered by the individual to be used on everyday phenomena interpretation.

Thus, it is observed that both Piaget's human cognitive development theory, as well as Ausubel's significant learning cognitivist theory, congregate characteristics that suggest that both are appropriate to justify, even partially, the efficiency of qualitative models manipulation on Optical Isomery concept teaching, under Brazilian Chemistry High School Teachers.

Developed Material

The author of this article produced some material (products), in order of focusing this research, permitting to clarify teachers who participate of this intervention about existent models' typologies (Gilbert & Boulter, 2000, 46-47) and also about Optical Isomery concept, supported by practical examples of pharmacological industry applications. Such products are represented on next page:

- Concrete Optical Isomery models, made by the author, from low cost materials, such as styrefoam balls and toothpick. (see Appendix section - Picture 01);
- Explaining Model Typology and Optical Isomery Folder (see Appendix section);
- Previous and posterior evaluative questionnaires*.

* Considering the abovementioned materials produced by the author, in order of evaluating the concrete-mixed models use under Brazilian Chemistry high school teachers' perspective, it is important to mention that the Previous and Posterior elaborated Questionnaires were used during a couple of scheduled encounters with the teachers who participated of this research, as volunteers, occasion where they were fulfilled by those participants, constituting effective tools that permitted a detailed evaluation of the other developed materials made by the author.

Among the questions presented to the teachers during the questionnaire applications, the author asked the following: Do you teach at a public or a private school? For which high school series have you already taught? Which Chemical contents are you able to teach? Do you use models whenever teaching Chemistry? **Considering**

Gilbert's & Boulter's typology, what type of models are you able to use at teaching? How long do you teach Chemistry? How long did you finish your graduation? Why do you teach Optical Isomery during Chemical lessons? Does your approach include any characteristics, besides those presented in the used didactic book? In affirmative case, which are those characteristics? How do you approach Optical Isomery concept? **In your opinion, models shall be used to explain the Optical Isomery concept? Please justify your answer. Do you think concrete-mixed models can improve the comprehension of the Optical Isomery concept? Justify. What is the importance of teaching Optical Isomery to students, in your opinion?** The bold questions above were repeated during the Posterior Questionnaire Application.

RESULTS

The results presented at this section were based on the materials and methodology previously presented and discussed, that means: concrete-mixed models; explaining model typology and Optical Isomery folder; besides the Previous and Posterior questionnaires, developed by the author of this research.

Besides that, data collected through the abovementioned questionnaires have permitted descriptive analysis development, which is going to be discussed at this section. It is important to explain that all the produced graphics were projected through Excel 2007 *software* (Microsoft®).

So, in face of the abovementioned explanations, the questionnaire application occurred on the period comprehended between August 13th and September 27th, during an informal personal encounter with selected Brazilian Chemical high school teachers of public and private schools of Distrito Federal.

However, independently of the way applications were done, it is important to clarify that all the applications were done in five (5) distinct moments, always following the application order below:

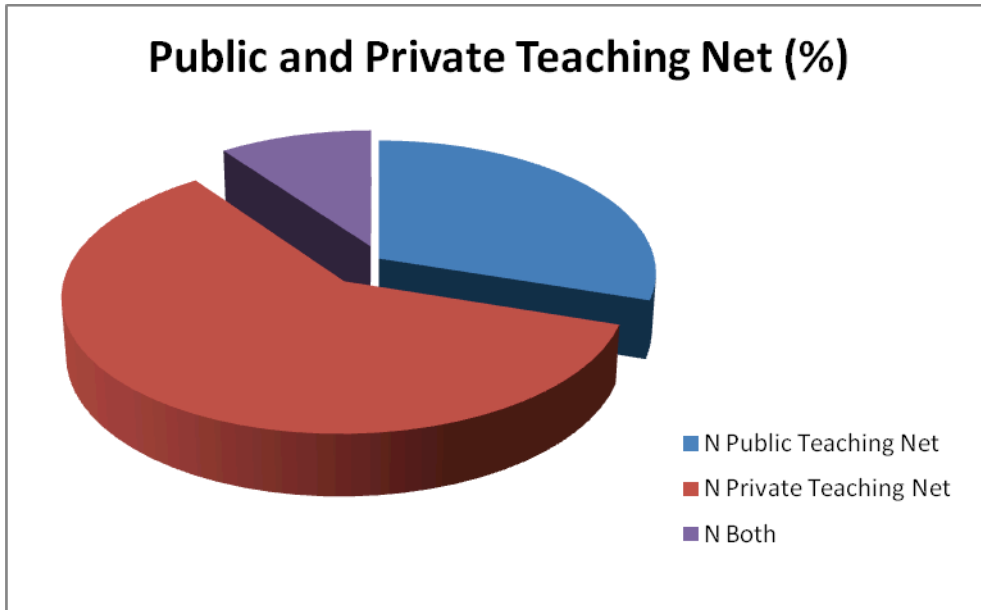
1. Previous Questionnaire Application;
2. Previous Questionnaire Collection;
3. Explaining Model Typology and Optical Isomery Folder Application* - the author has delivered it to the teachers participant of this research, suggesting that they read the information presentes there in a dynamic way. To participants who demonstrated excessive worries about available time, it was suggested that they read it on another occasion, after filling and delivering of the Previous Questionnaire to the researcher.

* At the end of the interview, the used orientation instruments were offered, totally free, to the individuals who participated on this research;

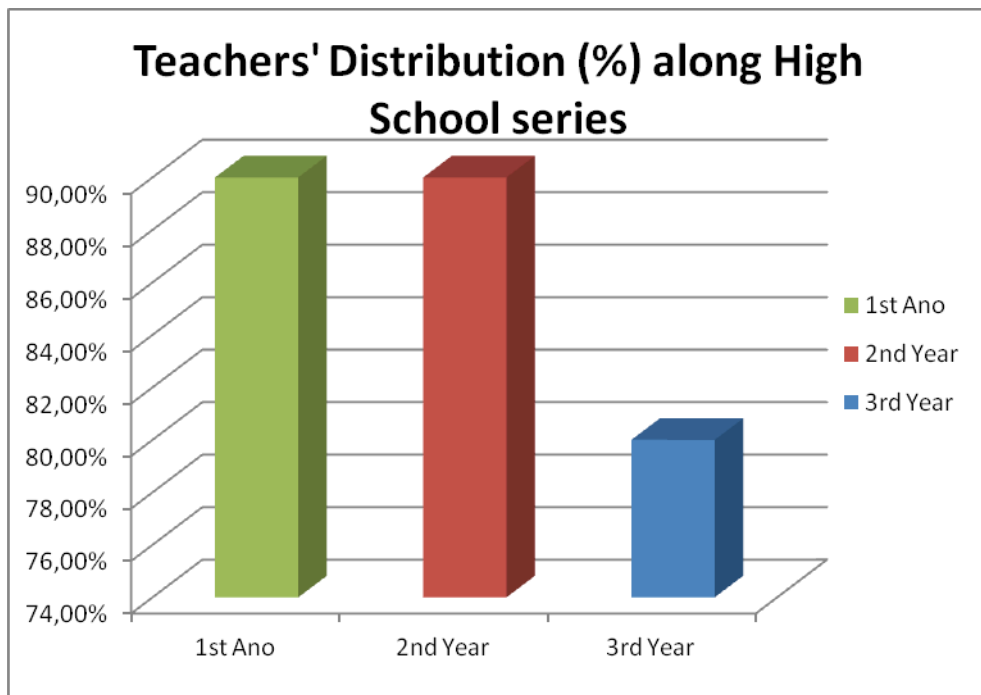
1. Posterior Questionnaire Application;
2. Posterior Questionnaire Collection.

A group of ten (10) previous and posterior questionnaires were in all satisfactorily applied and analyzed. During the questionnaires application interval, an explaining model typology and Optical Isomery folder were offered, as a courtesy, to the target public of this intervention (see Appendix section).

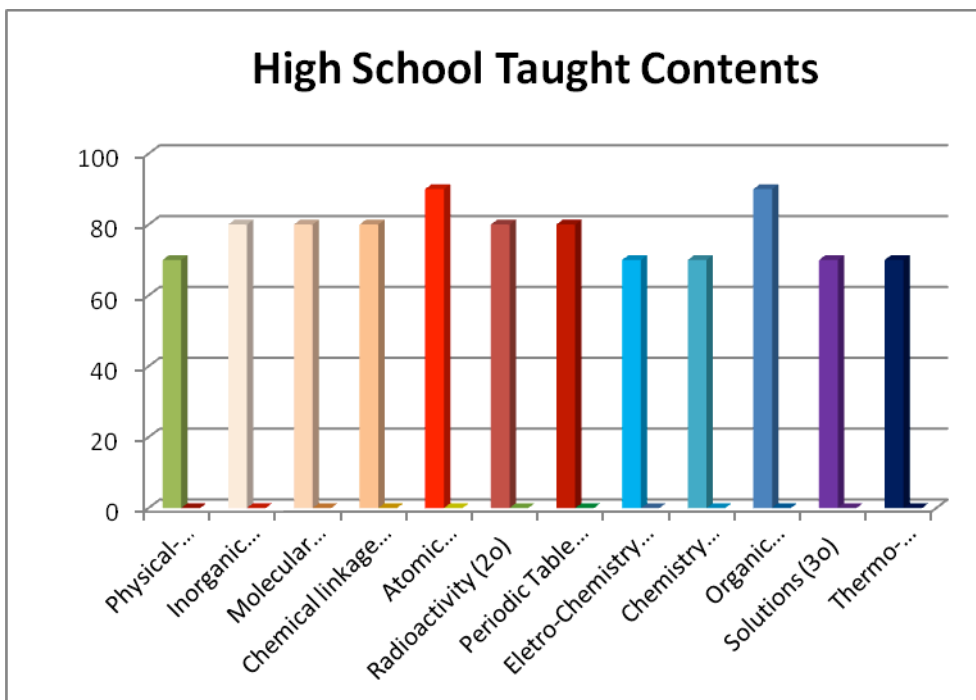
In the following pages the author has projected some graphics, which represent the results extracted from the applied questionnaires. Those visual models represent, respectively, Public and Private Teaching Net, Teachers' Distribution along the high school series, High school taught contents, and Classroom work time, graduation-end time and age (years) for High School teachers.



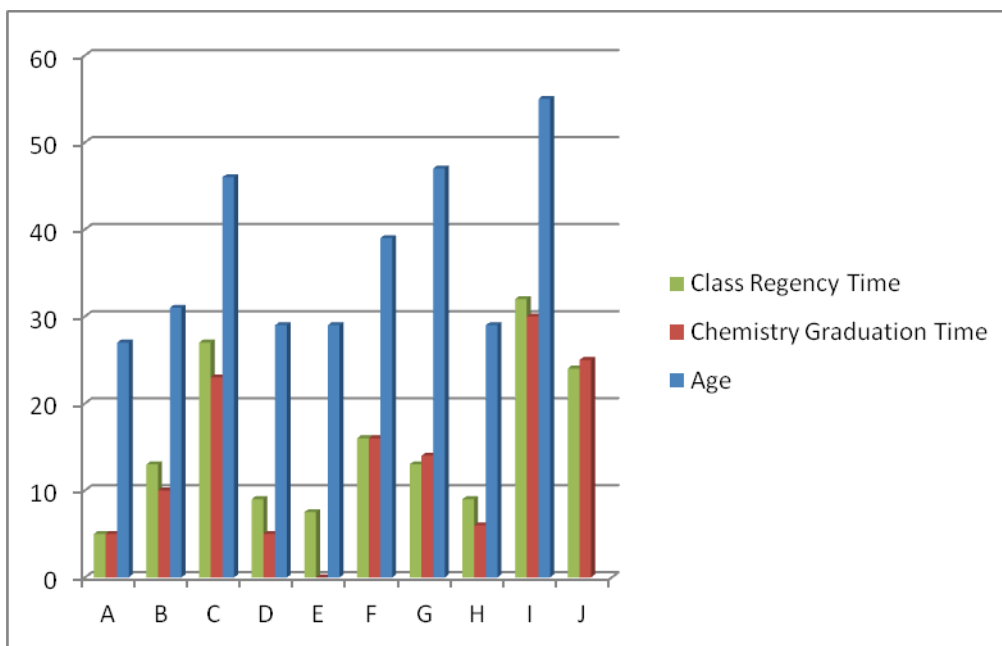
Graphic 01. Proportion of evaluated teachers, in function of the teaching net.



Graphic 02. Distribution of teachers (%) in function of High School series where they teach.



Graphic 03. Distribution of taught contents by teachers participant of this research (%).



Graphic 04. Classroom regency time, Chemistry graduation time and age (in years) for High School Teachers ("A" to "J").

CONCLUSION

Descriptive analysis done were essential to the literature academic references consulted by the author. Moreover, data extracted by means of previous and posterior evaluative questionnaires applied to Chemical teachers from High Schools of Distrito Federal, Brazil, were presented on this work as graphic projections and tables, after previous discussion of the results.

On that context, it can be concluded that the proposed general objective, it means evaluating the use of concrete-mixed model made by the author on Optical Isomery concept teaching, under Chemistry high school teachers' perspective from Distrito Federal - Brazil, was reached.

In order of doing that, the author has developed and tested two hypothesis, about Brazilian Chemistry high school teachers' point of view, which are detailed just below:

1. Brazilian Chemistry high-school teachers' point of view about the use of concrete-mixed models for explaining the Optical Isomery concept is positive; and
2. The use of that model typology, by High School students, improve the comprehension of the Optical Isomery concept, inside the Chemistry Teaching curricular component.

In that way, it was possible to reach, satisfactorily, the intended specific objectives, which were:

- ✓ Testing the previously presented hypothesis, throughout the previous and posterior questionnaires; and
- ✓ Elaborating and presenting, to the teachers - target of this essay - an informative folder about models' typology and Optical Isomery, subject situated inside the Chemistry high school curricular component (see Appendix section, p.5-8);

Based on what was just exposed, it can be finally concluded that, after the concrete-mixed models usage evaluation by the teachers who participated of this research, there are significant elements which make possible to conclude that those types of models constitute efficient tools on promoting significant learning, under the studied Brazilian Chemistry high school teachers' perspective, shed by the constructivist theories of Piaget (1972, 1976, and 1977, *apud* Moreira, 2011) and Ausubel (1978, *apud* Moreira, 2011).

Starting at that presupposition, and considering that, under Vieira and Vieira's perspective (2005), "any innovation, repair or curricular reorganization obey himself to set out the teachers' formation, while the main question of the curricular innovation remains focused on what they are going to do about the curricular orientations to science teaching in the classroom", once the majority of the teachers who participated on this research has demonstrated clearly not to be familiarized with the concept of models and its different typologies, the author of this paper leaves, as a suggestion for the development of new researches, the proposal of offering (and obviously evaluating) extension courses, formation and/or professional recycling focusing the *Models and Modeling for Science Teaching*, exclusively to High School teachers of public and private schools of Brazil and worldwide.

APPENDIX

Explaining Folder about Models Tipology and Optical Isomery

Models on Science Teaching

According to Gilbert's conception (1993, p.9-10), models are essential for thinking and for scientific work development. He also argue that science and its explanatory models are inseparable, once models are products, scientific methods and its hugest knowledge and teaching tools.

Representational modes describe the mean where a model is represented. These models' expression can employ different representational modes, which Twyman (1985) refers as modes of symbolization (Gilbert e Boulter, 2000, p.46). According to Gilbert e Boulter (2000, p.46-47), among these models' representational modes, the most important are:

- Concrete: tridimensional material model;
- Verbal: model that can be listened or verbalized. As examples, there are description, explanatory, narration, argumentation, analogy and metaphoric models;
- Visual: model that can be seen, as diagrams, animation and some types of simulation and video;
- Mathematic: model that represents formula, equation, besides some simulations;
- Gestural: model that represents movements of the body and its parts';

- Concrete-mixed*: material model (concrete), mixed with visual, verbal and/or numeric compounds;
- Verbal-mixed: text mixed with visual or numeric compounds addition;
- Visual-mixed: visual model mixed with verbal and/or numeric compounds;
- Mathematic-mixed: equation and formula mixed with verbal explanation;
- Gestural-mixed: associates physical representations with verbal explanations.

* **Concrete-mixed models** are characterized by presenting a concrete tridimensional part, palpable and manipulable, accompanied by visual, verbal or numeric compounds, whose mixed compounds, by they turn, are characterized by drawings or schemes done by the teacher or professor on the blackboard, besides illustrations or theoretical concepts, extracted from the didactical subject book and verbally explained during the thematic approach.

In the picture below, whenever associated to previous theoretical conceptual explanations by the classroom regent, there are visual representations of the concrete-mixed models, developed by this paper's author:



Picture 01. Concrete models photography of Optical Isomers A (left) and B (right), manually developed by the author (Casio Exilim 5.0 Mps Camera).

* PS: It is interesting to observe that the model above can be build by the own professor, since low cost materials, like Styrofoam balls, toothpick and plastic colored ink, dark for man crafting, of acrylic type or similar (at the abovementioned model, the used colors were blue, green, red and black).

Optical Isomery

On Feltre's opinion (2008, 256), on organic substances optical activity decurs from the molecular assymetry. That author adds that the presence of assymmetric carbons (those which presents four different connected elements, similar to the ones above represented on Picture 01) is, however, an assymmetric factor that characterizes an Optical Isomery type.

For example, if you compare your left and right hands, its easy to observe that they can not be put on top. It means, if you put your right hand over the left one they just do not match; at the same way, a right hand glove do not fits on the right one (and vice-versa); similarly, the pairs of shoes follow the same assymetry of our feet, and that is why it is not possible wear the right shoe on the left foot or vice-versa (Feltre, 2008, 252).

This kind of assymetry is called *chiral assymetry* (from the Greek: *cheir* – hand). By the way, that termination is original from the Portuguese language, as well as several other words, like *chiromancy*, *surgery*, and etcetera.

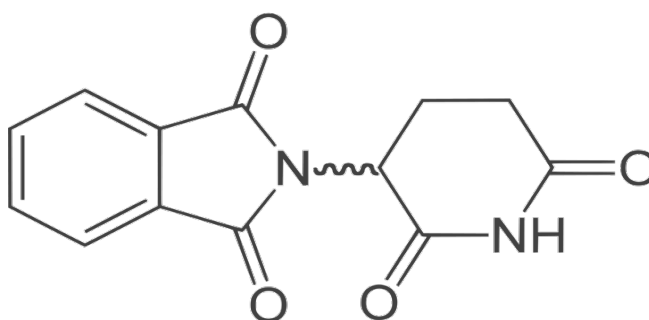
According to Feltre (2008, 252), a very important discovery for Science was that while one of the types of quartz crystal drops polarized light to the right (*dextrogiro*, *D* or +), the other drops it to the left (*levogiro*, *L* ou -), with exactly identical angles.

In that perspective, optical isomery can be observed on interconnected chemical compounds that, besides presenting equal structural chemical representations (example: $C_3H_6O_3$. lactic acid), are like specular images of each other, in order that if we try to "plug" a molecule on the other, the radicals [connectors] will never match

(Feltre, 2008, p.253). Besides that, it was observed that the optical activity of a substance results of the asymmetry of its molecules (Feltre, 2008, 252).

Other interesting example that contextualizes the Isomery importance can be observed at the pharmaceutics industry. The majority of the medications that we use nowadays has synthetic origin, that means they were produced by pharmaceutics laboratories. The common reaction originate what we call raceme mixtures, that are mixtures of the *dextrogiro* (D) isomer with its *levogiro* (L) antipode, at the proportion of fifty percent (50%) of each (Feltre, 2008, 254).

Sometimes, an isomer is benefited during that process, however the other can present undesirable effects. A painful episode involving chiral substances was provoked by **thalidomide**.



Picture 02. Thalidomide (structural representation). Reference: Wikipedia.

That medicine was launched in Europe, at the 1960's decade, as depressant and tranquilizer. Unfortunately, many pregnant women who had used it gave birth to malformed babies, with atrophied hands, arms, feet and legs (teratogenetic effect). Later, it was verified that only the **L** thalidomide is teratogenetic, while the **D** thalidomide is the one which presents the tranquillizing effect. The use of that medicine, however, continue being to pregnant, once there is a risk of one of the isomers transforms itself on the other, inside the human body (Feltre, 2008, 265).



Picture 03. Thalidomide isomer teratogenic effects' victim. Reference: Thalidomide Victim Brazilian Association (ABVT), authorized reproduction.

For additional information about the use of models and Optical Isomery and its consequences, the author recommends the following references on internet:

1. Brasil Escola Portal, available on: <http://www.brasilecola.com/quimica/isomeria-Optica.htm>;
2. Thalidomide Victims Brazilian Association (ABVT) Portal, available on: <http://abvt.wordpress.com/vitimas-da-talidomida/>;
3. DUSO, LEANDRO (2012). The use of models in Biology Teaching. XVI Didactics and Teaching Practices National Encounter (ENDIPE). Unicamp - Campinas. Available on: <http://www2.unimep.br/endipec/1243p.pdf>.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

* Thanks to **University of Brasília (UnB)**, specially addressed to Dr. Bergmann Morais Ribeiro (Post Graduation Director - DIRPG), for the partial sponsorship, which made possible the presentation of this paper at ITEC 2014, held in Dubai.

The Effect of Students' Part-Time Employment on Academic Performance and University Engagement

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Abstract

An increasing number of today's college freshmen in the US are employed part-time for significant number of hours of work per week and there is a steady decline in the number of hours students spend on academic-related work such as studying or doing assignments. Although conflicting results have been reported on the effect of part-time employment on academic performance, it has been found to be the key cause of student disengagement from the university. Student engagement influences student learning and personal development as well as student retention and persistence. This study was conducted among 231 students at Youngstown State University, where 87% of the students are employed part-time or full-time while attending school. The hours worked per week were compared to students' academic performance and engagement with the university. Students who work in areas related to their academic studies were compared to students who work in jobs unrelated to their academic field.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

With the recent decline in financial aid from the government and other outside sources such as parents (Holmes 2008), students are having to apply for more loans, or work while in school to help pay for things like tuition, books, and food. An increasing number of today's college students in the US are employed part-time for 16 or more hours of work per week (Gose, 1998, Broadbridge & Swanson, 2006). As the number of hours worked per week increases, the number of hours students spend on university activities and academic studies decreases. According to Higher Education Council's 2003 report, there is a steady decline in the number of hours students spend on academic-related work such as studying or doing homework. Salamonson, Andrew & Everett (2009) have also reported a decline in grades, due to the increase in student-employment.

Reasons for Employment

While little is known about the primary reasons for employment, many studies have shown that the majority of students work out of necessity to make up for rising tuitions and decreasing availability of grants (Rabotham, 2011; Wang, Kong, Shan and Vong, 2009). Among 16-24 year-old college students, part-time students are more likely to be employed out of necessity and as a result, full-time employment rates are higher among part-time students, however there is a steady increase in employment both among part-time and full-time students. According to a study at the College of Brockport, the percentage of even full-time students who are employed full-time has doubled between 1985 and 2000.

While necessity is shown as the key factor for employment, parents' support and expectations also play an important role on students' desire to work while in school. According to U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) research in 1995-1996, 63% of parents expected their children to work while in college at an average of 21.3 hours per week. These numbers are expected to be greater in recent years. Holmes (2008) states that another reason for employment is social engagement. Students like to gain communication skills, and confidence in handling difficult customer service situations.

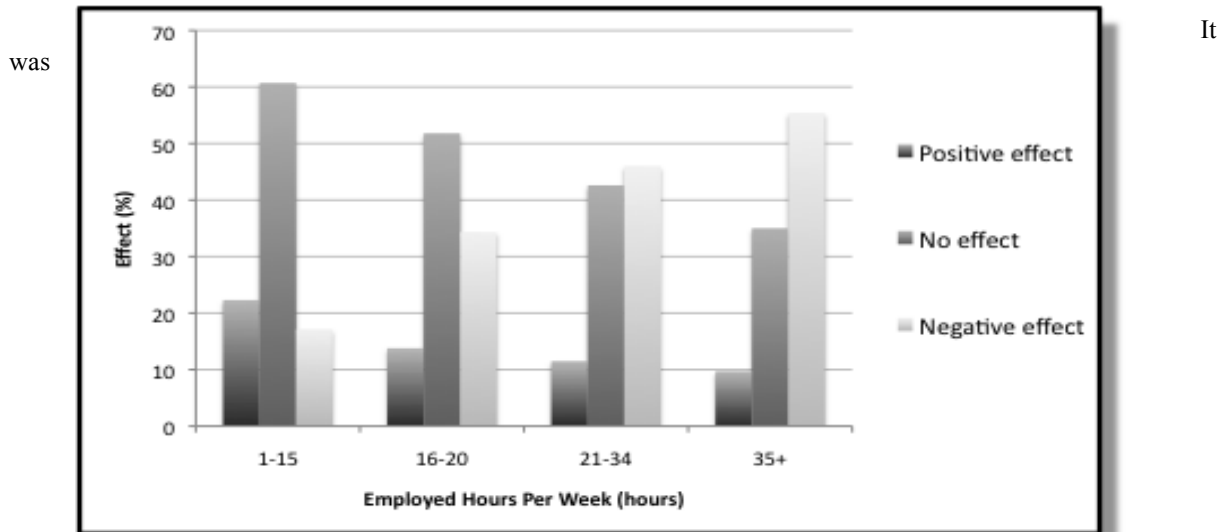
Other than necessity; reasons for employment were reported by students as supporting a lifestyle, gaining work experience, socializing, and enhancing their lives (Wang, Kong, Shan and Vong, 2009).

Effects of Employment

While there are many conflicting results about the consequences of employment, most studies report that employment among college students is the key cause of student disengagement from the university (McInnis, 2001; Holmes 2008; Salamonson & Andrew, 2006; Salamonson, Andrew & Everett, 2009). Student engagement is important, as it influences student learning and personal development (Astin, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991) as well as student retention and persistence (Tinto, 1998). A decrease in academic performance has also been reported by several studies (Salamanson & Andrew, 2006).

However, when evaluating how employment affects a student, three factors should be considered:

1. Hours of employment: Whether the student works part-time or full-time is important in determining the effects. The effect is minimal on a student who works 10 hours per week versus a student who works 40 hours per week.
2. Employment period: Whether the student works during the semester or during the breaks is another important factor in determining whether this employment will impact a student’s academic performance or university engagement.
3. The nature of employment: The type of job the student performs outside school, whether the student works on-campus or off-campus and whether the job is related to student’s academic field all play a role on how the student will be affected by employment.



consistently reported that students who work less than 16-20 hours are much less affected by employment than those who work more hours per week (Staff, Schulenberg, and Bachman, 2010). An NCES report (Figure 1) based on students’ own perception of the effects of employment on their academic performance clearly shows that negative effects increase significantly, as the number of employment hours increase.

	Positive effect	No effect	Negative effect
Total	14.8	48.4	36.8

Figure 1. Student-Reported Effect of Employment on Their Academic Performance (Re-produced from U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), "Profile of Undergraduates in U.S. Postsecondary Educational Institutions: 1995-96." NCES 98-084, Table 5)

Students, who work longer hours per week, find less time to attend lectures and tutoring sessions, and as a result, get less exposure to material and their academic performance suffers. These students are more likely to stop participating in extra-curricular activities on campus. This type of employment is directly correlated to student disengagement (Salamonson, Andrew and Everett, 2009).

Students who work on-campus jobs are generally more aware of university activities and stay more engaged. The hour limitations brought by the university for on-campus jobs also help students remain focused on their studies and negative effects are minimized.

If the hours and type of employment are conducive, there are also many positive effects of employment such as; improving time management, gaining group work skills, increasing chance for future employability, and developing a sense of security due to having extra money (Rabotham, 2011).

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Participants were 231 volunteer students from a U.S Midwestern university. Among these students, there were 182 female, 49 males. 87% of all students who participated in this study worked part-time or full-time while attending school. A Likert-type scale survey was developed using NCES questionnaires, which composed of items related to students' employment, their perceptions of the effects of employment while in college, their academic achievement, etc. Data was analyzed using SPSS. Undergraduate students enrolled in the College of Health and Human Services were recruited at regularly scheduled meetings of classes. Students completed the surveys in class on a voluntary basis.

RESULTS

Among 231 students who participated in this survey, 87% of them had some type of part-time or full-time employment while attending college. The majority of the students work in service-related jobs such as retail and hospitality sectors as shown in Figure 2.

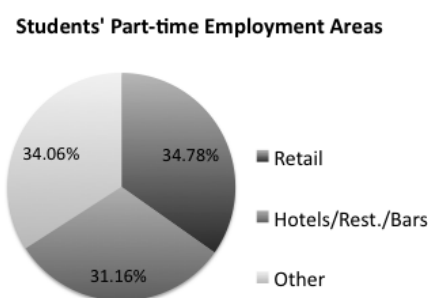


Figure 2. Part-time Employment areas among students

These types of jobs are the most available jobs for students since they do not require much work experience or full-time commitment. However, they are often low-paid jobs, which require long hours that extend to late nights and weekends. In service-related jobs, students tend to be scheduled more for extra hours which cause them to miss classes or university activities.

Students generally seek employment in those jobs out of necessity. When the necessity is not a very strong reason, they still work to be able to pay for school and tuition or to gain work experience. If students do not have the necessity to work at all, they may still choose to work to make extra money. When participants were asked to choose the primary reason for employment, 81% agreed that necessity was the main reason. Interestingly, the desire to make extra money was listed as the 2nd most popular reason for employment among students. Students were later asked whether they would still choose to work if they did not have the necessity, 62% answered "yes". This response was different from previous studies, where students stated that they would not have a part-time job if they did not have the necessity to work.

ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) indicated that there was a significant relationship between the number of hours worked per week versus academic performance. When, Grade Point Averages (GPAs) were compared to number of hours worked per week, it was found that students who work more than 30 hours per week have a significantly lower GPA compared to students who work less than 20 hours per week (Figure 3).

ANOVA GPA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.017	4	1.004	3.843	.005
Within Groups	50.953	195	.261		
Total	54.970	199			

Figure 3. The relationship between number of hours vs. GPA

Students reported missing class due to work for several reasons. Some of the reasons students miss class is because they are scheduled for work during class hours, they feel too tired to go to class after long work hours or they just skip school to go to work and make extra money. Students with a GPA lower than 3.0 tend to skip school for work more than students with a GPA higher than 3.0.

CONCLUSIONS

The most interesting finding in this study is the fact that employment has become more than a result of just necessity among students in recent years. Work has a negative effect on academic performance and causes GPAs to lower when weekly work hours exceed 30 hours. There is also a relationship between the number of times students skip classes for work and their GPA. Students who work long hours during school tend to become unaware of university activities, miss events and therefore lack a regular university experience which affects their engagement and satisfaction with the university, which may be a strong indicator of retention issues. Since employment among students is a trend which is likely to continue to increase, universities may need to embrace the trend and take precautions to encourage university engagements and retention. Universities can also encourage students to try and work in areas that relate to their major, so that the outside employment enhances school work; Eventually, the employment could also count as relevant work experience when the students graduate.

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Özet

Uygurluk tarihinin önemli bir kolu olan edebiyat tarihi, bir ulusun edebi alanda gelişim çizgisini o ulusun çağlar boyunca meydana getirdiği edebî eserlerden ve bu eserlere hayat veren yazarlardan hareketle inceleyerek kapsamlı bir yapı ortaya koyar. Yaratıcılarının kalemiyle ortaya konan edebi eserler, toplum yaşantısı, toplumun kültürel değerleri, düşünsel ve duygusal konumu, birikimi gibi konularda aydınlatıcı oluşuyla tarihi belge ve bellek niteliği kazanır. Edebiyat tarihi, yazar ya da eser odaklı bir kronolojik duruş sergileyebilir; üzerinde durulması gereken nokta; yaşanmışlık ve kültürel birikim sonucu yazılan edebiyat tarihlerinin bilgi taşıyıcılığı rolü yanında bilgi edinen konumda bulunan alıcılara-öğrencilere kazandırdığı değerler sistemidir. Değer eğitimi; öğrencinin eğitime başladığı ilk andan itibaren gelişim sürecinde önemli işleve sahiptir. Ancak Türkiye’de değerler eğitimi özellikle son zamanlarda ilgi görmeye başlamıştır. Edebiyat tarihi yazımı; okura kattığı duyarlılık, kültürel farkındalık, sorumluluk, geçmişten ders çıkarma, kültürel aktarım, paylaşım, estetik zevk vb. birçok konuda içten içe değer eğitime katkıda bulunur. Bu çalışmada edebiyat tarihi aktarım yöntemlerinin işlevselliği, değer eğitime etkisi üzerinden kronolojik bir inceleme yapılacaktır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Edebiyat Tarihi, Değer Eğitimi, Biblioterapi, Geçmiş Farkındalığı, Sosyal Sorumluluk

Giriş

Avrupa’da 18. yüzyıldan itibaren ilk örnekleri görülmeye başlayan edebiyat tarihleri, Osmanlı’da bir asırdan fazla bir gecikme ile ortaya çıkar. Kimi kaynaklarda bizdeki tezkireler, hal tercümeleri (biyografiler), bibliyografyalar, antolojiler edebiyat tarihi kategorisinde değerlendirilmektedir. Polat, bu konuya ilişkin, “Klasik edebiyatımız döneminde, şiire dayalı edebiyatımızın tarihçiliği şüara tezkireleriyle yapıyordu. Durağan bir toplum hayatı için birbirinden çok farklı olmayan bu eserler, kendi alanında yeterli kaynaklardı; çünkü şairleri unutulmaktan kurtarmak gibi bugün için artık çok küçük görünen bir hedefe hizmet ediyorlardı. Fakat hem fert hem kitle bazında ihtiyaçlarıyla, sıkıntılarıyla, çözüm öneri ve yollarıyla, eğitim ve kalkınma tercihleriyle bütün yaşama şeklini, hedeflerini yeniden düzenleyen medeniyet değişikliği; kültür hayatını, ona bağlı olarak edebiyatı ve dolayısıyla edebiyat tarihi ihtiyacını da farklı bir mecraya sürükledi” (Polat, 2012, s. 307) demektedir. Sözü edilen çalışmalar elbette edebiyat tarihi için kaynak ve malzeme niteliği taşırlar ancak bunların hiçbiri edebiyat tarihi tanımına uymaz. “Bütün edebî hareketleri ve dönemleri, yazarları, şairleri, dil ve üslup özelliklerini açıklayan bilim dalı veya kitap, yazın tarihi” (Akalin vd., 2005, s. 600), “Bir milletin geçmişteki fikri ve hissi hayatını göstermek itibarıyla medeniyet tarihinin yani bir milletin umumi tarihinin parçası” (Köprülü, 1986, s. 4), “Edebi hadiselerin zaman çerçevesi içinde mütalaası” (Tarlan, 1981, s. 21), “Bir dile ait bütünüyle veya bir dönemle sınırlı olarak edebi eserleri, şahsiyetleri ve edebiyat topluluklarını kronolojik ve sistematik şekilde inceleyen, yorumlayan bir bilim dalı” (Okay, 2006, s. 9) biçimlerinde farklı yorumları yapılan edebiyat tarihi, en geniş tanımıyla “Bir milletin edebiyatının asırlar boyunca gösterdiği seyir ve tekamülü tam olarak inceleyen; edebi oluş ve cereyanları bir bütün olarak ele alıp onların siyasi, içtimai, ruhi ve fikri muhit ve şartlarla ilgi ve münasebetlerini tayin ederek ve estetik değerini belirterek açıklayan bir ilimdir (Timurtaş, 1963). Tanpınar, edebiyat tarihi anlayışını; “Edebiyat vakıalarını zaman çerçevesi içinde olduğu gibi sıralamak, birbiriyle olan münasebetlerini ve dışarıdan gelen tesirleri tayin etmek, büyük zevk ve fikir cereyanlarını ayırmak, hulasa her türlü vesikanın hakkını vererek bir devrin edebi çehresini tespitiye çalışmak, edebiyat tarihinden beklenen şeylerin en kısa ifadesidir” (Tanpınar, 2010, s. 15) sözleriyle vermiştir. Ağâh Sırrı Levend ise edebiyat tarihini, bir ulusun çağlar boyunca meydana getirdiği edebî eserleri incelemesi nedeniyle, “uygarlık tarihinin önemli bir kolu” (Levend, 1998, s. 3) saymıştır. Bu tanımlardan hareketle “Bir milletin tarih sahnesine çıkışından yaşanan döneme kadar meydana getirdiği edebi ürünlerini her türlü unsuruyla sistemli bir çerçevede ortaya koyan edebiyat tarihine” (Çetin, 2012, s. 153) hal tercümesi ve tezkirelerin karşılık olamayacağı açıktır. Edebiyat tarihleri çok daha geniş bir mahiyet taşımaktadır.

Edebiyat tarihi, bir ulusun başlangıcından günümüze kadar ürettiği edebi eserleri tarihsel gelişim çizgisi içerisinde incelerken, o dönemlerin kültür ve sanat anlayışına, dil, giyim-kuşam, yemek, tarihi yapılar, dünya

görüşü ve oluşturdukları değerler sistemine yönelik bilgiler de sunar. Edebi eser, toplumsal ilişkiler ve bunların arka planındaki fikir akımları, çağın kültür, medeniyet ve estetik anlayışı gibi edebiyat tarihi tarifinin içine giren bu unsurlar, edebiyat tarihi öğretimi yoluyla öğrenci/okur en genel manada alıcılara çok sayıda değer kazandırır. Bu noktada değer kavramı üzerinde durmak yerinde olacaktır: “Bir sosyal grup veya toplumun kendi varlık, birlik, işleyiş ve devamını sağlamak ve sürdürmek için üyelerinin çoğunluğu tarafından doğru ve gerekli oldukları kabul edilen ortak düşünce, amaç, temel ahlaki ilke ya da inançlar” (Özden, 1998, s. 167) şeklinde tarif edilebilen değer kavramının esasını, “İnsani, ahlaki, kültürel, ruhsal, toplumsal ve evrensel boyutlarda oluşabilen bu duyarlıkların özümsemesi ve benimsenmesi süreci” (Yaman, 2012, s. 17) oluşturur. Beil’e göre değerler, bireylerin hem kendileri hem de başkalarıyla ilgili davranışlarına yön vererek davranış kılavuzu görevi yapmaktadır (Beil, 2003, s. 14). Sosyolojik açıdan değer, kişiye ve gruba yararlı, kişi ve grup için istenilir, kişi veya grup tarafından beğenilen her şey olarak tanımlanabilir (Aydın, s. 39). Değerler davranışlarımıza rehberlik yapar, eylemlerimizi, yargılarımızı, anlık hedeflerimizi daha üst hedeflere taşıyarak nasıl olmamız, nasıl davranmamız gerektiğini bize bildirir (Doğan, 2004).

Edebiyat tarihi öğretimi, değer eğitimi yönünden dört önemli evrensel boyutu ortaya çıkarır. Bunlar;

- Kültürel miras olarak edebiyat tarihi,
- Ahlakî eğitim için edebiyat tarihi,
- Günümüz dünyasını anlamak için edebiyat tarihi
- Kişisel ve Bilişsel Beceri Kazandırılması İçin Edebiyat Tarihi

Kültürel Miras Olarak Edebiyat Tarihinin Değer Eğitime Katkısı

Edebiyat tarihinin dayanağını oluşturan edebi eserler, bütün düşünce ve sanat ürünleri gibi, toplumun hayatıyla ilgili olduğu ve ulusal kültürün izlerini taşıdığı için en önemli kültür miraslarıdır. Edebi eserler, yazıldıkları döneme ışık tutmaları bakımından tarihi belge niteliği taşır ve bu çerçevede tarih biliminin yararlandığı temel kaynaklar kapsamına girer. Edebi eserler, bir milletin duyuş, düşünüş ve hassasiyetlerini gösteren birer ayna oldukları için son derece değerlidirler. Bu bağlamda bir milletin maddi ve manevi gelişmelerini takip eden, edebi eserlerin katkısıyla temellendiren edebiyat tarihi, okur için adeta değerler hazinesidir.

Milletlerin devamlılıklarını sağlayabilmeleri için kendilerini millet yapan kültürel değerlerini, türlü yollarla genç nesillere aktarmaları gerekmektedir (Uyar, 2007, s. 2). Bu kültürel aktarımın en güzel örneğinin yazılmış edebiyat tarihleri olduğu söylenebilir. Çünkü maddi ve manevi birikimle dolu olan edebiyat tarihlerinin öğretimi sayesinde toplumların geçmişten güç alarak varlıklarını sağlıklı bir biçimde devam ettirebilmeleri sağlanır. Buradan hareketle edebiyat tarihi öğretiminin kazandıracağı temel değerler; geçmiş bilinci, milli tavır, ilmi aydınlanma ve kültürel farkındalıktır. Yazılı ve basılı edebiyat tarihleri insana kendi arka planını, kültürel zenginliğini, düşünce yapısını, karakteristiklerini, edebi-sosyal-psikolojik altyapısını, özüne ilişkin değerli bilgileri edinme imkânı verir.

Türk edebiyatı eskilik bakımından Avrupa edebiyatlarından daha öncesine giden, coğrafi bakımdan ise daha büyük bir sahaya yayılan bir tarihe sahiptir. Bu bakımdan Orta Asya’dan başlayarak geniş bir sahada söz sahibi olan Türk kültürü, inançları ve bunların zenginliğiyle ortaya çıkan Türk edebiyatının yazılı ve sözlü ürünleri, büyük bir kültürel mirasa ışık tutar. Bu miras, binlerce yılın birikimi, insani değeri ve üslubuyla yüküldür. Tüm bunların taşıyıcısı olan Türk edebiyatı tarihi, hangi açıdan bakılırsa bakılsın son derece dinamik, kapsamlı ve zengindir. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimiyle birlikte çok sayıda değer okur/alıcıya kazandırılır, alıcının edineceği temel değerler; ortak kültürel birikim ve değerler skalasının farkında varmak, milli bilinç ve mahalli değerler kavramını yakalamak olacaktır.

Osmanlı Devleti’nde tarihin ayrı bir tür olmaktan çok edebiyatın bir kolu olarak değerlendirildiği görülür. Bu sebeple tarih ile edebiyatı birbirinden ayırmak kolay değildir. Tarihin yazılmasına kaynaklık eden destanlar, gazâvâtnâmeler, menkıbeler, fütüvetnâmeler vb. tarihi bilgileri aktarmakla birlikte edebiyatın da temel dayanaklarını oluştururlar. Bu metinler, yeni nesillere tarih bilgisini aktarırken bireylere millî kimlik kazandırılmasında da önemli bir sorumluluğu üstlenir. “Milletler ancak tarihlerini bilmek suretiyle “millî şuur”a sahip olurlar” (Kaplan, 1982, s. 64). Buna göre bireyde ve toplumda millî tarih şuurunun oluşmasına katkı sunan en mühim unsurlar sanat eserleridir. Çünkü “tarihte iz bırakan olaylar, inanışlar, yaşayış biçimleri ve ilişkiler, ait oldukları dönemin sanat eserlerine yansır. Resim ve heykel gibi plastik sanatlardan başka roman, hikâye, tiyatro ve şiir gibi edebî ürünler, içinde tarihî vakaları, şahsiyetleri ve mekânları barındırabilen en güçlü yazılı sanat eserlerini oluştururlar. Bunlar, her bakımdan okuyucusunu bilgilendirme ve ona bir aidiyet duygusunu yaşatmaya hizmet eden metinlerdir” (Erol, 2012, s. 61-62).

Tezkiyecilikten edebiyat tarihçiliğine kadarki uzun yolculukta çok sayıda yazar, eser, fikir ve edebiyat akımı karşımıza çıkar. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimi sayesinde büyük çapta kültürel ve edebi birikim, yazar ve eser bilgisi

gelecek kuşaklara aktarılmış olur. Edebiyat tarihinin kültür taşıyıcı ve aktarıcı rolü bu anlamda öne çıkarken, bireylere bu kültürel aktarımda önemli görevler düşer. Okullarda edebiyat tarihi öğretimi ile geçmişe dair tüm bilgi ve birikimleri taşıma, o bilgilere yenilerini ekleme, güncelleme ve derinleştirme imkânı öğrencilere verilir. Bu anlamda edebiyat tarihi öğretimi son derece mühim ve değer yüküldür. Geleceği sağlam temeller üzerine kurabilmek ve yarınlar gülümseyerek bakabilmek için tarih bilinci, yerli unsur bilgisinin alıcıya nasıl ve ne zaman verilmesi gerektiği birtakım tartışmaları gündeme getirir. Ali Canip Yöntem, edebiyat tarihi derslerinin yüksek öğretimde okutulması gerektiğini düşünür. Çünkü onun kanaatine göre ortaöğretimde çocukların hayal dünyalarını, karakterlerini, zekâ ve ruhi melekelerini geliştirmek için gerekli edebiyat bilgileri verilmiş, bu hassasiyetlerle seçilen metinler okutulmuş ve yüksek öğretim için öğrencilerde belli bir altyapı kurulmuş olur. Lanson'a ait olan bu prensibi benimseyen Yöntem, edebiyat tarihi öğretiminden önce çocuklar için duygusal ve zihinsel bir zeminin oluşturulmasını, edebi zevklerinin geliştirilmesini önemser. Daha ortaöğretimde yoğun bir edebiyat tarihi yüklemesiyle çocukların zihni uzak geçmiş içinde bir mezarlıkta dolaşır şekilde bırakılmamalıdır (Özcan, 1997, s. 152-157). Dolayısıyla edebiyat tarihi öğretimi, daha çok yüksek öğretimde işe yarar. Çünkü hitap edilecek kitlede belli bir altyapı oluşturulduğu ve edebiyat tarihini kavrama, olayları doğru yerlerde kodlama yani bilişsel süreçte yetkinlik sağlanmış olacağı için daha olumlu sonuçlar alınacaktır. Ortaöğretimde edebiyat tarihine ilişkin kısa bilgiler verilebilir.

Edebiyat tarihçileri çalışmalarıyla geçmişi silinmekten edebi isimleri unutulmaktan eski zevk ve hazzı yok olmaktan kurtarıırken yalnızca bilgi verici değil, insanlığın ve evrensel değerlerin değişim ve gelişimi noktasında da aydınlatıcı olur. Edebiyat tarihçilerinin tarihten hareketle ortaya koyduğu bu bilgi, aynı zamanda okuyucunun zihni melekelerini felsefe, psikoloji, sosyoloji gibi sosyal kültürlerle de süsler. Bu durumda tarih kültürü, genel kültürün bir parçası olmakla birlikte aynı zamanda kaynağını da oluşturmaktadır. Bu kaynağı yansıtan ve gösteren araç ise, sanat kültürüdür (Erol, 2012, s. 62).

Türk Edebiyatı Öğretim Programında edebiyatla ilgili şu ifadeler yer verilmiştir: “Güzel sanatların bir dalı olan edebiyatın insanlığın ilk dönemlerinden beri, her yerde ve zamanda varlığını sürdürmesi, bizlere onun insana özgü vazgeçilmez bir ihtiyacı karşıladığını düşündürmektedir. Edebiyatın bu özelliğini, insanın sanat yapma varlık şartına bağlayanların da olduğu bilinmektedir. Edebî eser, dille gerçekleşen güzel sanat ürünüdür. Özgünlüğü de tarihî ve kültürel olanla yakın ilişkisinden kaynaklanır. Edebî metin, sanat ve kültür etkinliklerinin iç içe girdiği bir alanda oluşur. Zaten dil, kültür alanının hem yapıcısı hem de ifade aracıdır. Bu durum edebiyat eğitimine, kültür ve sanat eğitimi arasında ayrı bir önem kazandırmaktadır” (TEDÖP, 2005, s. 1).

Tarih ve sanat kültürünün içiçeliği edebiyat tarihine işaret eder. Bir milletin kendini, değerlerini tanıması, özüne ilişkin temel bilgilere ulaşması, yok oluştan kurtularak bir bilince ulaşması noktasındaki tüm değerlerin taşıyıcısı ve yükleyeni bir anlamda edebiyat tarihidir.

Ahlakî Eğitim İçin Edebiyat Tarihinin Değer Eğitimine Katkısı

Yazılı tarihinden başlangıcından bu yana insanların düşünce dünyaları, bakış açıları, değerleri yazdıkları eserleri etkilemiştir. Bu eserler ise yazıldıkları andan itibaren diğer insanların davranışlarının, duygu ve düşüncelerinin, dahası temel değerlerinin belirleyeni olmuştur. Bu etkileşimle günümüze ulaşan edebiyat tarihlerinin öğretimiyle öğrencilerin ahlaki bakımdan değer eğitimine katkı, en çok biblioterapi yöntemiyle sağlanır. Biblioterapi, “bireylerin kendilerini tanımaları, sosyal çevrelerini anlamaları, problemlerini çözmeleri noktasında okuma yoluyla edebi metinlerden faydalanma” (Bodont, 1980; akt. Öner ve Yeşilyaprak, 2006, s. 559) anlamına gelir. “Biblioterapinin doğru zamanda doğru bilgiyi doğru kişilerle buluşturma” (Philpot, 1997) şeklindeki tanımı, bizi daha önce sözünü ettiğimiz Yöntem'in edebiyat tarihinin hangi zamanda öğrencilere okutulması gerektiğine dair açıklamalarına götürür. Edebi okumalar, örnek metin seçkileri, döneme yayılan bir anlayış sonucu farklı tür veya eserlerde işlenen ortak konunun okuyucudaki değişik yansımaları gibi unsurlar edebiyat tarihi öğretiminde yardımcı unsurlar olarak karşımıza çıkarlar. Edebiyat tarihi kitaplarını okumak ve onların üzerinde eleştirel düşünmek alıcının kazanacağı en mühim erdemlerdir.

Edebiyat tarihi dersleri ile bilhassa öğrencilere tek taraflı veya sabit fikirli bir bakış açısı yerine çok yönlü ve özgürce düşünebilme değeri kazandırılır. Herhangi bir olay, dönemin algısına göre farklı kişiler tarafından farklı yorumlanabilir. O olayı yanlı olarak veya tek taraflı acımasız bir şekilde çözülemeye çalışmak, geçmişe saygısızlık ve haksızlıktır. Bu bağlamda edebiyat tarihi öğretimi yapılırken aynı olayın değişik çevrelerce yorumlanması, algılanışı ve ulaştığı nokta değerlendirilmeye çalışılmalıdır. Görünenin arkasındaki görebilme, eş zamanlı veya ard zamanlı taramaları adilane bir şekilde gerçekleştirebilme ve kanıtlara dayalı araştırma yaparak vakalara objektif bakabilme edebiyat tarihi öğretiminde temel ahlaki değer noktalarından olmalıdır. Çok geniş bir alana ve meçhullerle dolu bir geçmişe sahip olan Türk edebiyatı; araştırmacılardan dürüstlüğü, azmi, emeğe saygıyı, geniş perspektifli bakış açılarını, hoşgörüyü, ilim, tevazu ve teşekkür etmeyi, işbirliğiyle paylaşımcı çalışmayı, meraklı ve sorgulayıcı olmayı, her türlü taraftarlıktan uzak durarak ayrımcılık yerine bütünleyici

olmayı, bazı yanlış kabullere karşı dikkatli ve sağlıklı davranmayı, empati kurmayı gerekli kılar. İnsan yaşamı için de temel düsturlardan olan bu unsurlardan her biri edebiyat tarihçisinin, edebiyat öğretmenin ve öğrencisinin karşılaşacağı ve tecrübe edeceği noktalar. Edebiyat tarihi içinde barındırdığı bu değerleri çeşitli vesilelerle alıcıya ulaştırmakta ve temel değer eğitime bu çok önemli hususlarda katkı sağlamaktadır. Değerlerin aktarılması topluma uyumun yani sosyalleşmenin de ilk basamağını oluşturur. Ortak değer yargıları, sosyalleşen bireyin diğer insanlarla aynı düşüncede buluşmasını kolaylaştırır. Elbette farklılıklar zenginliktir ancak ayrılıklar da toplumun kaynaşması, bir noktada buluşabilmesinde önem taşır. Sosyalleşme, birçok değişkenin bir araya gelip bunların ferde aktarılması ve ferdin de bunları davranışa dönüştürmesi sürecidir. Sergilenen davranış kalıplarının kaynağını değerler oluşturur. Değer ve normlar, milletin günlük yaşamını şekillendiren en güçlü kültür unsurlarıdır (Uyar, 2007, s. 104). Medeniyetlerin varlıklarını sürdürebilmeleri ancak değerlerini yeni nesillere aktarabilmeleriyle mümkün olduğuna göre, özellikle üzerine yoğunlaştığımız edebiyat tarihi öğretimi, bünyesindeki çok sayıda değer alıcılara aktarılması noktasında hayati öneme sahiptir.

Günümüz Dünyasını Anlamak İçin Edebiyat Tarihinin Değer Eğitime Katkısı

Bu maddeyi açıklamaya girişmeden evvel, söze Ali Canip Yöntem'in konuyla alakalı bir anısıyla başlamak istiyorum:

“Bir gün pek değerli bir zat Ali Canip'i edebiyat tarihine dair yazdığı yazılar sebebiyle tarizen; “Bu hafta yine mezardan kimi çıkarıyorsunuz! der gibi pek nükteli bir sorar. Ali Canip, soru üzerine öyle sıkılır ki şöyle cevap verir: Tali gariptir, kimisi mevzuunu mezardan çıkarır, kimimizi mezara gömer!” (Sevgi ve Özcan, 2005, s. 541).

Yöntem'in de vurguladığı üzere, geçmiş içinde büyük bir zenginliğin gizli olduğu, deşeledikçe farklı bir yüzüyle karşılaştığımız bilgi mezarıdır ancak bugüne ışıktır. Geçmiş önceye ait anlamı taşır ancak geçmiş aynı zamanda bugünü anlama ve anlamlandırmada ilk çıkış noktasıdır. Mezardan çıkarılan her mevzu, günümüzde daha sağlam adımlar atmamızda önemli yer tutar.

Ülkemizde edebiyat tarihi özelliği taşıyan ilk çalışma 1889'da Abdülhalim Memduh'un yazdığı Tarih-i Edebiyat-ı Osmaniye'dir. Abdülhalim Memduh, Donald'o'dan tam 200 yıl sonra, ilk defa bu tür adını kitabının adına yerleştirerek Tarih-i Edebiyat-ı Osmaniye'yi yazmıştır. Bilimsel çalışmalara dayanan edebiyat tarihi ise sistemli olarak ilk kez 1928'de Fuat Köprülü tarafından yazılmıştır. Edebiyat tarihi yazımı hususunda Köprülü, “Evvela, müverrihlerin meşgul olduğu mevzu mazidir; öyle bir mazi ki eseri kalmamış ancak bilvasıta bazı izler, vesikalar bırakmıştır; müverrih, onların yardımıyla, geçen bir sahneyi yeniden yaşatmaya çalışacaktır; hâlbuki bizim mevzuumuz mazi olmakla beraber, aynı zamanda da hâldir; yani geçmeyen, devam eden, gözlerimizin önünde yaşayan bir mazi” (Köprülü, 2004, s. 43-44) demektedir. Alıntı çok açıkça ifade etmektedir ki edebiyatın tarihi aynı zamanda insanlığın, insanımızın bizlerin tarihidir. Geçmiş, deneyimlerle, yaşanmışlıklarla dolayısıyla çok sayıda kıssadan hisseyle doludur. Geçmiş iyi bilmek, gelecekte yapılan her işte daha özenli olmayı, daha doğru hareket etmeyi sağlar. Bugün, geçmişin bir yansımasıdır. Bu bakımdan her şekilde geçmişin yol göstericiliğinden faydalanmak gerekir. Ali Canip Yöntem'in “Mazi bilgisi, hali anlamak için bir anahtardır. Tarih, mazi ile işteğal eder, mazi ise halin tarihidir” (Sevgi ve Özcan, 2005, s. 543) sözü aslında bu başlığı çok net özetlemektedir.

“Bugün ile geçmiş arasında kesintisiz bir diyalog” (Carr, 1987, s. 41) olan edebiyat tarihinin ders olarak öğretilmesi ile hedeflenen öğrencilere geçmişin bilgilerini vererek tarihini, değerlerini, kültürünü tanımaları ve benimsemeleridir. Diğer önemli nokta ise bu bilinçle yeni nesillere aynı birikimi aktarmalarıdır. Geçmişe bağlılık, kültüre bağlılık ve sadakat kazanılan erdemlerdir. Bununla birlikte geçmişin bilgisi öğretilirken içinde yaşanan toplumun kimliği öğrenciye aktarılmaya çalışılarak kimlik gelişimine de yardımcı olunmaktadır.

Kişisel ve Bilişsel Beceri Kazandırılması İçin Edebiyat Tarihi

Eğitimin tarih boyunca, öğrencilerin akademik başarılarını yükseltmek ve iyi karakter özellikleri göstermelerini sağlamak üzere iki ana hedefi olmuştur (Lickona 1993, 12-15). Edebiyat tarihi öğretimiyle genel olarak öğrencilere çoğulcu düşünme, yorum ve değerlendirme yapabilme, bilgiyi sentezleme, eleştirel bakış gibi beceri ve davranışlar kazandırılır. Sosyal, kültürel ve ahlaki gelişimi göstermesi, milli bilinç ve mahalli algı oluşturarak milli kimlik yaratması, birden fazla alana ilgi duyarak olayları çoğulcu yöntemler ile değerlendirme yetisi kazandırması, geçmiş hakkında doğru ve sağlıklı bilgiler edinme imkânı sunması, toplumsal değişim ve gelişimin evrensel boyuttaki izlerini tespit edebilmesi, günümüzü anlama, geçmiş ve bugün arasında bağlantı kurabilme becerisi kazandırması... bakımlarından edebiyat tarihi son derece eğitsel ve faydalıdır. Bu maddelere dikkatle bakıldığında bu amaçların bir kısmının değerlerle ilgili olduğu ve değer aktarımını içerdiği görülür. Bu

da değer eğitiminde edebiyat tarihi öğretiminin katkısı ve önemini açıkça ortaya koymaktadır. Yazınsal metinler ve edebiyat tarihi, okumalar ve araştırmalar sonucunda okur/öğrencinin anlam üretebilmesini, ürettiği anlamı yorumlayıp karşı tarafa aktarabilmesini sağlar. Bilhassa bu hususlar edebi eserlerin çerçevesiyle oluşan edebiyat tarihinin okura kazandıracağı en temel değerlerdendir. Diğer taraftan müstakil bir disiplin olmanın yanında sosyoloji, psikoloji, tarih, felsefe gibi komşu alanlarla beraber daha kapsamlı olan edebiyat tarihi, bu kapsayıcı yönüyle çok farklı alanlarda birikim sahibi olmayı sağlamakla birlikte, yol açıcı, geniş perspektifle olaylara yaklaşma anlayışı kazandırır. Çoğul bakış açısıyla hareket edebilmesi için öncülük etmiş olur.

Edebiyat tarihi öğretimi yalnızca bir ulusun kendi mazisini, mahalli unsurlarını sistematik bir bilgiyle öğrencilere sunması manasını taşımaz. Dünya edebiyatıyla karşılaştırmalar yaparak öğrenciye mukayese becerisi kazandırırken, bütünsellik anlayışı içinde edebiyatın evrenselliğini görmesini de sağlar. Herhangi bir konuya bütüncül bakış açısıyla yaklaşmayı öğretirken, bütünün parçalarını değerlendirme, benzerlik ve farklılıkları keşfetme imkânı sağlar.

Türkiye’de edebiyat tarihi öğretimi yapılırken birtakım geleneksel yöntemler öne çıkar. Bilgi verme amaçlı sürdürülen bu yöntemlerle öğrencilere edebi bilginin yanı sıra temel kaynaklar öğretilir, bilgiye ulaşma, bilgiyi kullanma ve değerli bir birikim yaratabilme yolları gösterilir. Okuma temelli bu öğretimle aynı mevzuyu farklı kaynaklardan tarayarak hem kaynaklara ulaşma hem de ulaşılan kaynaklardaki farklı bakış açılarını görerek kendine ait fikir ortaya koyabilme becerisi kazandırılır. Çok okumak bilindiği üzere zaten kavrama gücünü artırması, hayal dünyasını zenginleştirmesi, hafızanın güçlenmesi için önemlidir.

Etkili edebiyat tarihi öğretimi uyandırdığı merak duygusu ile okuma sevgisi, araştırmacı bir mizaç ve sorgulayıcı bir bakış açısı kazandıracaktır. Ezber bilgilerle hareket edilmeyip farklı materyal ve metotlarla çok boyutlu olarak işlenen edebiyat tarihi dersleri, girişimci, ilgili, merak duyan, edebi şahsiyet ve eserlere büyük duyarlılık ve hassasiyetle yaklaşan, pratik bilgiyi süzgeçten geçirerek özümseyebilen, bilgileri mukayese ederek benzerlik ve farklılıkları, orijinallik veya taklit/örnek alma niteliklerini ortaya koyabilme, eldeki bilgileri hazmederek özgün fikirler yaratabilme, birincil kaynaklarla savlarını destekleme, tarama ve bilgi toplama vb. çok önemli değerleri kazanmış olacaktırlar. Metne sadık kalma düşüncesiyle sadakat, çok boyutlu düşünme yoluyla çoğulcu bakış, çalıntı veya taklitten uzak durma yoluyla orijinallik değeri, faydalanılan kaynakları ve düşüncelerinden istifade edilen kişileri çalışmalarında anma, kaynakçada bilgilerine yer verme yoluyla, emeğe saygı, dürüstlük, vefa, açık sözlülük vb. çok elzem değerlerin kazandırılması söz konusudur. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimiyle sadece edebi bilgiler, edebi tarih ve gelişmelerin bilgisi verilmez. Ayrıca öğrenciler kendi kronoloji algılamalarını geliştirip geçmişi bölümlenme, belli birtakım temalar üzerinden geçmiş ve günümüz kıyaslama becerisi kazanırlar. Daha da önemlisi kazandırılan kişisel beceriler ve alıcılara bu becerilerin kazandırılmış olmasıdır.

Edebiyat eğitimi; estetik zevkin gelişmesi, kültürel değerlerin somut olarak ifade edilmesi ve yorumlanması, sürdürülen hayatın farklı bir dikkat ve duyarlılıkla dile getirilmesi bakımından da son derece önemlidir. Eserlerin edebi boyutunu, sanat değerini çözümlenme yeteneğini, estetik haz kavramının gelişmesini, metnin yorumlanması, dil ve üslup becerisi kazanılmasını sağlar. Değerler kültürü ve toplumun kimliğini oluştururlar. Dolayısıyla toplumu bir arada tutan ve sürekliliği sağlayan ortak düşünce, duygu ve kanılardan oluşan değerler, topluma manevi bir atmosfer kazandırır.

Sonuç:

Uygurluk tarihinin önemli bir kolu olan edebiyat tarihi, bir ulusun çağlar boyunca meydana getirdiği edebi eserleri inceleyerek, duyuş ve düşünüş yönünden geçirdiği evreleri tanıtır. Geçmiş ile bugünün etkileşimi sağlarken, topluma kazandırdığı temel değerlerle önemli bir yere sahiptir. Abdülhalim Memduh’un yazdığı Tarih-i Edebiyat-ı Osmaniye ile başlayan Türk edebiyat tarihi yazımı anlayışı, Fuad Köprülü’nün çalışmalarıyla sistemli hale gelmiş, daha sonra alana olan ilgi artarak Ağâh Sırrı Levend, Ali Nihat Tarlan, Ahmet Hamdi Tanpınar, Nihat Sami Banarlı, Rauf Mutluay, Mahir Ünlü, Vasfi Mahir Kocatürk, Şükran Kurdakul, Ahmet Kabaklı gibi edebiyat tarihçileri yetiştirmiştir.

Edebiyat tarihi, sosyal bilimlerin birer dalı olan edebiyat ve tarih biliminin kesiştiği önemli edebiyat araştırmaları kavramlarından biridir. Edebiyat tarihi, edebiyat eserlerinin bu eserleri yaratanların, eserlerin yaratıldığı ortamların ve elbette bütün bunlarla bağlantılı sosyal, siyasal ve düşünsel gelişmelerin belirli bir akış içerisinde incelenmesini öngörür. Kültürel kimliğin kazanılmasında tarih eğitiminin rolü ne kadar büyükse edebi kimliğin oluşması için de edebiyat tarihi öğretiminin rolü büyüktür. Edebiyat tarihi, bir milletin kültürel varlığını, dinamizmini, daimiliğini göstermesi bakımından oldukça önemlidir. Bilhassa kültür taşıyıcılığı rolüyle değer eğitimine katkıda bulunur. Değerler; bizi, ailemizi, toplumumuzu, milletimizi ve insanlığı değerli kılan üstün özelliklerdir. Değer eğitimiyle nitelikli ve donanımlı bireyler yetiştirerek sağlıklı gelecekler yaratmak amaçlanır. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimi, geçmiş bilinciyle bugüne sağlam adımlar atan, geçmişten ders çıkaran,

kültürel miraslar konusunda farkındalık yaratan bir anlayışla hareket ederken okur/öğrencilere ahlakî muhakeme gücü de kazandırır. Edebiyat tarihi bir milletin sanatsal ve edebi hafızası, toplum yaşantısının, sosyal-siyasal-ahlaki vb. yapılanmasının göstergeleridir. Edebiyat tarihi çok yönlü ve çoğulcu bünyesi ile okura çok sayıda değer kazandırır. Bunların başlıcaları; hoşgörü, azim, özgür düşünce, çok boyutlu düşünme ve araştırma, objektiftir. Dolayısıyla edebiyat tarihi kitaplarının dolu içeriği ile okura sağladığı bilgi birikimi, yaşamışlık tecrübesi, tarihi ve kültürel altyapı okur için pragmatik bir dinamiğe işaret eder. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimiyle okur bir taraftan da eleştirel okuma yapma alışkanlığı kazanır. Hikâyeler, biyografiler, efsaneler, destanlar... edebiyat tarihinin kaynakları, insanlığın gelişim evrimini yansıtan başlıca dayanaklar ve değer yaratıcılarıdır. Dolayısıyla bu kaynaklar değer edindirme sürecinde bir öğretim aracı olarak kullanılabilirler. Edebiyat tarihi eğitiminde, çevre ve müze gezileri gibi yaklaşımlar değer aktarımı için elverişli ortamlar yaratırlar. Bu sebeple pratik ve kuramsal bilgi akışının yanı sıra görsel olarak da değer aktarımı yapılabilir. Geçmişe dair olanı yerinde görme ve algılama yoluyla bir taraftan alıcılara geçmişe karşı manevi borcu ödeme imkânı tanınırken vefa değeri de kazandırılmış olur.

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To Study the Relationship Between Students' Reading Speed and Note Taking Speed and Exploring Learners Perceptions About Both Skills

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Abstract

This study aims at investigating the nature of the relationship between reading speed and note-taking speed. It further attempts to explore students' habits while dealing with both skills. Hence, it presents a qualitative and quantitative investigation designed to provide a concrete picture of the difficulties, processes, and strategies used by English university students in their academic reading and note taking. The research uses two research instruments. The main concern of the tests which included 48 students is to measure students' typical reading and note-taking rates. Questionnaires that involved 262 students are developed to gain knowledge of the learners' difficulties and strategies used in a specific reading situation and their actual execution during note-taking. The results demonstrate that subjects with higher reading ability (rapid readers) are rapid and efficient in their note-taking. However, subjects with lower reading ability (slow readers) proved to be slow note-takers.

Keywords.

Introduction

In most EFL University situations, reading academic texts is one of the biggest requirements for students along with note-taking. The latter is also an important aspect of academic writing and is linked to academic reading (R. Jordan, 1997: 50). EFL learners rely on reading as being an information source for acquiring knowledge mainly because the EFL is not commonly spoken outside the classroom. Readers, on the other hand, make use of note-taking skills as a real-world reflection of what is being read and a useful tool for later revision (Purvis, 1978, p. 6), reference and many other recall purposes (Michael Mc Carthy, 1990. p. 127). Nevertheless, most books in the literature consider each skill separated from the other skills the thing that makes studies related to this issue very few.

Actually, reading performance is traditionally measured purely in terms of comprehension (Wainwright, 2007, p.1) and note-taking has received little attention from the communities of researchers and teachers as it was linked to listening more than to reading (In Barbier et al., 2006). However, note taking is probably one of the most common strategies that should be used by readers as Woolfolk (2004, p. 298) notes. Admitting that reading and note-taking are related on this basis, yet our very concern is not to treat them separately as two independent study skills but to shed light on this relation in terms of speed. To this respect, speed is one of the features that clearly distinguish the reading skill from the other skills (M. Vallet, 1967, 1977: 211). Only in reading can the mind assimilate information in much less time than that required for writing it down.

RATIONALE

This study sets a number of aims to be achieved. So, basically it seeks to:

- Measure and quantify students' reading and note-taking speeds.
- Diagnose, describe, and show learners' reading and note-taking habits and perceptions together with the core factors and the source of problems which make those English students slow and less proficient readers and note-takers.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It has been established beyond the shadow of doubt that EFL students, in general, endure serious reading and note-taking difficulties which are mainly caused by the lack of reading fluency. This is revealed through the great amount of time and effort invested when reading and taking notes the thing that would exhaust their working memory capacities. The majority of students tend to plough through a written print struggling in a word by word reading and note-taking stumbling at every unknown word (Manya & De Leeuw, 1965, p. 170). In addition, they lose more time writing down whole words and sentences without making efforts to use

abbreviations and symbols instead. This study is concerned with speed because to be efficient readers and note-takers, students need to achieve their reading and note taking goals as quickly and easily as possible.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The current study is designed to answer two primary questions:

- What is the nature of the relationship between reading speed and note-taking speed? Are they totally independent or correlated variables?
- What are the habits that slow/ rapid readers and note-takers report on using when dealing with both skills?

THE HYPOTHESIS

We hypothesize that third year English Students to be slow readers and slow note takers. Thus, students' reading speed (or pace) and note –taking speed and habits correlate positively.

METHODOLOGY

METHOD

The investigation is conducted through a descriptive diagnostic methodology. It focuses, on the other hand, on another common type of research which is the correlational one. This latter is carried out to explore the nature of the relationship among variables a researcher is interested in (J. Charles Alderson, Caroline Claphan and Dianne Wall, 1995, p. 77). Hence, the current study is constructed following two steps: reading and note taking speeds tests correlation, and reading and note taking speeds questionnaires correlation.

PARTICIPANTS

Our study population is that of third year students preparing a license degree in English as a foreign language. The primary sample consisted of forty eight (n= 48) students. Their proficiency level was assessed through their performance on a test measuring reading speed and note taking speed. It is limited to this size for the sake of being time economist, practical and accurate. However, the secondary sample represents two hundred and sixty two (n= 262 university students majoring in English-language too). They are randomly selected from the target population. It is important to note that sex differences have not been given any predictions in the study.

MATERIALS:

Two tests were used in this study. The reading speed section of the test was used to measure participants' reading rates. Another test, which was the reading section of a note taking test, served as the note taking speed test.

Through the reading speed and the note taking speed questionnaires, respondents are said to have gone through retrospective reporting. The rationale behind these questionnaires is to find out wealthy information about the students' reading and note taking backgrounds, perceptions, speed and type of strategies mostly used by English students and which can act negatively or positively, either directly or indirectly on their reading and note taking speeds.

PROCEDURES

As a first step before administering the tests, students were given several instructions as regards the setting of the tests. They were reminded too to work independently and silently. The study was conducted over one Monday morning and the text was provided for each student. The instructor doesn't read it for subjects of the test group. The reading passage is a narrative text containing 550 words long under the title "the missing painting". It does not include technical words or any culture specific ideas. This aids foreign language readers in tackling the text and helps them in achieving comprehension and taking notes easily.

Students in this investigation go through a timed reading task in which they read the passage for the first time at their casual, normal and comfortable speed but they have to note their starting and finishing reading times. After the first reading was over, in order to evaluate students' note-taking speeds, they were required to read the passage for the second time and take notes, after which they had 15 minutes to finish and employ their usual

note-taking habits. At the end of the session, students submitted their conventional notes to the teacher to be used in delayed analysis.

As far as questionnaires are concerned, the twenty one item questionnaire of each variable was developed to explore the different aspects the research intended to investigate. Regarding the administration of the questionnaires, it is significant to point out that during the course of our investigation; questionnaires are directly handed and explained by us during their lecture, with the help of our colleague teacher to 262 students distributed in three different classes in a way to guarantee that questionnaires won't be filled by the same students twice. We were aware that each student takes both questionnaires so that we will see the different opinions of the same student concerning reading speed and note taking speed as an attempt for insuring and increasing reliability. Our broader aim is to compare the elements that both questionnaires treat. However, questionnaires took more than a week's time to be filled in and handed back. The results of both questionnaires draw a conclusion that our variables correlate or not.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

➤ **Reading speed and note taking speed tests results:**

The analysis of students reading and note taking tests helps in drawing the following salient conclusions:

1. Results of the reading speed test and note taking speed test demonstrate that the tests' takers (n=28) are in general rapid readers (the mean value for the reading speed is 109.33) and rapid note takers too (the mean of the note taking speed is 13.15) though there are individual differences between tests' takers in both tests.

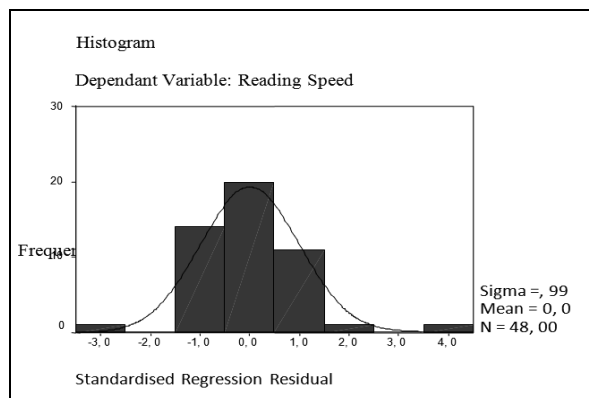


Figure1: The mean results of students' reading and note taking speeds tests.

2. There is a strong (**), significant, and positive correlation between reading speed and note taking speed (the correlation between reading speed and note taking speed is very high, close to 1.000 (r=.662). i.e., rapid reader = rapid note taker. Slow reader = slow note taker.

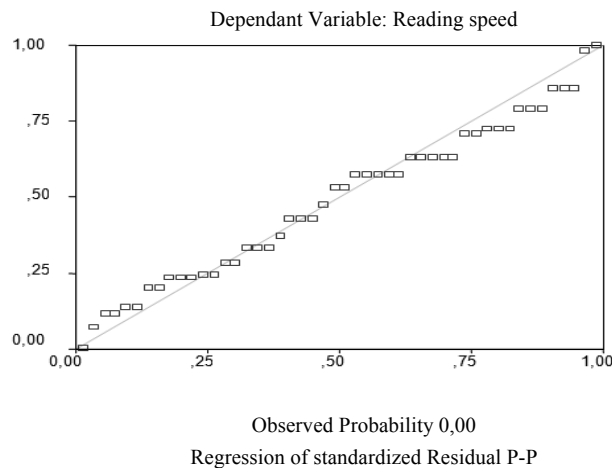


Figure 2: Diagram about the strength and direction of association between reading speed and note taking speed.

➤ **Reading speed and note taking speed questionnaires results:**

Analyses of both questionnaires were conducted depending on each question from the reading speed questionnaire with the corresponded question from the note taking questionnaire. Hence results help in drawing the following salient conclusions:

- Students are slow readers and slow note takers and the following findings demonstrate the results:
- Participants' ways of reading and note taking:
 - Most informants 126 (79,2%) are word by word readers (i.e. they pause after each word) especially those 56 (96.6%) who have never trained their eyes to move very quickly through the reading material. However, only 33
- (20,8%) pause after each phrase and 14 (6,9%) students have tried to train their eyes on moving quickly while reading.

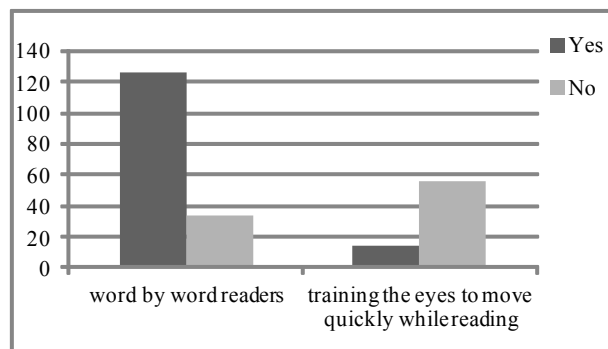


Figure 3. Mean frequency of perceived difficulty of the English students when they read in English.

2. The number of students (225 i.e., 85,9 %) who do not shorten words and sentences while taking notes (use abbreviations) is larger than those (37) who do especially those (208 i.e., 87.4%) who do not ignore, delete, or skip over words while reading.

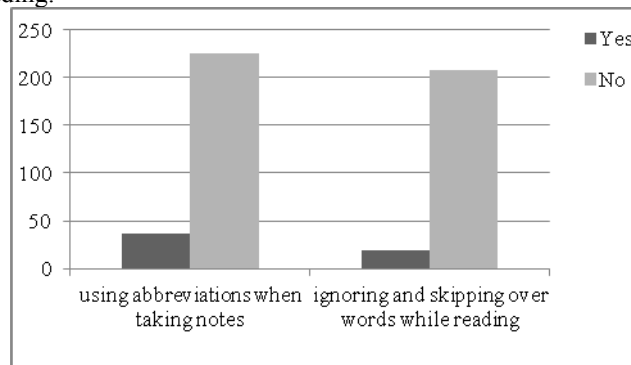


Figure 4. Number of participants who use abbreviations when taking notes and skip over words while reading.

➤ **Interest in vocabulary and comprehension rather than speed:**

1. The number of respondents who vary their vocabulary when taking notes is larger (n= 206 (78.6 %) than those who do not do (n= 56 (21.4%) especially participants who are interested in noting down every new information, definition or term (227 i.e.86.6%).

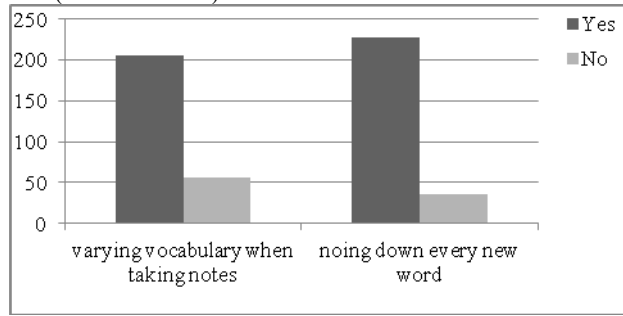


Figure 5. Frequencies of participants' interest in vocabulary rather than speed of reading or note taking.

2. The majority of students (246 that is 93,9 %) stop from time to time while taking notes thinking of what might be written down and how to express understanding especially those (66 students represent 88.0%) who tend to look up the definition or the explanation of the word in the dictionary or reread the word many times and try to guess its meaning from the context (n= 68 i.e., 81.0%).

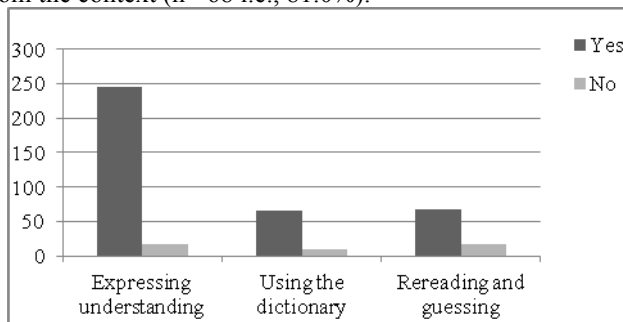


Figure 6. Number of students interested in comprehension and vocabulary when reading and taking notes.

➤ **Students lack enough practice in reading and note taking:**

1. More than a half of students (160 that equal 61.1%) construct notes out of the teacher's demand.
2. Most informants (100 that is 87.0%) try to get and remember every detail in the reading material.

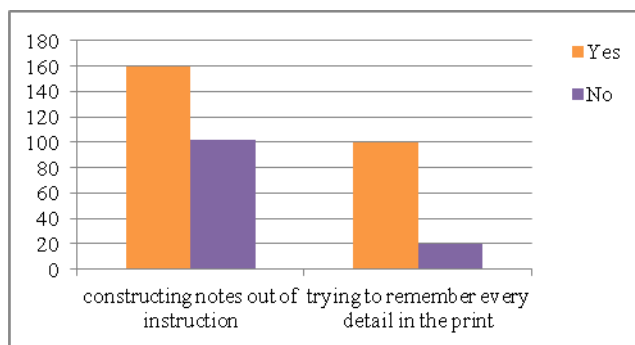


Figure 7: students' frequencies for practice in reading and note taking.

➤ **Students do not recognize the importance of doubling reading and note taking speeds:**

1. Only 39 students (41.5%) held the belief that doubling reading speed will ensure better academic performance. 2. More than half of them (161 i.e., 61.5%) have never tried to use a stop watch for measuring their reading time. 3. The majority of students (189 that is 72,1%) agree that who reads slowly, understands better.

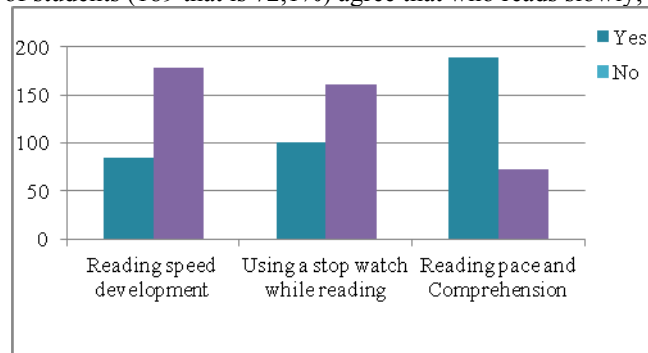


Figure 8. Frequencies of students' perceptions about developing reading and note taking speeds.

➤ **Students encounter bad reading habits:**

1. Most of informants (124 that is 47.3%) sometimes think in their mother tongue while taking notes and 67 (i.e., 25,6 %) always do. However, only 26 (that is 9.9%) of them regularly think in their L1. Some informants (81 i.e., 49.7%) translate into their native language when reading and may write down their translations in the margin of their notes.

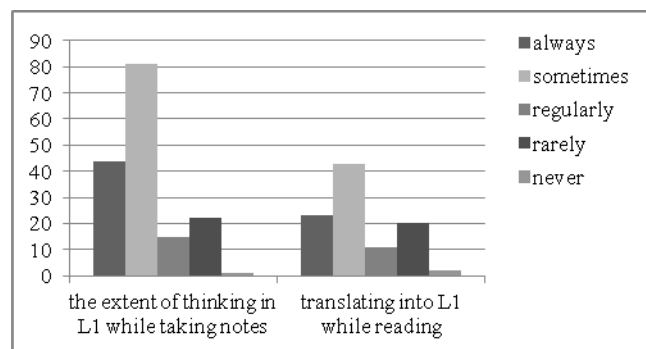


Figure 9. Frequencies in thinking and translating in the L1 while reading and note taking.

Conclusion:

By the end of this modest study, it can be said that the hypothesis set at the beginning is confirmed and the research questions are answered. Results have revealed that there is a strong positive correlation between the two variables that this research tends to investigate, that is the majority of our informants are slow readers and slow note takers particularly because most of them encounter a lot of difficulties as the corresponded questionnaires clarify; however, the sample we worked with in the reading speed and the note taking speed tests show the opposite (i.e., they are rapid readers are rapid note takers too). Hence, we have concluded that the main factor behind having such bad reading and note taking habits is the lack of practice on these two crucial skills. Consequently, we have strongly recommended that students need special training on how to read fast and take notes effectively and rapidly. They should be interested and motivated, more exercised and disciplined in the use of some strategies on reading fluency and note taking. In all, we highly suggest a training reading programme in which students ameliorate their reading and note taking speeds.

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Okul öncesi eğitim ve mimarlıkta yaratıcılığa olan etkileri

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Özet

Yaratıcılık, mimarlık öğrencilerinin başarılı olabilmesi için çok önemli bir faktördür. Yaratıcılık genetik bir özellik olmakla birlikte geliştirilebilmekte ya da körelebilmektedir. Özellikle okulöncesi eğitim dönemi çocuk üzerinde derin etkiler bırakmaktadır. Bu dönemde yapılan hatalar bazen çocuğun yaratıcılığını engelleyebilmektedir. Örneğin, yapacağı resmin renklerini eleştirmek, sınırlandırmak, ya da çocuğun o gün yapacağı çalışmanın bir örneğini önce gösterip bugün bu objeden yapacağız diye çocuğu şartlandırmak, onu tembelliğe alıştırmakta, yaratıcı cesaretini kırmaktadır. Bu çalışmada öğrencinin mimarlıkta yaratıcılık konusunda başarısı ve okul öncesi eğitim alıp almadığı arasındaki ilişki üzerinde durulmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler. Yaratıcılık, okul öncesi eğitim, mimarlık eğitimi

Giriş

Erken çocukluk dönemi, çocuğun eğitiminde çok etkili olmaktadır. Çocuklar bu dönemde uyarılara daha açık ve daha kırılığandır. Farkında olmadan yapılan herhangi bir yanlış davranış, çocuğun hayatını derinden etkilemektedir. Örneğin; kreş öğretmenini çocuğun yaptığı resmi, “pembe gökyüzü olur mu hiç?” veya “Çiçeğin yaprakları da yeşil olur?” şeklinde eleştirmesi, çocuğun başka bir şehirde, başka bir kreşte resim yapmaya başlamadan önce kreş öğretmenine hangi renkleri kullanacağını sormasına sebep olmuştur. Genellikle kreşlerde o gün yapılacak çalışmanın bir örneği gösterilmekte ve çocuktan bunun aynısını yapması istenmektedir. Bu tutum da çocuğu belli bir oranda yaratıcılık konusunda tembelleştirmekte, şartlandırmaktadır. Böylece, ezberci eğitim daha hemen okul öncesi dönemde başlamaktadır. Öğrencinin ileriki yıllarda mimarlık eğitimi almaya başlaması durumunda ise, temel tasarım prensiplerine dayalı olarak, kendine özel yeni tasarımlar yapması istenince zorlanmaktadır.

Yaratıcılık, Mimarlık Eğitimi ve Okul Öncesi Eğitim

Yaratıcılık özellikle dünya pazarlama sektöründe en çok aranan özellik olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır (Craft, 2003). İnsanlar artık, farklı, yenilikçi olana yönelerek para harcamaktadırlar. Dünya Yaratıcılık ve Kültürel Eğitim Komitesine göre (NACCCE) yaratıcılık, orijinal ve değerli olan olarak tanımlanmaktadır (NACCCE, 1999; Craft 2003). MacKinnon ise yaratıcılığı sanat, bilim, teknoloji ve psikolojinin birleşimi olarak tanımlamaktadır (Mondy et al., 1953, Alomar, 2003).

Yaratıcılık mimarlığın ayrılmaz bir parçasıdır. Mimarlık öğrencisi ve mimar alışılmış kalıplar dışında sürekli yeni olanı yaratmak zorundadır. Tasarım prensiplerini kullanarak, fonksiyonel yeni tasarımlar yaratmak gerekmektedir. 1950’li yıllarda özellikle Kuzey Amerika’da yapılan araştırmalarda, yaratıcılığın kişisel, kavrama ve nasıl harekete geçirileceği üzerinde durulmuştur (Craft, 2003). Özellikle 1990’ların sonundan itibaren 3-5 yaş arası çocuk eğitiminde yaratıcılık daha çok gündeme gelmeye başlamıştır. 20. yüzyılda yapılan eğitimde yaratıcılık araştırmalarında, kültüre bağlı farklılaşma açık olarak görülmektedir. Bu durum yaratıcılığın engellenmesi, sınırları gibi bir takım soruları beraberinde getirmiştir. Crafts (2003), eğitimde yaratıcılığı sınırlandıran dört unsuru a) terminolojik sınırlandırma, b) etik ve uygulamanın birbiriyle uyumsuzluğu, c) eğitim programında organizasyon eksikliği, d) merkez kontrolcü pedagojik yaklaşım şeklinde tanımlamıştır.

Tartışma ve Sonuç

Gözlemlere göre, mimarlık birinci sınıf öğrencilerinde kreş eğitimi almayanların, alanlara oranla yaratıcılık konusunda daha başarılı oldukları görülmektedir. Okul öncesi eğitim, yaratıcılık konusunda cesareti ve temel tasarım prensiplerine dayalı olarak bazı soyut ya da somut tasarımlar yapmayı gerektiren temel tasarım dersindeki başarıyı olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir.

Crafts (2003)'in da çalışmasında belirttiği gibi eğitimde özellikle okul öncesi eğitimde öğrencinin yaratıcılığını etkileyen bazı hatalar yapılmaktadır ve bu durum öğrencilerin yaratıcılığını olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir.

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Çocuk Dostu Şehirler (Ankara İli Örneği)

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Özet

“Çocuk Dostu Şehir (ÇDŞ) Girişimi” 1996 yılında Birleşmiş Milletler (BM) Habitat ve UNICEF tarafından başlatılmıştır. ÇDŞ Girişimi, Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi (ÇHS)’ni desteklemekte ve sözleşmeyi onaylamış olan devletlerin uluslararası düzeyde aldıkları sorumluluklarını kent düzeyine indirgemektedir. ÇDŞ, uygulamada çocukların haklarının, politikalara, yasalara, programlara ve bütçelere yansımaları anlamına gelen, yerel seviyede ÇHS’nin cisim bulmuş halidir. Türkiye’de ÇDŞ Girişimi, ÇDŞ Projesi olarak, Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Hükümeti ile UNICEF arasında 2006 – 2010 dönemini kapsayan ülke planı eylem çerçevesinde hayata geçirilmiştir. 12 şehrin ÇDŞ adayı olmasına ve bu kriterler çerçevesinde gelişim göstermeleri gerektiğine karar verilmiştir. Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi 2011 yılında Ankara Valiliği’nin UNICEF’e yaptığı başvuru ile başlamıştır. Ankara’da çocuğa hizmet veren kurum ve kuruluşlara işbirliği teklif edilmiştir. Çocuk hakları kültürüne dayalı, hak temelli bir bakış açısı ve ortak bir dil oluşturabilmek için “Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi” hayata geçirilmiştir. Proje kapsamında “Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi” başlatılmıştır. Bu çalışmada çocuk dostu şehirler ele alınmış ve Türkiye’de çocuk dostu şehir çalışmaları değerlendirilerek Ankara’da yapılan çalışmalar ve hedefler anlatılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Çocuk, Çocuk Dostu Şehir, Çocuk Hakları, Çocuk Katılımı, Çocuk Dostu Ankara

Giriş

ÇOCUK DOSTU ŞEHİR GİRİŞİMİ

Günümüzde şehirlerin çocuk için daha yaşanılır kılınması için dünyada yapılan uygulama ve girişimlerin en önemlilerinden birisi “Çocuk Dostu Şehir” girişimleridir. Hızlı kentleşmeye karşılık ortaya çıkmış olan “Çocuk Dostu Şehir (ÇDŞ)” (Child Friendly City (CFC)) kavramı Habitat II’ de kentlerin herkes için, UNICEF (1946 – 1953 arası Birleşmiş Milletler Uluslararası Çocuklara Acil Yardım Fonu (United Nations Children's Emergency Fund); 1953’ten günümüze Birleşmiş Milletler Çocuk Fonu (United Nations Children's Fund))’in tabiri ile ise öncelikli olarak çocuklar için, daha yaşanır yerler haline getirilmesi için çocukların haklarını yerine getirme ve gerçekleştirmeye kendini adanmış kenti tanımlamaktadır (Riggio, 2002). UNICEF ÇDŞ kavramını, çocukların haklarını uygulamaya kendini adanmış şehir şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. Bu haklar;

- Şehirleri hakkındaki kararları etkilemek
- İstedikleri şehirle ilgili görüşlerini ifade etmek
- Aile, toplum ve sosyal hayata katılmak
- Sağlık ve eğitim gibi temel hizmetleri almak
- Temiz suya ve sanitasyona erişmek
- İstismardan, şiddetten ve suistimalden korunmak
- Caddede tek başına güven içinde yürümek
- Arkadaşları görmek ve oyun oynamak
- Bitkiler ve hayvanlar için yeşil alanlara sahip olmak
- Kirlenmemiş çevrede yaşamak
- Kültürel ve sosyal etkinliklere katılmak
- Etnik köken, din, gelir, cinsiyet veya engellilik durumu ne olursa olsun, her hizmete erişime sahip şehrin eşit vatandaşı olmak, şeklinde belirtmektedir (UNICEF, 2014).

ÇDŞ, uygulamada çocukların haklarının politikalara, yasalara, programlara ve bütçelere yansımaları anlamına gelen, yerel seviyede Çocuk Haklarına Dair Sözleşme'nin cisim bulmuş halidir. ÇDŞ kavramı, Çocuk Dostu Şehir Girişimi (ÇDŞ Girişimi) altında ortaya çıkmış olan bir dizi deneyimin ışığında toplulukları ve diğer yerel yönetim sistemlerini içermektedir (UNICEF, 2014).

ÇDŞ Girişimi Habitat 1996 yılında Birleşmiş Milletler Habitat (UN-Habitat) ve UNICEF tarafından başlatılmıştır. Çocuk dostu bir şehir çocuk haklarını sağlamaya, hayata geçirmeye kendini adanmış bir yönetim biçimine sahiptir. Bu şehir yönetimi çocuk hakları sözleşmesini onaylamış olan devletlerin uluslararası düzeyde aldıkları sorumluluklarını bir bakıma kent düzeyine indirger. Bu kentlerde çocuklar da her vatandaş gibi kendi fikirlerini anlatma hakkına sahiptir ve onların görüşlerine yeterli ve gerekli önemin verilmesi gerekmektedir (Riggio, 2002). Bu kentlerde çocukların sesleri, gereksinimleri, öncelikleri ve hakları kamusal politikaların, programların ve kararların ayrılmaz bir parçasıdır. Bunun sonucu olarak şehir çocukların gereksinimleri, istekleri, tercihleri ve haklarına uygun ve elverişli olmaktadır.

ÇDŞ Girişimi 1991 yılında imzalanan Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'ni desteklemektedir. Bir ÇDŞ kendi yönetim sistemini Çocuk Hakları Komitesi tarafından tanımlanan Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin dört genel prensibi üzerine kurmuş bulunmaktadır. Bu dört genel prensip:

- Ayırım Gözetmeme (Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin 2. Maddesi)
- Çocuğun yüksek yararını gözetme (Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin 3.Maddesi)
- Yaşama ve maksimum gelişim hakkı (Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin 6.Maddesi)
- Çocukların bakış açılarına saygı duymak (Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin 12.Maddesi) olarak belirlenmiştir (Riggio, 2002).

Habitat II Konferansından sonra çocuk dostu şehirlerin kurulmasını ve hızla yaygınlaşmasını sağlamak üzere UNICEF Innocenti Araştırma Merkezi (UNICEF Innocenti Research Center)'nin öncülüğünde uluslararası bir sekreterlik kurulmuştur. 2000 yılında İtalya Floransa'da UNICEF Innocenti Araştırma Merkezi içinde kurulan bu sekreterlik "Çocuk Dostu Şehirler Girişimi Sekreterliği" (Initiative of Child Friendly Cities) olarak adlandırılmıştır. Bu sekreterlik, amacını gerçekleştirmeyi kolaylaştıracak olan bir veri tabanı ve iletişim sekreterliğidir. Bu taban aracılığıyla çocuk dostu şehirlerin kurulmasını sağlayacak politika ve strateji yöntemleri, araçlar, örnekler, bilgi ve belge verileri ile çeşitli başka verilere ulaşmak olanaklı hale gelmiştir. Ayrıca konuyla ilgili çeşitli faaliyetlere de bu sekreterlik aracılığıyla erişilebilmektedir. ÇDŞ'lerin tanımlanması ve oluşturulması için UNICEF Çocuk Dostu Şehirler Girişimi Sekreterliği tarafından çocuklara sahip büyük veya küçük, kentsel veya kırsal olsun tüm dünyadaki tüm toplulukların yönetim sistemine uyarlanabilir bir Çocuk Dostu Şehir Eylem Çerçevesi (Child Friendly City Framework for Action) oluşturulmuştur. Çocuk Dostu Şehir Eylem Çerçevesi, çocuk haklarının hayata geçirilmesi için gerekli süreç ya da yöntemi ulusal yönetim bazından, yerel yönetim sürecine dönüştürmeyi sağlamaktadır.

Bu çerçeve, çocuk haklarını hayata geçirmeye kendini adanmış yerel bir yönetim sistemi kurmak için gerekli olan dokuz temel kaideyi ve her bir kaidenin sonunda ÇDŞ girişimcilerine eylemlerinin izlenmesi ve geliştirilmesinde rehberlik etmek, yol göstermek için bir kontrol listesini tanımlamaktadır. Bu temel dokuz kaide:

- 1. Çocukların Katılımı:**
Kendilerini ilgilendiren konular ile ilgili olarak çocukların aktif katılımını desteklemek. Bu doğrultuda onları dinlemek ve karar alma aşamalarına onların da katılımını sağlamak,
- 2. Çocuk Dostu Hukuki Çerçeve:**
Çocuk haklarını koruyacak ve tutarlı bir şekilde destekleyecek yasaların, düzenleyici bir çerçeve ve prosedürlerin gerçekleştirilmesini sağlamak,
- 3. Kent Ölçeğinde Çocuk Hakları Uygulama Stratejisi:**
Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'ni temel alan, ÇDŞ'lerin inşası için detaylı ve kapsamlı strateji ve ajanda geliştirmek,
- 4. Çocuk Hakları Birimi ya da Eşgüdümü Sağlayan Bir Mekanizma:**
Yerel hükümet içinde çocukların bakış açısına – perspektifine öncelik sağlamak için sürekli birimlerin geliştirilmesini sağlamak,
- 5. Uygulanan Çocuk Politikalarının Etkilerinin Değerlendirilmesi:**

Sistematik bir süreç ile kanunların, siyasetin ve uygulamaların çocuklar üzerindeki etki - tesirini önceden, o sırada ve uygulama sonrası olmak üzere her aşamada değerlendirmek,

6. Çocuk Bütçesi:

Çocuklar için yeterli kaynak ve bütçe tahsili sağlamak,

7. Düzenli Olarak Kentteki Çocuklara İlişkin Durum Analizlerinin Tespiti:

Düzenli bir kent çocukları raporu için çocukların durumları ve hakları ile ilgili olarak yeterli denetim ve bilgi koleksiyonunun oluşturulmasını sağlamak,

8. Çocuk Hakları Bilincinin Yerleştirilmesi:

Tüm yetişkin ve çocukları, çocuk hakları konusunda bilgilendirmek,

9. Çocuklar Bağımsız Hukuksal Birimler, Gönüllü Kuruluşların Desteklenmesi:

Çocuk haklarını gerçekleştirmek için çocuk adına tanıtım-savunucu yapacak sivil toplum kuruluşlarını desteklemek ve bağımsız insan hakları kurumlarını geliştirmek, olarak sıralanmıştır (UNICEF, 2014).

ÇDŞ'in amaçları incelendiğinde ise bir çocuk dostu kentin aktif biçimde her genç ya da çocuk vatandaşlarının haklarının gerçekleştirilmesinde, çocukların ya da gençlerin kendi yaşadıkları kent hakkında alınan kararlarda etkili olmalarını, yaşadıkları kente dair istekleri hakkında fikirlerinin dile getirebilmelerini, aile, toplum ve sosyal yaşama katılımlarını, temiz ve sağlıklı su içmeleri ve en uygun sağlık koruması kullanma hakkına sahip olmalarını, eğitim, sağlık, bakım ve barınma ihtiyaçları gibi en temel gereksinimlerini karşılanmasını, sömürü, istismar, şiddet ve suistimalden korunmalarını, sokaklarında güvenle yürümelerini, arkadaş edinmeleri ve oyun oynayabilmelerini, hayvanlar ve bitkilerle yeşil alanlara sahip olmalarını, kirlenmemiş ve sürdürülebilir bir çevrede yaşamalarını, kültürel ve sosyal olaylara katılımlarını, etnik köken, din, gelir, cinsiyet ve sakat olmalarına bakmaksızın her hizmete ulaşabilmelerini sağlayarak her çocuğun yaşadıkları kent içinde eşit haklara sahip eşit birey ya da vatandaş olmalarını sağlamayı amaçlamakta (Riggio, 2002) olduğu görülmektedir.

ÇDŞ konsepti tamamlanmış, sonuçlanmış ideal ifade ya da standart bir model üzerine de kurulu değildir. ÇDŞ, çevresi, yönetimi ve servislerinin her yönü ile herhangi bir kentin daha çok çocuk dostu olmasını destekleyen bir çerçevedir (Riggio, 2002). Dünyada ki ÇDŞ Girişimleri incelendiğinde ise genel olarak gelişmiş ülkelerde ÇDŞ Girişimleri'nde önemin çocukların katılımının sağlanması ile özellikle yeşil alan ve parklar gibi rekreasyonel alanların geliştirilmesi, artırılması ve sokakların daha güvenli yerler haline getirilmesi gibi fiziksel / inşaa edilmiş çevrenin iyileştirilmesine verilmekte olduğu görülmektedir. Bu girişimlerde çocukların özellikle bağımsız ve özerk bir vatandaş olarak topluma, tasarım ve planlama da dâhil olmak üzere kendisini ilgilendiren her konuda karar alma ve politikaların oluşturulması aşamalarına katılımın sağlanmasının da önem taşıdığı görülmektedir. Gelişmekte ve gelişmemiş ülkelerde ise önem özellikle zor koşullar altındaki çocukların sağlık, eğitim, barınma gibi temel servislerden yararlanılabilesinin artırılması yönünde girişimlere verilmektedir (Riggio, 2002).

ÇDŞ Girişimi'nin dayanak noktası Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'dir. Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi, Birleşmiş Milletler tarafından 20 Kasım 1989 tarihinde kabul edilmiş, 2 Eylül 1990 tarihinde yürürlüğe konulmuştur. Anlaşmaya göre anlaşmayı kabul eden devletler, bu haklara saygı göstereceklerini taahhüt etmektedirler ve devletlerin büyük çoğunluğu sözleşmenin prensiplerini katılmış gözükmektedirler. Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi günümüzde en geniş kabul görmüş ve katımlı uluslararası sözleşmedir.

ÇDŞ Girişimi dünyada ve Türkiye'de gerçekleştirilen uygulamalar bakımından değerlendirilmeden önce bu girişimin ortaya çıkışına zemin hazırlayan nedenler üzerinde durmak gerekmektedir. Giderek artan sayıda çocuk, geleceğin yoksul yetişkinleri olma riski altında bulunmakta ve bu çocukların önemli bir bölümü şehirde yaşamaktadır (Sawhill ve Chadwick, 1999: 1). Diğer taraftan yoksulluk sınırının altında yaşayan toplam nüfusun ise ortalama yarısı çocuklardan oluşmaktadır. Tüm dünyada risk altında yaşayan çocukların yanı sıra her yıl 5 yaşın altındaki 11 milyon çocuk önlenebilecek ve kolaylıkla geçirilebilecek hastalıklardan ölmektedir (Minujin, Vandemooretele & Delamonica, 2002: 32). Bu ve diğer rakamlar çocukların herşeyden önce yaşamsal problemler yaşadıklarını göstermektedir. Bu durum, insanlığında geleceğini belirleyecek olan çocukların yaşamlarını sürdürmeleri için gereken unsurlar başta olmak üzere çocuk hakları konusu üzerinde önemle durulmasını gerektirmektedir.

Dünyada şehirde yaşayan çocukların oranının artmasına rağmen çoğu şehir, şehirlerini çocuk dostu bir hale getirmek için yeterli donanımda değildir. Dünyanın birçok gelir düzeyi düşük olan ülkesinde pek çok aile, çocuklarıyla beraber, temel barınma, eğitim, sağlık hakkından yoksun olarak kötü koşullarda yaşamaktadır. Söz edilen unsurlar dikkate alındığında hem Türkiye'de hem de dünyada çocuk haklarının yeterince gözetilmediği, çocuklara Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nde yer alan daha iyi yaşam koşullarının yeterince sağlanmadığı

görülmektedir. ÇDŞ oluşumları tüm dünyada çocuk haklarını gözeten, çocukların istek ve önerilerini temel alan, odağında çocuk hakları temelli bir bakış açısı bulunan bir yaklaşım yaratmaya çalışmaktadır.

ÇDŞ Girişimi hem dünya çapında, hem ulusal çapta, hem de yerel düzeyde çocuk haklarını gözeten bir yaklaşım yaratmaya çalışmaktadır. Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin yerine getirilmesi, çocuklara daha iyi bir yaşam koşullarının sağlanması ve özellikle risk altındaki çocukların durumunu iyileştirecek önlemler alınması, ancak yerel düzeyden başlayacak uygulamalarla mümkün olabilecektir. Bu nedenle, ÇDŞ Girişimi ile hedeflenen, yerel uygulamaların gerçekleştirileceği bir platform yaratılması ve bu girişimin yaygınlaşmasıyla birlikte çocuk dostu bir dünya inşa edilme yönünde ciddi adımların atılmasıdır.

TÜRKİYE'DE ÇOCUK DOSTU ŞEHİR GİRİŞİMİ

Türkiye'de de ÇDŞ Girişimi, ÇDŞ Projesi olarak, Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Hükümeti ile UNICEF arasında 2006 – 2010 dönemini kapsayan ülke planı eylem çerçevesinde hayata geçirilmiş bir proje olarak nitelendirilmektedir (Korkmaz, 2006).

Türkiye'de ÇDŞ Girişimi'nin nasıl ortaya çıktığı ve bu proje çerçevesinde nasıl bir yapılanmanın olduğuna bakılması konunun anlaşılabilirliğine ışık tutması açısından önem taşımaktadır. ÇDŞ Girişimi'nden önce bu girişimin mimarı konumunda bulunan UNICEF'in nasıl bir sisteme sahip olduğunun gözden geçirilmesi gerekmektedir. UNICEF, temel olarak iki tür örgütlenmeye sahiptir. Bu örgütlenmelerden biri, temsilcilik, diğeri ise milli komite şeklindedir. Bir ülkede temsilcilik mi yoksa milli komitenin mi olacağı kişi başına düşen milli gelir çerçevesinde belirlenmektedir. Bu noktada, Türkiye açısından ilginç bir durumun söz konusu olduğu görülmekte, UNICEF'in Türkiye'de hem temsilcilik hem de milli komite şeklinde iki farklı örgütlenme biçimini de bünyesinde barındırdığı gözlemlenmektedir. İçişleri Bakanlığı ve İller İdaresi ile birlikte illere göre öncelikli yaşam kalitesi göstergeleri olarak adlandırılan ve 81 ilin yaşam kalitesinin belli kriterler çerçevesinde ölçüklendirilmeye çalışıldığı bir çalışma ÇDŞ Girişimi'ne giden yolun Türkiye'de gerçekleştirilmesi noktasında açılmasına zemin hazırlamıştır (Topsümer ve ark., 2009). Sözü edilen yaşam kalitesi göstergeleri 25 kriterden oluşmaktadır. Buna göre bu kriterler aşağıdaki gibidir (T.C. İç İşleri Bakanlığı-UNICEF işbirliği ile hazırlanan İllere Göre Öncelikli Yaşam Kalitesi Göstergeleri Broşürü, 2003):

- Sağlık personeli ile yapılan doğumların toplam doğuma oranı, Ocak – Haziran 2002
- Bölgelere ve illere göre aşı oranlarının dağılımı, 2002
- Sağlık merkezlerine başvuran ishali sayısı (5 yaş altı), 2002
- İllere göre düşük doğum ağırlıklı bebek oranı, 2002
- Bebek ölüm hızı ve 0-4 yaş ölüm hızı, 2000
- İllere göre aile planlamasında etkin yöntem kullanım oranı, 2002
- İllere göre intihar sayısı ve hızı, 2002
- İllere göre iyotlu tuz kullanım oranı, 2002
- Evsiz insan oranı, 2002
- Temiz içme suyuna hiç ulaşamayan hane oranı, 2001
- Kanalizasyona hiç ulaşamayan hane oranı, 2001
- İllere göre aile-çocuk eğitim programlarından yararlanan anne-çocuk sayısı (0-6 yaş), 2002
- Okul öncesi eğitimden yararlanan çocuk oranı (36-72 ay grubu ana okulu – ana sınıfı), 2002-2003
- İlköğretimde okullaşma oranı, 2002- 2003
- Okur-yazarlık oranı (2000 yılı nüfus sayımı sonuçlarına göre)
- 2001-2002 öğretim yılı itibari ile yaygın eğitim kapsamında açılan kurs ile bu kurslardan yararlanan kursiyer sayısı
- İllere göre sivil toplum örgütleri sayısı ve üye sayısı
- 2002 yılı itibari ile illere göre yasal bildirim süresinden sonra nüfusa kayıt olan çocuk sayısı
- İstismara uğramış çocuk sayısı, 2002
- Yetişkinlere ait ceza ve tutukevlerinde kalan tutuklu ve hükümlü çocuk sayısı, 2002
- İllere göre kişi ve mala ilişkin işlenen suçlarda açılan dava-sanık sayısı, 2001
- Korunma ve bakım altında bulunan kişi sayısı, 2002
- Korunma ve bakım için sırada bekleyen kişi sayısı, 2002
- Sosyal güvenlik kapsamındaki kişi sayısı
- İllere göre sosyal yardımlaşma ve dayanışma vakıflarından (2001) ve yeşil karttan (2002) yararlananlar

Bu kriterlerin temel alınması ve yapılan çalışmalar neticesinde 8 asıl 4 yedek olmak üzere toplam 12 şehrin (Tekirdağ, Bursa, Uşak, Antalya, Karaman, Konya, Kırşehir, Kayseri, Gaziantep, Sivas, Erzincan ve Trabzon) ÇDŞ adayı olmasına ve bu kriterler çerçevesinde gelişim göstermeleri gerektiğine karar verilmiş, fakat kısa bir süre sonra yedeklerin de asıl olması noktasında alınan karar ile 12 pilot şehirde bu çalışmaların başlamasının uygun olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Şehirlerin belirlenmesinin ardından UNICEF'e bağlı olarak çalışan temsilcilik, çalışmalarına başlamış ve milli komite içerisinde yer alan yüksek danışma kurulu tekrar toplanmış ve çalışmalarını destekleme kararı almıştır. ÇDŞ girişiminin hayata geçirilmesi bir il içerisinde bulunan pek çok kurum ve kuruluşun desteği, yardımı ve ortak çalışması ile mümkün olabilme ihtimaline sahiptir. Bu bağlamda, İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü, İl Sağlık Müdürlüğü, Çalışma Müdürlüğü, SHÇEK İl Müdürlüğü, Kolluk Güçleri (Emniyet, Jandarma ve Sahil Güvenlik), Çevre İl Müdürlüğü, Gençlik ve Spor İl Müdürlüğü, SYDV, Adliyeler, Belediyeler, Üniversiteler bu noktada devrede olması gereken yapılanmalar olma özelliğine sahiptir (Korkmaz, 2006).

Devrede bulunması gereken bu kurumlarla beraber, Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi (TBMM), birlikte hareket edilmesi gereken kurumlardan bir tanesidir. TBMM, kabul ettiği kanunların yanı sıra kurduğu araştırma komisyonları aracılığıyla, yasama ve denetim fonksiyonlarını icra ederken Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin uygulanması, hakların korunması ve geliştirilmesi için duyarlılığını korumaktadır. TBMM bünyesinde, Çocuk haklarıyla ilgili yapılan çalışmaları kurumsal bir yapıya kavuşturmak için tüm siyasi parti gruplarından temsilcilerin yer aldığı Çocuk Hakları İzleme Komitesi 2008 yılında kurulmuştur. Çocuk Hakları İzleme Komitesi, çocuklar veya çocuk savunucuları tarafından kendilerine iletilen ya da kamuoyu gündemine gelen konular için, Komite üyesi milletvekilleri aracılığıyla parlamenter duyarlılığını artırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çocuk Hakları İzleme Komitesinin çalışmalarına, başta Birleşmiş Milletler Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin Türkiye'deki uygulanmasını izlemekten sorumlu kuruluş olan Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı olmak üzere ulusal ve uluslararası birçok kuruluş katkı sunmaktadır (TBMM, 2014).

Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı Çocuk Hizmetleri Genel Müdürlüğü koordinesinde, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşların, sivil toplum kuruluşlarının, üniversitelerin ve çocukların etkin katılım ve mutabakatıyla, ülkemizde 1995 yılında yürürlüğe giren "BM Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi", 2001 yılında yürürlüğe giren "Çocuk Haklarının Kullanılmasına Dair Avrupa Sözleşmesi", 2009 – 2011 yıllarını kapsayan "Avrupa Konseyi Çocuk Hakları Stratejisi", 2011 yılında yayınlanan "Avrupa Birliği Çocuk Hakları Programı" ile "BM İnsan Hakları Evrensel Bildirgesi" ve "Avrupa İnsan Hakları Sözleşmesi" dayanak alınarak, "Ulusal Çocuk Hakları Strateji Belgesi ve Eylem Planı" hazırlanmıştır. Çocuğun yüksek yararının bütün yararlardan öncelikli olduğu kabul edilerek; çocuğun yaşama, gelişme, korunma, katılım ve ayrımcılığının önlenmesi haklarını esas alan, bir çocuk hakları kültürünün yaşanmasını temin etmek misyonu ve ülkemizi, hayallerini gerçeğe, mutluluğunu yüzüne, sesini kürsüye taşıyabilen çocukları olan, rol model bir ülke haline getirmek vizyonu ile hazırlanan bu belgenin temel ilkesi çocuğun yüksek yararının korunmasıdır (T. C. Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı, 2013).

ANKARA ÇOCUK DOSTU ŞEHİR PROJESİ

Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi 2011 yılında Ankara Valiliği'nin UNICEF'e yaptığı başvuru ile başlamıştır. Aynı yıl kamu kurum ve kuruluşları, sivil toplum kuruluşları ve üniversitelerin temsilcilerinin katılımı ile Ankara Valiliği'nde yapılan toplantıda katılımcılara Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi'ne katkı sağlamak amacıyla işbirliği teklif edilmiştir. Çocuklar adına yapılan tüm çalışmaların bir şemsiye altında toplanması ve kamuoyuna duyurulması için koordinasyonun sağlanması önerilmiştir. Ankara Valiliği'nce çocuklar için ve çocuklarla birlikte, çocuk sorunlarının çözümüne yönelerek, çocuk hakları kültürüne dayalı bir çocukluğun yaşanacağı, çocukların talep, ihtiyaç ve önceliklerinin kamu politikalarının ve uygulamalarının ayrılmaz bir parçası haline geldiği bir Ankara yaratmak için "Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi" hayata geçirilmiştir. Bu kapsamda "Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi" oluşturulması için çalışmalar başlatılmış, çeşitli görüşmeler yapılarak meclisin çalışma usul ve esaslarını düzenleyen bir yönerge taslağı hazırlanmıştır.

Bu doğrultuda Ankara Valiliği'nin 03.01.2012 tarih ve 528 sayılı yazısı ile "Ankara Çocuk Dostu Şehir Projesi Uygulama, Görev ve Çalışma Yönergesi" hazırlanarak, projeyi yürütmek üzere Yürütme Kurulu, Düzenleme Komitesi ve Çalışma Grupları oluşturulmuştur. Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi, kamu kurum - kuruluşları, sivil toplum kuruluşları ve Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nin de içinde bulunduğu 28 kurumun işbirliği ile yürütülmektedir. Bu kurum ve kuruluşlar:

- Ankara Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

- Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi
- Ankara İl Jandarma Komutanlığı
- Ankara İl Emniyet Müdürlüğü
- Ankara İl Özel İdaresi
- Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı
- Ankara İl Sağlık Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Halk Sağlığı Müdürlüğü
- Ankara İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü
- Devlet Tiyatroları Ankara Bölge Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar İl Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Çevre ve Şehircilik İl Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Gençlik Hizmetleri ve Spor İl Müdürlüğü
- Ankara İş Kurumu İl Müdürlüğü
- TÜİK Ankara Bölge Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Barosu Çocuk Hakları Merkezi
- Ankara Üniversitesi Çocuk Kültürü Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezi (ÇOKAUM)
- Ankara Üniversitesi Çocuk ve Gençlik Edebiyatı Uygulama ve Araştırma Merkezi (ÇOGEM)
- Ankara Tıp Fakültesi Ankara Çocuk Koruma Birimi
- Ankara Ticaret Odası (ATO)
- Ankara Sanayi Odası (ASO)
- Türkiye Mimarlar Mühendisler Odası Birliği (TMMOB) Ankara Şubesi
- Gündem Çocuk Derneği
- Türkiye Eğitim Gönüllüleri Vakfı (TEGV)
- Türkiye Okulöncesi Eğitimini Geliştirme Derneği
- Çocuklara Yönelik Ticari ve Cinsel Sömürüyle Mücadele Ağı
- Çağdaş Drama Derneği (ÇDD)
- Lions 118 – U Yönetim Çevresi olarak belirlenmiştir (Ankara Valiliği, 2012).

Yine aynı doğrultuda Ankara Valiliği'nin 09.01.2012 tarih ve 912 sayılı yazısı ile “Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi Çalışma Yönergesi” hazırlanarak, valilik bünyesinde, 9 – 14 yaş grubundaki çocukları kapsayan bir “Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi” oluşturulmuş ve çocuklar 2011 – 2012 eğitim – öğretim yılında çalışmalarını sürdürmeye başlamıştır. “Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi” üyeleri, demokratik bir seçim süreci izlenerek belirlenmiştir. 121 üyenin Ankara'nın 25 ilçesine göre dağılımı Tablo – 1'deki gibidir. Yapılanmada ilçelerin temsilci sayıları belirlenirken ilçelerin nüfusları esas alınmıştır (Ankara Valiliği, 2012).

Tablo 1: Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi Temsilcilerinin Ankara İlçelerine Göre Dağılımı

İlçe Adı	Temsilci Sayısı	İlçe Adı	Temsilci Sayısı
Akyurt	2	Haymana	3
Altındağ	8	Kalecik	2
Ayaş	2	Kazan	3
Bala	2	Keçiören	12
Beypazarı	3	Kızılcahamam	3
Çamlıdere	2	Mamak	9
Çankaya	12	Nallıhan	3
Çubuk	5	Polatlı	5
Elmadağ	3	Pursaklar	5
Etimesgut	7	Sincan	8
Evren	2	Şereflikoçhisar	3
Gölbaşı	5	Yenimahalle	10
Güdül	2		

Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi ilk toplantısını 20 Kasım 2011 “Dünya Çocuk Hakları Günü”nde yaparak çalışmalarına başlamıştır. Meclis alt komisyonlar oluşturarak çalışmalarına devam etmektedir. Bu komisyonlar:

- Sağlık Komisyonu
- Kültür-Sanat Komisyonu
- Eğitim Komisyonu
- Kent ve Çevre Komisyonu
- Trafik Komisyonu
- Spor Komisyonu
- Turizm Komisyonu
- Basın-Yayın Komisyonu
- Çocuk Hakları Komisyon
- Engelli Hakları Komisyonu
- Bilişim Teknolojileri Komisyonu olarak oluşturulmuştur.

Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi'nin koordinasyonu Ankara Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü tarafından sağlanmaktadır. Proje kapsamında Ankara'nın 25 İlçe Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nde, proje çalışmalarını yürüten şube müdürleri ve öğretmenler bulunmakta ve her ay düzenli olarak yaptıkları toplantılarla çalışmalarını paylaşmaktadırlar.

Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi çalışmaları kapsamında bir “Çocuk Dostu Şehir Şenliği” gerçekleştirilerek, 6000 çocuğa ulaşılmış, böylece projenin başlangıcından çocukların da haberdar olması ve çocuklarda farkındalık yaratılması sağlanmıştır. Şenlik hazırlık çalışmaları paydaş kurumların desteği ile CERMODERN Sanatlar Merkezi'nde gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi 2012 yılında Meclis II. Dönem 1. Oturumunu 20 Kasım 2012 tarihinde, II. Dönem 2. Oturumunu da Nisan 2013 tarihinde yapmıştır. Oluşturulan komisyonlar çalışmalarını tamamlayarak, çocuk gözü ile Ankara için yapılması gerekenleri raporlaştırmışlardır. Komisyon çalışmalarında oluşturdukları 79 önerge Mayıs 2012 tarihinde kamu kurum ve kuruluşlarına, sivil toplum kuruluşlarına ve üniversitelere iletilmiş ve her kurum bu önergelerle ilgili çalışmak istediklerini öncelikli maddeleri belirtmişlerdir.

Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi üyesi çocuklar meclis çalışmalarına devam ederken, meclis toplantıları dışında değişik dönemlerde bir araya gelmişlerdir. ÇDŞ Projesi ve bağlantılı konularla ilgili bilgilendirilmek üzere gruplar halinde bir araya gelen meclis üyesi çocuklar, paydaşlardan Çağdaş Drama Derneği'nden gelen drama önderlerinin desteğiyle oyunlarla başlayan etkinliklerde, “Çocuk Dostu Şehirler”, “BM Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi” gibi konularda belli aralıklarla bilgilendirilmektedirler. Aynı çerçevede UNICEF tarafından Haziran 2012'de Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi 121 çocuğa eğitim verilmiştir. Ankara Ticaret Odası katkılarıyla verilen eğitim; “Medya”, “Sağlık”, “Eğitim” ve “Çocuk Hakları” olmak üzere dört başlık altında yapılmıştır. Paydaşlarımızdan olan Ankara Emniyet Müdürlüğü, Ankara İl Sağlık Müdürlüğü, Çevre ve Şehircilik Müdürlüğü ve Mimarlar Odası, proje kapsamında değişik dönemlerde çocuklarla ilgili çalışmalara imza atmışlardır. Çalışmalar “Çocuk ve Trafik”, “Çocuk Dostu Şehirler”, “Çocuk Dost Hastaneler”, “1000 Mimar 1000 Okulda” gibi değişik tematik başlıklar altında gerçekleştirilmiş, planlamalar doğrultusunda düzenli aralıklarla gerçekleştirilmeye devam edilmesi planlanmıştır.

Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi dâhilinde, Yürütme Kurulu ve Düzenleme Komitesi'nden oluşan Çalışma Grupları bilgilendirme toplantıları düzenli olarak yapılmış ve yapılmaya devam etmektedir. 2012 yılında, Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı desteği, Ankara Ticaret Odası yardımları, Ankara Üniversitesi ve Gündem Çocuk Derneği akademik desteği ile düzenlenen eğitim çalışmalarına tüm paydaş kurum temsilcileri katılmıştır. Eğitim çalışmalarının amacı, odağı çocuk olan haklar temelinde ortak bir dil oluşturmaktır. “Çocuk Dostu Şehir Farkındalık Eğitimi, Standart ve Gösterge Geliştirme Eğitimi, Farkındalık Eğitimi ve Paylaşım Çalışmaları” başlıkları altında yapılan çalışmalarda tüm katılımcılara katılım sertifikası verilmiştir. 2014 yılı içerisinde, paydaşlarımızdan olan Gündem Çocuk Derneği ile Ankara Barosu Çocuk Hakları Merkezi ve Çocuklara Yönelik Ticari ve Cinsel Sömürü ile Mücadele Ağı'nın katkılarıyla “Çocuk ve Adalet” ana temalı bir bilgilendirme eğitiminin Çalışma Grupları'na verilmesi için planlamalar tamamlanmıştır. Çalışma Grupları'yla projenin başladığı tarihten itibaren düzenli olarak gerçekleştirilen toplantılarda kurumların kendi bünyelerinde çocuklarla ilgili yaptıkları çalışmalar değerlendirilmekte, çocuk dostu bir Ankara için kurum, kuruluş, sivil toplum kuruluşları ve üniversitenin katkısının, birlikte belirlenen öncelikler doğrultusunda ne olabileceği

paylaşılmakta, özellikle hak temelli bir bakış açısının oluşturulabilmesi için yapılması gerekenler planlanmaktadır.

Ankara'nın 25 ilçesinde, Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi'nde görevli şube müdürleriyle düzenli olarak toplantılar yapılarak ilçelerde öğretmenlerin ve çocukların proje ile ilgili bilgilendirilmesi sağlanmaktadır. Her ilçenin öncelikle, gönüllü okul, gönüllü öğretmen, gönüllü çocuk ile örnek çalışmalar yapması sağlanmaktadır. Bu çalışmalar ışığında ilçelerde Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi kapsamında örnek proje ve uygulamalar başlatılmıştır. Öncelikle Gölbaşı, Sincan, Kazan, Keçiören ve Pursaklar İlçeleri örnek uygulamalarla önemli ölçüde çocuk katılımı sağlamışlardır. Çocuk katılımının sağlandığı bu etkinlik ve atölye çalışmalarında çocukların yaşadıkları kent ile ilgili farkındalıklarını artırıcı etkinlikler yapılmış, ayrıca "Çocuk Hakları" konusunda bilinçlenmeleri sağlanmıştır.

ÇOCUK DOSTU ANKARA PROJESİ

Ankara Valiliği'nin talimatları ile Ankara İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü tarafından Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi'nin sürdürülebilirliğini sağlamak amacı ile Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı'na proje başvurusunda bulunulmuş, Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı Sosyal Kalkınma Mali Destek Programı kapsamında "Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi" başlatılmıştır.

Ankara Üniversitesi çalışmaların başlangıcından bugüne Rektörlüğü, Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dekanlığı, akademik personeli ile Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi çalışmalarına destek vermiştir. Ankara Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nün "Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi"nin danışmanlığını yine Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi tarafından yürütülmektedir.

Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı Sosyal Kalkınma Programları ile Ankara'da bireylere eşit ve kaliteli yaşam olanağı sunarak sosyal bağların güçlendirilmesi genel olarak amaçlanmaktadır. Bu genel amaç kapsamında, özel sosyal politika gerektiren grupların yaşam kalitelerinin yükseltilmesi, sosyal ve ekonomik yaşama katılımlarının artırılması programın özel amacı olarak belirlenmiştir (Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı, 2014). Program kapsamında, Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi ile çocuk dostu bir Ankara olma yolunda toplumsal algının değişmesine katkıda bulunmak genel amaç, Ankara'daki çocuklarda, kurum ve kuruluş çalışanlarında çocuğa yönelik algıyı değiştirmek ve farkındalık yaratmak özel amaç olarak belirlenmiştir.

Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi'nin uygulama alanı, Ankara ili ve ilçelerinde hizmet veren kamu kurum, kuruluşları ve sivil toplum kuruluşları olarak belirlenmiştir. Çocuklarla iletişim kuran veya hizmet sunan tüm personel hedef grup, Ankara'da yaşayan tüm çocuklar nihai faydalanıcılar olarak belirlenmiştir.

Proje kapsamında bir "Ankara Çocuk Durum Tespit Ölçeği" geliştirilmesi, proje ve faaliyetleriyle ilgili afiş, broşür, billboard hazırlanması, basın bilgilendirmeleri yapılması, aktif çocuk katılımının her aşamada sağlanması, akran eğitimlerinin gerçekleştirilmesi, kamu kurumlarındaki çocuğa ilişkin durumun tespit edilmesi, bir kamu spotunun hazırlanması, yurtiçi ve yurt dışında çocuk dostu şehir çalışmaları kapsamında yapılanların incelenmesi, "Ankara Çocuk Durum Rapor Kitapçığı"nın ve "Ankara Hizmetlere Erişim Kılavuzu"nun hazırlanması, projeye ilgili bir web sitesinin hizmete sunulması ve "1. Çocuk Dostu Şehir Sempozyumu"nun düzenlenmesi planlanmıştır.

Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi, Ölçme Değerlendirme Bölümü tarafından geliştirilen "11 – 14 Yaş Çocuk Gözüyle Ankara Durum Ölçeği", Ankara ili genelinde örgün eğitime dâhil olan 5-6-7-8. sınıf öğrencilerinin tamamına (260.000 öğrenciye) uygulanmaktadır. Bu ölçeğin geliştirilmesinin amacı, Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi kapsamında "Çocuk Gözü ile Ankara Durum Raporu" ve "Çocuklar için Ankara Kılavuzu" kitapçıklarının hazırlanmasına temel oluşturacak verilerin toplanmasında kullanılacak bir ölçme aracının geliştirilmesidir. Ankara'da yaşamakta olan çocukların, yaşadıkları şehri nasıl gördüklerinin belirlenmesi bu ölçeğin geliştirilme amaçlarından bir diğeridir (Koç, Tavşancıl ve Demir, 2013). Ölçek sonucunda elde edilecek veriler doğrultusunda iki kitap yayınlanması planlanmıştır. "Çocuk Gözüyle Ankara Durum Raporu" kitapçığının çocuk görüşlerini yansıtan ve kurumların çalışmalarında yol gösterici olması hedeflenen bir kitap, "Çocuklar İçin Ankara Kılavuzu"nun ise, çocukların yaşadıkları şehri, şehrin imkânlarını ve kurumların çocuğa yönelik verdikleri hizmetleri içeren bir kitap olması planlanmaktadır.

Ankara Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar İl Müdürlüğü, Çocuk Hakları Komitesi, Altındağ Sosyal Hizmet Merkezi ve UNICEF Türkiye Temsilciliği işbirliğinde yapılan "Çocuk Dostu Şehirler" ve "Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi"

konularındaki çalışmalar Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi üyesi çocukların katılımı ile “Akran Eğitimi” programı dâhilinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. “Akran Eğitimi” çalışmaları yapılan planlamalar doğrultusunda daha fazla sayıda çocuğu kapsayacak şekilde, büyüyerek devam ettirilecektir.

Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi kapsamında, faaliyetlerden biri olarak, “Çocuklar için Ankara Kılavuzu”nun hazırlanabilmesi ve gereken verilerin paydaşlarımızdan toplanabilmesi için, projenin danışmanlığını sürdüren Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi ile diğer paydaş kurumların, sivil toplum kuruluşlarının ve meslek odalarının çocuklar için verdikleri hizmeti ve çalışmaları anlatabilmeleri ve tanıtılabilmeleri için bir form geliştirilmiştir. Çocuklar için kurumlar tarafından verilen hizmetlerin hazırlanacak kitapta yer alması planlanmıştır. Bu sayede Ankara’da yaşayan çocukların bu hizmetlerden daha sağlıklı ve etkin bir şekilde yararlanabilmeleri, hizmetlere ulaşabilmeleri amaçlanmıştır.

Projesi kapsamında “İtalya Çocuk Dostu Şehirler ve Çocuk Katılımı İnceleme Gezisi” ilk ziyareti, Reggio Emilia kentine ve kentte yer alan Loris Malaguzzi International Centre’a yapılmıştır. 1994 yılında yerel yönetim tarafından kurulmuş olan merkez, hem özel, hem de devlete bağlı olan özerk bir yapıda çalışmalarını sürdürmektedir. Mali kaynak desteği ve denetimi yerel yönetim tarafından sağlanmaktadır. Merkezin ana hedefinin, çocuklarla ilgili yapılan tüm çalışmalarda, ailelerin ve kentte yaşayan her bireyin katılımının sağlanması olduğu merkez yöneticileriyle yapılan yüz yüze görüşmelerde belirlenmiştir. İtalya’nın Reggio Emilia kentinin yanı sıra Floransa kentine proje kapsamında bir inceleme ziyareti gerçekleştirilmiştir. Floransa Belediyesi’nin eğitimden sorumlu yöneticileriyle bir bilgilendirme toplantısı gerçekleştirilmiştir. Burada da benzer şekilde, ebeveynlerin eğitimi, katılımı sağlayabilmek için temel teşkil etmektedir. Her iki kentteki gözlemlerde bir kentin “Çocuk Dostu Şehir” olabilmesi için ilk basamağın ailelerin ve kentte yaşayan her bireyin katılımının sağlanması en temel bulgudur. Çocuk dostu bir hastane olan Meyer, Floransa adına “Çocuk Dostu Şehir” kavramı adına çok güzel bir örneği teşkil etmektedir. Meyer Çocuk Hastanesi Halkla İlişkiler Sorumlusu ile hastane incelenmiş, fotoğraflanmış ve bilgi alınmıştır. 0-16 yaş grubu çocuklara hizmet veren bir hastane ile ilgili bilgiler Ankara’da sağlıkla ilgili birimlere raporlanarak sunulmuştur.

Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi kapsamında, Almanya’nın değişik şehirlerinde çocuklarla ilgili yapılan çalışmalar gözlemlenmiş, yerel yönetimlerin çocuklarla ilgili çalışmalarda ki planlamaları, paydaşları ve paydaşlarıyla etkileşimleri birebir görüşmeler yapılarak izlenmiştir. Özellikle çocuk müzeleriyle ilgili çalışmalar proje uzmanları tarafından müze yönetimleriyle ilgili özel çalışmalar yapılarak Almanya’da Dortmund U Kültür Merkezi ve Dortmund Mondo Mio Müzesi ile Hollanda’da Amsterdam NEMO Bilim Merkezi’nde izlenmiştir.

Çocuk Dostu Ankara projesinin geniş kitleler tarafından tanınması ve farkındalığın artması için bir web sitesi hazırlanmıştır. www.cocukdostuankara.org alan adı ile ulaşılabilen site, projeye ilgili bilgilere ve çocuklarla ilgili çalışmalara rahatlıkla ulaşılabilesini sağlamıştır. Web sitesi Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi, İnsan Hakları Sözleşmesi, Çocuk Dostu Şehir’lerle ilgili linkler yardımıyla temel kaynaklara ulaşım olanağı sağlamaktadır.

SONUÇ

Çocuk dostu Ankara Proje’si kapsamında, bir şehrin çocuk dostu olabilmesi için, öncelikle temel stratejik amaçlar arasında bulunan, çocuğa saygı ve çocuk hakları kültürünü geliştirmek, çocuk haklarına ilişkin karar süreçlerine bütün çocukların katılımını sağlamak ve çocuk hakları kültürü çerçevesinde eğitim politika ve programları geliştirmek amaçları gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Proje kapsamında, basın, reklam, duyuru çalışmaları gerçekleştirilmiştir. Düzenli olarak yapılan çalışmalar ile farkındalığın artırılması için bir sempozyum düzenlenmesi planlanmıştır. Ayrıca hazırlanan tanıtım filmi ve kamu spotu ile toplumsal farkındalığın yaratılması sağlanmıştır.

Çocukların yaratıcılıklarını geliştirmek ve katılımlarını güçlendirmek için pilot okullarda atölyeler kurularak etkinlikler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu uygulamalarda görev alan eğitimciler konularının uzmanı kişiler tarafından desteklenmesi sağlanmıştır. Trafik, sağlık, çevre, kültür – sanat gibi Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi Komisyonları arasında yer alan konularla ilgili, çocuklarla, konuyla ilgili mekanlarda çalışmalar yapılarak çocuk dostu bir şehirle ilgili yapılması gerekenler raporlanmıştır. Raporlar ilgili birimlere ulaştırılmıştır.

Ankara ilçelerinde görev yapan Milli Eğitim Şube Müdürleri, okul temsilcileri ve gönüllüleri ile Ankara Valiliği Çocuk Dostu Şehir Projesi Uygulama, Görev ve Çalışma Yönergesi’nde yer alan Çalışma Grupları

konuyla ilgili düzenli bilgilendirilmiştir. Her kurumun kendi alanında çalışan diğer kurumlarla ve özel sektörle bilgilendirme toplantıları, yaygınlaştırma ve farkındalık çalışmaları yapmaları sağlanmıştır.

Proje kapsamında yapılan tüm çalışmalar düzenli olarak raporlandırılmıştır. Oluşturulan raporlama Ankara Valiliği'nde ve Ankara Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nde ilgili birimlerde arşivlenmiştir ve arşivlenmeye devam etmektedir.

Proje kapsamında “Çocuk Dostu Şehir” ve “Aile Dostu Şehir” kavramları birlikte kullanılarak farkındalık çalışmaları bu kapsamda yürütülmüştür. Şehirde yaşayan tüm insanların katılımı sağlanarak, “Çocuk Dostu Şehirler” için çok önemli olan bir adım tamamlanmıştır.

ÖNERİLER

Çocuk Dostu Şehir Projeleri kapsamında yapılan her türlü çalışmada çocuğa özgü bir bakış açısının olması gerekmektedir. Böylece her alanda çocukların mağduriyetleri azalacaktır. Çocuğa hizmet veren her türlü alternatif kuruluştan sunulan hizmetlerin kalitesini arttırmak üzere kurumsal kapasite ve insan kaynağını sayı ve kalite açısından arttırılmasına yönelik çalışmalar yapılmalıdır.

Çocuklarla birlikte çalışan personele yönelik asgari standartların belirlenmesi ve eğitimlerinin düzenli olarak yapılması gerekmektedir.

Çocuğa hizmet veren kurumların ayrı ayrı yaptıkları çalışmalar ve verdikleri hizmetlerin paylaşılıp yerel düzeyde çocuğa ve ailesine bir bütün halinde sunma çabası geliştirilmelidir.

Çocuk hizmetlerinin daha etkin hale getirilmesi için kamu kurumları dışında kalan kuruluşlar, STK lar, odalar, birlikler ve üniversiteler gibi diğer kurum ve kuruluşların öncelikli çalışma alanlarını ve işbirliğini sağlıklı planlamalarının sağlanması amacıyla bir Çocuk Hizmetleri Koordinasyon Merkezi kurulmalıdır.

Çocuklara sunulan hizmetlerdeki yaklaşım, bütünsel bir çocuk politikası oluşturularak sunulmalıdır. Bütün çocukların refahını sağlamayı, yaşam kalitesini yükseltmeyi, korunma, gelişme ve katılım gibi temel haklarını en üst düzeyde yaşayabilmelerini sağlamayı hedeflemelidir.

Bütçe sisteminde çocuklara yönelik hizmetlere yapılan harcamaların görülebildiği hizmet ve kaynaklardaki gelişmelerin takip edilebildiği çocuklara ayrılan bütçe düzenlemelerine ihtiyaç vardır.

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Arts Education for Creative Community Building Illustrated by Wol-Wall Festival in Seoul

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Abstract

Wol-Wall Festival is a festival I established and ran from 2009 to 2011 in Seoul, Korea. Wol-Wall means “to leap over” aiming to transcend the wall between the arts and everyday life. The festival explored how universities can utilize a neighborhood’s natural, social, cultural environments to foster the development of a creative community through art education and cultural activities. There were three goals of Wol-Wall. First, establishing a creative partnership between the local government, university, artists, and residents. Second, highlighting the characteristics of the community and involving the residents in creative activities through arts education. Third, revitalizing the history of the neighborhood to develop new cultural contents and transcend the wall between generations. This paper is in two parts. The first section will demonstrate the evolution of Wol-Wall Festival. The second will explore the performances prepared by professional actors and amateur residents, their creative processes of arts education, and regional development.

Keywords.

Introduction

Creative Community through the Arts

Wol-Wall Festival is a festival I ran for three years from 2009 to 2011 in Bukjeong Walled Neighborhood (or Bukjeong Village) of Seongbuk-gu, Seoul, Korea. The name Wol-Wall combines the Chinese character (*hanja*) 越(wol) that means “to leap over” or “to transcend” and the English word Wall. It contains the meaning of transcending the wall between the arts and everyday life, between generations, and between regions. The festival was based on a series of research that explored how universities can utilize a neighborhood’s natural, social, cultural environments to foster the development of a creative community through research, education, and artistic activities (Lee, 2006).

There were three core goals of Wol-Wall. First, establishing a creative community through a creative partnership between the local government, university, artists, and residents. Second, highlighting the history and characteristics of Seongbuk 2-dong and involving the residents in cultural activities through arts education. Third, revitalizing the works of influential artists who resided in the neighborhood to develop new cultural contents and transcend the wall between generations.

This paper is in two parts. The first section will explore the beginnings of Wol-Wall and its development from 2009-2011. The second section will critically explore the performances and their creative processes of arts education and regional development.

Evolution of Wol-Wall Festival

The Beginnings of Wol-Wall: Establishing a Partnership

Wol-Wall started with my presentation, “The 21st Century of Culture, Creative Community: Theory and Practice” given to the *gu*-office (akin to ward or borough offices) of Seongbuk-gu. With the budget secured on the basis of the presentation, the planning began for a neighborhood festival. On the academic side, I gave a presentation at Kookmin University, “Creative Community Centered on Kookmin: Interdisciplinary Practice of Culture,” which led to the contribution from professors and students across different fields including design, dance, music, theatre, and film. As such, the *gu*-office provided administrative and financial support, the University provided programming and operations support, and artists provided the talent, forming a natural partnership between government, school, and artists. In the process, a lot of effort was put in to getting the trust and cooperation of the residents. Programming, the naming of the festival, designing the poster, and running the

festival were all done with the collaboration of the residents, completing the creative partnership through the maximal involvement of the neighborhood's residents.

Wol-Wall Festival's Evolution: Creative Variations and Expansions

In its three years, Wol-Wall expanded the role of the residents by gradually increasing their participation in arts education and performances.

Wol-Wall Festival 2009, "Moonlight Sketch": Everyday Space, Festive Space

The first festival in 2009 was held for two days in June with the title "Moonlight Sketch" in Bukjeong Village. Because it was the first year, we the committee members wanted to minimize the burden on the residents, soliciting contributions from non-residents. The goal was set as, "seeing in a new light the natural and historical beauty of the neighborhood," and "reminiscing the lives of the neighbors." To achieve this goal, the committee considered three sets of activities. First, to visualize the natural and historical beauty of the neighborhood, two professional photographers documented the houses and residents and held an exhibition during the festival. It was a method to differently view what could be thought of as an ordinary community by revisiting the historicity and families of the neighborhood.

Second set of activities involved embellishing the neighborhood's public spaces and adding stories and sentimental memories to those spaces. Under guidance from their professors, students from Kookmin University's Graduate School of Techno Design re-decorated the neighborhood public spaces under the concept of "public art." The famous Korean poem "Seongbuk-dong Dove" was used as a motif, naming the newly decorated public space as "Dove Park." Along the neighborhood walls, students placed dove sculptures and engraved the poem on a copperplate. In addition, several spaces were opened for public appreciation. A barbershop that had been in operation for more than 20 years in the neighborhood was opened publicly for people to experience the old-fashioned way. The men's senior center was converted into a 70's style café and women's senior center into a comic book reading room (a Korean tradition since '50's). Theatre majors and a professor of set design helped to decorate these spaces. Through these activities, residents experienced the transformation of their everyday spaces into theatrical spaces, learning to appreciate the everyday as a festival.

Third activity was creatively reconstructing the residents' lives. For this activity, students and professors from the Graduate School of Techno Design visited the elder community members and asked them for their most precious items in the neighborhood. With those items the students came up with their own designs, which were large-printed to be exhibited during the festival and collected as a book. The necessary finances were provided by Kookmin University.

These activities became the contact point for the neighborhood and participating professionals. Residents received a unique opportunity to see how their lives could be the focus of and fodder for cultural and educational activities. Students had the chance to apply and expand their technical art education for public service. In addition, during night time, a projector provided free of charge by Art Center Nabi was used to project media art onto the neighborhood walls. Kids even got to put "media graffiti" on the walls without leaving a permanent mark on those walls.

More festival activities included jazz concert by famous professional singer, silent film with screening with a live narrator (an East Asian tradition), chamber concerts by classical music major students, musicals by theater major students, and karaoke with the residents. Finally, a Professor of History at Kookmin whose specialty in oral history shared the history of the neighborhood with the audience.

Wol-Wall Festival 2010: "Starlight Melody": Study, Play, Be the Hero

The second year of the festival set as its goal to emphasize the residents as main characters of the festival. For that purpose, the committee pursued two directions. One was to introduce the residents to cultural experiences they normally do not get to enjoy. The other was to teach them the joy of creative activities through arts education. Toward the first goal, the festival held a fashion show with Korean traditional royal garbs, which are hard to come by ordinarily. Afterwards, residents were provided with an opportunity to try on those clothes and be photographed. Those photos were printed on the site and given to the participants. People showed great enthusiasm for the fashion show and the photo opportunity.

But more than the programs that residents enjoyed on the day of the festival sought to use arts education to increase resident participation on the creative side. Most of the residents were senior citizens and were content with small activities such as playing cards, drinking, or gossiping at senior centers. As such, curiosity and participation for these educational activities were quite low. We tried to draw additional interest of the residents

in two ways. First, we tried highlighting cases where seniors from other neighborhoods participated in arts programs and had a great time. Second, we gave the few participants a chance to publicly exhibit their work to challenge those who did not participate. Taking into account the interest of the residents, we implemented dance and photography programs.

Four male seniors enrolled in the photography class and received training from professional photographers. The University rented cameras to the seniors for the class. There were not a lot of participants, but they were able to photograph their neighborhood, leaving behind valuable memories of their lives. Those pictures were displayed along the neighborhood stone walls on the day of the festival. After the festival, the pictures, along with the professional photographs from 2009, were collected and published as a calendar. The calendars were distributed free-of-charge to the residents. Kookmin University provided the finances for the free calendars, demonstrating the role of universities in the transformation of local communities into creative communities.

Wol-Wall Festival 2011: "Sunset Harmony": Historic Space and Heritage Story

The 2011 Festival required many drastic changes due to political and financial changes brought on by a new alderman. The budget was cut in half. Homeowners in the neighborhood were not open to the idea of the festival due to their hopes of gentrification. The festival, which was intended to celebrate the history and beauty of the neighborhood, was in danger of being misconstrued as a movement against such modernization efforts. For those reasons, we decided to move out of the neighborhood and to hold most of the festival programs in Seongbuk Global Village Center, leaving only a minimum in Bukjeong Village. In addition, the festival's concept was entirely recast.

The new concept involved using the characteristic historical neighborhoods of Seongbuk-dong. Three types of spaces—1) those listed on Seoul's list of historic sites, 2) ordinary spaces, and 3) new public structures constructed for specific purposes—were considered for festival grounds. In addition, three corresponding styles of storytelling activities via theatrical performances were planned. Performers, residents, and volunteers were enlisted to develop the activities.

"Sunset Harmony" thereby employed three spaces and three activities. First, reading renowned works in historical spaces involving important writers in Korean modern literary history. Second, theatre performances involving ordinary spaces and telling lives of senior citizens. Third, exhibition and multilingual reading of children's books around the world involving multicultural spaces centered on Seongbuk's Global Village Center. For the last activity, the British Council, Alliance Française, Goethe-Institut, Seongbuk-gu Children's Library provided the festival with children books of different languages. In addition, foreign residents in Seongbuk-gu volunteered to read children's books in their native tongue to young festival-goers. This activity received praise for giving children an opportunity to experience something new and different, thereby expanding their imagination beyond the walls of Korea.

Theatre of Wol-Wall Festival: The Village is a Stage!

In this section, I want to introduce in detail the five theatre performances at the last Wol-Wall Festival in 2011. These five performances were small in scale and yet involved both professional and neighborhood amateur actors demonstrating their amiable collaboration. However, the performance space, creative process, and content and format of these performances make them notable for their practice of the tradition of unconventional theatre from ancient to modern times.

The plays, on the basis of performance space, were outside the traditional structure of the stage. They can be best explained by the existing concepts *site-specific performance* or *found space performance*. Performances at *Simujang* or *Suyeonsan Café* (two historical sites in the neighborhood) can be categorized as site-specific performances, utilizing the site's unique characteristics and historical contexts. On the other hand, plays performed in Bukjeong Village can be categorized as *found space performances*, taking ordinary spaces and converting them into stages. Both types can additionally be thought of as *promenade theatre* since the audience was required to go from space to space to watch the performances.

In particular, Bukjeong Village Senior Citizen Theatre Festival was a chance to revisit ordinary spaces as stages for dramatic theatre. *Days Like Today*, a love story between two senior citizens, was performed on the steps of Bukjeong Village that provided a natural scenic element of elevation. *Legendary Hands* was performed in the grass field by an alley, providing a fitting background to tell a story of a boy who beats a gangster with his bare hands to win a girl's love. *The Giving Tree* was performed under a large tree at Dove Park; the overlap between the old, bent tree and the bent bodies of old men and women who gave their lives for their children provided a touching parallel.

The process allowed residents to pitch their own ideas, to reminisce their own lives affording an opportunity to practice collaborative creation, or more specifically *devising (or devised) theatre*. The production process also employed methods of improvisational theatre, integrating the senior citizens' ideas on the spot.

Purpose and Meaning: Practicing Community Theatre and Going Beyond

That the performances of Wol-Wall Festival involved residents and were performed in local spaces makes them a case of community theatre in practice. Community theatre refers to the creation and performance of theatre by community members or for community members. In the process, the play can be made only by the community members or through the help of outside professionals. The purpose is to edify the community spirit or celebrate specific characters or events ("Community Theatre," 2014).

Theatre, since its inception to now, has been an art for the community, by the community, and with the community. Therefore, it is necessary to explore the concept of *community theatre* in detail. Community theatre has its beginnings in Dionysia of ancient Athens. Theatre was used to enhance order and morale of the community by presenting the community's problems allegorically using epic drama and mythology. In Medieval times, community theatre took the form of Corpus Christi Cycle Drama or Morality Plays that incorporated biblical stories and concepts to fortify the Christian worldview of community members.

In the 20th century, community theatre began to be practiced in different cultures in different ways. For example, in early 20th century United States, community theatre referred to black-box plays or amateur performances formed in protest against the commercialization of theater as an industry. In the late 20th century, some used the concept of community theatre to describe theatre exposing societal problems by utilizing methods such as "theatre in education," ideological agit-prop theatre, and concepts of spect-actor.

Performances at Wol-Wall Festival did not embody the epic discussions of Greek and Medieval community theatre or the political/social agendas of modern community theatre. Neither was the goal of establishing a creative community present. The ultimate goal was to let the residents experience and experiment with theatre by making it transcend the walls of the stage; to allow the neighborhood to explore theatre outside the bounds of dramatic theory or methodology, purely using it as a meaningful way to discover, remember, and share the beauty and the meaning of the neighborhood and the lives of the people.

Going Forward: Between Life and Theatre, Village and Stage

In this paper, I laid out the beginnings of Wol-Wall Festival and demonstrated the Festival's purpose, meaning, and practice by exploring its activities. It began as a creative partnership between the local government, university, artists, and residents and was a result of the application of theories and case studies of creative community formation. The goals set by the festival were meaningful. But there were concerns of appropriating the neighborhood. Even finding beauty in an underappreciated neighborhood or its residents' lives could be thought of as "slum tourism," reducing the neighborhood to a target of enjoyment or considering the interactions with the residents as an experiment. However, we hope that the process of imbuing meaning to the creative community can be understood as an attempt to celebrate our lives through our eyes. Moreover, it is meaningful to read it as an attempt to get art to transcend the stage and enter the village, transcend the artists' minds and enter people's lives. I hope that this could be an inspiration for and an invitation to the spirit of the eternal motto, "Life is theatre, the world is the stage, and we are the actors (Theatrum Mundi)".

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Teacher Development Program For Saudi Interns at an International School

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Abstract

The Teacher Development Program (TDP) for Saudi interns at King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST) is a highly selective, comprehensive training program for Saudis. Interns work with Mentors at The KAUST School (TKS) in grades pre-school through 12. They take courses after-school and abroad during the summer. They receive training in the International Baccalaureate (IB) programs. They are expected to go above and beyond as they do presentations for parents, write articles, and train local teachers. They are evaluated frequently and monitored closely which results in immediate positive outcomes. Expectations are high. This paper describes the program and its effectiveness.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE OF THE PAPER

Need for Teacher Development Program

In 2009, a new university opened that is the only university in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to mix men and women. With the aim of rekindling science in the Islamic world, King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST) focuses exclusively on graduate education and research. From its inception, KAUST realized that educators and staff members involved in one of the finest universities in the world would require an education of commensurate quality for their children. The provision of a world-class education for the children of the community remains an ongoing priority for the university.

At KAUST, the children of graduate students and of employees attend The KAUST School (TKS), an International Baccalaureate (IB) school. TKS is a full inclusion school with 1200 students from over 50 different countries in grades Pk-12. English Language Learners (ELL) and students with special needs receive support in general education classrooms. Approximately 40% of the students are ELL with the majority of them speaking Arabic as a first language. This is the only school in Saudi Arabia to include boys and girls, Saudi and non-Saudi students, ELL students and students with special needs all in the same classroom.

TKS has set a goal to have 10% of the teachers be Saudi. The workforce of Saudi Arabia is currently dominated by expat workers from Southeast Asia and the West. However, Saudi national policy encourages Saudization, the hiring of Saudi employees. Unfortunately, Saudi Arabia struggles with effective education and teacher preparation (Wiseman, 2010). Due to a shortage of qualified Saudi teachers, the Teacher Development Program (TDP) for Saudi interns was developed. The purpose of the TDP is to help recent Saudi graduates get a start on education careers in Saudi. The TDP provides beginning Saudi teachers with the knowledge and skills needed for effective teaching through a high quality pre-service teacher preparation program in an international school. Successful interns may be offered positions at TKS or they may seek employment outside of KAUST. Either way, Saudization occurs.

The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate a model for teacher education for Saudis in an international school, in Saudi, that contributes to the advancement of best practice in teacher preparation. This is the only program to train Saudi teachers in a fully inclusive IB international school for 2 years.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

COMPONENTS OF THE TDP

Components of the TDP include Mentor teachers, weekly graduate level courses, English instruction, IB training, and International Teaching Certificate courses. Candidates for the TDP must have degrees in education

or education-related fields. They must have limited teaching experience to be considered for the program. There are many applicants but only the top Saudis are considered for the TDP. The TDP is based, loosely, on the Teach for America (TFA) ideology (Gabriel, 2011) including a highly selective hiring process and interns being paired with Mentor teachers daily for 2 years. In the TDP and TFA, there is extensive monitoring and evaluation.

Each semester, interns are matched with Mentor teachers to work with, daily. Mentors are all from countries outside of Saudi. The Mentors attend meetings each month to share information and collaborate on intern needs.

The interns attend a weekly course (3 hours), covering basic pedagogy, that is taught by a university professor. Interns also receive individual instruction in English for 1 hour per week. An on-line program is also used by interns, after school, to bring their English level to an international standard. Interns complete homework assignments and are required to do extensive reading daily.

Similar to TFA, interns are expected to participate in leadership activities. They are required to publish articles in English and Arabic in the TKS newsletters. They conduct an all-day training for teachers from the local schools (outside KAUST) in collaboration with their Mentors. They organize appreciation dinners and hold an Open House for teachers. They present to parents at the TKS Partners for Learning evenings. They attend IB trainings, weekly, at TKS and, annually, outside of Saudi. Each summer, they attend the Teacher Training Center for 2 weeks (in US and UK). After 3 summers, they receive an International Teaching Certificate.

Evaluation

TDP interns receive training and are evaluated in the Four Components of Professional Practice:

- Planning and Preparation
- Classroom Environment
- Instruction
- Professional Responsibilities

Cultural issues dominate the framework as interns are being prepared to be leaders in Saudi education through training in an international setting. Professional responsibilities are seen differently by different cultures. The standard for international schools remains consistent so Saudi interns learn to adapt to the mixed, multi-cultural working environment. The school environment is inquiry-based so this is another area for training and evaluation.

Evaluations occur continuously throughout the year. Formal evaluations are required, at least, 4 times per semester. The TDP Coordinator, the Mentor and a variety of administrators conduct observations and complete evaluation forms for interns. This data is used to give feedback to the interns on strengths and areas to improve. The feedback is direct and addresses weaknesses. Considerable time is spent on teaching interns how to take professional feedback without being offended or becoming defensive. Eventually, interns go through a “transformation” and ask for ways they can improve their teaching without waiting for someone to tell them.

PROCEDURES: MODES OF INQUIRY

Prior to developing the TDP, in 2012, a review of the literature was conducted to determine the need for teacher education in Saudi Arabia. Motivation is determined to be the key to economic and educational reform in Saudi’s developing school systems (Jenkins, 2008). Interns are often new to the world of work requiring the TDP to focus on work ethic, initially, in addition to teacher preparation. The intern program begins with the Teach for America model and is accommodated for Saudi Arabian culture. Bridging between Saudi culture and non-Saudi culture requires on-going understanding of cultural differences. Data is collected to determine best practice in a program that is the first of its kind with development that is on-going.

Guiding Questions

Analysis of the program is through extensive data sources including surveys, interviews, evaluation forms, feedback forms, and attendance analysis.

The guiding questions are:

- Is a Teacher Development Program for Saudi interns in an inclusive International School effective?
- Do students benefit?
- Do interns benefit?
- Does Saudi Arabia benefit?

Data Sources

Data sources include:

- Hiring data
- Mentor evaluations of interns
- Parent feedback
- Intern interviews
- Administrator interviews
- Feedback via surveys from local teachers who received training from interns

FINDINGS

Is the TDP effective?

Interns were interviewed and asked if the TDP was effective. One intern stated: “When I was hired at KAUST, I thought teaching was easy and now I am good. But I learned that here, the way of thinking is how can I be better, be the best, or improve? That has completely changed my personality.” Another stated: “What I learn in the TDP is things like when I covered bus duty for another Saudi last week. She told me thank you since she had to come late because she had to drop her kids off at day care. I told her I, also, had to drop my kids off at day care but I did it first and then covered her bus duty.”

Most comments were about work ethic and how they learned that they must be at school on time and stay until, at least, 4:00. Quantitative data on attendance indicated a significant increase in attendance for interns in their 2nd semester (from an average of 5 absences to 2). Time management was a challenge to some interns who learned not to wait until the night before to do lesson planning. However, some interns began the TDP with perfect attendance and excellent time management so they were able to move right into advanced skills such as curriculum development. No matter what skills the interns began with, they improve on target areas due to constant monitoring and support. There are several building coordinators available to work with interns in addition to Mentors.

Hiring is a measure of effectiveness as successful interns may be offered jobs at TKS. Several TDP graduates have taken fulltime positions at TKS. One intern chose to exit the TDP to go into a different career field. One intern was exited from the program due to lack of success.

The interns conducted training for 40 teachers from the schools just outside of KAUST. The Mentors prepared the materials with the interns so the interns could present in Arabic. Feedback, via evaluation forms, from the attending teachers was overwhelmingly positive. Several teachers told the interns that they “couldn’t believe you are interns.”

Do students benefit?

Mentor teachers stated the benefits for students of having an intern in the classroom. The most common responses were related to being able to give individual students more attention while the intern worked with small groups. One Mentor was able to work with her class while the intern worked with a high needs student one-on-one. This benefited all students.

Parent comments and email messages show the benefits for students. One intern, in particular, has several email messages, from a variety of parents, thanking her for teaching Arabic to their English-speaking children. One parent told the Coordinator that one of the benefits of working at KAUST was that his daughter is learning Arabic. Several elementary students, being taught by a TDP intern, state that they love learning and speaking Arabic. Another parent shared how she loved her child’s teacher and had just learned that the teacher was a TDP intern.

Do interns benefit?

The level of training and experience results in the interns becoming highly qualified teachers. A principal and a department chair stated that the interns were more qualified than some current teachers. The interns have received much more training than some current teachers so their knowledge of pedagogy far surpasses that of teachers without degrees or experience in education. With one of the goals (and benefits) of the TDP being opportunities for leadership, the interns are trained to go above and beyond classroom teaching. For example, interns have conducted teacher training, are developing curriculum for Islamic Studies, and assessments for IB Arabic. These activities benefit the interns, in terms of experience and career building.

Several interns discuss their experiences of culture shock, even though they are in their home country. One expressed her surprise when she arrived at TKS and saw powerful technology used in every class, students who were actually excited to learn, and groups of teachers that collaborated on lessons daily. No interns mention any

issue with the mixing of genders. This may be because most interns attended universities outside of Saudi so already had experience with mixed gender environments.

Interns talk about how much they have to work in the TDP. After the first year, most interns go through a “transformation” where their language changes from talking about school as “work” to talking about school as their “passion.”

CONCLUSION

“Evidence suggests that Saudi Arabia’s economy is in danger and will decline unless cognitive skills improve. Saudi educators have the potential to reverse the trends” (Wiseman, 2010). It is critical, for the future of Saudi Arabia, to have highly qualified teachers. The TDP at TKS is a model for effective teacher preparation. Data indicate the effectiveness of the TDP for Saudi interns. Sharing the effectiveness of the TDP for Saudi interns, in an international school in Saudi Arabia, contributes to the advancement of practice, not only for Saudi Arabia, but, for all international teacher preparation programs. The TDP is a model for best practice in teacher education in a unique environment. If it works here, it can work anywhere.

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Abstract

Competency has been considered as the most important factors in creating competitiveness of the organization and economical development. This article describes the knowledge map of teachers' teaching skills at University of Applied Sciences in Vaasa (VAMK), on the basis of which knowledge surveys can be conducted. A knowledge map must be updated from time to time. The survey was conducted with the help of an electronic questionnaire, face to face discussions and discussions via e-mail. The teachers participated in the survey actively. The managers were involved in creating the knowledge map. Competency management can be examined from the perspective of creating the knowledge map, evaluating and developing competence. Employees' versatile competency both improves their satisfaction with the organization and guarantees the certain level of competence in the organization. Teacher development plan will be formed on the basis of the knowledge map and development discussions. The teachers have actively participated in personnel in-service training.

Keywords.

COMPETENT ORGANIZATION

Defining Competency

Competency i.e. teachers' human capital consists of knowledge, skills, attitude, experience, contacts, and networks. Competency can be seen in work performances and their results. Competency means capability. When referring to university teachers' abilities to perform their jobs well can terms knowledge and skills, competency and capability be used. According to Winter (1998) personnel competency is created, treasured, shared and exploited consciously and systematically (Winter 1998.)

The competency required in the organization must be based on the vision, strategy and goals of the organization, as well as the demands of the markets. Competency should also meet customers' expectations. Provided that the organization has a clear idea of its required competency and the quality and quantity of it, competency can be defined and managed systematically. Teachers' competencies can be diverse, but together they form the competency needed in a university.

Changes in working life modify the requirements of competency in universities. Competency and professional skills should constantly be developed both in working life and universities. Human capital results from education, development and health. A university learns and develops through its teacher development providing the current working policies are critically reflected. Teachers' will and ability to innovate is the key.

Knowledge Map

A knowledge map represents the required competency compatible with the university's current and future strategies and areas of emphasis. A knowledge map is needed in order to be able to discuss university's competency generally and concretely (Hätönen 2007, 9.) In addition to the core competence, general competence such as language and communication skills, and ICT skills are needed. A university has to react to the changes in the operational environment and customers' needs. A knowledge map helps in 1) evaluating teacher competence, 2) recruiting new teachers, 3) enabling teachers' self assessment, it also 4) provides tools for discussing competence, 5) defines the frames for development, and 6) facilitates evaluation the development process (Hätönen 2007, 11.)

Knowledge Mapping

The starting point in teaching personnel development is the analysis of human capital i.e. knowledge mapping. Knowledge mapping is a process that visualizes competency, and functions as a development tool both at organizational and individual level. The objective of knowledge mapping is to find the essential strengths and weaknesses of the university, and to define the level of competency in general. By doing this future challenges can be anticipated (Oulun yliopisto 2012.)

A survey in which the core and key competencies are defined, is the basis for knowledge mapping. In knowledge mapping each teacher evaluates their competency and defines the level of competency on a chosen rating scale. The results of knowledge mapping can be drawn up to a competency table or diagram.

The aim of knowledge mapping in university is to recognize the strengths and weaknesses in competency, and further, to create development plans to improve employee performance (Ojala 2008, 123). A knowledge map needs updating from time to time since working life changes rapidly and new, different competencies will be required.

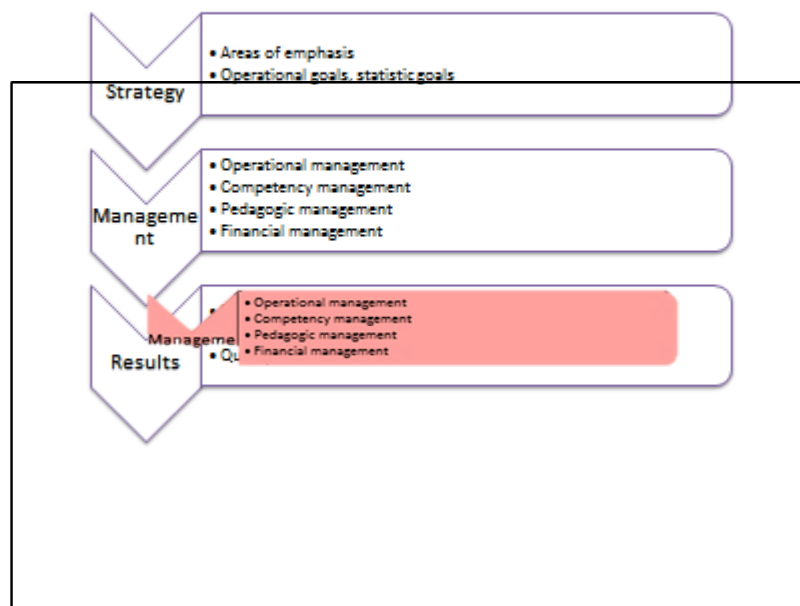
Competency evaluation

The starting point for the evaluation of competency is a knowledge map based on the strategies of the organization. The evaluation is compared with the knowledge map. There are multiple methods of competency evaluation. The most popular ones are realistic self-reflection or evaluation by managers or a neutral, extraneous party.

According to Valpola (2002, 59–60) one of the most efficient evaluation methods is 360 Degree Feedback. It is a system in which teachers receive feedback from the people who work around them. The teacher receiving feedback also fills out a self-rating survey.

Competency Management

Competency management must be linked to the organization strategy so that the objectives and indicators of competency management can be defined on the basis of the strategy (Salojärvi 2009, 25). Strategy management and competency management are connected with each other: competency management is part of strategy management. The prerequisite for university's sustainable competitiveness is integrating educating and exploiting competencies to the organization strategy (Pihkala, Oikarinen 2001, 78 - 80). Competency management brings added value to the organization's strategy. The goals of competency management are reactive or proactive and the competence recruiting to the organization.



Picture1. Strategy based management

Competency management (picture 2) can be examined from the point of view knowledge mapping, and competency evaluation and development.



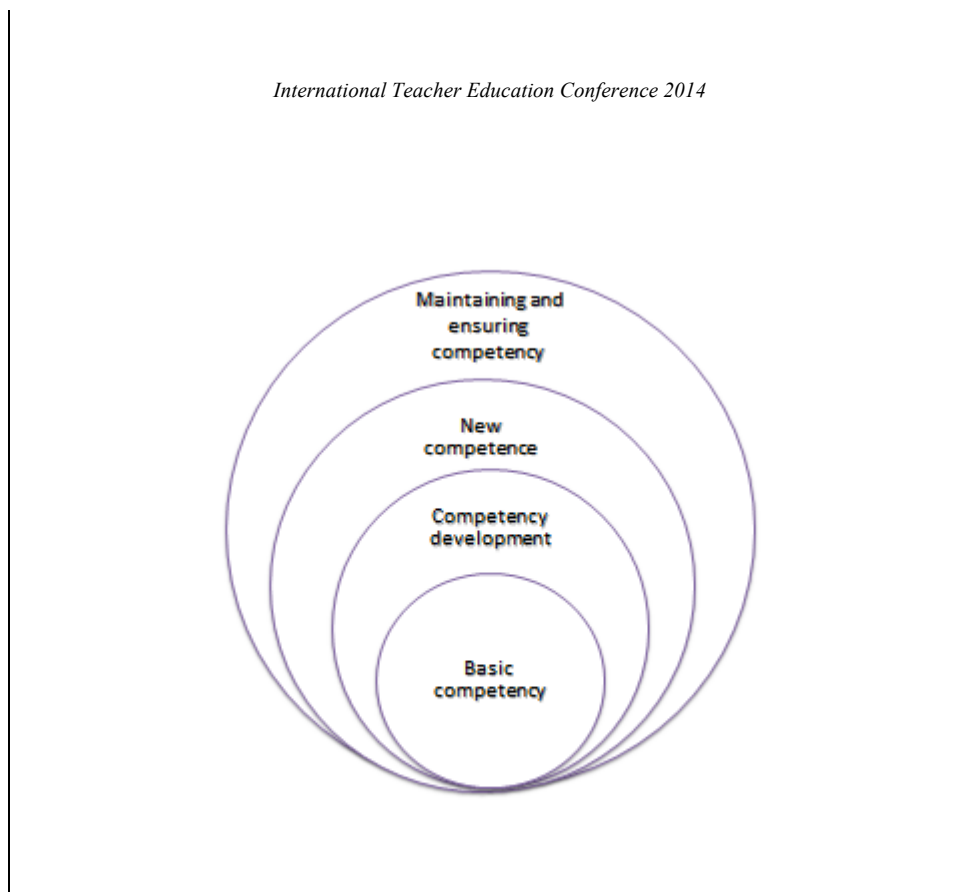
Picture 2. Competency management

According to Stalk, Evans and Shulman (1992) a successful university is characterized by the following capabilities: 1) meeting the requirements of the environment, 2) satisfying the customers' expectations, 3) seeing the character and requirements of the upcoming needs clearly, 4) adapting to the requirements of versatile environments quickly, 5) innovating and combining the already existing elements to the new ideas. As the operational environment is changing the university must be able to change and update through strategic planning and fresh management policies. A university itself can via its strategy and management systems affect its operational environment (Aaltonen ym. 2004, 79).

COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT

Various options for personnel development

According to Pitkänen (2010) a conventional method of competency development is in-service training, but in reality the major part of competency development occurs at work. In universities there are also other methods of developing personnel competency such as job rotation, self assessment, feedback, mentoring, team work, junior-senior work partners, lectures and seminars, field trips, workshops, safety and continuity, project analyses, career paths, coaching, addressing success, rewarding, and different forms of co-operation (Pitkänen 2010, 68.) Networking (picture 3) can also build up human capital (global management innovation). A supportive environment and motivation are required to form studying activities.



Picture 3. Competency development.

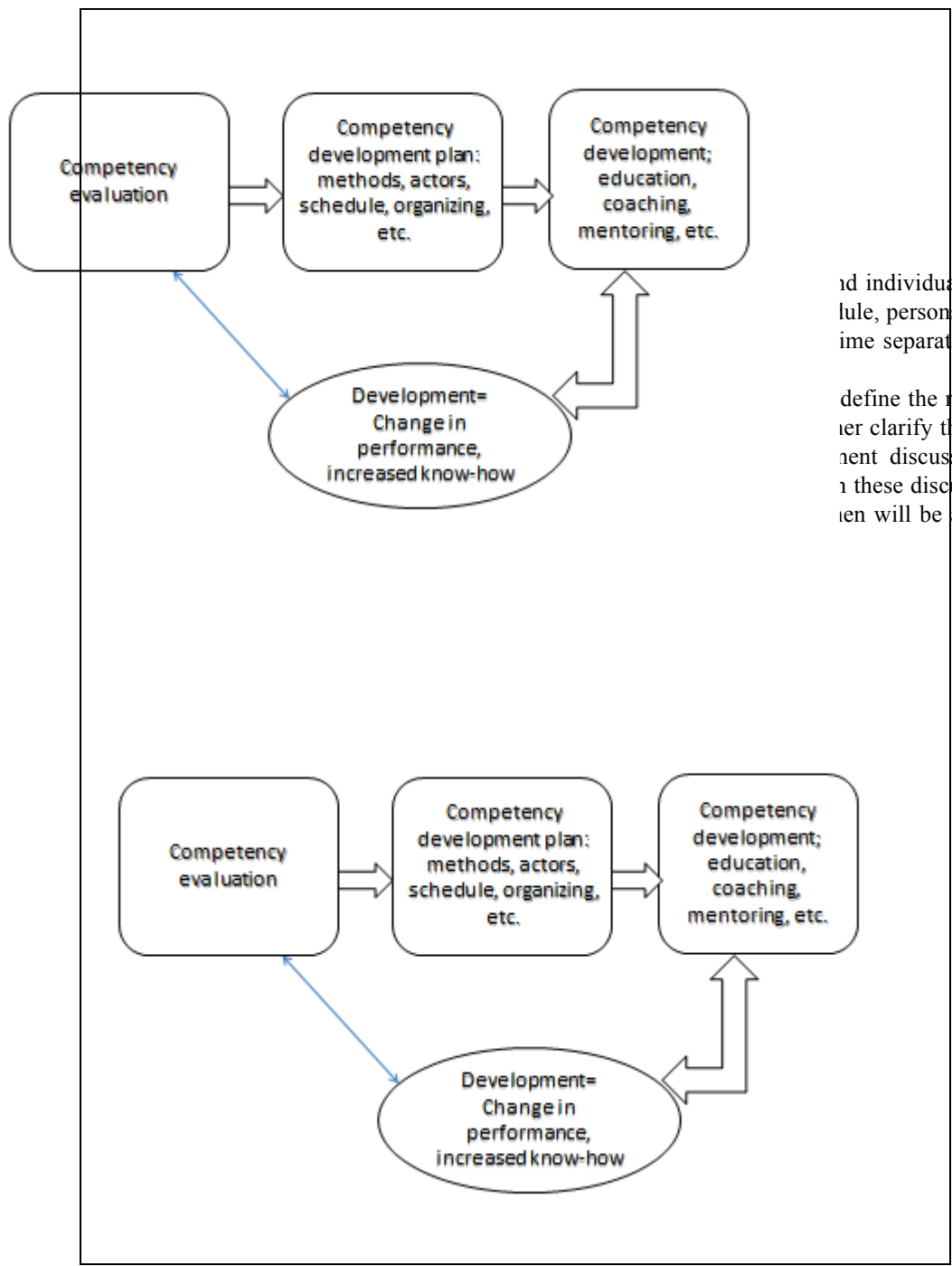
One of the latest development methods is coaching, in which a person's own performance, its functionality and productivity are developed with the help of a coach in a confidential relationship. Coaching process focuses on finding the person's strengths and weaknesses. The coach helps in viewing the performance critically from new perspectives (Virolainen 1020.) Coaching is considered one of the most interesting development methods. A long lasting coaching seems to have a connection with high profitability and self-sufficiency of the organization (Salojärvi 2009, 168-169.)

Heikkinen (2008) in University of Jyväskylä has been working on a new kind of in-service training for teachers: peer mentoring. Peer mentoring means experiential learning and solving the problems involving work together. Peer mentoring rejects the idea of transferring knowledge unidirectionally from the experienced mentor to the beginner. Also experienced teachers can learn from their new graduate colleagues. Heikkinen has perceived peer mentoring to be especially useful for new graduate teachers whom the reality of the school world very often takes by surprise. Teacher training should be a continuum where graduation studies will be articulated to in-service training, Heikkinen suggests.

Development discussions

In a development discussion between a manager and a teacher the past performances are reflected upon future. Work performances are assessed and planned, and proceedings to reach the expected goals are agreed on. Development discussion is a crucial tool for coordination and offers a good possibility for discussing the feedback the teacher has received as well as the competency development. According to Viitala (2010, 13) development discussions are considered to have positive effects on reaching goals, and the maintenance of efficiency and competency of the organization. Development discussion is a practical method in supporting competency development. Employers and managers are responsible for their employees' development, and taking this responsibility is part of their job as a manager. The employees' development can be monitored in development discussions annually or semiannually in order to ensure and regularize this development policy (Lankinen, Miettinen & Sipola 2004, 63.)

Sydänmaanlakka (2002, 63–64) introduces five concrete reasons and objectives for development discussions: 1) evaluating the goals reached, 2) setting goals for the upcoming working period, 3) defining the needs for development and making a personal development plan, 4) developing the co-operation between the manager and the employee, and 5) improving the work atmosphere.



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Picture 5. Competency development process.

From the point of view of a university the objective of competency development is to improve competency, and thus enhance operation and its quality. The requirements for the success of the university are competency development and profitability improvement.

Personnel training and in-service training are traditional methods of improving competency at work.

Orientation

Competency development begins with orientation to person’s employment. In order to do this there should exist an updated orientation guide. Having the guide in e-form facilitates adding new links and removing the old ones. A follow-up form guarantees a proper implementation of orientation. The success and implementation of orientation should be evaluated semiannually, for example.

Individual development plan

Individual development plan includes competency evaluation, information about the competencies needed in the work, and a plan for competency development for the near future.

Competency anticipation

By anticipating competency the organization can prepare itself for changes, ageing, and decline of the personnel. Mere reacting to future challenges is not enough. The organization must have its own vision of best possible performance. Competency anticipation relates to personnel planning. When recruiting teachers the future must be considered. Competency anticipation helps adapting to a rapidly changing working life. Working life and educational organizations must co-operate (Aarnio & Lauttamus 2012.)

RESEARCH EXECUTION

This report introduces a case study since it focuses on one case, i.e. the process of competency management at Vaasa University of Applied Sciences. Questionnaires and discussions have been used for data collection. This case study can be defined as a problem-solving case the object of which is an existing case in its own environment. The researcher collects data on the case (Syrjälä & Numminen 1988, 5). In a case study a certain policy is examined, and the aim is to find useful information that can be implemented into working environment as such (Syrjälä & Numminen 1988, 171.)

On the other hand, this is also an action research since the operations of this university have been observed for several years. An action research aims at producing new information and developing the operation of the organization. A certain existing situation can initiate the research; the objective is to solve the current problems (Syrjälä & Numminen 1988, 50.) An action research focuses on producing useful information people can exploit in to their performances (Reason & Bradbury 2001, 2).

The data for this case study was collected by using an electronic questionnaire. In addition, creating a knowledge map was discussed by the directors of unit and vice principals in order to standardize the proficiency areas. An e-questionnaire is usually easy to deal with and analyze. The chosen concepts and alternative options may reflect the ideas of researcher more than those of the respondents (cf. Hirsjärvi & Hurme 1991, 29.) The questionnaire should be extremely unambiguous and comprehensible both for the respondents and the researcher. An advantage of this kind of survey is that it enables gathering an extensive research material, and multiple different questions can be asked. The questionnaire being carefully planned, the material can efficiently be processed to a saved file format and analyzed with the help of computers. The schedule and budget can be estimated fairly accurately (Hirsjärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 2010, 195.)

A questionnaire neither allows individual thinking nor expressing oneself linguistically or emotionally if there are only multiple choice questions in it. Thus also open questions have been included in the questionnaire for the respondents to clarify their answers. The advantage of open questions is that they allow the respondents to express themselves. By analyzing open questions it is possible to recognize factors relating to motivation and respondents' frame of reference (Foddy 1995, 128.)

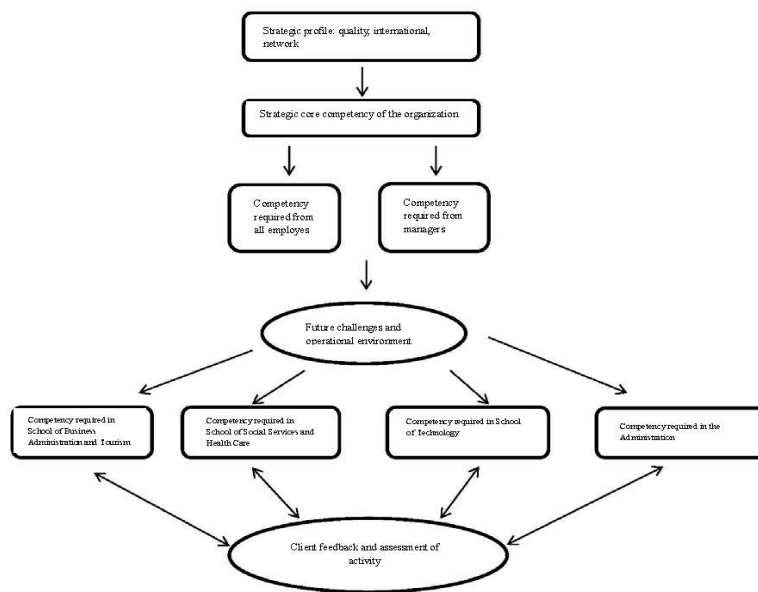
The material was collected with an e-questionnaire and it was transferred to excel. The answers were clarified via discussions and e-mail. Large respondent counts were reported as percentages and small respondent counts, e.g. questionnaires for managers, as frequencies. Knowledge mapping was conducted with a similar questionnaire form during two sequential years. The answers are employees' self-assessments and not necessarily reliable, since people can interpret concepts differently. Participating in personnel training is pure statistics and the topics different each year.

Research focus. Theory and practice integrate in the research focus. The aim is to provide information about the knowledge map, competency, and competency management. The basics for competency management are brought up in the practical context.

1. Formulating a knowledge map for VAMK
2. Knowledge mapping and competency development of VAMK personnel
3. Formulating development plan for VAMK personnel
4. Emphasizing competency management

VAMK KNOWLEDGE MAP

The formulating of VAMK knowledge map began with defining the structure of the knowledge map which is connected with the organization structure. VAMK knowledge map, in which the managers were allowed to define what competencies are required in VAMK, was formulated in spring 2013. Based on the vision, strategy, and areas of emphasis a knowledge map consisting of competencies required for the vision to be accomplished was formulated. The knowledge map will have to be updated according to the changes in society and working life, as well as the changes in VAMK operations, i.e. when new competencies are required. On the basis of the knowledge map new knowledge mappings are implemented. New proceedings for developing the organization in accordance with the observed competency deficits are organized.



Picture 4. The structure of VAMK knowledge map

KNOWLEDGE MAPPING

Defining teacher competency.

Apart from substance knowledge teacher competency consists of teaching skills and other skills required for work in a work community. Society and generations change which means that teachers will have to develop their teaching skills accordingly.

Koehler and Mishra (2008) have described the elements of good teaching: 1) Content 2) Pedagogy –3) Technology 4) Context. Vaasa University of Applied Sciences has accepted the following goals for teacher competency development:

1. Good substance knowledge =knowledge and skills up-to-date
2. Use of learner-centered, activating teaching methods which enables the student to add new information into the previous knowledge structure and the subject matter to be learnt is saved in the long-term memory
3. Use of various teaching methods suitable for the subject matter and the student group (e.g. projects) = RD integration
4. Giving concrete examples of the subject matter to enhance student understanding
5. Ability to differentiate the teaching according to the student group
6. Guiding the students' autonomous work
7. Mastery of educational technology
8. Use of various assessment methods in assessing the learning outcomes (knowledge, skills, attitudes)
9. Use of different assessment methods suitable for different types of learners
10. Giving the students various possibilities to complete studies and graduate within the standard time
11. Co-operation with the working life =regional influence
12. Ability to dimension the study unit in accordance with the student's work load : 1 cr = 27 hours of an average student
13. Co-operation with other teachers to avoid overlapping in teaching
14. Giving the assessment of the performances and entering the grades into Winha within the agreed time
15. Use of various assessment methods for AHOT and giving the assessment of the performances within the agreed time
16. Complying with the instructions of pedagogical activities approved at VAMK
17. Considering the feedback from the students on the study units when planning and implementing teaching
18. Active participation personnel training (VAMKs own training and EduLab) as agreed in the appraisal discussions
19. All learning material is available for the students on Moodle. The objective is that the student's energy is not directed to copying the teacher's texts
20. Networking

Knowledge mapping at VAMK.

The competencies of VAMK personnel were surveyed twice with a similar questionnaire at VAMK in spring 2012 and 2013. These surveys were conducted before defining VAMK knowledge map. The basis for the questions in the survey was the competency criteria in current job advertisements, and the competency criteria at levels 6 and 7 in EQF (European Qualification Framework) required from university graduates. The surveys included an inquiry for the whole personnel about common competency, for the managers about manager competency, and for the teachers about their pedagogic competency. Teacher competency consists of substance knowledge but also of teaching skills and other skills needed in the work community. Society and generations change which means that teachers will have to develop their teaching skills accordingly.

Pedagogic competency. VAMK teachers were asked to evaluate their pedagogic competency from the point of view of substance knowledge, ICT skills, and teaching methods supporting learning process. There are about 150 teachers at VAMK of whom 93 participated in the survey in 2012 and 110 in 2013. The weaknesses concerned especially the knowledge of business life and mastery of video conferencing, as well as project and process-based teaching. 65 in-service trainings have been organized for VAMK personnel from autumn 2010 to spring 2013 of which 6 have been language training, 21 ACT training, 14 trainings concerning teaching, and 4 internationality.

Feedback on the study unit. At universities students give verbal feedback on teaching. The feedback covers the following areas:

- 1) The acquired knowledge with regard to the learning objectives.
- 2) The work load during the study unit measured in working hours.
- 3) Learning methods and environment used during the study unit.
- 4) Positive things during the study unit
- 5) Things to improve
- 6) Any other comments to the teacher

The teacher receives the feedback and it will be processed with the manager in development discussions. The teacher is expected to consider the given feedback when planning the study units.

COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT AND MANAGEMENT

Development discussions. The managers at VAMK have development discussions with the teachers every spring, i.e. once a year. The development discussions are based on a questionnaire filled in beforehand. The discussions concern topics such as evaluation, the upcoming work, objectives and expectations, development plans, etc. The manager will also receive feedback on the management.

Development plan for teachers. A development plan is made for teachers on the basis of the knowledge map as well as student and manager feedback. The teachers evaluate their pedagogical competency with regard to the objectives in pedagogic operations on scale 1-5 (novice - expert). In addition to this they define the objectives of their pedagogic competency, methods of development, and the schedule for development together with the manager. Reaching the objectives will be monitored and evaluated in the following development discussion.

Personnel program and orientation. VAMK personnel program provides information about work community, competency, and management development. In addition to this the objectives for development and operations program have been made for the following year. The Unit of Education formulated an orientation guidebook for VAMK during spring 2013. It is in electronic form and includes electronic links. The orientation guidebook includes statutes concerning orientation, an information packet for a new employee, information about VAMK telecommunications, and instructions for the teaching personnel. Attached to the orientation guidebook is an orientation form to enable monitoring the orientation process. The manager is always responsible for the orientation of the employees.

Instructions for the teaching personnel are updated annually. The teachers have a possibility for additional information or discussion on operations program. The aim is to achieve coherent knowledge and skills on pedagogic program, study unit descriptions, AHOT instructions, accepting credits, guidelines for final thesis and assessment.

SUMMARY

Nowadays every organization requires ICT skills and communication and language skills. Teachers' pedagogical skills are important at universities since school dropouts, graduating within standard time and employment are key factors in current financial model. Teachers' pedagogic skills also have a significant influence on the advance of student's studies. Pedagogic skills and substance knowledge need constant updating since society becomes more IT oriented and international, and students are more demanding than earlier.

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Audiovisual Materials and Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract

Audiovisual devices such as satellite and conventional televisions can offer easy access to authentic programs which are considered to be a rich sources of language input for SLA. The immediacy of various audiovisual programs ensures that language learners' exposure is up-to-date and embedded in the real world of native speakers. In the same line, in the present paper, some anecdotal as well as experimental studies conducted to highlight the pedagogical values of various audiovisual programs such as news broadcasts, movies, cartoons, series and documentary films are reviewed. The related literature indicates that most of the studies are anecdotal which highlight the pedagogical values of various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input particularly English as a foreign language context where access to social interaction in English as a potential source of language input is limited. As a result, teachers are encouraged to expose the language learners to various audiovisual programs to enhance second language acquisition.

Keywords. Audiovisual programs; language input; second language acquisition

Sources of language input in EFL/ESL contexts

Various sources of language input are available in English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts. Before the discussion on the sources of language input in EFL and ESL contexts is put forth, the concepts of ESL and EFL contexts need to be elaborated.

An ESL context is an environment where English language is spoken in society as the official language or the medium of communication among people from different countries. In fact, English language plays an institutional and social role in the community in an ESL context (Ellis, 2008). According to Ellis (2008), in an ESL context, English language functions as a means of communication among members who speak various languages. In contrast, an EFL context refers to an environment where English language is not the primary or secondary language spoken. Indeed, English is considered as a foreign language rather than a *second* language and the use is limited to language classrooms (Freed, 1995). In EFL contexts, English language has no major role in society and is learnt in the classroom setting (Ellis, 2008).

Back to the discussion on the available sources of language input in EFL/ESL contexts, it should be mentioned that in ESL contexts, people can have interaction with other people from different countries using the English language. English is then considered as a source of language input which can facilitate and pave the way for SLA (Gass, 1997). The social interaction in ESL contexts is one of the authentic sources of language input which can help language learners acquire the language in informal settings.

This has been emphasized by Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis in which conversational interaction enhances SLA. Accordingly, negotiation of meaning which triggers interactional adjustments by the native speakers or more proficient interlocutors in social interaction can contribute to SLA. In contrast, in an EFL contexts social interaction as a source of language input in an informal language learning setting is lacking. English is not used as a medium of communication or for other purposes in society in the EFL contexts. Indeed, the use of English language is mainly limited to formal settings at universities, language institutes or language classrooms. As a matter of fact, in EFL contexts, limited usage of English language can only be observed when language learners use English language in interactions with their instructors and their peers.

In short, examples of learning the language in informal setting include learners' interaction with native or non-native speakers in the target language country or a country where English is the second language. Besides,

learners' use of different technologies at home or at work via watching a movie or listening to music or song which provide appropriate language input is considered as another example of language learning in informal settings (Lightbown & Spada, 2001).

In a nutshell, by viewing, for example, a movie or listening to a song, language learners indirectly get involved in the language learning process when they try to understand the movie or the song by using different language learning strategies (Pemberton, Fallahkhair & Mosthoff, 2004). The various types of audiovisual programs are considered to be authentic language materials which have the potential to provide the necessary language input for SLA in informal setting by indirectly involving the language learners in the language learning process (Pemberton et al., 2004).

Authentic language input

Using authentic language input through authentic materials in foreign/second language learning has a long history. In relation to the concept of authentic language input, Nunan (1999) described authentic language materials as written or spoken language materials that have been produced in real communication. In fact, these spoken or written language materials are not specifically produced for the very purpose of language teaching. Nunan (1999) further highlights the assumption that authentic language input can be extracted from various sources such as news, movies, singing shows, series, and comedies, recorded conversations, meetings, and newspapers. Gilmore (2007) also defined authentic language input as the language conveying a real message produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience. In short, the point can be concluded that authentic materials that are not initially made for language teaching purposes extracted from various print or audiovisual sources which may have the potential to be utilized for language learning purposes.

Audiovisual programs as authentic language input and language learning

Audiovisual news as pedagogically valuable and rich source of authentic language input utilized for language learning has been the focus of many studies since the 1970s (Baker, 1996; Beach & Somerholter, 1997; Bell, 2003; Berber, 1997; Blachford, 1973; Brinton & Gaskill, 1987; Mackenzie, 1997; Poon, 1992).

Almost four decades ago, audiovisual news was anecdotally considered to be a rich source of vocabulary input because the recycling feature of the vocabularies can help language learners build their lexicon (Blachford, 1973). A few years later, Brinton and Gaskill (1987) provided empirical evidence to support the effectiveness of listening to audiovisual news programs on enhancing EFL/ESL language learners' listening skill. The study was carried out in Germany as an EFL context and in the United States of America as an ESL context. During the six-month research period, audiovisual news broadcasts were incorporated in advance EFL/ESL classes once a week. During the study, the 11-15 minute videotaped news materials were prepared for use in both classrooms following a transcript aimed at facilitating comprehension. Subsequently, an English-English gloss of difficult vocabulary items including the definitions and some sentences related to the context in which they would appear in the broadcast were also prepared. Some follow up listening comprehension questions were also prepared to be answered by the students. The results of the study revealed that ESL participants outperformed the EFL ones. Brinton and Gaskill (1987) highlighted the point that EFL learners' insignificant improvement in listening skill might be related to their insufficient amount of exposure to audiovisual news. Classroom materials which were used in that particular EFL context to enhance listening comprehension were not sufficient enough to help the language learners cope with rapid speech. According to Brinton and Gaskill (1987), exposure to audiovisual news language input has the potential to improve the listening skill because different newscasts bring reality into the classroom and enable the students to focus on substantive issues. Additionally, because of the recycling feature of vocabulary in different audiovisual news, EFL/ESL language learners become more familiar with many contextualized vocabulary items during a long period of exposure. Without providing any supportive empirical evidence, Brinton and Gaskill (1987) claimed that by listening to audiovisual news, language learners can enhance other language skills. In the 90s, similar studies empowered by quantitative data also focused on using audiovisual news as a type of authentic language material to improve listening skill (Baker, 1996; Cauldwell, 1996; Poon, 1992).

To go further, the possibility of using audiovisual news reports as language input for lower proficiency levels of EFL/ESL learning has been the focus of a research conducted by Mackenzie (1997). The study was conducted at Simul Academy in Japan. Mackenzie (1997) rejected the idea that the newscasters speak very fast, the content

is very multifaceted, the vocabulary is very difficult, and audiovisual news cannot be integrated into low basic levels of language learning situations. As a matter of fact, Mackenzie (1997) highlighted the point that with the careful selection of audiovisual news items and applying some simple techniques, news reports can be used even at elementary or intermediate levels. According to the study, the selection of the content of the news reports should depend mainly on the language learners' interest and background knowledge because they feel more comfortable listening to familiar content. In the same line, Bell (2003) considered content schemata, formal schemata, and linguistic difficulty as three criteria for selecting any types of audiovisual news for EFL classrooms. A similar study was also conducted by Wetzel et al. (1994). However, these studies were also anecdotal and pedagogical in nature.

In short, the review of the literature on the use of audiovisual news as a source of authentic language input for SLA reveals that most of the studies were descriptive and examined the pedagogical value, the possibility of using news at all levels of language learning, and the selection criteria without empirical evidence.

Movies is another type of audiovisual programs which have long been regarded as an important resource for foreign language instructors because it is an authentic source of material (Kaiser, 2011). The spoken language of movies often includes various types of speeches such as the speeches of various educational levels, the speeches of children and non-native speakers, slang and jargon, rural and urban speeches, and a range of regional dialects that language learners will encounter in the target language country (Kaiser, 2011). In fact, movies provide language learners with multi-sensory input that is close to what they will likely find and encounter in the real world communication (Arcario, 1993).

The review of the qualitative studies regarding the integration of movies as a source of authentic language input for language learning is limited. For example, a study was conducted by Yuksel (2009) focusing on the effectiveness of viewing captioned movie clip on EFL learners' vocabulary enhancement. The research was carried out with 120 language learners in a preparatory class. The participants were randomly divided into two groups. Before the treatment, the participants in both groups took a sample 20-item vocabulary knowledge scale pre-test. During the study, the participants of group one were exposed to some movie clips with captions while the participants of the second group were exposed to the same movie clips without captions. One month after the treatment, both groups were given another vocabulary knowledge scale test with 20 words as a post-test. The results obtained from the pre-post tests of both groups revealed that both groups demonstrated significant gains. In fact, viewing the movie clips reinforced the expansion of the vocabulary knowledge of the language learners regardless of the presence or the absence of captions (Yuksel, 2009). According to Yuksel (2009), the development in the vocabulary knowledge stems from the importance of encountering the vocabularies in the real context. In fact, incidental vocabulary learning can be facilitated through contextual cues. Accordingly, teachers are encouraged to utilize movies as authentic sources of materials to support learners' vocabulary learning instead of only explaining the vocabularies in an isolated manner (Yuksel, 2009).

The effect of exposure to movies with and without subtitles on listening comprehension improvement has also been the focus of a research conducted by Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) on. The study was carried out with 90 intermediate language learners who were randomly divided into three groups of 30 participants at an Islamic Azad University in Iran. During the study which lasted for 6 weeks, group one was exposed to some segments of various movies with English subtitle, group two was exposed to the same segments of the same movies without subtitle, and group three was exposed to the same segments of the same movies with Persian subtitle. At the end of the study, a multiple-choice comprehension test was given to all the three groups to measure their listening comprehension development and provide grounds for comparison. The results of the study were indicative of the fact that the English subtitles group performed significantly much better than the Persian subtitles group and the no subtitle group on the listening comprehension test.

More particularly, the results proved that exposure to movies with English subtitles helped intermediate students in EFL context to develop their listening comprehension significantly. According to Hayati and Mohmedi (2011), for low and intermediate language learners, watching a movie with the first language subtitle is beneficial for the better comprehension of the film because low and intermediate level language learners may have limited range of vocabulary items. On the other hand, intermediate and advance levels language learners may have little problem in understanding the movies without subtitles because their proficiency level is higher.

Cartoons have been widely used as one of the teaching authentic audiovisual materials in language learning classes. The pedagogical value of cartoons as an authentic source of language input has been the focus of limited number of studies (Clark, 2000; Doring, 2002; Rule & Ague, 2005).

Cartoons are also considered as excellent teaching tools because they not only add humor to a topic but also illustrate the idea in a memorable way. In an anecdotal study conducted by Clark (2000), it was highlighted that cartoons can engage the attention of the learners and present information in a non-threatening atmosphere. Besides, cartoons have the potential to reinforce thinking processes and discussion skills (Clark, 2000). Another study was carried out by Doing (2002) focusing on the effect of exposure to cartoons on language learning. The results of a study were indicative of the fact that the language learners who had exposure to cartoons could produce oral answers that were very proactive and interesting in different discussions held in the classes. Moreover, the discussions were rich and the students had high confidence. It seems that the high confidence that the language learners acquire is due to exposure to cartoons which create low affective filter atmosphere for learning.

Rule and Ague (2005) also conducted a study providing evidence of the students' preferences to use cartoons in language learning. Similar to singing shows, cartoons are preferred because they create low affective filter atmosphere which causes a high degree of motivation. The high confidence and motivation achieved through exposure to cartoons is claimed to enhance the memory of the language learners when they try to make a connection between the new materials and the prior knowledge through analogy in a comfortable atmosphere (Rule & Ague, 2005). Without providing empirical evidence, Rule and Ague (2005) also claimed that students who use cartoons can improve different language skills and achieve higher test scores. However, Rule and Ague (2005) did not specify which language skill(s) can be improved through the use of cartoons. The evidence thus far points to cartoons as a source of authentic language input which may prove effective in developing different language skills of differentiated language proficiency language learners.

Series, as a type of authentic source of language input to be employed in language classrooms, has not captured the attention of many researchers. As an exception, Chiu (2006) highlights the use of comedy to enrich language learners' vocabulary based on his own experiences of using comedy in a college course of reading and vocabulary in Taiwan which lasted for one academic semester. For every two-hour reading course, the instructor played one episode of a sample comedy. While watching, each student was required to pick up as many words as he/she wanted to learn from the show. After the end of the show, the students were asked to volunteer to list on the board the vocabulary words they picked from the show. Then, the instructor selected ten words from the list of the words on the board to be discussed according to their meanings in the context of the situation comedy.

Conclusion

Considering the fact that SLA simply cannot take place without having exposure to a sort of language input, various audiovisual programs brought by different technologies have the potential to provide the necessary language input for SLA development particularly in EFL contexts where social interaction as a source of language input does not exist or is limited. In short, wide arrays of audiovisual programs are available as authentic sources of language input for SLA in EFL and ESL contexts. What is concluded from the related studies can be summarized in the following four parts: the claims made by the studies conducted regarding the pedagogical values of the use of various authentic audiovisual programs to provide the necessary language input for SLA are mostly anecdotal, most of the studies have investigated the psychological aspects of various audiovisual programs. For example, cartoons, movies, and singing shows can enhance language learning through creating low affective filter atmosphere, the related studies have mostly investigated the formal language learning setting. Indeed, informal language learning setting which has a great potential for SLA has not been investigated.

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Principles of Museum Educational Programmes for Students. An Application Example

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Abstract

Museum – educational science is an extremely interesting area, especially for the modern museum aspect. Through its educational role, museum wishes to succeed in both, the communicational and enjoyable character. In addition, museum is a place that attracts the modern school's interest that seeks alternative ways of learning. The museum educational programs are organized to prepare students for the cultural wealth of the world around them. Using experiential learning these programs are designed to offer students a total interactive experience, knowledge, moreover, self-knowledge, but also a deep connection with these cultural institutions. The students may be the future museum audience. Specifically, a school museum visit are designed in order to connect the lesson of Modern Literature (mainly for High School- C Grade) with the paintings of the National Gallery of Athens - Corfu Brunch (K. Korakiana). The activities that we are propose, have variety in content and degree of difficulty and some times start from paintings and other times from literary works that include to the school curriculum. Are designed a series of worksheets to connect more effectively the theory and practice and revealing, through the final evaluation of the program, the value of museum education for the museum visitor.

Keywords. Museum - educational programs, interactive experience, school visits, Modern Literature, School Curriculum, activities, worksheets.

INTRODUCTION

One of the primary goals of any society is to realize the educational role to young people. The 20th century was marked by particularly intense pedagogical considerations on the theoretical level. Education topics and child psychology issues, were found at the scene, within and outside the academic community, but despite discussions, the practical implementation of the agreed innovation was relatively poor because the society of the last century was not so imperative (Spathari - Begliti : 214). The modern face of changing world of Information Society introduces us to a new era of overturns and requirements, some of which seek to be accomplished at school. Beyond the productive wealth of a country, the school must have the role to prepare young people for the cultural wealth. At this point fits the usefulness and appropriateness of the museum association with the school, as an alternative place of learning and educational function. The field of Museum Education, first appeared as a novelty, but then evolved into a necessity and finally understood area of interest (Chatzinikolaou 2002: 101).

Typically, Newsom and Silver, concerning the United States, said that all institutions in a country that is not schools , and who are not paid to be schools, museums are the most appropriate to try to educate young people (Black 2009 : 198). Already in 1946 Unesco founded the International Council of Museums (ICOM) made the first attempt to define the concept of the museum. The educational role of a museum is closely interwoven with the other functions of this cultural organization (study and entertainment). ICOM (International Council of Museums) gave the predominant museum definition, in 1974, in Copenhagen, according to which museum is called a permanent non-profit organization, open to the public, submissive in the service of society and of its development which acquires, conserves, studies communicates and exhibits material evidence of man and his environment in order to study, education and entertainment (Economou 2003:16). The latter definition of the term "museum" in 2007 by ICOM, not only adds the parameter of preserving intangible cultural heritage of humanity, outside of the material, but puts the educational purpose of the museum over the role of study and entertainment (retrieved from <http://icom.museum/definition.html> , 15 January, 2014). Museum Education, could be termed as the "public advocate ", the representation of human being in the educational process (Nikonanou 2005 : 18).

METHODOLOGY - THEORIES OF LEARNING - PROCEDURES

This study is interested in museum educational program creation, exposing issues of methodology and design. It also aims to describe, in depth, educational activities that take place in museum, having students as focus group and proposed to be implemented by schools towards enriching education courses through the educational use of material culture. Training activities categorization based on the existence of common characteristics (e.g. purpose, procedure).

In this paper will be analyzed a program that links the school curriculum with a gallery space and specifically Gallery of K. Korakiana (Corfu Island of Greece). Criteria for this choice were the fact that both, painting and visual arts are presented as an area of art quite approachable and popular among young people. Furthermore, had to be taken in to account the possibilities of choose in Corfu and the possibilities to connect the contents of a local museum space with school's formal curriculum. Moreover, this gallery is a branch of the National Gallery of Athens, the most important museum in Greece. Greek art measuring 110 years presence in contribution, preservation and exhibition of cultural heritage. The branch of the National Gallery in K. Korakiana, housed in two buildings, Kastellino and Kastleto, which were auxiliary buildings of the historic hotel, Castello (formerly Villa Mimpeli created with the restoration of a medieval tower). The surrounding area is of outstanding natural beauty and access to the Gallery is easy with ample parking and spacious outdoor concentration of visitor groups.

Literature and web research were used for the purpose of presenting the principles of a museum educational program's design. Moreover, similar programs in galleries were studied. For the activities of the students used the empirical method, inductive and productive method while utilized and applied learning theories according to them student discover his own knowledge (discovering method of Bruner). Also, through teamwork method, social characteristics of each student are taking always into account (social-cultural theories of Vygotsky). Apart from all the above, the constructivist teaching model were used. Constructivism wants man capable manufactures personal knowledge and considers this process inevitable. Additionally, Bourdieu's theories about "cultivated pleasure" and enjoyment of works of art were utilized: "Things that we like, it is only those whose meaning we understand". Whatever model of learning is used, it is necessary to connect the artifacts with visitor's personal and relevant experience. This is the only road to ensure accessibility of the target group (Economou 2003: 68 , 89). As an example is referred the exhibition "Stories Power", organized in 2001 by the Whitworth Art Gallery in Manchester, in collaboration with an artist from Nigeria, exposed and projects from schools in the area. Finally, interdisciplinary, experiential method and interaction are keystones in the design processes of this study.

BACKGROUND

On the one hand, museum, itself, wants to educate young people, on the other hand, teachers themselves attracted to the museum to enrich their school courses, but, mainly, because of the value of material objects for learning. This tendency of the school to approach museums will become more dominant than early 20th century and will be expressed through the development of museum education. An example is the case of the Deutsche Museum in Munich, in 1904, which was designed, from the very beginning, as a museum with predominantly educational character. The aim of the overall exhibition and presentation of educational programs, says G. Kerschensteiner, educator and partner to Deutsche Museum, a museum would act as a "laboratory" for students, as a hidden curriculum, "with the objects themselves, and not the shadow of objects, as to school textbooks "(Nikonanou 2009: 41). A common museums' goal are educational activities for pupils, training seminars for teachers and teaching material. Noteworthy is the creation of a special committee of ICOM with the subject "Education and Cultural Action in museums" ("Education and Cultural Action" - CECA) which significantly promoted the interests of museum education. The International Committee of CECA is the largest and most active of all the committees of ICOM. The proceedings of the meetings organized around the world, captured in books to inform people.

Already, since 1983, is founded the Greek Section of ICOM, which contributed decisively to the development of museum educational programs. Greek museums, organize programs, seminars for teachers and provide supportive educational material starting from the 80s (Chortarea 2002: 180) and especially during the last two decades with relevant publications and educational activities of the Ministry of Culture (Ministry of Culture 2002). For example the program MELINA-Education and Culture (1995), regional seminars on "Museum-School" (the 1st in Argolida, the 2nd Dion, the 3rd in Patras in 1993, 4th in Ioannina in 1994, the 5th in

Kalamata in 1997 and 6th in 2002 in Kavala, et al. (Chatzinikolaou 2002: 105). Benaki museum, in Athens, since 1978, is using similar programs (Chalkia 2002: 297). Benaki museum, in collaboration with Museum of Greek Children's Art in Athens, participate in the international program for the museum education, called turbinegeneration.

Communication and education are roles that often cannot be separated in the modern view of the museum. Today, emphasis is placed on educational programs, especially for schools, and this is the reason that many believe in students lies the solution to the problem of reduced visitation to museums.

CONDITIONS FOR CREATING A MUSEUM EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The cooperation between museum and school is an essential issue when target group is student. The special educational programs of the museum must provide school teachers with any information or educational material museum has, to start preparing the program. Museum, in contact with school, aims to improve the services provided in terms of adapting the program to the specific characteristics and interests of the group, to "see" the possibilities of connection with the exhibits and with the curriculum of a particular school grade. This point has a meaningful evaluation for the program (Chalkias 2002: 299). Normally, the creation of educational programs should be integrated in the process of construction of the museum, in its physical dimension, and the "setting" of collections.

The program manager is beneficial to have in mind the form of the new museum visit seeking modern audience that has more need to live an "experience" in the museum as a result of the successful synthesis of the personal dimension of visitor – student, his social dimension and the physical dimension of space, according to the model of the interactive experience of Falk and Dierking (Economou 2003: 84). It has been shown that team members participating in the program, they need to communicate, collaborate, entertain into the museum, as an alternative form of output, not only learning (" learning fun ») (Black 2009: 205). Moreover, the visit to the museum is not only a socially important activity, but also an opportunity for social interaction among visitors, friends or strangers (Galanis 2006: 9) .

Museum educational programs adopt learning models that give freedom to the visitor and seek the active participation of such experimental learning, following the sentence "learn by doing". The museum is an appropriate area for blended learning theories. According to the view of constructivism, the role of the curator of the museum is limited to provide opportunities for visitors to work interactively and to "build " their own meanings (Black 2009: 178-179).

PRINCIPLES OF CREATION A MUSEUM EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME

Each museum educational program, conducted through three stages: before the visit (preparation stage), during the visit (main stage) after the visit (control stage of knowledge and experience and evaluation of the program). During the visit to the museum can implement the five principles of the Nuffield Schools in Great Britain (Black 2009: 209).

- ü Questions: learning through discovery related questions and answers.
- ü Challenges: encourage children to persist, to assume, to combine, to discuss, to understand.
- ü Occupancy and economy sources: a few, well-selected authentic sources.
- ü Depth: depth study in order to attain true knowledge.
- ü Accessibility: prefer activities that are accessible to children and use them as a basis for the sequel.

First we define the focus group for which prepared the program. This program for Gallery of K. Korakiana aimed at C grade students in High School. Then, we define the theme and key messages and connect the content of the Gallery, in this case, with school curriculum. This program will attempt to investigate the connection of the course of Greek Literature and Poetry with the paintings of the Gallery. Will discuss about Ionian School in painting, School of Athens, the effect of Munich School, about movement of realism and the painting with scenes of everyday life. The theme is backed by goals which are inseparably connected with the age of the participants, their cognitive level, past experiences or not in museums, interests, abilities and any peculiarities. Teacher's information about qualitative and quantitative composition of students group, will increase the chances of success of the program.

Also we define the schedule. This program designed to cover a school year (annual plan). We define the learning models of our choice, taking into account not only the fact that not all students learn in the same way,

but also the fact that the museum offers a combination of learning theories. Besides, the museum allows multiple interpretations and does not promote one absolute truth. Regarding the artworks, these have the particularity of being redefined and 'change', although the physical dimensions remain constant, because "consumed", each time, by a different observer - visitor (Fillis 2004: 127). This "freedom" in interpretation and communication with a painting, is an advantage for a museum educational program.

Then we collect the existing educational material and prepare the new, aiming to create a complex experience based on the widest possible variety of instruments to interdisciplinary and interactivity. Today, in general, the use of technology and interactive websites of museums can encourage active participation (such as to put the visitors in the role of the archaeologist in a virtual excavation on a computer screen) (Economou 2003: 85). Particularly young people fascinate games, playing roles, observation, participation in workshops, competitions, treasure hunts, art activities, audiovisual experiences, virtual tour and computer games, "dip" in the representation of history. The visitors 'go out' of themselves and become, for a while, part of the story (eg warriors in the past). Children play in specific rooms of the museum (use sounds and pictures) (Kotler & Kotler 2008: 27).

Gallery has two CD-ROM, one relevant with Greek landscape and the second with a virtual tour of the National Gallery of Athens. This material was used in the preparation of students before the visit to the museum. Also was used the Gallery's book with pictures of the paintings and a range of specialized workbooks (separate notebook for student-teacher). Generally, educational materials must comply with following principles: to be friendly to the user, based on original material, not copyrighted in order for educational use (Black 2009: 216).

The duration of the activities should not discourage or tired the participant. For this reason, we give attention to the number of activities and the number of students in each group (depending on the age and the difficulty of actions). The number of groups can vary from 5 to 10 children and considered that there should be no more than six activities for each group. Calculating the indicative time of 15-20 minutes for completion of each activity, the total planned time of creative activities during the visit should not exceed two hours. For students, the overall objective is to "enjoy" visit, without resentment or difficulty to cope with the demands of the actions requested by them. These actions will be appropriately selected and aligned with the interests and the abilities of this group. We avoid reprimands and encourage students. Pestalozzi says that a teacher must be simply assistant to his student (Kalouri 1998: 48).

We utilize all the possibilities of the museum as a physical space. People visiting the museum are prompted not only for the collections but also for the architectural environment in which paintings are exhibited (Kotler & Kotler & Kotler 2008: 28). Regarding the interior space of the museum, students must have an 'easy' run and places for rest. Other practical issues that should be solved by the leaders of the museum educational program is safety of students, easy access, good services at the ticket office, library, museum shop, restaurant, toilets, parking. When visitors feel comfortable in the environment of the museum, they enjoy better their visit and this point is an advantage for the whole project (Economou 2003: 87). Behavior of frontline staff (the workers at the museum who come into first contact with visitors) contributes decisively to the program, affecting, positively or negatively. To the end, program is evaluated by all stakeholders (museum, teachers, students, and the state).

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES AND WORKSHEETS FOR THE BRANCH OF THE NATIONAL GALLERY OF GREECE, IN CORFU

Division into groups

Student create groups (4-5 people), in the space of the Gallery playing game of blind man's buff. A visit to the museum is not only a socially important activity, but also an opportunity for social interaction among visitors, friends or strangers (Galanis 2006: 9). It is an opportunity for the students themselves to improve their social status among their peers. Each group can choose a name. This fact will unify them as a group and will create a greater sense of cooperativeness.

Selection Criteria. Categorization

The criteria by which selected the proposed activities were basically covered all learning goals associated with the project title ("The painting conversing with poetry and literature in Greek art of the 19th and early 20th century") through thematic variety (paintings with different themes and artistic currents of the time). On the

other hand, the hierarchical order of activities was centered thinking to keep both, undiminished interest of students and the degree of their concentration in the program. For this reason, in the second part, preferring activities in style of the game looking for a winner even without requiring less effort or having less value as a learning process .

The activities will be presented, categorized as follows:

Group A: Easy, descriptive activities, first contact

Group B: Creative writing and literature - direct connection with the painting (from the painting led to the text or vice versa, from a given text, we try to discover the artwork). The text can be set in a framework of literature that has studied from the students or to be studied at school soon. This text might have been written by the students themselves. The quickest student and the most correct wins (learning through play and without presupposed knowledge of art).

C group: Discovery games of specific paintings as "race" with the election of the winning team. The teams will define the rules of the game and put obstacles in the «opponents " in finding the correct answer.

Group D: Game fantasy and role play, creating short dramatic scenes from the students themselves (performance of " language" of colors with communication through words. (What happened before, what after that students see in a painting - performance of feeling and thoughts that stimulate by the painting Children create lively dialogues - empathy and internal penetration in the project).

Group comparisons: compare paintings in the same or different theme.

Group activities A: paintings description

General purpose

In this type of business the principal purpose is to bring students into first contact with the works of the gallery, tour the hall trying to identify paintings and painters, to feel comfortable and familiar with the area. In this scope, contributes the workers in the museum.

Links to the group - description

The activity can be adjusted according to the paintings we choose, for students of C grade in secondary school or of A grade in high school. If it is the first time that student come to contact with works of art, it is advisable to select paintings that relate to familiar images. This Gallery exhibits works and landscapes of Corfu, but also images of nature consistent with the natural landscape of the island. Generally, in the room, downstairs, exhibit works from the early periods of Modern Painting, like Ionian School, School of Munich (eg Lytras, Gyzis: painters) works of early landscape painting and portraiture , paintings with scenes of everyday life, paintings with historical and religious themes.

In this first group of activities may include two worksheets. First, it will be purely declaratory character. Students simply walk and discover, for example, titles from specific paintings, recording two to three names of painters and portraits. Children can connect eg Ionian School in painting, with Ionian School in literature (Kalvos , Solomos etc). The first worksheet is preferred to be individual, and all the rest, are addressed in each group.

The second activity is linked to a new worksheet, more demanding this time, seeking to increase the degree of concentration and prompts personal view of each student. Each group has a different task to describe.

As an example description works for the first contact with the Gallery states:

The Corfu fortress after 1848, by Francesco Pitze (link to literary works that are referenced in historical monuments : eg Hymn to Parthenon by K. Palamas , The patriot by A. Kalvos and The Amateur by I. Polyas.

Expected results

Specifically, at first , the purpose is to direct the viewer - student to " know " through a quick look at the works (first activity) and then (second activity) , to ' read ' deeper the painting that has been given, by terms of technical characteristics of visual art (eg contour , colors , shading, or naturalness of posture and psychological burden on forms when it comes to portrait) and finally to comment the content of the painting. Through the specific questions of the second worksheet, we aim to ' keep ' the student as a spectator for a while. The ideal thing is to direct student without depriving his thought, his imagination and the ability to express a personal opinion. We desire the connection with Modern Literature school course, sometimes more loosely and freely and sometimes more directly. At this point preparation at school is necessary.

Generally, the first group of activities leverages the knowledge of students, trying to connect their personal experiences and “images” with the Gallery and seeks the exercise of their observation.

Recommended time: 15 - 20 minutes

Links to other activities

These first descriptive attempts of young visitors can be combined with any activity of the second group (creative writing) or fourth (descriptions by creating theatrical images: fantasy games).

Group activities B: Creative Writing

General purpose

Students can understand that visual arts, in this case, poetry and literature, are different kinds of art, language expression and communication with different media.

Links to the group - description

Specific activities preferred portraits or paintings with scenes of everyday life, especially if in the first activities group we choose landscapes (second worksheet). The reason is that the description of persons and roles - characters or scenes can easily be connected to literary works in school curriculum. Students are accustomed to analyze human types and "see" behind the paintings.

At the first worksheet, we give a ready description (external or internal) and we ask children to connect this description with paintings. At the second worksheet, we request the opposite: to stand forth in a portrait or a painting scene and produce their own text. They'll try to describe both, the appearance of the depicted persons and their feelings or even their character if they can.

Examples connection with textbook includes:

1. Mayday in Corfu (C. Pahlis) to describe the scene with style and vocabulary of Karkavitsas or Xenopoulos (are writers) .
2. Daughter's head (P. Gyzis – a painter): connection with the beggar by Karkavitsas
3. After the Memorial (N. Gyzis) : Connection to: Oblivion by Mavilis / Voices by Cavafis (poet)
4. Portrait of Corfiot lawyer named Donatos Dimoulitsas (By M. Tsokos) : A form and substance of Xenopoulos
5. Given text in writing style of Xenopoulos: association with: George Pyrran , harbormaster of Zakynthos (N. Koutouzis, painter) .

Expected results

From these activities, we expect students to develop both, analytical and synthetic thinking. On the first worksheet, is deliberately more playful style, invites students to discover what the painting is. In the second activity of this group, student attempt to communicate with the paintings. This procedure makes the child creative.

Recommended time: 20 minutes

Group activities C: Exploration games through a " race ."

General purpose

The overall goal of this group of activities is to activate most of the students, applying the method of “entertaining learning”, thus renewing the interest of children for both, paintings and the overall experience of visiting the museum.

Connection with the team and description

Through its past activities, students, from one hand, have been in close to contact with several paintings and feel comfortable in the place of museum, on the other hand, is the right time for something different that will relax them, and stimulate their attention but lacks in learning power. A " racing " is a very popular game for the children and develops the competition and the collaborative spirit, motivates feelings satisfaction. It also stimulates confidence and creates a pleasant climate. Thus, from this perspective, these activities are close in temperament and interests of students, escaping from traditional ways of learning and contributing to the success of the experience of the whole visit.

In this category of activities, all teams have the same tests on their hands in order to compete on equal terms. Otherwise, the tests can be called "missions" having nominally more playful style. The word "mission" is used today (there are courses through computer known as Web Quest lessons). In each group, share a friendly, small musical instrument. Every team use this instrument when has a ready answer. Each correct answer gives points to the team and every mistake, removes points. Other rules of the game can be defined and addressed by each teacher and suggestions from students themselves, before the visit, to be aware of what comes next in the museum, to have the whole process and the element of surprise. Speeds are required and also spirit of collaboration, readiness and seriousness on the part of students to achieve the correct answer. The types of tests - missions under proposed are as follows:

" Race Speed : find it and won ! "

1. We give teams an enlarged view of a detail of a painting, and ask them to find the title of the painting. Select paintings to 'cover ' a cognitive space in which do not address previous activities, such as the existence of the eastern element (Orientalism) in some paintings.

Examples: Little negro by N. Lytras , Arab soldier courtship by Th.Rallis . We can connect with the Harem By G. Vizyinos (writer).

2. We give some words - keys and ask them to ' discover ' the painting. If we want to make this test more interesting, we can invite students to find a hidden piece of a painting to fill a puzzle. Generally, we may ask the title of a painting or the name of a painter.

3. We offer students a ready script, a contract according to which are invited to discover the protagonist of the story are given.

Example: They look for the " perpetrator " of slaps (The first cop By I. Rallis) , through information given to them , which will lead to a portrait of a male figure exhibiting in the gallery .

Proposed paintings: The first cop by Th.Rallis (link to First remembrances by P. Delta, a writer) .

The sailor who smokes by L. Ransom (connection T'agnantema by A. Papadiamandis, a writer)

George Pyrran, harbormaster of Zakynthos by Koutouzis (painter)

4. We give students the picture of a painting that is not in the gallery and ask them to find the artist. We can help with some in formations.

Recommended time: 15 minutes

Links to other activities

These activities can be combined with the second group of activities, creative writing (from text driven to visual work) and the comparison group. You may presuppose some missions, cooperation among groups and the sharing of points. (Eg a group finds " offers " on the other , the hidden element that needs to " discover " the table) .

Activities of creation theatrical scenes

General purpose

Students after the " race " feel more psychologically liberated. It is believed that it will be able to cope with theatrical game that introduces students in acting ability and in expression of their imagination.

Connect with the team and description

In schools we often observe that students are reluctant to speak out and take part in a school concert or a school theater, especially students from the last classes. However, most people, when given the opportunity to engage in such a process enjoy it and add a pleasant experience into the baggage of memories. We give the groups separately (maybe every two groups) some instructions, contracts, and some paintings of the Gallery (1-3). They are required to develop a monologue, a dialogue or a theatrical scene, inspired by the paintings. Children will distribute the roles. So, a member of the team can help them in creating dialogue, and others to interpret. This activity is not necessary to connect to a specific text book of Literature, but with an artistic movement or style of a writer or poet. What exactly teacher, depends on the composition of his team. The teacher knows better than anyone what are students skills and basics of their character.

Expected results

We expect student enjoy the " dip " in the entire process , developing a deeper relationship with these works of the Gallery that will give them and learning about literary movements. In addition, we aim to introduce the student to the world of the art of painting and involved them with it (critics, buyers, sellers etc.). In this way, the art market is connecting with real life. Through this step, we will achieve even the biggest "bonding" between the members of each group creating an atmosphere truly artistic.

Recommended time: 15 - 20 minutes

Links to other activities

Can be combined with the second group or with activities of comparison

Comparison activities

Main purpose

To develop the synthetic and analytical thinking, sharpen their observation, broaden their knowledge.

Links to other activities

This type of activity will not be analyzed separately, simply because it can be incorporated into any of the preceding groups as an activity with a greater degree of difficulty.

Suggested comparisons:

Girl by G. Avlichos - head of his daughter Gyzis .

Daughter's head by Gyzis - literary texts are proposed in which the girl of the painting portrait could be heroine. Any portrait can connect with a framework of school literally book. We give 2-3 portraits and a particular literary text. Students must choose three paintings to depict the story of literally text and to match paintings with the atmosphere of the text.

Another way is to give students an excerpt from a literary work and ask them to choose some paintings to ' illustrate ' it.

CONCLUSIONS

Regarding to education matter, stakeholders, more and more pressingly, are invited to meet the needs of preparing young people for the Information Society which they will become productive members. Abilities such as searching, research and recording of information, organizational and communication skills, management experience and experiential collaborative ability are vital areas of development (Spathari - Begliti : 215) . The shaping of personality is in need of new smooth and deep relationship with cultural property and cultural heritage in general. In these double scopes, collaboration school - museum is necessary. School and museum are factors of learning process, two opposed doors to knowledge (Kakourou - Years: 12) .

Museum education science, exist to serve the goals of modern school that seeks different roads on teaching. Modern museum through its educational role, aims not only to this role, but also to the social and recreational character. Surveys about public museums showed that young visitors, as students, which came in contact with museums , came back to museums as adults.

This program was designed for the branch of the National Gallery of Athens located in K.Korakiana in Corfu Island. The activities were designed based on the general principles of educational programs and concerning about the possibilities offered this Gallery and the needs of the official school program. Activities promote knowledge through experiential teaching and an enjoyable process in a space that is not the traditional classroom. Also aim to succeed communication and entertainment between the members of each group. This program design want to succeed a total interactive experience in the model of Falk and Dierking, combining personal context of each visitor (knowledge, experience) with the social features of each person and museum physical space (Economou 2003: 84). The activities are easily adaptable to the characteristics of the group will visit the museum and it is not necessary to be used in their entirety turning museum visit into a painful physical and mental process for visitors.

The program give the possibility to teachers and students to evaluate both, the degree of knowledge and the kind of overall experience in the museum, improve the facilities and redefining its position in the local community. Museum educational programs contribute decisively to the creation profiles of a future adult who will know better himself and his cultural identity.

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Ali Tantâvî'nin Makalelerinde Öğretmen ve Öğretim

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Özet

Ali Tantâvî Suriyeli bir edebiyatçı ve hukukçudur. Suriye siyasi ve sosyal tarihinin önemli devirlerine şahitlik eden Tantâvî; Osmanlı, Fransız ve Suriye Arap Cumhuriyeti dönemlerini yaşamıştır. Medrese usulünün yanı sıra modern eğitim alan ilk nesillerden olmuştur. Eğitim hayatında iki farklı yöntemi görmesi ve erken yaşta öğretmenlik mesleğine başlaması onun derin analizler ve eleştiriler yapmasını sağlamıştır. Öğretmenlerinin derste takip ettikleri yöntemin kendisi için çok önemli olduğunu, öğretmeyi öğretmenlerinden öğrendiğini söyleyen Tantâvî'de öğretmenlerinden yola çıkarak oluşturduğu öğretmen profili önemlidir. Bir öğretmen olarak, çocukların psikolojisini göz ardı ederek eğitim verilmesinin eleştirisini yapmıştır. Öğrencilerin beyinlerinin tam olarak kavramadıkları bilgilerle doldurulmasını da şiddetle eleştirmiştir. Öğretmenlerin sınava yönelik olarak dersi şekillendirmesini ve öğrencilerin derslere sınavda kullanacakları daha sonra hafızalarından silecekleri bilgi yığını olarak bakmasını doğru görmemiş ve var olan eğitim sisteminin öğrencileri buna sevk ettiğini söyleyerek sistemi eleştirmiştir. Öğrencilerin, insanın en güzel ve en verimli çağları olan gençlik yıllarında dört duvar arasına hapsedilmesini de eleştirmiş ve daha bireysel daha özgür bir sistemin geliştirilmesi gerektiğini savunmuştur. Özet olarak Geleneksel eğitimin yanı sıra batı eğitimi de alan Tantâvî, iki kültürü de bilen bir şahsiyet olarak eğitim ve öğretimle ilgili önemli ve değerli analizler yapmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler. Ali Tantâvî, Suriye, öğretmen, eğitim, makale, edebiyat.

Giriş

Ali Tantâvî Suriyeli bir edebiyatçı ve hukukçudur. Suriye siyasi ve sosyal tarihinin önemli devirlerine şahitlik eden Tantâvî, medrese usulünün yanı sıra modern eğitim alan ilk nesillerden olmuştur. Suriye, Irak ve Beyrut'ta öğretmenlik yapmıştır. İlkokul, ortaokul, lise ve üniversite dâhil olmak üzere eğitim ve öğretimin tüm aşamalarında görev almıştır. Pek çok gazete ve dergide yazılar yazmış, radyo ve televizyon programları yapmıştır. Hukuk fakültesi mezunu olan Tantâvî avukatlık ve kadılık (hâkimlik) da yapmıştır. Bu çalışmada kısaca Tantâvî'nin hayatına değinildikten sonra ilkokuldan üniversiteye eğitim hayatı, öğretmenliği, eğitim ve öğretimle ilgili değerlendirmeleri ve öğrenci ve öğretmenlere verdiği bazı tavsiyeler ele alınacaktır. Farklı coğrafyalarda ve farklı siyasi ortamlarda öğretmenlik yapan Tantâvî kendi çağında yaşamış olan insanların dertlerini sorun edinmiş ve çözmek için entelektüel bir çaba sarf etmiş nadide kişiliklerdendir.

Hayatı

1909 -1999 yılları arasında yaşamış olan Tantâvî, soyadından da anlaşıldığı gibi aslen Tantalıdır. Dedesi h. 1255 yılında Mısır'ın Tantâ kentinden Dimeşk'a göç etmiştir. Babası Mustafa et-Tantâvî'dir. Şam'ın sayılı âlimlerinden olan babası, fikhî pek çok meselede mahkemelerde danışmanlık yapmıştır. Bunun yanı sıra özel bir okulda müdürlük de yapmıştır. Annesinin ailesi de Şam'ın âlim ailelerinden olan Ali Tantâvî'nin dayısı Muhibbuddin el-Hatib Mısır'da yaşamış ve "el-Fetih" ve "ez-Zehra" gazetelerinin kuruluşunda etkin bir rol oynamıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 133; Tantâvî, 1989: II, 107).

Ali et-Tantâvî, temyiz yaşına girdiğinden beri etrafında babasının öğrencilerini gördüğünü onların okulda gördüğü öğrencilerden farklı olduklarını, derslerinin farklı olduğunu, anlamasa bile sürekli olarak onların derslerini dinlediğini, böylece eğitiminin sonuna kadar bırakmadığı medrese eğitiminin de başladığını ve ilk hocasının da babası olduğunu söylemektedir. Babasının öğrencileri ile olan derslerinde onlara hizmet ederken pek çok kitabın ismini öğrendiğini de eklemektedir. Medrese eğitimi ve modern eğitimi beraber alan Tantâvî bu şekilde eğitim gören ilk kuşağa mensuptur (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 71; Tantâvî, 1989: II, 112; Tantâvî, 1989: 5).

İlkokula Osmanlı'nın Suriye hakimiyeti döneminde babasının müdürlük yaptığı özel okulda başlamıştır. Daha sonra Çakmaklı özel okuluna ve bir devlet okuluna devam etmiş, liseyi ve ortaokulu da o zamanlar Dimeşk'teki

tek lise olan Anber okulunda okumuştur. 1928’de mezun olduğu bu liseden övgü ile bahsetmiş ve kendisini çok etkileyen 6 yılı burada geçirdiğini anlatmıştır. Babasının erken ölümü sebebi ile kardeşleri ile ilgilenmek ve annesine yardım etmek için çalışmaya başlamış; muhasebeci, esnaf, gazeteci ve öğretmenlik gibi farklı işlerle uğraşmıştır. Eğitimine ara vermiş ama esnaf olamayacağını anladıktan sonra tekrar okula dönmüştür (Tantâvî, 1989: II, 112-114). Liseden sonra Mısır’a gitmiş ve Dimeşk’ten Mısır’a giden ilk öğrenci grubunun başkanlığını yapmıştır. Orada bir yıl kaldıktan sonra geri dönmüştür. Bu süre zarfında Ezher ile ilgili düşüncelerinde hayal kırıklığına uğradığını ve Dâr’ul Ulûm’a başlamaya karar verdiğini söylemektedir. Suriye’ye dönünce hukuk fakültesine başlamış ve 1933’te buradan mezun olmuştur. Üniversite hayatında Mısır’da gördüğü halk hareketlerinde ve direnişinde aktif olan öğrenci konseyini örnek alarak Suriye Yüksek Talebe Konseyi’ni kurmuş ve üç yıl başkanlığını yapmıştır. Bu konsey Suriye’nin Fransız işgaline karşı direnişinin liderliğini yaparak pek çok gösteri ve protesto yapmıştır. 1931’de yapılan sahte seçimin iptalinde de bu konsey rol almıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 241- 256; Tantâvî, 1996: 78; Tantâvî, 2009: 206).

İlk makalesini 16 yaşında 1926’da yazan ve bir dergide yayınlayan Tantâvî daha sonra pek çok dergide yazılar yazmaya başlamıştır. 1926’da Mısır’da, dayısı Muhibbuddin el-Fatih’in “el-Fetih” ve “ez-Zehra” dergilerinde; Şam’da edebiyatçı Arnavut ve “Fetâ el-Arab” dergisinde; Yusuf İsa ile “Elif Be” dergisinde “el-Eyyam” dergisinde; Mekke’de “el-Hac” dergisi ve “el-Medine” gazetesinde yazılar yazmış; beş yıl boyunca da anılarını “eş-Şark el-Evsat” dergisinde yayınlamış ve daha pek çok dergide makaleler yazmıştır. Ali Tantâvî’nin en çok sevdiği iş gazetecilikti; ama eğitim onun en çok zaman harcadığı işti. Çünkü bu işe 17-18 yaşında daha lisedeyken başladığını söylemektedir (Memûn, 2001: 14- 16).

el-Eyyam dergisi kapatıldıktan sonra 1931-1935 yılları arasında öğretmenlik yapmıştır. Bir taraftan Fransız ihtilali ile mücadele ettiğinden, bu yıllar onun için çok zorlu geçmiş ve pek çok yere sürülmüştür. 1940 yılı sonlarında Tantâvî yargı kurumuna geçmiş ve kadılığa başlamıştır. Suriye’de dini eğitimle, medeni kanunla, fetva verme kanunları ve yüksek fetva kurulunun kurulması ile ilgili çalışmalar yapmıştır. 1963’te Arabistan’a gidene kadar fiilen bu göreve devam etmiştir. Resmen ise 1966 yılı ortalarında ayrılmıştır. Bu göreve başlamadan önce minberden, okullardan insanlara hitap ettiğini ama yargıya girince insanlarla daha içli dışlı olduğunu ve daha önce görmediği pek çok şeyi gördüğünü söylemektedir (Ebu’l-Kasım, 1999: 43- 44; Memûn, 2001: 16- 25).

1963’te Riyad’da Arap Dili Bölümü ve İlahiyat Fakültelerinde; Mekke’de İlahiyat Fakültesinde çalışmış ve emekliliğe kadar burada devam etmiştir. Sonrasında tamamen basın yayına yönelmiştir. Arabistan’da yaptığı TV ve radyo programları çokça ilgi görmüştür. Tiyatro ve çocuk edebiyatı alanında yazmış, okul kitapları ve hikâye kitapları yazmasının yanı sıra tahkik alanında da çalışmalar yapmıştır. Pek çok sempozyuma katılarak İslam âleminin problemleri ve Filistin meselesi ile ilgilenmiştir. İslam hukuku alanına fetvaları ile katkı yapmıştır. İslam-Arap kültürü ve çağdaş kültürü barındıran makaleler yazmıştır (Memûn, 2001: 26- 30).

Tantâvî’nin hayatta iken yazdığı pek çok eserinin yanı sıra torunu, onun vefatından sonra gazete ve dergilerde yayınlanmış yazılarını toplayarak oluşturduğu pek çok kitabı vardır. Anılarını anlattığı “Zikreyât” adlı eseri, “Kıyas minel-Hayat”, “Kıyas minet-Târîh”, “Rical minet-Târîh”, “Suver ve Havâtır”, “Fiker ve Mebâhis” en önemlilerindedir. Ali Tantâvî hakkında pek çok akademik çalışma yapılmıştır. Bunlar arasında, “Ali Tantâvî ve Modern Arap Nesrinin Gelişimine Katkısı” başlıklı doktora tezi, “Ali et-Tantâvî’nin Eğitimle İlgili Görüşleri”, “Ali Tantâvî’nin Zikreyâtı” adlı yüksek lisans tezleri zikredilebilir. 1999 yılında vefat eden Tantâvî hakkında halen yapılmaya devam eden pek çok çalışma vardır (el-Elmâî, 2000: 269).

Eğitim Hayatı

İlkokul ve Lise Yılları

Ali Tantâvî’nin eğitime başladığı yıllarda Suriye’de okullar özel okullar, devlet okulları ve Hristiyanlara ait okullar olmak üzere üç çeşitti. Tantâvî genelde Müslüman kesimin tercih ettiği ve İslamî vakıf ve derneklerin kurduğu okullarda okudu. İlköğretime, babasının müdürlüğünü yaptığı ana okuldan liseye kadar süren 12 yıllık bir eğitimi içeren “İttihat ve Terakki Mektebi İdâdisi”nde başlamıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 29). Bu okula başlamadan önce mahalle camilerine bağlı olup küttâb olarak isimlendirilen, Kur’an-ı Kerim ve hattın yanı sıra basit matematik işlemleri de öğreten ve yalnızca isteyen ailelerin çocuklarını gönderdiği zorunlu olmayan kursa gitmiştir (Ebu’l-Kasım, 1999: 99). Tantâvî, dört yaşlarında iken yaşadığı bu tecrübeyi anlatırken üzerinden çok uzun zaman geçmesine rağmen kalbi titreyerek hatırladığını ve onlarca çocuğun bulunduğu küf kokulu odada eli sopalı hocayı korku ile andığını söylemektedir (Tantâvî, 2001: VI, 240- 242).

İlkokul tecrübesine geri dönecek olursak; onun beşinci sınıfa kadar babasının müdürlük yaptığı okulun ilk yıllarının zorlu geçtiği ve hocasının tavırları sebebi ile çok aktif bir öğrenci olmadığı görülür. Bu yılları

anlatırken kendilerine alfabe yazma ödevi veren hocalarının ödevleri tamamladıklarında kendilerinden ödevleri silip tekrar başlamalarını istediğini, lavabo ihtiyacı dışında dışarı çıkmalarına da izin vermediğini belirtmektedir. Dışarı çıkmak için yalan söyleyen arkadaşlarını anlatırken bu tavrı ile öğrencilere yalanı öğreten hocasını eleştirmektedir. Eğitim hayatım ve hocalarım bu şekilde devam etseydi bana ait tek bir makale dahi okuyamazdınız, diyerek öğretmenlerin öğrenci üzerindeki etkisine vurgu yapmaktadır. Tantâvî, daha sonra derslerine giren genç bir hocanın olumlu tavırları sayesinde kendine güvenmeye başladığını söyler (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 29-32). Osmanlı hakimiyetinin son yıllarında devam ettiği bu okulda Türk hocalarının olduğunu, Türkçe okuduklarını ve Arapça yazdıklarını söyler. Bu bilgilerden Tantâvî'nin Osmanlıca öğrendiği anlaşılmaktadır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 52; Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 28-29).

Osmanlı hâkimiyetinin sona ermesi ile kapanan bu okulun öğrencileri diğer okullara dağıtılmış Tantâvî de el-Mekteb el-Sultanî'ye başlamıştır. Eğitim politikası ve yöntemi farklı olduğu için Tantâvî beşinci sınıfı tekrar okumak zorunda kalmıştır. Bir sene sonra sınıftan bir arkadaşı ile fasih Arapça konuştuğu için arkadaşlarının dalga geçmesi sebebi ile Çakmakıyye medresesine geçmiştir (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 57- 63; Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 30-32).

Tantâvî bu dönemi anlatırken “12 yaşına kadar Türk, Arap ve İngiliz yönetimlerine şahitlik ettim, sırada Fransız yönetimi var.” diyerek özel hayatının ülkesinin siyasi tarihi gibi karışık ve olaylı geçtiğini ifade etmektedir (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 66). Şeyh İ'd es-Sefercelenî'nin kurduğu bu özel okulda babası da bir dönem hocalık yapmıştır. Muallimüş-Şam olarak bilinen Şeyh İ'd, Tantâvî'nin üzerinde çok etkili olmuştur. Tantâvî bu hocadan ders almadığı halde odasına gidip onu dinlediğini, onun sözlerinin kendisinde çok büyük bir etki bıraktığını söylemiştir. Tantâvî bu okulda Mahmud el-Akkad, Salih et-Tunusî ve Şeyh el-Kafî gibi hocalardan ders almıştır. El-Kafî okul dışında da klasik yöntemle ona ders vermeye devam etmiş ve pek çok metin ezberletmiştir. (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 66- 80, Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 30- 32)

Fransız işgalinin başladığı dönemde, ailesinin yaşadığı yeri değiştirmesi sebebiyle Ali Tantâvî tekrar okul değiştirmiş ve Muhâcirîn okulunda beşinci sınıfı tekrar okumaya başlamıştır. Tantâvî bu yılları anlatırken nicelik olarak 3 yıl kaybettiğini ama nitelik olarak çok şey kazandığını, ilmi açıdan çok bereketli 3 yıl geçirdiğini söyler. Altı yılın sonunda yazılı sınavdan sonra bir komisyonun önünde sözlü sınava tabi tutularak alınan ilkökul diploması ile 14 yaşında buradan mezun olmuştur. Tantâvî bu komisyon tarafından düzenlenen sınavı, hocaların kendi bilgileri ve birbirileri ile yarıştığı küçük öğrencilerin korkulu rüyası olarak tarif eder (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 85-86).

Tantâvî bugün pek çok üniversite öğrencisinin bile okuyamadığı “el-Eğani”, “el-Mustatraf”, “el-Keşkûl” gibi eserleri okul dışındaki zamanlarında okuduğu ve boş zamanlarını babasının kütüphanesini inceleyerek geçirdiği için bu sınavı büyük bir başarı ile geçmiştir. Ortaokul ve lise eğitimine Suriye'deki tek tam lise olan Mektebetül Anber'de başlamıştır. Tantâvî altı yılını geçirdiği bu okulu ömrünün en verimli yılları olarak tanımlar. Bu okulda dönemin en ileri gelen edebiyatçılarından olan Şeyh el-Mübarek el-Cezâiri'den, Selim el-Cündî'den, Abdurrahman Selam'dan ders almıştır. “Ta'rifu'l-âmm bi dîni'l-İslâm” kitabının başında lisede ve medresede ders aldığı hocalarının isimlerini ayrıntılı bir şekilde vermiştir (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 95- 101, 191- 198).

Selim el-Cündî'yi, babası gibi sevdiğini ifade ederek öğretmenine çok büyük bir sevgi beslediğini, ondan hiç ayrılmadığını sınıf içinde de dışında da sorular sorup ondan istifade etmeye çalıştığını söyler. Tantâvî lisede iken çok sosyal olmayan ve derslere düşkün bir öğrenci olmuştur. Bu yönünün sekizinci sınıfta tüm okulun İngiliz bakan Belfor'un ziyaretini protesto amacıyla okula gelmediği gün okula gidip okulda hiç kimsenin olmadığını gördüğünü söyler. Aynı öğrenci birkaç yıl sonra Fransız bir görevlinin emirlerine uymadıkları için okuldan uzaklaştırılan arkadaşlarına destek için tüm okulun öğrencilerinin dersleri protesto etmesine sebep olmuştur. Milli eğitim bakanının sözleri bile onun ve arkadaşlarının geri adım atmasını sağlayamamıştır. Öğrenciler okuldan ayrılıp çarşıda halkın desteği ile protesto dalgasını büyütülmüştür. Bu olayın ardından Tantâvî gözaltına alınıp tek kişilik bir hücrede hapsedilmiştir. O gün en önde olmanın kendisine vereceği zararların farkına varan Tantâvî bu olaydan sonra hiçbir olaya liderlik etmediğini insanların hutbelerinde ve makalelerinden etkilenip galeyana geldiklerini ama kendisinin buna önderlik etmediğini söyler (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 156, 167, 171).

Tantâvî'nin okul yıllarında bile çok etkili bir hatip olduğunu gösteren bu olay okuduğu lisenin ve ders aldığı hocaların eğitiminde ne kadar etkili olduklarını göstermektedir. Lise eğitimi sırasında Emevi Cami'nin okula yakın olmasından faydalanan Tantâvî camide ki ders halkalarına da iştirak ederek modern eğitimin yanı sıra klasik eğitimi de sürdürmüştür (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 75).

Üniversite Yılları

Ali Tantâvî, liseyi bitirmeden kız kardeşi ile Mısır'a gidip iki ay kalmış ve tanıştığı hocalardan ve düşünürlerden çok etkilenmiştir. Dr. Abdurrahman Azzam ve Seyyid Kutub tanıştığı insanlar arasındadır. Liseyi bitirdikten sonra da Mısır'a gidip üniversite eğitimini orada tamamlamak için Edebiyat Fakültesi dekanı Taha

Hüseyin'e evraklarını sunmuştur. Basın yayın alanında çalışan dayısı Muhibbuddin el-Hatib ve Taha Hüseyin, cahiliye şiiiri ile ilgili yazdığı bir kitap sebebiyle, arasında çıkan gerginlikten ötürü Suriye'ye geri dönmüştür. Üniversite kayıt tarihlerini kaçıran Tantâvî bir sonraki döneme kadar özel okullarda öğretmenlik yapmış ve 1930 yılı sonlarında Hukuk fakültesine başlamıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 241- 264; Tantâvî, 1989: II, 166; Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 37).

Tantâvî üniversite yıllarını anlatırken hocalarını sınıflara ayırır ve bir grubun ansiklopedi gibi çok bilgili kişiler olduklarını söyler. Fâris el-Hûrî, şair Şefik Cubrî, Ebü-l Yüsr Abidin ve Sa'îd Mehâsin bunlardandır. İlk ikisine zikreyatında özel bir bölüm ayırmıştır. Ebü-l Yüsr'un Hanefî fikhında konuşan bir fihrist gibi olduğunu, Mehâsin'in ise Suriye ve Mısır'ın en iyi medeni hukuk avukatı olduğunu söyler. Diğer grubu işini yapan, alim olmayan ama cahil de olmayan insanlar olarak tanımlar. Son olarak da bir kısmının zayıf olduğunu, zayıflıklarını kelimeler ve ifadelerle oynayarak gizlediklerini söyler (Tantâvî, 1989: II, 166- 171).

Öğretmenliği:

Ali Tantâvî eğitimin her aşamasında hocalık yapmıştır. İlkokuldan üniversiteye kadar her kademedeki öğrencilere eğitim vermiştir. Özel okullarda da devlet okullarında da çalışmıştır. İlk olarak on beş yaşında ilkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerine nahiv dersi vermiştir. Kısa bir süre devam eden bu tecrübesinin ardından liseyi bitirdikten sonra hukuk fakültesine başlayana kadar çeşitli okullarda çalışmıştır. 1932 yılında, Suriye'nin Fransız sömürgesinde olduğu yıllarda, devlet okulunda öğretmenlik yapmaya başlamıştır. Yabancı bir yönetime boyun eğme kaygısıyla göreve başlama konusunda mütereddit olsa da halkın ilme ihtiyacını göz önünde bulundurarak başladığı görevine uzun yıllar devam etmiştir (Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 43- 44; Tantâvî, 2007: 171- 172).

Sömürge yönetimini eleştirmesi ve yaptığı konuşmalarla halkı etkilemesi sebebiyle gittiği yerlerden pek çok kez sürülmüştür. Bu sürgünlerin, en çok da ders verdiği öğrencileri etkilediğini; sürgünler yüzünden tam öğrencilere alışmış ve kendisini sevdirmişken onlara en faydalı olacağı zamanda görev yaptığı okulları bırakmak zorunda kaldığını söyleyen Tantâvî, kadılık vazifesine geçene kadar Suriye'nin çeşitli yerlerinde; Bağdat, Basra, Kerkük ve Beyrut'ta hocalık yapmıştır. Kadılığa başladıktan sonra bile bayan öğrencilere öğretmenler enstitüsünde ders vermeye devam etmiştir (Memûn, 2001: 28- 35; Tantâvî, 2001: VI, 257- 265).

Köy okullarında görev yapmış ve bunu yaparken öğrencilerini bakanlığın istediği gibi sınav için değil ahlaklı ve iyi bir Müslüman olmaları için eğittiğini söylemiştir. 1936'da Irak'a gitmiş önce Bağdat'ta merkez lisede, sonra batı bölgesi lisesinde hocalık yapmıştır. Öğretmen Enstitüsü'nde de ders vermiştir. Akabinde Şeriat (İlahiyat) Fakültesine dönüşecek olan İslam Enstitüsünde de ders vermeye başlamıştır. Dürüstlüğü ve cesareti Şam'da olduğu gibi burada da ona sorun çıkarmış ve Kerkük, Basra gibi yerlere sürülmesine sebep olmuştur. Bu süre zarfında Bağdat ve Irak'tan çok etkilenmiş, sonrasında anılarını bir kitapta toplamıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: III, 242- 261; Tantâvî, 2007: 172).

Bağdat'ta lise öğrencilerine ders vermenin mutluluğunu yaşamış ve ilkokul öğrencilerine veremediği bilgileri lise öğrencilerine şehirde sunma imkânı bulmuştur. 1937 yılında Beyrut'ta İlahiyat Fakültesi'nde hocalık yapmasını saymazsak 1939'a kadar Irak'ta kalmış sonra Dimeşk'a dönüp Mektebetül Amber'de hocalık yapmış ama kısa bir süre sonra mevlit kandilinde yaptığı bir konuşmadan dolayı Dîrazûr'a sürülmüştür. Yarıyıl tatilinde Dimeşk'a gitmeden verdiği Cuma hutbesi sebebiyle geri çağırılmış ve zorunlu tatile çıkartılmıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: II, 229- 250).

Eğitim ve Öğretime Dair Eleştirileri

Ali Tantâvî, eğitimle ilgili görüşlerini ve tecrübelerini paylaşmasını isteyen bir okuruna cevap verirken bu alanda uzman olmadığını ama uzun yıllar öğretmenlik yapmış olmanın etkisi ile bazı şeyler söyleyebileceğini belirtir. Tantâvî'ye göre eğitim; faydalı alışkanlıkları yerleştirip, zararlı olanlardan vazgeçmektir. İnsanın davranışları alışkanlıklarının toplamıdır. Yaptığı her yeni iş yeni bir alışkanlığın başlangıcıdır. Zamanla ya onu sürdürür ya da ondan vazgeçer. Öğretim ise bilgileri öğrenenlerin zihnine aktarma üslubunu seçmek ve anlatılanı anlamasına mani olacak engelleri ortadan kaldırmaktır. Üslubu seçebilmek öğrencinin kapasitesini bilmeyi gerektirir. Eğer öğrenciye kapasitesinin üzerinde bilgi verilirse öğrenci zihnini tamamen kapatır (Tantâvî, 2001: 235).

Tantâvî'nin öğrenciler arasındaki bireysel farklılığı da göz önünde bulundurduğu görülür. Doğru üslubu seçmek için öğrencilerin hazırbulunuşluk düzeyleri ve algı farklılıkları göz ardı edilmemelidir. Ona göre bu farklılıkları dikkate almak öğretmenin de farklı yöntemler kullanmasını gerektirir. Öğrencinin anlamasına engel olacak şeylerden bahsederken bunların öğretmen kaynaklı olabileceğini bu sebeple öğretmenin görünümünde, davranış biçiminde, konuşma tarzında öğrencinin dikkatini dağıtacak şeylerden kaçınması gerektiğini söyler.

Kendi başarısının üç temel sebebi olduğunu dile getirerek her öğretmenin bunlara dikkat etmesi gerektiğini ifade eder. Başarılı olmanın birinci şartı öğrettiği dersi iyi kavramak ve konuya hakim olmaktır. Öğretmen konu ile ilgili tüm kaynaklara bakmalı bir kaynakla yetinmemelidir. Üniversitede öğrencilere tek bir kitap tavsiye etmesi ve tek kaynağa yönlendirmesi ise asla kabul edilemez, bunu yapan üniversite hocası değil ancak ilköğretim hocası olabilir. İkinci şart öğrencilerin konuyu anlaması için her yolu denemesidir. Bir ifade anlaşılmadığında bir başka ifade ile konuyu kavratmayı denemelidir. Son koşul ise doğal olmasıdır. Bilmediği konuda bunu açıkça ifade edebilmeli, hata yaptığında hata yaptığını itiraf edebilmelidir (Tantâvî, 2001: VI, 237).

Tantâvî makalelerinde ve anılarını ele aldığı Zikreyat'ında kendi öğrenciliği ve yaşadığı dönemin öğrencilerini kıyas etmekte ve kendi döneminde öğrencilerin pek çok zorlukla karşılaştığını, pek çok metni ezberlediklerini ve bu metinlerin sadece İslamî ilimlerle ilgili olmayıp fen bilimleri, coğrafya ve Arapça ile ilgili olduklarını söylemektedir. Öğretim yöntemleri daha iyi ve öğretmenler daha yumuşak olmasına rağmen bugün öğrenciler daha zayıftır. Bunun öğrencileri dersten alıkoyacak şeylerin çokluğu ile bağlantılı olduğunu kendisinin çocukken tek eğlencesinin babasının kütüphanesi olduğunu söyler. Bugün öğrenilecek şeyler ve imkânlar daha fazladır ama istek çok daha azdır. (Tantâvî, 2007: 169- 173)

Tantâvî dersleri işlerken teorik kısımların kuru kuru verilmemesini, haccı anlatan bir fıkıh hocasının fotoğraflarla bilgiyi öğrenciye aktarıp hayatla bilginin bağının kurulması gerektiğini söyler. Tantâvî Arapça'nın öğretilmesine ve dilin korunmasına çok önem vermiştir. Kur'ân dili olduğu ve en köklü dillerden birisi olduğu için Arapça önemlidir. O, Arapça konusunda Arapları uyarmakta ve Arapça'nın ihmalinin en temel sebebinin Arapların onu ihmal etmesi olduğunu söylemektedir. Halkı İngilizce ve Fransızca yerine kendi dillerine sahip çıkmaya davet etmektedir. Ayrıca Tantâvî, Arapça derslerinden bahsederken kompozisyon, gramer ve edebiyat dersleriyle ilgili eleştiriler ve öneriler sunmaktadır. Bu bağlamda kompozisyon dersinde öğrencilere bir konunun dayatılmasının doğru olmadığını, konu seçiminin öğrencilerin tercihlerine bırakılması gerektiğini söylemektedir. Konu seçiminin öğretmen tarafından yapılması ve öğretmenlerin bu ders için belirli bir eğitim planı geliştirmemesi, bu derse önem verilmemesine yahut verilen önemin azalmasına sebep olmaktadır. Halbuki kompozisyon dersi dil gelişimi açısından en önemli derslerdendir (Tantâvî, 2007: 171- 177; Tantâvî, 1988: 153).

Eğitimle ilgili eleştirilerini sunarken öğrencilere bir konunun öğretilmeden ezberletilmesini doğru bulmadığını da dile getirir. Örneğin dil eğitiminde yapılması gereken, dil kurallarını ezberletmek değil, dil melekelerini geliştirmektir. Ayrıca o eğitim süresinin on iki yıl olmasını gençlerin en güzel yıllarının işlerine yaramayacak bilgileri öğrenmekle geçirmesini eleştirmektedir. Tantâvî'ye göre ilköğretim ve lise birleştirilmeli, toplam süre yedi yılı geçmemelidir. Bu sürede dil iyi öğretilmeli ve meleke haline gelmesi sağlanmalıdır. Gerektiği kadar matematik, coğrafya, tarih öğretilmeli sonra iki ya da üç yıl üniversite eğitimi alınmasının ardından seçtiği alanda pratik yapıp uzmanlaşmalıdır (Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 220- 226).

Tantâvî, öğretmenlerin sözlerinin ve tavırlarının birbirine uygun ve birbiriyle tutarlı olması gerektiğine vurgu yapar. Çünkü bugünün alelade öğrencisi yarının Hasan Bennâ'sı, Mevdûdî'si, Ahmed Şevkî'si olabilir. Öğrencilere örnek teşkil eden öğretmen, söylediği basit bir sözle ya da herhangi bir tavrıyla onlar üzerinde çok büyük bir etki bırakabilir.

Ortaokul ve liseyi okuduğu *Mektebetü Anber* için yazılan kitabın önsözünde orada geçirdiği altı yılın benzersiz olduğunu ve hayatının en önemli yıllarının o zamanlar olduğunu söylerken öğretmenleriyle baba-oğul gibi olduğunu, onları örnek aldığını, fark etmeden onlar gibi konuşmaya başladığını da belirtir. Bu sebeple öğretmenlerin, öğrencilerine karşı örnekliklerini göz ardı etmemeleri gerektiğine temas eder (Tantâvî, 1997: 35).

Öğrencilere Tavsiyeleri

Tantâvî bir arkadaşını ziyarete gittiğinde; arkadaşının oğlunun, renginin sarardığını görür ve hasta olduğunu zannederek durumunu sorar. Arkadaşı sınavlara hazırlandığı için gündüz uyduğunu gece kalkıp ders çalıştığını söyler. Tantâvî bu duruma çok şaşırır ve şu tavsiyelerde bulunur:

- 1) Sınava gireceğiniz dönemlerde iyi beslenin ve 8 saat uyuyun.
- 2) Başarılı olmanın yolu kendini tanımaktan geçer. Kendinizi tanıyın; işitsel misiniz, görsel misiniz? Bunu bularak işitselseniz sizin gibi bir arkadaşınızla çalışın ve o okurken siz onu dinleyin. Görsel iseniz tek başınıza not tutarak çalışın.
- 3) Programlı çalışın ve programınız tek tip olmasın. Matematik ve geometriden sıkılırsanız edebiyat ve tarihe geçin. Bir işten başka bir işe geçerek değişiklik yapın. Çalışma esnasında önce kitaba hızlıca göz atın, sonra bölüm bölüm okuyarak önemli yerlerin altını çizin özet kısımlarını okularla belirtin. Çalışma bittikten sonra tekrara başlayın, konu konu sınavda sorulmuş gibi kendi kendinize anlatın hatırladığınız yerleri atlayabilirsiniz. Hatırlamadığınızda çizdiğiniz ve işaretlediğiniz yerlere tekrar bakın. Hiç hatırlayamazsanız bölümü tekrar okuyun.

- 4) Korkmayın, kalan zamanı ve çalışmadığınız yerleri düşünüp paniğe kapılmayın. Kalan zamanı iyi planlayın.
- 5) Sınav öncesi tüm konuları hatırlamaya çalışıp panikleme, hepsini hatırlayamamak normal bir durumdur bu bilmediğinizi göstermez.
- 6) Derse çalıştıktan sonra dinlenip farklı bir şey yapın; defalarca, üst üste tekrar yapmak konunun yerleşmesini sağlamaz, karışıklık yaratır.
- 7) Sınav gecesi dinlenin, basit bir roman ya da hikaye okuyun. Arkadaşınızı ziyaret edin. 9- 10 saat uyuyun, unutmaktan korkmayın.
- 8) Sınavın genelde doğru bir ölçüt olduğunu ama bazen yanlış olduğunu unutmayın. Kâğıtlarınızı okuyanların da insan olduğunu göz ardı etmeyin. Rahat bir durumda iken dikkatle, yorgunken yüzeysel okuyacaklardır. Dikkatleri her an aynı olmayacaktır bunu unutmayın. Peki bunun için ne yapılmalıdır? Cevapları güzel bir şekilde yazın; başlıklandırma yapın; gereksiz bilgilerden ve uzatmalardan kaçının. Bildiğinizi belli etmek için istenmeyeni yazıp bilgisizliğinizi ortaya çıkaracak hatalardan uzak durun.

Yapılması gerekenler bunlardan ibaret... Çalışın, üzerinize düşeni yapın, gerisini Allah'a bırakın... (Tantâvî, 1996:133)

Tantâvî 1959 yılında yazdığı bu yazıda öğretmenlik ve öğrencilik tecrübelerinden faydalanarak öğrencilere bunları tavsiye etmektedir. Bu tavsiyelere bakıldığında Tanâvî'nin eğitim ve öğretim hayatında ki tecrübeleri yansıttığı ve pek çok açıdan öğrencileri düşünen ve kendini onların yerine koyabilen bir öğretmen olduğu görülür.

Sonuç

Suriye'de doğan ve yetişen Ali Tantâvî, ülkesinin tarihi için önemli olan pek çok farklı siyasi olaya şahitlik etmiştir. Medrese usulünün yanı sıra modern eğitim de alan Tantâvî ülkesinde hem medrese hem modern eğitim almış ilk nesillerden olmuştur. Eğitim hayatında iki farklı yöntemi görmesi ve sonrasında erken yaşta öğretmenlik mesleğine başlaması tecrübelerini artırmıştır. Eğitimin her kademesinde hocalık yapmıştır. Öğretmenliğinin yanı sıra hem edebiyatçı, hem de hukukçu olarak görebileceğimiz Tantâvî farklı coğrafyalarda farklı görevlerde bulunmuştur. Bu görevden sonra hâkimlik de yapmıştır. Emekliliğinden sonra Arabistan'da, televizyon ve radyo programları ile halkı aydınlatmaya devam etmiştir.

Ali Tantâvî; akademik anlamda da kendisinden çokça istifade edilen, pek çok teze konu olan bir ilim insanıdır. Eğitim ve öğretimde izlenen yöntemleri ve gençlerin zamanlarının boşa tüketilmesini eleştiren Tantâvî gençlere yönelik pek çok makale yazmıştır. Onlara verdiği dini ve ahlaki öğütlerin yanı sıra dersleri ile ilgili tavsiyelerde de bulunmuştur. Öğretmenlere de daha başarılı olmaları için tecrübelerine dayanarak öğütler vermiştir. İnsanın gelişiminde en önemli dönemin ilkokul olduğunu bildiğinden öğretmenlerden özellikle de ilkokul çağında olan öğrencilerine karşı daha dikkatli davranmalarını onlara dürüstlüğü sözlerle değil eylemleri ile öğretmelerini istemiştir. Çünkü ona göre, bugünün öğrencileri yarının ileri gelenleridir, dolayısıyla onlara söylenen küçücük bir cümle, yapılan en ufak bir muamele onlarda büyük ve derin izler yaratabilir. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin derslerde bilgi ile hayatın bağı kurmalarının gerektiğini telkin eder.

Ali Tantâvî, Arap diline oldukça büyük bir önem atfetmektedir. Arapçanın öğretilmesi ve korunmasını önemsemektedir. Özellikle Kur'an dili ve en köklü dillerden biri olduğu için Arapça onun için önemlidir. Arapçanın korunması konusunda Araplara eleştirilerde bulunmakta; bu dilin ihmal edilmesinin sebebi olarak Arapların onu korumamasını göstermektedir. Halkın diline sahip çıkmasını, ona İngilizce ve Fransızcadan daha fazla önem vermeleri gerektiğini söylemektedir. (Tantâvî, 2009: 83; Tantâvî, 2006: 261).

Ali Tantâvî; öğrenim hayatı, icra ettiği meslekler ve görevler, bulunduğu hizmetler, yazdığı makaleler ve kitaplar, gençlere, öğretmen ve öğrencilere yaptığı tavsiyeler göz önüne alındığında önemli tavsiyeler ve eleştirilerde bulunmuş bir edebiyatçı ve hukukçudur. Geride bıraktığı eserler ve izler dikkate alınmalı ve araştırılmalıdır. Tavsiyeleri eğitim alanında gerek öğretmenler gerekse de ilim talibi öğrenciler tarafından hayata geçirilmedir.

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Assesments on the Status and Future of Map and Cadaster Education in Vocational Schools

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Abstract

As in various countries around the world, technology has been developing in our country and the need for trained and qualified technical staff has been growing in parallel to this development. Maps constitute the groundwork of the planning and project designs conducted in the fields of engineering related to infrastructure. Cadastral mapping technicians play an important role in all the studies conducted in order to obtain these maps. For this reason, it is necessary for cadastral mapping technicians to renew themselves in parallel to these developments. Today, the tools used in the mapping sector are being renewed in parallel with the rapidly changing technological developments and software and hardware are also updated in accordance with this renewal. For this reason, it is necessary to review the mapping education given at vocational schools by taking the current conditions and developments into consideration.

Keywords. Map and cadaster, education , land registry cadaster, cadastral mapping technician

INTRODUCTION:

In Turkey, technician training was first started in a planned manner in 1953. By 1962, the number of technician training schools had reached 26; 22 of which were evening and 4 were day schools. Due to several reasons, technician training programs were ended in 1967 and high technician training programs were ended in 1972. A total of 45 schools (colleges) affiliated to YAYKUR were opened in 1975 and in 1979 the number of technician schools was increased to 59, including 45 vocational schools. In 1982, vocational schools were defined in the Higher Education Law No. 2547 and subordinated to universities. These schools offer education and training under technical programs, economics and administrative programs, health programs and marine programs. Students who graduate from the technical programs of vocational schools are granted the professional title of “technician” and the graduates of social programs are granted the professional title of “professional staff member”. Alongside other factors, it is necessary to employ well-trained and qualified staff to do the work in order to achieve the expected result in any kind of work. This affects all the engineers, technicians and mechanics working in the mapping sector. Unfortunately, the education performed in the mapping sector has never been discussed and examined as a whole or deficiencies and problems have not been identified to create solutions. In solving the problems, it is necessary to discuss the education given at universities together with the education given at high schools. In this study, certain suggestions are provided regarding the current state of “cadastral mapping technician” education, problems encountered in the programs and the solutions to these problems.

MAP AND CADASTER PROGRAMS:

In our country, there are map and cadaster programs offered at 44 vocational schools which are affiliated to 36 universities in various population centers. Some of the programs at these vocational schools also offer evening classes (Table 1).

It is highly important that the cadastral mapping technicians educated at these schools, who will meet the needs of various public institutions, municipalities and the private sector, start their professional lives as qualified individuals. Our colleagues working in the mapping sector are employed not only within the country but also abroad and they have to compete with their colleagues from other countries in the international arena. The only way to be successful in this competition is to have qualified personnel who know their profession well, are highly skilled and have strong practical skills. In fact, our colleagues working in the mapping sector.

Courses and curriculums:

The vocational schools that train cadastral mapping technicians did not change the curriculums of map and cadaster programs for years. Certain partial changes were made in the programs through the Development of Human Resources through Vocational Education Project (IKMEP) in the academic year of 2009-2010. However, there were certain inconsistencies in the distribution of the courses to semesters and in the curriculums because the opinions of experienced academic staff who had taught in these programs for years were not taken when implementing these regulations. Some subjects to be taught were included in the courses given in the first or the second semester without considering whether the students had acquired the necessary background. Besides, the developments in technology should be taken into account and the regulations should be performed accordingly when modifying the courses and determining the syllabuses.

Tools, laboratories and equipment:

Properly equipped computer laboratories and the tools and equipment used in the practices of the sector should be available at educational institutions in order to be able to train the qualified and skilled technicians demanded by the mapping sector. Unfortunately, most mapping and cadaster programs at various vocational schools neither have properly equipped computer laboratories nor are equipped with tools and equipment of the latest technology. Those who have such tools and equipment possess them in very limited numbers. However, the intermediate staff of a profession should have strong practical skills. Therefore, the groups formed for applications need to be composed of a fairly small number of students. This problem can be solved by having adequate numbers of tools and equipment. But under the circumstances, the qualified staff required by the sector equipped with the tools of the latest technology cannot be trained.

Another important point in training cadastral mapping technicians is that the teaching staff of the programs is selected from among geomatics engineers with bachelor's degrees and since these engineers do not have much experience and any pedagogical training, they experience considerable ineptitude especially in their first years. Due to the lack of the required number of teaching staff members, in many schools the existing instructors teach excessive hours and have to teach classes that are not related to their fields, which result in a lack of efficiency. Furthermore, it is necessary for the members of the teaching staff to update their knowledge in parallel with the developments in technology. The necessary staff development studies are not carried out in many vocational schools.

Table1 Available in Turkish Universities Vocational Schools System ,Teaching staff

Name of University	Vocational School	Number of students accepted	Name of University	Vocational School	Number of students accepted
Selçuk Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	40	Celal Bayar Üni.	Köprübaşı VS	50
Atatürk Üni.	Erzurum VS	40	Muğla Sıtkı Koçman	Muğla VS	40
Uludağ Üni.	Gemlik AKVS	30	Mersin Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50
Hacettepe Üni.	Polatlı Tech. BVS	40	Niğde Üni.	Bor VS	50
Erzincan Üni.	Vocational School	50	Celal Bayar Üni.	Sarıgöl VS	40
Uludağ Üni.	İzmit VS	40	Selçuk Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	40
İnönü Üni.	Malatya VS	40	Bülent Ecevit Üni.	Zonguldak VS	50
Yıldız Teknik Üni.	Yıldız VS	40	Afyon Kocatepe	Emirdağ VS	50
KTÜ	Trabzon VS	50	Giresun Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	80
Akdeniz Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50	Afyon Kocatepe	Sandıklı VS	40
Mersin Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50	Sütçü İmam Üni.	Göksun VS	50
Muğla Sıtkı Koçman	Muğla VS	40	Selçuk Üni.	Taşkent VS	35
Süleyman Demirel	VS of Tech. Sciences	60	Artvin Çoruh Üni.	Artvin VS	40
Fırat Üni.	Sivrice VS	50	Tunceli Üni.	Tunceli VS	40
Dokuz Eylül Üni.	İzmir VS	45	Süleyman Demirel	VS of Tech. Sciences	60
Çukurova Üni.	Karaisalı VS	40	Ahi Evran Üni.	Kaman VS	80
Dokuz Eylül Üni.	İzmir VS	45	Atatürk Üni.	Pasinler VS	45
Düzce Üni.	Kaynaşlı VS	35	Sinop Üni.	Boyabat VS	40
19 Mayıs Üni.	Kavak VS	40	Selçuk Üni.	Kadınhanı VS	90
Akdeniz Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50	Süleyman Demirel	Uluborlu VS	60
Harran Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	40	Süleyman Demirel	Uluborlu VS	60
Trakya Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	55	Selçuk Üni.	Hadım VS	80
Mustafa Kemal Üni.	İskenderun VS	50	Fırat Üni.	Sivrice VS	50
Amasya Üni	VS of Tech. Sciences	40	Selçuk Üni.	Güneysinir VS	80
Dumlupınar Üni.	Tavşanlı VS	40	Tunceli Üni.	Tunceli VS	40
Bitlis Eren Üni.	Tatvan VS	40	Harran Üni.	Şanlıurfa VSTS	40
Adıyaman Üni.	Kahta VS	45	19 Mayıs Üni.	Kavak VS	40
Doğu Akdeniz	Comp. and Tech. S.	2	Trakya Üni.	Edirne VSTS	55
Korkut Ata Üni.	Osmaniye VS	50	Mustafa Kemal Üni.	İskenderun VS	50
GOP Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50	Korkut Ata Üni.	Osmaniye VS	50
Hitit Üni.	VS	40	Düzce Üni.	Kaynaşlı VS	35
Adıyaman Üni.	Kahta VS	45	Amasya Üni	Amasya VSTS	40
Hitit Üni.	VS	40	Niğde Üni.	Bor VS	50
Celal Bayar Üni.	Köprübaşı VS	50	Afyon Kocatepe	Emirdağ VS	50
GOP Üni.	Tokat VSTS	50	Selçuk Üni.	Kadınhanı FIVS	90
Sütçü İmam Üni.	Göksun VS	50	Giresun Üni.	Teknik Bil. VS	80
Dumlupınar Üni.	Tavşanlı VS	40	Celal Bayar Üni.	Sarıgöl VS	40
Okan Üni.	VS	12	Tunceli Üni.	Tunceli VS	40
Bülent Ecevit Üni.	Zonguldak VS	50	Sinop Üni.	Boyabat VS	40
			Ahi Evran Üni.	Kaman VS	80

Status of students:

As is known, when vocational schools were first opened, they accepted students from both vocational high schools and common high schools requiring a certain score (first 120 then approximately 105). Although not very high, students were accepted based on a score; therefore the qualities of graduates were considerably high. Vocational high school graduates could easily adapt as they had a certain degree of vocational background. Later on, the changes in the university entrance system caused a significant decrease in the number of students who attended to vocational high schools. In order to increase the number of students at these high schools, vocational

schools at universities started to accept vocational high school graduates according to their average grades without requiring a score for the university entrance exams, which is known as “open admission”. Unfortunately, this practice, which was initially started in good purpose, did not give the expected result. On the contrary, the students that come to vocational schools through open admission considerably decrease the quality of these schools. Since the academic backgrounds of these students are very weak, let alone teaching professional skills and new developments, instructors have to revise certain subjects from primary and secondary school curriculums. Frankly speaking, despite the good purpose behind it, open admission practices have been unsuccessful. The directors and the teaching staff members of these schools continuously mention the negative and unfavorable aspects in this regard at meetings and symposiums. Almost all the academic staff members of vocational schools want open admission to be cancelled or at least the admission of students based on an entrance exam score, as was the case in the past.

Suggestions:

The desired results cannot be achieved in the education of cadastral mapping technicians, who constitute a functionally important component of the mapping sector of our country. The following points should be taken into consideration in order to be able to train well-educated and qualified cadastral mapping technicians demanded by the sector:

- The physical structures of schools, such as classrooms, equipment laboratories and computer laboratories should be optimized.
- The existing courses and curriculums should be revised at the meetings that will be held with experienced teachers working at vocational school and the courses to be canceled, new courses to be included in the programs, the syllabuses and semesters of these courses should be determined. These studies should be carried out through the collaboration of vocational high schools and universities.
- The number of the teaching staff at vocational schools should immediately be increased to adequate levels and the number of students per instructor should be decreased. Instructors should not teach 4-5 different courses as if they are primary education teachers, but branch out in certain fields. If possible, experienced professionals who worked in the field for a certain time should be included in the teaching staff.
- Cadastral mapping technicians are professionals who work among engineers and other staff and defined as the intermediate staff of the profession, therefore, they should have strong practical skills. Vocational schools should have an adequate number of tools and software applications used by the private sector and public institutions in order to train the technicians in a manner that they can successfully perform their duties either in the field or in the office. Old and out-of-date tools should be renewed as soon as possible and the equipment at schools should be replaced with new models of the latest technology.
- The issue of open admission should immediately be discussed and canceled or reformed. The most accurate step to be taken in this regard would be giving priority to vocational high school graduates but at the same time obliging them to get a certain score at the university entrance exams (approximately 100-150). Vacancies should be given to general high school graduates without waiting for additional placements.
- Mapping and cadaster programs are one of the most opened programs at vocational schools of universities. Since obtaining the required equipment and setting up laboratories are easier and more economical compared to other programs, mapping and cadaster programs were opened in many vocational schools without considering employment options. When the admission quotas for the academic year of 2013-2014 are examined, it can be seen that there were vacancies left in some schools. The future might be dangerous for the mapping and cadaster programs at certain universities. Considering the employment opportunities of students, it should be thought very carefully when opening new schools.
- Although practical training has constantly come to the fore, its problems have not been solved as desired. Cadastral mapping technicians have their practical training in the mapping offices of the private sector, rather than the public institutions related to our profession and municipalities. Most of the intern students state that the practical training they have at those places do not contribute to their development and they are employed for tasks that any layman can do. It should be maintained that municipalities and related public institutions accept an adequate number of interns for practical training.
- Technicians who graduate from vocational schools perform their military services under the same conditions as high school graduates. Shorter military service periods for technicians compared to high school graduates may motivate them and may also increase the interest towards vocational schools.

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Abstract

Computer simulation is a common technique in analysis and synthesis of electrical circuits in electrical and electronics engineering education. The models for components and devices together with operational blocks aid in the design and analysis of various circuits by allowing for detailed simulation of the circuit being tested. This paper describes application of Orcad PSpice on the analysis of nonlinear circuits over selected simple examples together with theoretical background. In this study, the educational role of the powerful simulation software Orcad PSpice in Electrical Engineering is investigated over three example circuits, each having at least one nonlinear circuit component, which effectively utilize the potential of the simulator. The examples are selected considering their educational value. Simulation results have shown that Orcad Pspice is highly visual and effective for understanding the theory underlying the circuits.

Keywords. Orcad PSpice, simulation, nonlinear circuit analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Computer simulation is a common technique for predicting the real world behaviour of a circuit. Although simulation software only reflect the capability of the model used in the back-plane and they cannot substitute the real-time experimentation, they have proven educationally useful due to their easy to construct and visual properties. Orcad PSpice is a general purpose circuit simulator and one of the various versions of SPICE capable of handling analog logical and mixed-signal parts, circuits and systems [1,2,3,4,5]. It has been extensively used by Universities and semiconductor manufacturers as an CAD [6,7,8,9,10] tool because of its simplicity and effectiveness. Evaluation versions suited for educational purposes are available and can be found at the URL : <http://www.pspice.com/>. Many parameters of circuits and devices can be profitably simulated using these free educational versions of PSpice.

In the simulation procedure different approaches may be followed, namely, electrical component level, subsystem functional block level and higher system level comprising both of the previous ones[11].

On the other hand, many electrical devices are built from nonlinear components. In order to understand the design of these devices, a fundamental understanding of nonlinear circuits is necessary. Moreover there are no hard and fast rules to analyze most nonlinear circuits.

This paper treats three worked examples each including at least one nonlinear component with an educational view. Somewhat detailed theoretical background is presented followed by an Orcad Pspice construction and analysis completed with output graphics. Inside looks of any hierarchical blocks of models are also provided.

WORKED EXAMPLES

Example 1 : The circuit in Fig. 1a has a nonlinear component. $V_s(t)$ is given as $E.\sin(t)$, so that $E \ll 12$ V. Obtain the time expression for current $i_3(t)$.

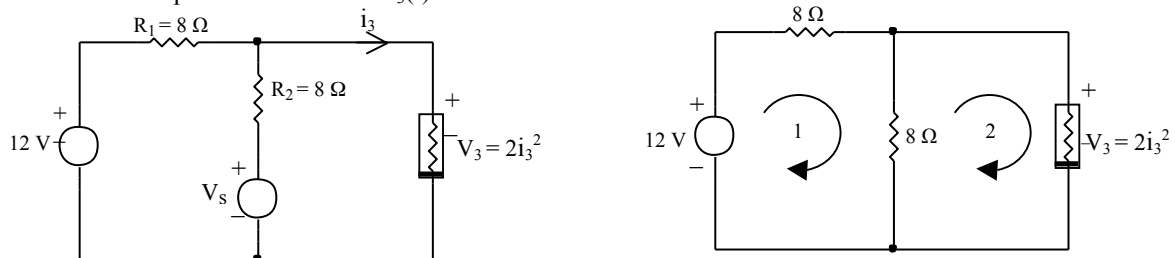


Figure 1a : Ex. 1 circuit

Figure 1b : Ex. 1 circuit with only DC source

Theoretical : Apply superposition together with linearisation, since $12 \gg E$.

With DC source in circuit:

Using mesh currents yields,

$$-12 + 8I_{C1} + 8(I_{C1} - I_{C2}) = 0 \quad (1a)$$

$$8(I_{C2} - I_{C1}) + 2I_{C2}^2 = 0 \quad (1b)$$

If one takes out I_{C1} from (Eq.1a) and substitute in (Eq.1b) gets,

$$8I_{C2} - 4I_{C2} - 6 + 2I_{C2}^2 = 0 \quad (1c)$$

of which roots are -3 and 1. Meaningful root is

$$I_{C2} = 1 \text{ A} = I_3$$

Linearisation of I_3 around this value gives,

$$\left. \frac{\partial V_3}{\partial i_3} \right|_{i_3=1 \text{ A}} = 4 \Rightarrow R_3 = 4 \Omega$$

Thus, for varying small signals the circuit becomes as follows:

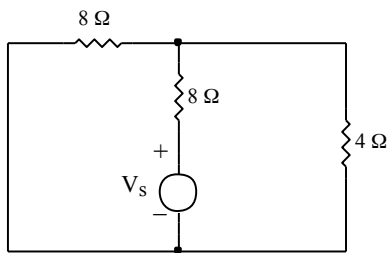


Figure 1c : Ex. 1 circuit for varying small signals

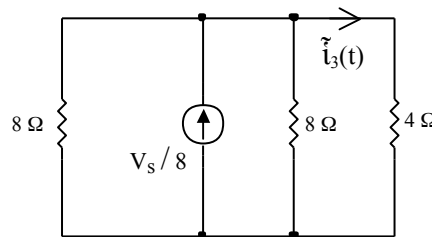


Figure 1d : Norton form of Fig. 1c circuit

from where, one obtains, $\tilde{i}_3(t) = V_s / 16 = (E / 16) \cdot \sin(t)$

Final solution is the superposition of DC and AC currents:

$$i_3(t) = I_3 + \tilde{i}_3(t) = 1 + (E / 16) \cdot \sin(t) \text{ A} \quad (1d)$$

PSpice solution : The nonlinear element in Fig. 1a can be modelled with a *Eval* component in PSpice as follows:

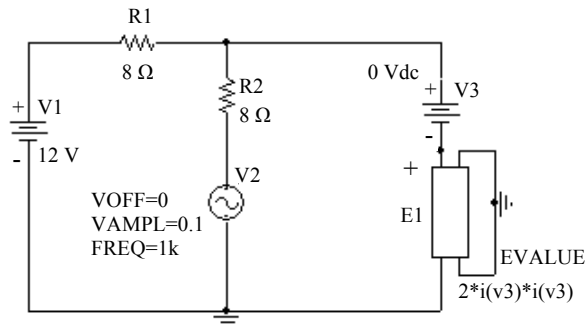


Figure 1e : Fig. 1a circuit constructed in PSpice

The result of a time (transient) analysis so as to watch a few cycles of the sinus wave appears as in Fig. 1f.

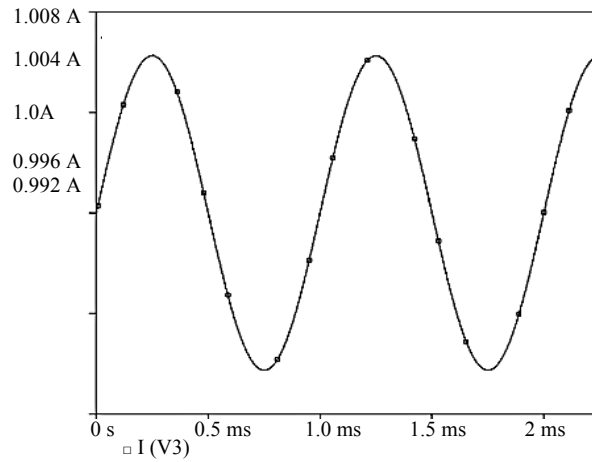


Figure 1f : Current $i(V3) = i(E1)$ waveform of Fig. 1e. (Note that V3 is a dummy component needed for seeing its current)

It is possible to apply superposition in Fig. 1e just by entering zero voltage value for either source instead of replacing them with a short circuit:

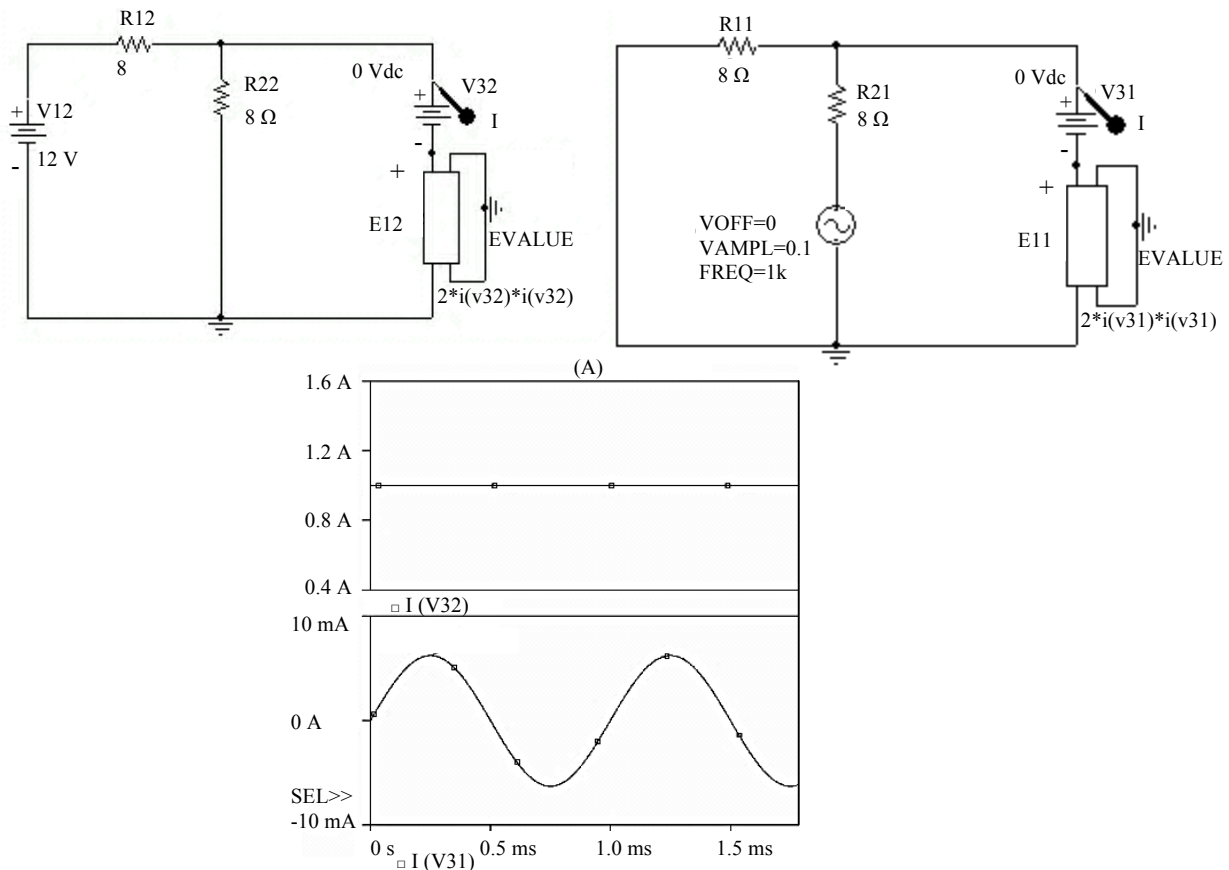


Figure 1i : DC (upper) and AC (lower) components of the nonlinear component current in Fig. 1e.

Example 2 : The circuit in Fig. 2a has a nonlinear component of which mathematical model is provided beside it. Obtain the current i_3 using graphical method.

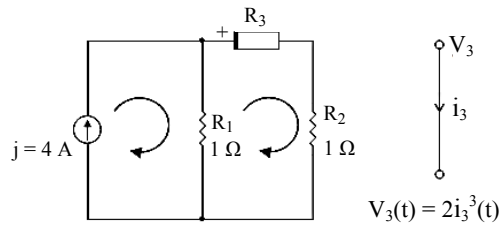


Figure 2a : Ex. 2 circuit

Theoretical : Mesh equations are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ i_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -V_j \\ -V_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2a)$$

Substituting the defining equation of the nonlinear component in the second equation of (2a) yields,

$$2i_3^3 + 2i_3 - 4 = 0 \quad (2b)$$

Of three roots of Eq. 2b two are complex and the real root is $i_3 = 1$, which is the solution.

Graphical method : Intersection of (i-v) characteristics of the nonlinear component and the second matrix equation, which is the defining equation for the whole circuit seen between the terminals of the nonlinear component, gives the operation point for the circuit as follows:

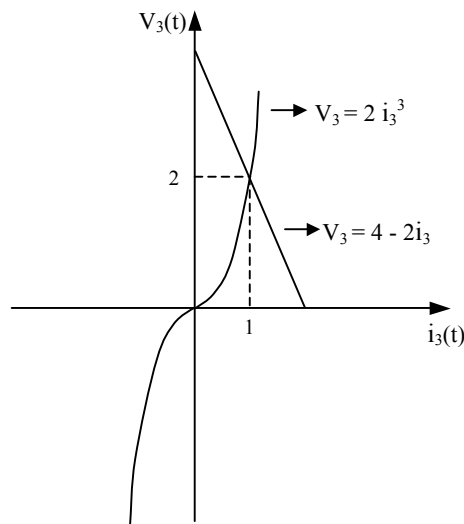


Figure 2b : Finding operation point of the Fig. 2a circuit using graphics

PSpice solution : The nonlinear element in Fig. 2a can be modelled with a *Eval* component in PSpice as follows:

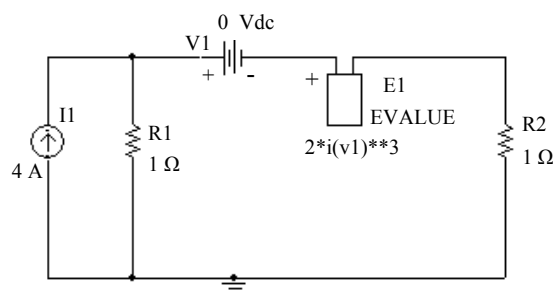


Figure 2c : Fig. 2a. circuit constructed in PSpice

A time analysis of any runtime outputs the current and voltage of the nonlinear component as following (during actual work part names might be changed as a result of copy and paste process, which is usual working in simulation medium and should be ignored) :

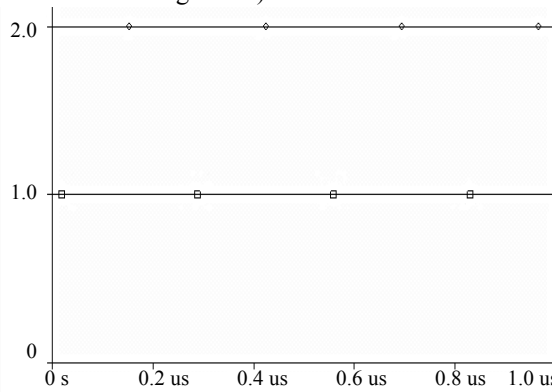


Figure 2d : Result of voltage values for the nonlinear component. In order to obtain current and voltage values) the following construction is contrived, where CCCS part allows copying the sweep current thus making two graphics drawn in the same plot):

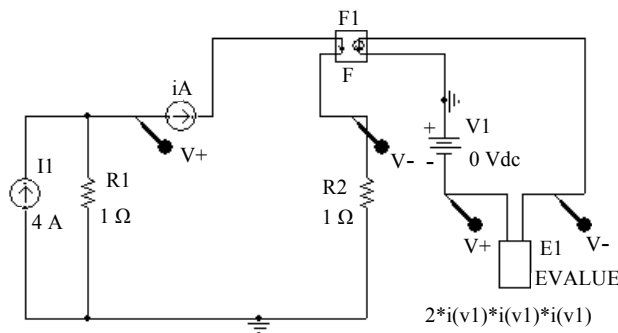


Figure 2e : Schematic for plotting graphical solution of the circuit in Fig. 2a. (DC sweep analysis is applied with i(A) as the sweep variable)

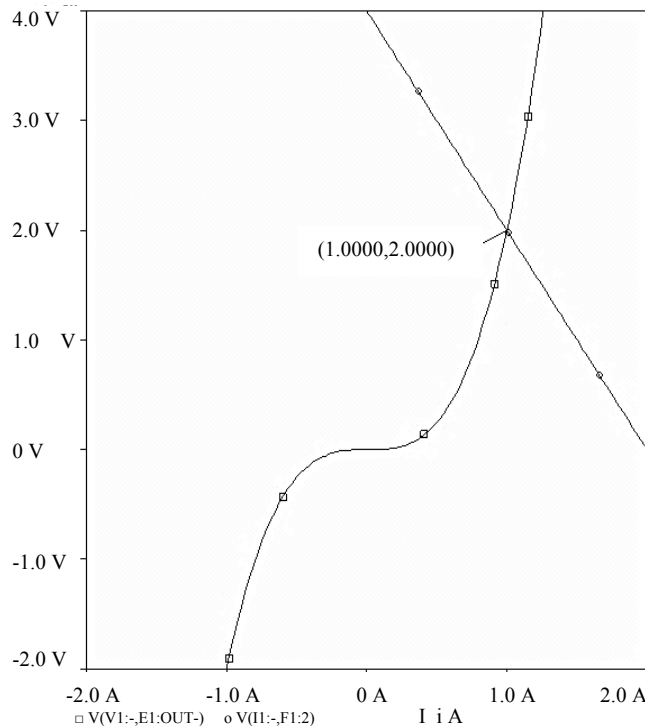


Figure 2f : The result of DC sweep analysis of the circuit in Fig. 2c, illustrating the operational point values

Example 3 : The circuit of Fig. 3a is considered, where $i_e = V_e^{1/3}$

- a) Find i_e for the case of ideal diodes [Fig. 3a. (a)]
- b) Repeat the problem with nonideal diodes [Fig. 3a. (b)]

Theoretical : Straightforward circuit analysis yields:

- a) $i_e = 2 \text{ A}$
- b) $i_e = \sqrt[3]{7} \text{ A}$

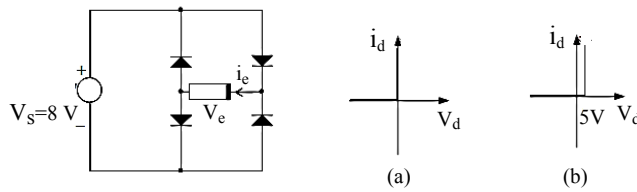


Figure 3a : Ex. 3 circuit with the diode models

PSpice solution : Construction of Fig. 3a circuit in PSpice is below together with the inside look of all the subcircuited ideal diodes for case (a).

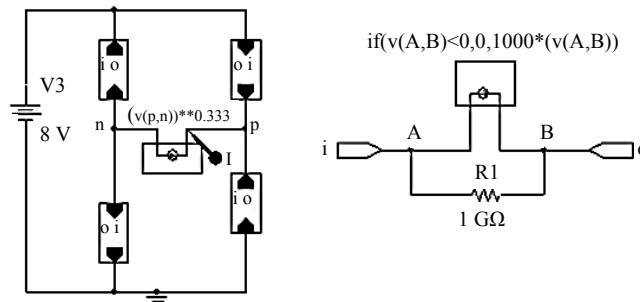


Figure 3b : Schematic of Fig. 3a circuit in PSpice, with the subcircuit for ideal diodes and ABM part for the other nonlinear component, case (a)

The result of a time analysis of any duration reveals the desired current as following:

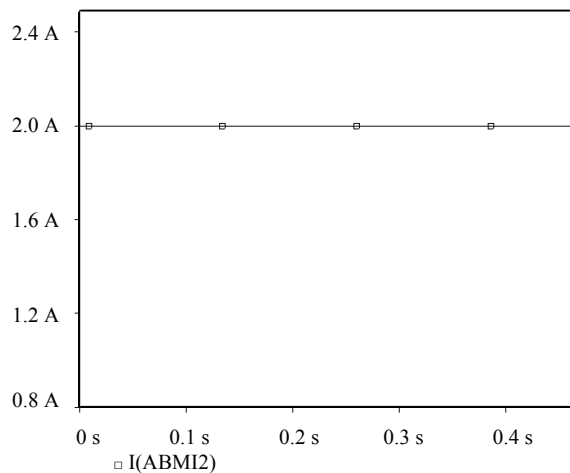


Figure 3c : Time analysis of the Fig. 3a for the part (a) of the problem

Construction of Fig. 3a circuit in PSpice is below together with the inside look of all the subcircuited nonideal diodes for case (b).

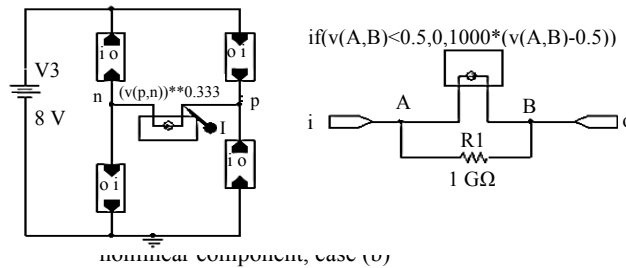


Figure 3d : Schematic of Fig. 3a

art for the other

The result of a time analysis of any duration reveals the desired current as following:

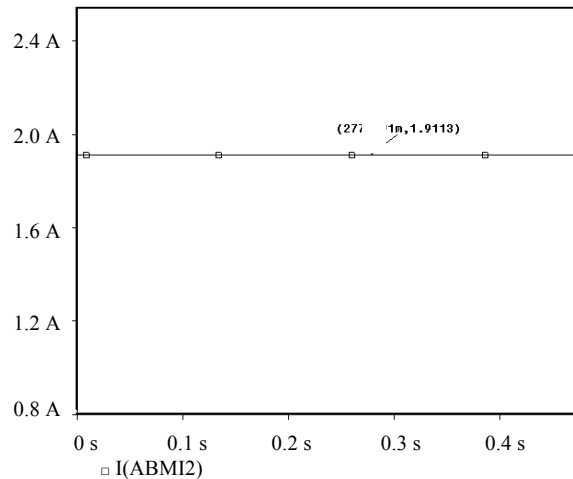


Figure 3e : Time analysis of the Fig. 3a for the part (b) of the problem.

CONCLUSION

The educational role of the powerful simulation software Orcad PSpice in Electrical Engineering is investigated over three example circuits, each having at least one nonlinear circuit component, which effectively utilize the potential of the simulator. The simulation results are observed to be congruent and illustrative to the theory underlying the analysis of nonlinear circuits and shows that Orcad PSpice being highly visual is very useful in the analysis of nonlinear circuits in Electrical and Electronics Education.

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Challenges Facing Teacher Educators' Mentoring on Professional Progress of Teachers in Nigeria

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Abstract

The commitment of teacher educators to professional development of teachers in Nigeria is very minimal especially after the teacher –trainees have graduated. Professional relationship between the training institutions /teacher educators and those they trained are faint. Strong mechanism of monitoring what the graduates are doing in the field and helping them face their challenges partially exists. Consequently great differences exist between the attitude and commitment of the teacher-educators to professional ethics, and that of those who graduated from them. This paper focuses on the factors that make mentoring on professional progress of teachers by the teacher-educators difficult. Such factors include, some over/wrong assumptions, poor record keeping and monitoring, political factors, the quality of the teacher educators that train the teachers, challenges of professionalisation of teaching in Nigeria, poor funding of teacher-education, lack of policy guidelines or legal frame-work on mentoring on professional development of teachers in Nigeria. Implications of the above lapses on the fate of teaching profession in Nigeria are highlighted. The paper concludes with suggestions on how to tackle the challenges.

Keywords. teacher-educator, teacher trainee, mentor, mentee, professionalisation, teaching practice, funding, continuous professional development, teacher education institutions.

INTRODUCTION

Mentoring is one of the pristine methods of imparting knowledge .The ancient Greek used it as a ,means of imparting social, spiritual and personal values to young men .According to Metros and Yang(2006) , mentoring as we know it today is loosely modeled on the historical craftsman/apprentice relationship where young people learn a trade by shadowing master artisan .It is a career development strategy whereby mentee or protegee (learner) is made to learn or understudy the skills and knowledge of the master. The term *mentor*, according to Penner (1997) stems from Greek mythology in which Odysseus entrusted the care and education of his child to a friend named Mentor while the father was away on his adventures and travels .From that initial origin of the word, mentoring has come to be used for a variety of relationships(Penner,1997). Some of its synonyms include *role model, coach, guide, sponsor, friend, and adviser*”.He presented some sample definitions of mentoring as follows:

Mentoring is a lifelong relationship in which a mentor helps a protégé reach her or his God-given potential (Biehl, 1996).

Mentoring provides, first, an instrumental or career function (e.g., sponsorship, coaching, corporate culture instruction), and second, an intrinsic or psychosocial function (e.g., serving as a model, a confidant, a friend) (Cunningham, 1999).

Mentoring is a power-free partnership between two individuals who desire mutual growth. One of the individuals usually has greater skills, experiences, and wisdom (Weinstein,1998).

The person offering the mentoring is usually referred to as a *mentor*, while the recipient or partner may be identified as a *mentee* or *protégé*.

According to Garvey and Alfred (2003) mentoring is a learning partnership between a more experienced and less experienced individual. Grossman and Rhodes (2002) described it as a process involving emotional (friendship, acceptance, supports, etc) and instrumental information, coaching, advocacy, sponsorship and relationship that becomes impactful overtime. Mentoring is an age long practice through which master trainers in

all fields of trade and craft do not only impart skills to their trainees but monitor the trainees development and progress in mastering and using the skills effectively. It is a process and not a once-for-all habit of imparting knowledge and skill. As a process, mentoring makes provisions for monitoring, follow-up, sponsorship and guidance .It follows the approach of apprenticeship and internship. A once-for-all approach abandons the trainee (on graduation) leaving him/her to grapple in darkness and stumble in many mistakes in the process of applying the knowledge and skills received.

Mentoring aimed at further professional development of teachers, who graduated from teacher-education institutions is lacking in the three levels of teacher-education in Nigeria. Teacher educators in Teacher Training Colleges, Colleges of Education and Universities do not have any formal mentoring partnership or relationship through which the skill and pedagogical development aimed at professional growth is fostered. By a formal partnership we mean a formal arrangement whether documented or not by which a fresh graduate teacher is mentored, through close follow-up, advocacy or support in the school he/she is posted to teach. Whatever exists at the informal level, if any does not have any citable impact A mentoring relationship is defined by Parloe (1992) cited in Metros and Yang(2006) as helping and supporting people to manage their own learning in order to maximize their professional potential, develop their skills, improve their performance, and become the person they want to be. A once –for-all-approach mentioned above is what is in vogue up until now (the reasons for this and problems associated with it will be discussed later).

RATIONALE FOR MENTORING

Some important concepts in the definition that need to be emphasized are helping and supporting people, skill development, and improvement of performance. Organisations or institutions employ people that are assumed to have the necessary qualifications to work. These qualifications are mere paper certificates that show the area of knowledge in which the employee is trained. The new employees can not fit in properly if he does not painstakingly understudy the older and more experienced staff. This involves a purposeful helping and supporting with skill, knowledge, ideas, workable strategies which providence and experience have bestowed on the mentor. Again mentorship involves skill development. It could be observed that higher institutions in Nigeria exposed the students more to the theoretical aspect of their curriculum. Development of professional skill which in turn guarantees career development is in most cases learnt on the job .Development of professional skills takes place in the field and is best and faster done when an experienced hand is available to train or to be understudied.

Improvement of performance is another thing that mentorship aims at achieving .Improvement on ones skills invariably leads to the improvement of performance. Again mentoring has a serious element of close supervision. Increased performance and quality output are directly linked. Training under a good and experienced senior colleague helps improve performance on the part of the new staff. Under the rubric of intelligence, mentorship not only provides a transfer of knowledge, but demonstrates how to acquire and apply the critical thinking skills and the habits of enquiry and logical argument needed to create and communicate that knowledge (Ross and Mahy,1997).Thus mentoring turns a neophyte to a genius. It transfers the masters knowledge to the mentee and equips him/her with philosophical foundations through which solution to problems in the organisation could be sought for whether the mentor is around or not.

The United States of America has applied mentoring approach in their school systems and found that it is enhancing the teachers performance and productivity. Barlin (2010) revealed that after a large body of evidence showed that mentoring approach significantly improved performance of new teachers, many education leaders started to invest in new-teacher mentoring. He said “when mentors are well-selected, well-trained, and given the time to work intensively with new teachers, they not only help average teachers become good, but good teachers become great” It is also organized in the US in a way that it could be between the faculty and students , and between students and students . All the mentoring approaches in the US are yielding good result.

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN NIGERIA

Teacher education refers to the policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviors and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school and wider community. Teacher education programmes in Nigeria are offered in three education institutions namely Teacher Training Colleges ,Colleges of Education, Universities/Institutes of Education Nigerian Teachers Institute . Each of these awards different professional certificates in Education. Teachers Training Colleges award Teachers Grade 11 certificate(TC11) . Colleges of Education award Nigerian Certificate in

Education(NCE) while Universities and Institutes of Education award Bachelors (BSc.Ed, BA.Ed, B.Ed) Post-graduate Diploma in Education(PGDE) and Masters degree (MEd.MSc.Ed). National Teachers Institute also awards TC11,NCE and PGDE. The award of bachelor degree in education was started by the University of Nigeria Nsukka in 1961 through the inspiration the University got from Ashby Commission and the Carnegie Seminar on Education held in the University. Other universities that followed later also modeled their teacher education after Nsukka structure (Ukoha,1999).The curriculum structure of Teacher Training Colleges is basically designed to train teachers for primary schools, the Colleges of Education are to train teachers for the primary and junior secondary schools while degree programmes in the Universities are basically designed to train teachers for the secondary schools. The first approach was based on making sure that the teacher trainees receive more in-depth and specialized training in their chosen subjects in addition to the pedagogical training(Ukoha1999:21)The second approach is what Ukoha described as consecutive approach whereby the Universities admit university and polytechnic graduates who read course other than education into one or two year programmes leading to the award of Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE).The Universities also train teachers who specialize in courses leading to the award of masters and doctorate degrees. Many of the teachers with higher degree certificates teach in Universities, Polytechnic and Colleges of Education. Teacher educators in Nigeria, therefore ,comprise of those that teach in all the teacher education institutions that train teachers for different levels of school systems in Nigeria.

Mentoring in Teacher Education in Nigeria

The research carried in Nigeria by Aladejana, Aladejana and Ehidero(2006) shows that mentoring among University academics takes place in informal and unstructured manner that most mentoring relationship were channelled towards research and publications while negligible part is directed towards classroom teaching. The study further finds that most mentoring relationship were initiated and sustained by proximity and academic related activities. Apart from such academic activities that mostly benefit the mentor heavily mentoring in other areas (especially professional development) is very negligible Teacher educators depend very much on teaching practice exercise as a major academic programme through which professional training is developed in the teacher-trainees. Each of these training institutions gives teaching practice a priority. It lasts a minimum of six months and three months for regular NCE and degree programmes respectively. Every student teacher is by regulation supposed to be supervised by teaching practice supervisors (teacher educators) for a minimum of four times. The goals of teaching practice are to expose the teacher trainees to initial on the field experience where they can put theory to practice National Commission for Colleges of Education (1991), Ogwo (1999) and Amadi (2001) identify the goals of teaching practice as that of providing student-teachers with opportunity where they can put theory into practical classroom situation. The National Commission for Colleges of Education outlines the objectives of teaching practice as follows

- i.To help student-teachers develop positive attitude towards the teaching profession
- ii. To expose student-teachers to real life classroom experiences under the supervision of professional teachers
- iii. To enable student-teachers discover their own strength and weaknesses in teaching and develop opportunities to consolidate and overcome them.
- iv. To provide a forum for student teachers to translate educational theories and principles into practice
- v. To familiarize student-teachers with school routines
- vi.To expose the student-teachers to the total school environment
- vii. To provide student-teachers with necessary skills, competencies, personal characteristics and experiences for full time teaching after graduation.
- viii. To serve as a means of assessing professional competence of student-teachers (p.1).

The goals were set on the premise that all the stake-holders namely teacher-educators, co-operating teachers and schools and the student-teachers will perform their duties .The turn-out of events beginning from the last three decades of 20th century till now show that teaching practice in Nigeria can not be hoped on as a sure base for providing a platform on which much of pedagogical and skill development can be solely relied upon.

Thus it is a pre-service arrangement and not a post-graduation experience. It is believed that after a successful teaching practice exercise a teacher trainee must have acquired all necessary skills required for full operation in the teaching profession and therefore could be certified as a professional teacher. Further professional development could be experientially acquired through interaction with older teachers in the field. This assumption has failed to deliver the needed results because of the under-mentioned observations .The time student –teachers spend in the cooperating schools (schools where they are posted for the exercise) depends on a lot of uncertainties .Uncertainties arising from number of months public schools can be in session without strike action from the teachers . It is again determined by uncertainties arising from the ability of the teacher-educators

to come for supervision due to incessant strike action embarked upon by tertiary institutions in Nigeria. University teachers went on strike from July 1 to December 11, 2013. Colleges of Education went on what they called warning strike while the Polytechnics went on strikes twice in the same year. One could imagine the quality of supervision striking University or College Of Education teachers gave their student-teachers during the periods of strike.

Poor supervision by the supervisors constitutes another problem. Most supervisors adopt hit-and run approach during supervision exercise, No quality time and attention is given to the student-teachers. Many are not patient to stay with the student-teacher from beginning of a lesson of forty minutes to the end. Some cooperating teachers who should help in directing these student-teachers do not play their roles. Many see it as an opportunity to rest or be engaged in other ventures. Student- teachers are therefore left alone most of the time. This fails to meet the apprenticeship system approach (inherent in teaching practice) whereby the cooperating teachers are more or less the master-trainers.

Negative attitude of some student-teachers account much for this problem. The authors have been supervising for twenty years now. They observe great dishonesty and truancy among some student-teachers. Poor writing of lesson plans and notes, poor mastery of contents, delivery skills and wrong application of instructional materials and methodology to mention a few are other problems associated with present crop of student-teachers in Nigeria.

Problems affecting effective Mentoring

The first problem stems from the over assumption or wrong assumptions. These assumptions are (a) that the course on teaching methodology and the teaching practice exercise are enough to equip teacher trainee with all needed skills for professional growth, (b) that on graduation, the teacher should learn on the job by interacting with older teachers. Both assumptions are fraught with a lot of fault. Some teachers of “special method or teaching methodology” may not be committed to their job. Truancy among some teaching staff is one of the major problems school administrators face. Teachers in this category have less professional development impact on their students. Secondly, problems facing teaching practice discussed above make the other assumption unworkable. Again some young graduates find it difficult to humble themselves as to be mentored by the older staff. This is worsened by the traditional practice of allocating subjects to the new graduate teachers immediately they are posted to a school without the head teacher giving them professional orientation.

Poor records of where the teachers are posted after graduation constitute another problem. Mentoring is better done when the mentee has initial classroom contact with the mentor. It is not easy to adopt a teacher from no where as one’s mentee. There must be some link between the teacher educator and a person he wants to mentor. Often times political factors which underlie employment of primary and secondary teachers in Nigeria make it difficult for a teacher educator to see many of his former students teaching in any of the schools around. It is a fact that some states in Nigeria do stay for years without employing new teachers

Funding is a very serious problem in Nigeria. Annual budgetary allocation to education in Nigeria is still far behind the United Nations recommendation. The UN recommended that 26% of the annual budget should be allocated to education. With inadequate funding no Teacher Education institutions can take the responsibility of paying staff that are going to schools on mentorship schedules. The poor teacher who hardly feeds well can not afford the cost of traveling to see the teacher-educator for discussion on mentoring issues.

Mentoring has no legal status in Nigerian education or school system. In other words there is no policy establishing mentoring by teacher educators. The National Policy on Education which is a document that is always referred to in any issue concerning education in Nigeria does not say much about mentoring nor give it a special attention as a crucial component of professional development. This creates a problem on whose responsibility it is to initiate mentoring of classroom teachers and school administrators.

Over-burdening of the National Teachers Institute (NTI) has made its mentoring efforts ineffective. NTI was established by Act No7 of 1978 to organize programmes for upgrading and updating of teachers in the primary and secondary schools. For now it is the only teacher education institution that has a near-policy related issue in matters of mentoring. Even at that Nigeria is too large to be covered by this Institute. It does not have enough personnel and fund to cover the nation. Retraining of teachers, upgrading and updating their professional skills which are part of the mandate of NTI have not been effectively done. Fareo (2013) highlighted that the retraining of teachers in Nigeria has not received desired attention from the Local, States and Federal

Governments. She observes that there has not been any systematic attention to regular up-dating of the teachers' knowledge and teaching skills in the light of changes in the curriculum and the wider society. The mentoring efforts of NTI which could be gleaned from its commitment to equipping serving teachers with practical skills and enhancing their mastery of subject matter as well as developing positive self-concept towards teaching profession though laudable, yet lacks the close relationship, partnership and support which distinguish mentoring from mere school supervision.

Many teachers' reluctance or refusal to register with Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) constitutes great problem in mentoring of teachers. Established in 1993, the TRCN has one of its functions as registration of teachers in Nigeria, organizing continuous training and development to enhance the instruction skills of teachers in all areas necessary in its Continuous Professional Development Programmes. The problem of poor records of where teachers are posted after graduation would have been solved if every teacher in Nigeria is registered with TRCN. Many teachers in tertiary institutions in Nigeria are not yet registered with TRCN. Helping teacher educators locate those they would like to mentor or outright allocation of teachers to mentors would have been very easy if all are registered with TRCN which stands in good position to start a formal mentoring exercise for teachers.

Attention also has to be drawn to problem of relying on the two models of Continuing Professional Development being used in Nigeria. They are the workshop model and the school based –teacher professional support model (Mohamed,2006 cited in Fareo,2013).The former is the practice whereby workshop is organized for teachers of some subjects who are made to go to a particular centre during holidays to listen to facilitators. The latter is the practice whereby practicing teachers work collaboratively with the head teachers to provide supervision and support from older teachers in form of staff meeting corrections and demonstration classes. This is an internal and local arrangement which depends on the administrative style of the head teacher. Teacher educators are hardly involved in this model.

It may also be good to mention the lopsided nature of the workshop model. It appears to be discriminatory to the advantage of mathematics and science subjects and English language. The writers observed that subject areas other than those mentioned above do not receive equal attention.

BENEFITS OF MENTORING

Every one, the mentor, the mentee and organization or institution benefits from mentoring. Penner(2001) presented full discourse on the benefits of mentoring in higher institution. We shall therefore adapt his ideas since they are apt to the discussion in this paper

For the Mentor

Enrichment through seeing someone else grow and succeed.

Human development theory holds that among persons reaching mid-life there is a need to develop the next generation (Levinson). Investing in the success of one or more persons earlier in their life and career development provides opportunity to fill that need.

Creativity generated by issues and ideas generated by someone younger and newer.

When someone comes to a role or organization with questions and new ideas, creativity is stimulated. Pairing a senior and junior faculty member could provide stimulus for the senior faculty member's ongoing creativity.

Friendship.

While the basic value of mentoring may be either an organizational or personal benefit to the mentor, the possibility exists that the relationship may develop into a friendship that lasts a lifetime. Biehl advocates that mentoring relationships be considered a lifelong relationships.

For the Mentee

Speedier adaptation to a new role and/or organization and reduced likelihood of frustration and failure.

One of the values a more experienced mentor brings is access to information and suggestions for success. To have someone be proactive in behalf of one's orientation and success should speed up the adaptation process and reduce the chances of making organizational gaffes.

Increased exposure to ideas and connections. *By definition one of the contributions of a mentor is to offer the mentee helpful information, suggestions, and even introduction to others who can be helpful to the person.*

Friendship. *While initially one cannot expect friendship, it may well be an outcome and long-term benefit. {48}*

For the Organization

Stronger individuals offering higher quality performance.

Since one of the goals of a mentoring relationship is professional success, to the extent it is operational in a college, one should see overall teaching quality rise. Mentoring also is positively linked to student retention (Ross-Thomas).

Increased connectivity and caring.

People enjoy working in caring and connected workplaces. Creating a network of good relationships among faculty raises the general relational climate in an organization and is of overall benefit.

Support to formal employee orientation and development programs.

Mentoring programs are generally not seen as substitutes for orientation and training. These still need to be in place. However, the mentoring relationship can be a wonderful reinforcement for the training and orientation received at the time of entry.

Greater spiritual protection for persons and the organization.

From a Christian perspective, there is less likelihood that persons will fall prey to personal or professional bad decisions or moral failure if such persons are in an open, caring, ongoing mentor relationship. In that sense, when there is such care, including prayer support for one another, the organization enjoys greater spiritual protection.

IMPLICATIONS

Problem of poor professional development among Nigerian teachers has continued to re-occur because of poor mentoring policy for teachers.

It will continue to lead to low quality of teachers in the primary and secondary schools. Effective mentoring process ensures faster means of passing latest research information and discoveries of improved pedagogical skills to teachers. The absence of mentoring relationship between the teacher-educators and the teachers they trained slows the process of transmitting such information to teachers.

All the benefits of mentoring discussed above will be lost by the school as an organization. The classroom teacher (as a mentee) and the teacher educator (as a mentor) will continue to lose their benefits accruable from mentoring. Nigeria will continue to suffer the same problems that schools have been facing since independence. Nasiru observes that the problems teacher education in Nigeria has been engulfed with since independence have affected the result of the system. The problems among others include low output of teachers and poor quality of the teachers produced. Till date those problems persist and get worsened as many unqualified personnel find their ways into the profession. The over-all implication is obvious. Nigeria school system will be out of the best practices in the global society if nothing is done to improve mentoring of teachers in the field and if urgent steps are not taken towards bringing up a formal mentoring policy geared towards professional development of teachers by teacher educators in the country.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Mentoring involves mentor-making on the part of all teacher education institutions. It is all about being concerned not only with one's own success but also that of one's graduate or colleague. It is also all about projecting organizational goals and training new entrants so that they can imbibe organizational objectives with the aim of improving their professional skills thereby improving and increasing performance. Mentoring requires sitting a young colleague or fresh graduate down and asking him or her to understudy a more experienced staff or his teacher. This is different from orientation or refresher training courses. What is being emphasized here involves transfer of positive experience to successive generation. According to Metros and Yang (2006)

For mentoring to effect institutional change in higher education, it must be more than informal or spontaneous. The leadership within an institution must first recognize and identify the need for mentoring, and then plan, develop, support, and promote a program that directly addresses specific workforce gaps—both current and future.

This means that mentoring should be formally organized by all teacher education institutions in the country so that they can ensure professional development of their products (graduates)

Teacher education institutions should be actively involved in the two models of Continuous Professional Development currently in vogue in Nigeria. They should cooperate with National Teachers Institute in her attempts on professional development of teachers. They should collaborate with NTI in workshop organization as well as with primary and secondary schools on working out functional mentoring programme for teachers. Robinson and Latchman's study cited in Fareo (2013) mentions some identifiable stages in the process of

becoming a teacher. This includes five stage model of a novice, advanced beginner, competent performer, proficient performer and expert teacher. Planned Continuing professional development programmes through carefully organized teacher educators mentoring programmes in Nigerian school system will help to facilitate the process of transforming a novice teacher to a proficient performer.

The Local, State and Federal government, other managers /proprietors of schools in Nigeria as well as the teacher education institutions are major stake-holders in Nigerian School system. Each should play its expected roles in either providing adequate funding, coming up with a mentoring policy, providing the necessary personnel and enabling environments (as the case may be) to make sure that Nigerian teacher education institutions take effective start formal mentoring programmes for their graduate teachers. Anything that can be done to improve quality of instruction in Nigeria schools and anything that facilitate professional development of Nigerian teachers is worth the sacrifice.

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SOUNDIA-A Learning Application for Musical Correlations According to “The Musical Space”

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Abstract

“The Musical Space” provides a framework for teaching musical correlations to beginners and experts alike. It does not require any previous knowledge and uses a very unique approach to look at – or listen to – possibly familiar compositional and sound engineering techniques and phenomena.

This paper presents an app (Soundia) for this innovative music teaching concept, where the characteristics of “The Musical Space” are introduced. In this space, sound objects can be placed in a way so that they either disturb or complement each other, or coalesce. They are used to represent musical correlations. Sound objects do not necessarily represent a single instrument. Several instruments might form a single sound object, whereas a single instrument may correlate to several sound objects.

So far, “The Musical Space” was only presented by chalk and blackboard. In order to reach a larger audience outside the class room, a learning application was called for to facilitate the envisioning of “The Musical Space”.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Perception of music largely depends on musical listening habits. Therefore, one of the main goals in music teaching lies in the formation of adequate listening skills, to “perk up one’s ears”.

Gruber developed a teaching concept entitled “on the search for order in music” (Gruber, 2008) in the course of his master degree in composition (with a focus on arts and pedagogy) because he perceived classical music theory as “cluttered”. His approach focuses on breaking listening habits in order to enable an abstract access to music, independent of the music genre or instruments. His concept works with analogies to sensual perceptions beyond listening. One of his ideas rests upon the imagination of “The Musical Space” (Ehrentraud, 2013) where sound objects can be placed. As an interesting aspect, these objects can either disturb or complement each other, or coalesce. Using such representations for exemplary songs, Gruber illustrates structures within musical ideas and parallels between different songs. Thereby he instills abstract and active music listening skills.

While diverse music visualizations are mainly used for teaching musical instruments or music theory (Ferguson, Moore, & Cabrera, 2005; Ng & Nesi, 2008; Percival, Wang, & Tzanetakis, 2007; Smoliar, Waterworth, & Kellok, 1995; Yin, Wang, & Hsu, 2005), none of these systems uses visualization in a way similar to Gruber’s musical space. Within *reactTable* (Jordà, 2003a, 2003b) sound objects can be placed on a round plane. There is no visualization of a possible acoustic fit of the objects, though.

In contemporary music software, object representations are often used to illustrate sound characteristics, like in *Blip Shaper* by subcycle labs (*BlipShaper*, 2013), or to visualize sound producing correlations of single elements in non-linear sequencers, like *NodeBeat* (*NodeBeat*, 2013). Nevertheless, these visual representations were helpful in finding suitable visualizations for *Soundia*.

Some musicians use graphical notations, as outlined in (Cage, 1969). They equally represent sound objects in a visual manner. Most of these notations are read on a time scale left to right, and do not represent a space.

The positive effect of visualizations (among other tools) on the grasp of music theory or instruments has been widely documented (e.g. Fober, Letz, & Orlarey, 2007; Gkiokas, 2008; Knight, Boulliot, & Cooperstock, 2012; Yin et al., 2005). There are also intentions to establish educational standards for music teaching, for example with the pilot study “*HarmoS Musik*” (Huber, 2008) where Huber defines seven categories for pedagogical goals for music teaching.

Currently, the visualization of “The Musical Space” is done via drawings on the blackboard or scribbling on paper. It rather concentrates on representing relationships between the sound object graphically, and describing

its qualities verbally with visual analogies. Since so many analogies within “The Musical Space” are borrowed from the visual domain, the teaching could be supported by an interactive learning app. Note that a visual representation of sound objects themselves wasn’t part of the original teaching concept, and represents a major contribution of this work. Its goal is to facilitate a playful and interactive way to comprehend music within “The Musical Space”.

This leads to the research questions: “To what extent is an interactive visualization of “The Musical Space” and its ideas helpful for the comprehension of musical correlations as laid out in the original teaching concept?” and “To what extent does it facilitate the recognition of these correlations in similar contexts?”

To reach the set objectives, the following methods were used:

- Gruber was interviewed to provide his teaching concept in written form.
- Educational goals and scenarios were derived using Bloom’s Taxonomy (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, W.H., & Krathwohl, 1956).
- A concept for the visualization and user interaction was created to account for the defined educational goals.
- For selected parts of the visualization concept a prototype was implemented.
- To test for a successful achievement of the set goals, an evaluation was conducted.

APP CONCEPT

This section introduces the learning application’s concept by defining general parameters, aspired teaching goals, a suitable example scenario, essential and optional requirements, and appropriate learning steps. These lay out the basics for the prototype implementation and the subsequent evaluation.

General Parameters

The intended audience has been set to teenagers from 16 years of age and adults who hold an interest in music and have some spatial sense. Concerning language understanding, they should be familiar with the notion of “dimension” and “3D space”. Furthermore, a certain amount of self-reliance and autonomy with respect to learning activities is expected, since the app represents an informal learning tool.

Teaching goals

From Gruber’s teaching concept (Ehrentraud, 2013) the following teaching goals could be derived that deal with the comprehension and application of the concepts of “The Musical Space”:

The student is able to

- L1. classify a sound into the four presented categories of sound generation.
(Understand/Classifying)
- L2. classify a sound into the categories “undefined“ and “defined“.
(Understand/Classifying)
- L3. recall the basic categories of extra-musical terms for sound description.
(Remember/Recalling)
- L4. use suitable non-musical vocabulary for sound description.
(Understand/Inferring)
- L5. distinguish a sound within a piece of music according to a given sound description.
(Analyze/Differentiating)
- L6. define a given sound by means of a sound description.
(Apply/Implementing)
- L7. partition a perceived piece of music into sound objects and arrange them within “The Musical Space” graphically or in his/her mind.
(Analyze/Organizing)
- L8. assign one or more of the roles rhythm, harmony, and melody to a sound within a piece of music.
(Analyze/Attributing)
- L9. discover correlations between sound objects within a piece of music.
(Analyze/Organizing)
- L10. compare several pieces of music with respect to sound descriptions, sound generation category, roles of sound objects, and overall sound impression.
(Evaluate/Critiquing)

- L11. make qualitative statements about balance, limits (within the panorama, the pitch, and the offset in depth), colorfulness and overall sound impression of a piece of music using the analogy of “The Musical Space”. (Evaluate/Critiquing)
- L12. recognize colliding sound objects in a piece of music. (Evaluate/Checking)
- L13. use predefined methods for resolving collisions. (Apply/Execute)
- L14. achieve improvements in the sound impression of a piece of music by applying insights gained by inspection in the domain of “The Musical Space”. (Create/Generating)

Table 1 shows the arrangement of these teaching goals within the revised scheme of Bloom’s taxonomy of the cognitive domain (Krathwohl, 2002).

Cognitive Process \ Knowledge	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual	L3	L1, L2	L6	L5, L7, L9	L10, L11	
Conceptual	L3	L1, L2, L4	L6, L13	L7, L8, L9	L10, L11	L14
Procedural			L6, L13	L5, L7, L9	L10, L11, L12	L14
Metacognitive				L7, L9		

Table 1: Teaching goals in Soundia according to the revised Bloom’s taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002).

Example Scenario for L7

In order to achieve the stated teaching goals, a collection of 28 interactive learning scenarios was designed. One of these was selected for realization as a prototype app. The scenario intends to satisfy teaching goal L7:

Multiple sounds are played back and are displayed in “The Musical Space”. Details correlating to the basic dimensions are explained. Additional characteristics like ranges where pitch becomes indiscernible or locatability of low pitches are shown. To place emphasis on interactivity, several sounds are played back simultaneously, with the option to mute single sounds. A more sophisticated way of interaction could be achieved by making sound objects moveable within the dimensions of “The Musical Space”. This influences pitch, panorama, offset in depth, and possibly also their sound description.

Requirements

In order to develop a useful learning application, the selected example scenario was analyzed for basic and advanced requirements. Basic requirements cover the teaching goals with a minimal amount of interactivity:

- 2D visualization of “The Musical Space”.
- Non-interactive visualization of single sound objects by simple rectangles representing position and expansion.
- Non-interactive audio output for sound examples. At least one contrasting sound example for each explanation step.
- Explanation of the dimensions of “The Musical Space”.
- Explanation of ranges where pitch becomes indiscernible.
- Explanation of the dependence between locatability and the pitch of a sound.
- Explanations are given in written form next to the visualization of “The Musical Space”.
- “Next” and “Previous” buttons to jump between explanation steps.
- Additional requirements cover advanced ways of interaction:
- Controls to interactively adjust position and expansion of sound objects.
- Manipulating sound objects influences sound output. For example, if the height of a sound object in the pitch dimension is being increased, then the notes are distributed in the chosen pitch range.
- Explanation steps are shown in the manner of the “steps-left” pattern, and it is possible to jump freely between explanation steps.

Explanation Steps

The subject area was split up into 6 main topics and several small explanation steps to facilitate comprehension:

- Introduction – 7 steps
- Panorama – 3 steps
- Pitch – 3 steps
- Offset in depth – 2 steps
- Ranges of indiscernible pitch – 2 steps
- Locatability – 2 steps

PROTOTYPE APP

In order to reduce the complexity of the overall system, it has been subdivided into functional components and their respective interplay. Then suitable technologies for the implementation of these abstract functions were selected, and the interfaces were defined. An important aspect was the representation of the sound parameters and the visual elements.

Functional Concept

The functional concept comprises three components, as shown in Figure 2. The component “Musical Brain” is a master controller which supervises the scenarios (e.g. help texts, size and positioning of sound objects), and controls the communication between the scenarios. The component “Visualization & Interaction” is responsible for the UI and the communication with the user. The component “Audio Generation” takes abstract parameters from the “Musical Brain” and transforms them to acoustically useful ones.

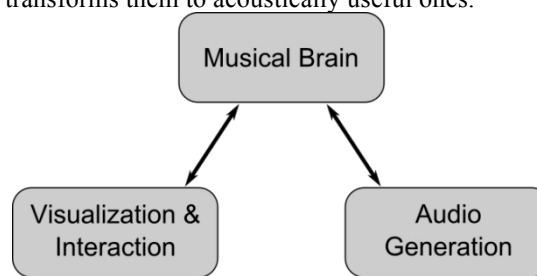


Figure 2: Main components of the prototype

Implementation

After some initial test, Java in combination with Processing, as well as FL Studio and Flowstone for a real-time sound generation were chosen for the implementation.

Figure 3 depicts the interplay of the applied technologies. While the functional components “Musical Brain” and “Visualization & Interaction” are implemented entirely in Java, the component “Audio Generation” had to be split up into a Java part, a Flowstone part, and an FL Studio part. In general, Java provides abstract audio parameters via TCP to Flowstone which itself is embedded into FL Studio as a plug-in. Flowstone decodes the TCP messages and converts them into commands for FL Studio.

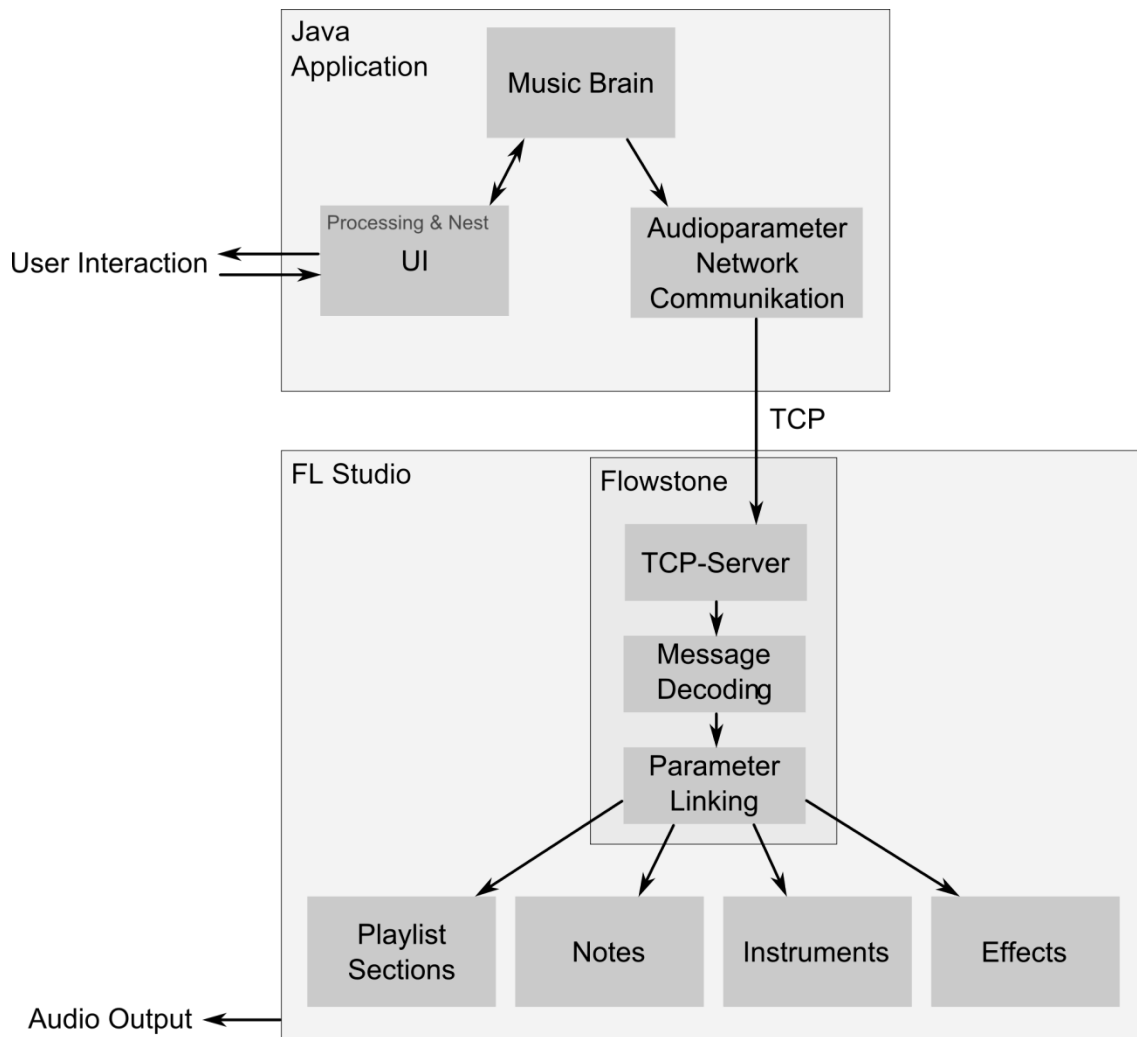


Figure 3: Implementation architecture

The usage of the network protocol TCP generally enables the distribution of the app onto two separate computers. This has been successfully tested and resulted in a marginally higher latency caused by the network communication.

Processing

With Processing one can either use the included IDE for developing an app, or its core library only is used in a regular Java project. Soundia was developed as a Java project since it allowed the inclusion of regular Java libraries and the use of the IDE Eclipse. Apart from the Java standard libraries the Processing library Nest was used in order to implement the UI with components as a scene graph.

FL Studio

With the digital workstation FL Studio it is possible to record music, generate music with synthesizers or add audio effects. This software tool was selected because of its large freedom in generating and manipulating synthetic sounds. Furthermore, it allows the change of notes in real-time that have been imported via Flowstone. Additionally, pieces of music can be partitioned with song markers which are used as jump targets. These markers are used in Soundia to delimit sound examples.

Flowstone

Flowstone is a visual programming environment that runs as a plug-in in FL Studio. It facilitates the generation and processing of audio, MIDI, and control data. A screenshot of the Flowstone interface can be seen in Figure 4 where the first layer of the audio generation is depicted.

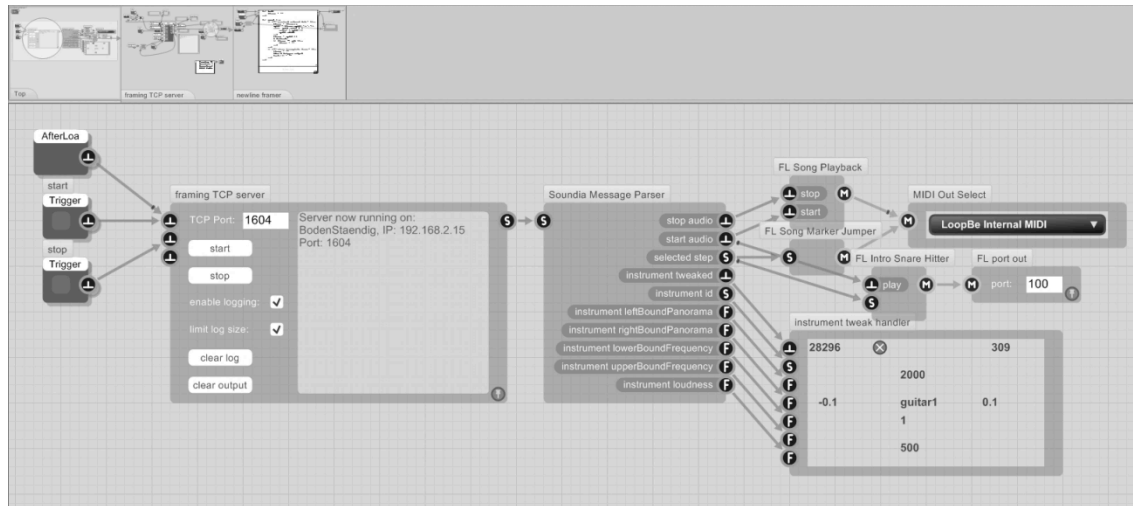


Figure 4: Screenshot of Flowstone showing the first layer of the audio generation

The plug-in for Flowstone offers a module for TCP communication and one for controlling FL Studio. With this it represents an interface between the abstract Java sound objects and the audible examples in FL Studio. Hence it provides means to jump between audio examples, to manipulate effects like echo, or to play and change MIDI notes.

Interfaces

Music Brain → UI

- show the start screen
- show the learning scenario
- jump to an explanation step within the scenario
- show the end screen

UI → Music Brain

- click the start button to start the learning scenario
- click the back button
- select an explanation step
- indicate the completion of a step
- transfer the position and range of each sound object after manipulation by the user

Music Brain → Audio parameter-network communication

- forward position and range of each sound object
- stop audio rendition
- select an explanation step to load the respective music example

Audio parameter-network communication → Flowstone

This interface transfers data via TCP with the Java application as client and Flowstone as server. TCP was chosen because it represents a standard communication between software components. Its advantage over UDP lies in the guaranteed correct transmission of data.

Soundia uses four types of messages. These are shown below with typical values:

- stopAudio
- startAudio
- selectStep=stepX
- instrumentParameters={instrumentId=instrumentX;leftBoundPanorama=1.0;rightBoundPanorama=1.0;lowerBoundFrequency=20;upperBoundFrequency=20000;loudness=1.0}

Flowstone → FL Studio

Flowstone translates the received messages into commands for FL Studio. The first three messages (start and stop of audio renditions, as well as jumps to song markers) are translated into MIDI messages. The changes of parameters of sound objects (fourth message type) are translated into FL Studio parameters.

Sound Parameters

For the prototype it was necessary to find acoustic representations of visually changeable parameters. According to Gruber's teaching concept arbitrary pieces of music are representable in "The Musical Space". This doesn't necessarily include that a certain visual representation results in a single acoustic representation. Therefore certain acoustic representations have been chosen for each interaction in the prototype. These affect the three dimension of "The Musical Space".

Dimension: Stereo Panorama

The pan parameter of the mixer has been associated with the movement of a sound object in the stereo panorama. This proved as simple and effective. The change of the width in the stereo panorama eventually was associated with a stereo separation effect which made the sound effectively seem wider or less wide.

Dimension: Pitch

It took a lot of research to make this dimension interactively changeable. In the prototype it has been solved by means of a real-time manipulation of MIDI notes.

Dimension: Offset in depth

Initially this parameter has been associated with the volume of the mixer only. The acoustic rendition could be improved by adding reverb. When the sound object is moved to the back, its volume is decreased and its reverb is increased simultaneously. This seemingly moves the sound object further away, even if there is only one object.

Visual Elements

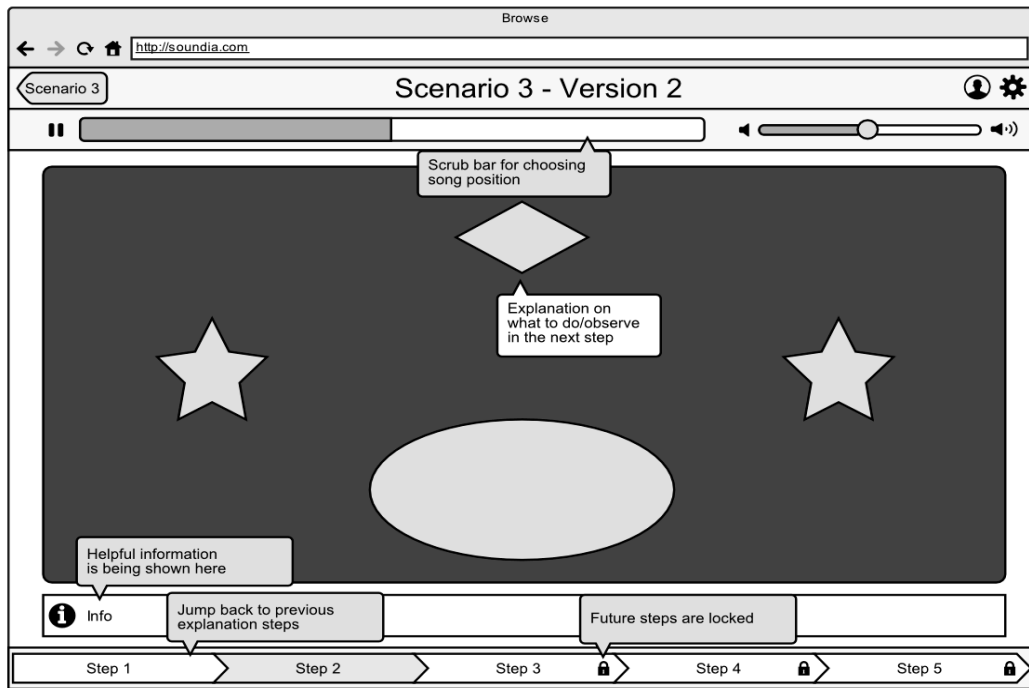


Figure 5: General UI concept, mock-up

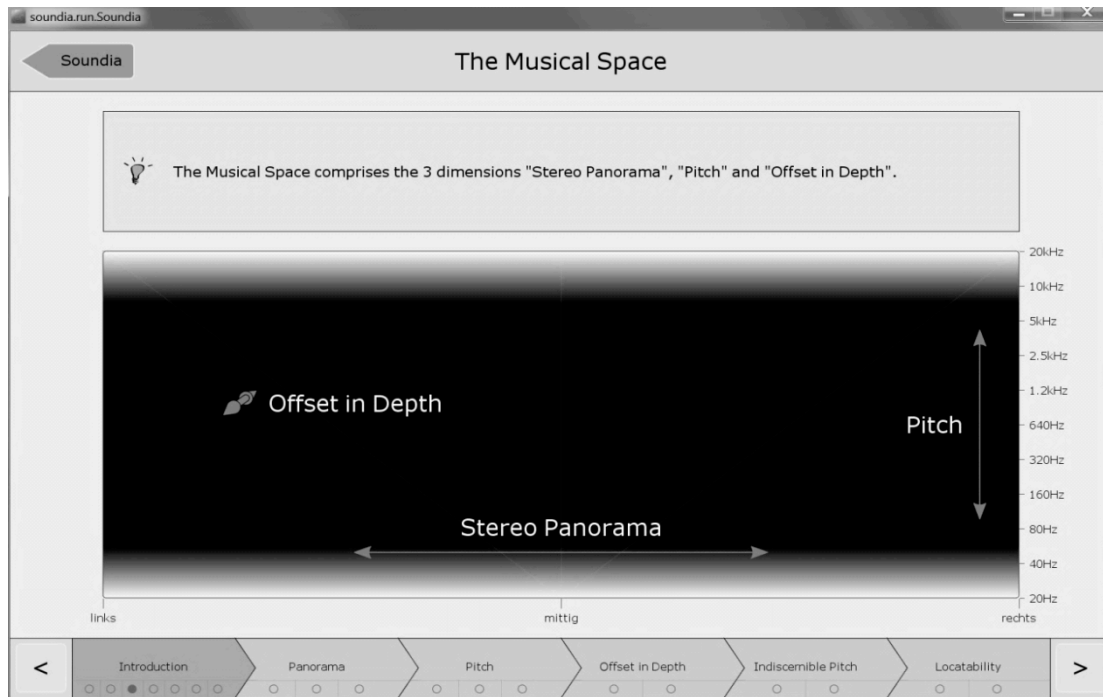


Figure 6: Visual representation of “The Musical Space” within SOUNDIA. Introduction of the three dimensions: pitch measured in Hertz, stereo panorama as in left/right, and offset in depth as in overlapping objects.

The interaction area is detailed in Figure 7. Special ranges at the top and the bottom are represented by a black-to-white gradient to mark it as an area of indiscernible pitch. Sound locatability in dependence of pitch is denoted via diagonal lines.

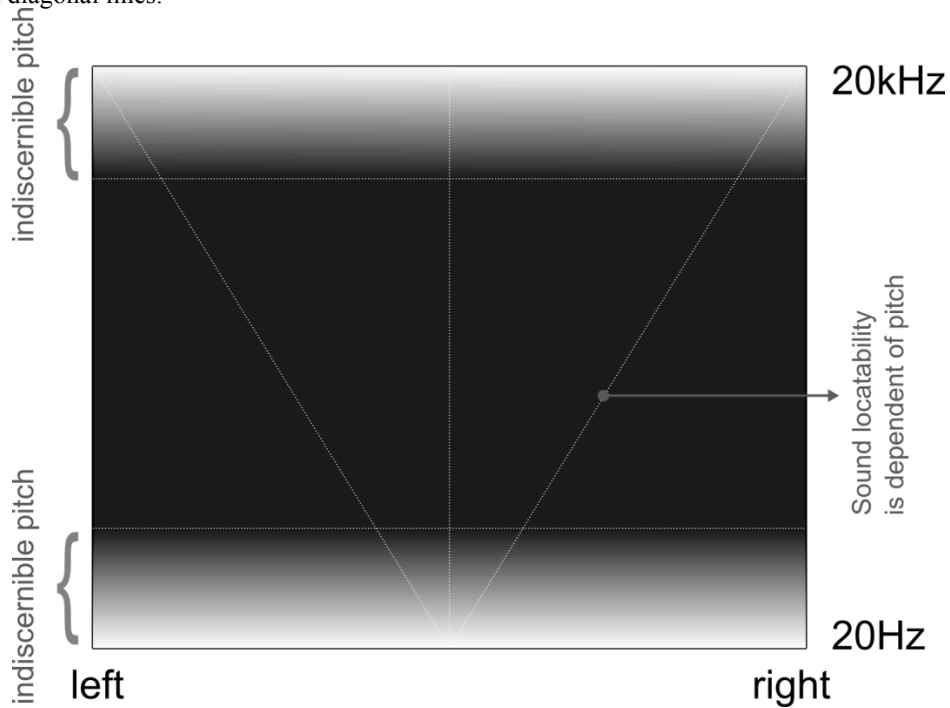


Figure 7: Special ranges in stereo panorama and pitch

In Figure 8 a top-down view on the 3D-space is shown. This visual concept was designed for a learning scenario other than the realized one, but it denotes how louder sounds can mask more quiet ones.

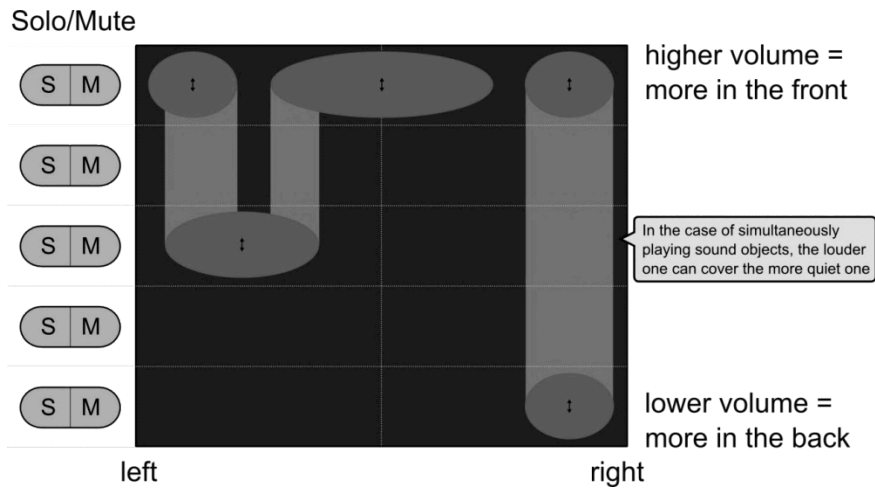


Figure 8: Offset in depth

Figure 9 shows the concept for a visual representation of sound object descriptions. For the prototype this was not employed, but it will be necessary for the realization of further scenarios.

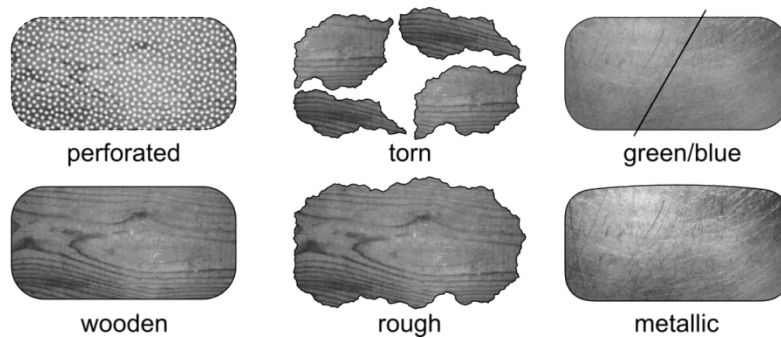


Figure 9: Representation of sound objects

EVALUATION

The evaluation was done with a group of eight test subjects with diverse educational background. After using the app the test persons were asked questions about the presented music theory and had to solve practical exercises. Their responses were all well-considered. It could be shown that the app is suited even for people without previous musical knowledge, and that it increased the interest in musical concepts. The test persons appreciated the possibility to interactively visualize music. They found the app instructive. The feedback also showed that for some parts visual representations should be improved. The representation for the offset in depth caused problems for some test persons. There is also a discrepancy between the musical impressions of a test person and the teaching concept, as could be seen with the locatability of low pitches. Furthermore, there is no visual representation for time in the prototype. It could be concluded that the interactive visualization proved to foster the understanding of musical correlations as intended. Another finding was that test subjects were pleased with the playful way to learn with this software, and were motivated to engage further in the learning contents.

CONCLUSION

The focus of this work was an interactive visualization of “The Musical Space” by means of a learning app. It could be shown that this app supports the comprehension of musical correlations as intended. Firstly, Gruber was interviewed to lay down his ideas of “The Musical Space”. Based on this interview, 14 learning goals could be derived. In order to devise a learning app, these goals were embedded into 28 scenarios. Additionally, an appropriate visualization and interaction concept was developed. In order to evaluate the approach, one of the scenarios was chosen to be implemented as a prototype. The evaluation was done with eight test persons. While it generally proved the usefulness of the app for the comprehension of “The Musical Space” and its teaching goals, it pointed out some problems and suggestions for improvement.

Inevitably, there is a limitation for any possible implementation: auditory impressions and imaginations happen on an individual basis. Therefore visualization can only be offered by way of choice. This could be seen in the variety of solutions to the practical exercises of the evaluation. Nevertheless, the app in general proved useful, especially since it offers new ways of looking at and listening to music. In summary, it can be concluded that an interactive implementation of Gruber’s music teaching concept is possible in a way that enhances the comprehension of the teaching goals.

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Pre-Service Mathematics Teachers' Misconceptions on the Mathematical Model Validation Process

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to determine the pre-service math teachers' misconceptions on model validation process, which has an important part of the mathematical modeling process. Participants of the study are 40 (7-groups) elementary pre-service math teachers. In order to identify the misconceptions on model validation process, considering the instructions about competence included in the modeling process, a model-eliciting activity was prepared. Pre-service math teachers were asked to create mathematical models to offering solutions to the problem, through a group work. Each group of processes for the model-eliciting activity was video recorded and misconceptions occurred to validation process was identified by monitoring the video records. As a result, it was determined that pre-service math teachers have "model can be validated by data which elicited the model", "it is enough to validate a model with a single data", "model which does not yield the exact result is wrong" misconceptions.

Keywords. Mathematical modeling, model validation, misconceptions.

INTRODUCTION

Since the mid 20th century, the aims of mathematics teaching have gradually turned towards meeting the needs of daily life. These new demands in the aims of mathematics teaching also affected the configuration of mathematics classes. These developments led to several regulations in mathematics classes. As a result of the regulations that were applied, innovations were made in curricula to raise individuals skilled in mathematical models and modelling. Emphasized by literature, mathematical modelling is a dynamic, circular, and repeating process that makes it easier for us to see problems in every aspect of life, discover them, express the relationships among them in mathematical terms, classify and generalize them and reach a conclusion. Individuals with the ability to successfully complete this process can look at incidents they face in daily life from a modelling perspective and solve problems with the help of mathematical modelling. Modelling is important because its integration into everyday life at school seems necessary regarding the aims of dealing with reality related problems in math classes (Maaß 2004, p.26, Blum and Niss 1991, p.42) and because modelling has not been integrated into day-to-day teaching practice so far (Maaß, 2006).

There are different approaches that describe the modelling process and cognitive activities of the main skills of this process (Berry & Houston, 1995; Blum, 1996; Blum & Kaiser, 1997; Blomhøj & Jensen, 2006; Borromeo-Ferri, 2006; Blum & Leiß, 2007; Cheng, 2010; Galbraith & Stillman, 2006; Galbraith, Stillman, Brown & Edwards, 2007; Siller & Greefrad, 2010). There are a number of common skills expected to emerge during the modelling process of these different classifications. Some examples of classifications carried out for skills expected to emerge in the modelling process are: Berry and Houston (1995) things to do in the modelling process 1) understanding the problem, 2) choosing variables, 3) eliciting the mathematical model, 4) solving the mathematical model, 5) interpreting the solution, 6) validating the model, 7) improving the model for other problems, 8) preparing a report showing the problem and its solution. Blomhøj and Jensen (2006) described the steps of the modelling process as; 1) formulation of task, 2) systematization, 3) mathematization, 4) mathematical analysis, 5) interpretation/evaluation, 6) validation. Blum and Leiß (2007) stated that seven skills that emerge in the modelling process as; 1) understanding the task, 2) simplifying/ structuring, 3) mathematizing, 4) working mathematically, 5) interpretation, 6) validation and 7) presenting. The modelling process explained by Blum (1996) is indicated by Figure 1.

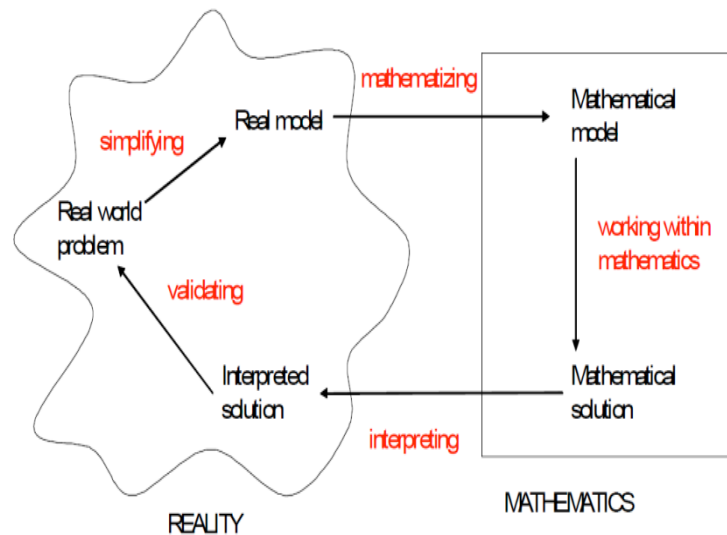


Fig. 1: Modelling Process (Blum, 1996, p.12)

If we want to model a real world problem, we must move between real world and mathematics world. The modelling process begins with realizing a real world problem. By *simplifying*, this problem you get a real model for this problem. The *mathematizing* of the real model leads to a mathematical model. By *working within mathematics* you can find a mathematical solution. This solution has to be *interpreted* first and then *validated* (Blum 1996). If the solution or the chosen process does not prove to be appropriate to reality, particular steps or maybe even the entire modelling process need to be worked through again (Maaß, 2006). Therefore, it is not sufficient to mathematize the real world problem but also to validate the mathematical results according to the real world problem.

When skills of different mathematical modelling processes are analyzed, it is noticed that one of the common steps is the validation step. This study focuses specially on the validation process that is expected to emerge during the modelling process. Validation process is “The process of determining the degree to which a model is an accurate representation of the real world from the perspective of the intended uses of the model (AIAA, 1998). When validating a model the differences between data and model predictions can be measured by graphical comparison, confidence intervals and statistical tests. Hypothesis tests are particularly useful in comparing distributions, variances or time series of model outputs to determine whether the model predictions are within an acceptable range of precision (URL-1). As can be understood, the validation process is crucial to a model. If your model yields wrong results for the real life problem, it is not possible for you to find a solution to the problem by using this model. In this context, it is important to identify and change the students’ misconceptions which emerged during the validation process in order to raise individuals who have modeling skills.

Only one research on identification of the students’ misconceptions about model validating was found (Maaß, 2006). This study demonstrated that students forgot to validate the results, and it was determined that students have four misconceptions on model validation.

- 1) Some students were of the opinion that the validation is always the same.

“Well, validating, it actually is important but I think it is not that important because it was the same in each task so far.” (student, 2nd interview, 7/11/02)

- 2) Some students had the impression that the validation represents a debasement of the modelling.

“Do we have to run down everything now again?” (question of a student in class, 4/22/02)

- 3) Some students thought that validating the result or “evaluating” was the same as giving a mark.

Statement of a student being asked for validation: “We couldn’t have done it better.” (student, 10/1/01)

“Evaluation: This will be good!” (student’s comment in an exam on the topic handy, 12/17/01)

4) Some students could not differ between interpretation and validation. (Maaß, 2006, p. 135)

The study conducted by Maaß (2006) focuses on the misconceptions of students about the “validation” concept rather than misconceptions students have during the model validation process. This study will focus on the misconceptions within the process of eliciting a model.

In order for the mathematics teaching style the center of which is doing mathematics and matematizing to become common, teachers must have sufficient competence in modelling. This is because teachers of the future will create a radical innovation. If teachers and pre-service teachers have sufficient mathematical modelling competence, they will probably try to equip student with the same competences. Thus, determining the pre-service teachers’ misconceptions during the modelling process is important to carry out work to eliminate these misconceptions. In sum, “The purpose of this study is to determine the pre-service math teachers’ misconceptions on model validation process, which has an important part of the mathematical modeling process”.

METHOD

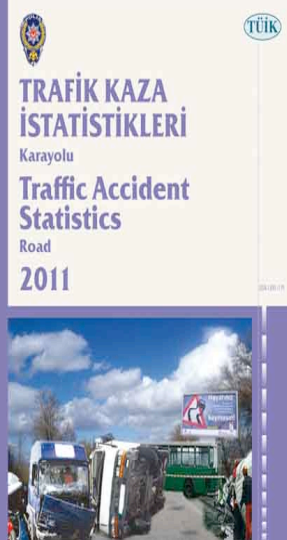
Since the study aims to summarize an existing situation, the case study, one of the descriptive research methods, was adopted. In accordance with this method, pre-service teacher were assigned to elicit a model, and existing situation was not interfered with when the misconceptions were identified.

Participants

Participants of the study are 40 (30 female, 10 male) elementary pre-service math teachers at the second year of their four-year mathematics teacher graduate program in Giresun University, Turkey The pre-service teacher that participated in the study are those out of 80 people in two sections who selected “basic concepts in mathematics” class. Pre-service teachers have experience in eliciting linear models for data sets composed of only two data pairs. However, they do not have experience in eliciting linear models for data sets comprised of more data.

Data Collection Tool

In order to identify the misconceptions on model validation process, considering the instructions about competence included in the modeling process, a model-eliciting activity was prepared. A pilot study, designed in accordance with the views of an expert in this domain, was conducted to test the suitability to clarify the modelling competence. As a result of the pilot study, necessary regulations were put into effect, and the activity took its final form. Besides, as a result of the pilot study, the amount of time to be given was determined. This activity aims to elicit a linear model and contains instructions for modelling competence expected to emerge in the modelling process.



TRAFİK KAZA İSTATİSTİKLERİ
Karayolu
Traffic Accident Statistics
Road
2011

EMNİYET GENEL MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ
General Directorate of Public Security

TÜRKİYE İSTATİSTİK KURUMU
Turkish Statistical Institute

STATISTICS ON TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS

Data on traffic accidents have been compiled by *Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK)* since 1955. *The purposes of collecting data on traffic accidents are* to produce statistics on accidents on by-roads and their consequences, enable international comparisons, obtain information that will shade light on measures that will be taken by decision makers, provide data for various research, and meet domestic and foreign information requests.

2006	72 974	17 586 179	728 755	96 128	4 633	169 080
2007	70 586	18 422 958	825 561	106 994	5 007	189 057
2008	71 517	19 377 790	950 120	104 212	4 236	184 468
2009	72 561	20 460 739	1 053 346	111 121	4 324	201 380
2010	73 723	21 548 381	1 106 201	116 804	4 045	211 496
2011	74 724	22 798 282	1 228 928	131 845	3 835	238 074

1.1 Nüfus, sürücü belgesi, kaza, ölü ve yaralı sayısı, 2002-2011

Number of driver licence, persons killed, persons injured, motor vehicles and population, 2002-2011

		Toplam - Total		
		Ölümlü, yaralanmalı		
Nüfus	Sürücü belgesi	kaza	Ölü	Yaralı
Population	olan kişi sayısı	Accidents	sayısı	sayısı
(Bin)	Number of persons	involving	Number of	Number of
(Thousand)	with driver licence	death and	persons	persons
		Toplam kaza		
		Total accidents	personal injury	killed
			injured	

Above are data on traffic accident statics prepared by Turkish Statistical Institution (TUIK) in 2011. It is expected that death toll of accidents that will happen in 2013 will be estimated, measures already taken will be evaluated to determine whether they are sufficient or not, and new measures will be taken if necessary. Elicit

a mathematical model that will determine the death toll of traffic accidents in 2013 and find if the existing measures are sufficient or not.

1. What are your assumptions to elicit a mathematical model?
2. What do you think the death toll of traffic accidents will be in 2013 based on your mathematical model?
3. Test whether the model you have elicited is correct by using real data.
4. Can your model be generalized? Or in which situations can it be generalized Explain.
5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of your models when compared to those of your friends?

What is expected of the pre-service teachers in model eliciting activity is that they should elicit the most suitable linear model. This study will solely focus on the model validation process. What is expected in the model validation process is that the students should compare the data they obtained based on the model they had elicited with real data. Furthermore, since the pre-service teachers were not educated in the model validation process, the pre-service teachers were not instructed to “validate the model.” Instead, they were asked to “test whether the model you have elicited is correct by using real data.

Implementation Process and Data Analysis

Pre-service teachers were asked to form groups of 4-5. Optional 7 groups were created. The model eliciting activity was given to groups. This implementation was carried out in class environment, with which the pre-service teachers are familiar, and it was conducted by the course instructor. Pre-service math teachers were asked to elicit mathematical models to offer solutions to the problem through group work. The pre-service teachers were given enough time to elicit a model. Each group of processes for the model-eliciting activity was video recorded and misconceptions occurred to validation process were identified by monitoring the video records. In case of failure to clearly understand in video records or determine what the misconception is, the pre-service teachers in the same group were brought together to debate on the validation process.

RESULTS

In this chapter, findings obtained and misconceptions during the model validation process will be presented qualitatively without considering the quantities. When videos of pre-service teachers’ model validation processes are analyzed, it was seen that they have three misconceptions, which are “model can be validated by data which elicited the model”, “it is enough to validate a model with a single data”, “model which does not yield the exact result is wrong“. In this section, misconceptions will be described by giving examples as to the operations done by the groups, which elicit the same linear model with the same data, in the validation process.

“Model can be validated by data which elicited the model” misconception:

Analysis of the pre-service teachers’ model validation process shows that some pre-service teachers prefer to test their model by using the data utilized to elicit the model. The pre-service teachers in the third group replied to the instruction “Test whether the model you have elicited is correct or not by using real data.” as such:

$$y = -279x + 564835$$

↓
2010

$$y = 4045 ✓$$

Operations carried out by Group 3 during the model validation process

Group 3 elicited a linear model by using data of 2009 and 2010. An analysis of the operations conducted by the pre-service teachers during the validation process demonstrates that they tested their models for the year 2010, tested the result with real data of 2010, and validated the model since they obtained the same result. An analysis of the video records of this process shows that there were such conversations among students in the group;

G3-A (Group 3-Pre-service teacher A): So, we will see if our model is correct.

G3-B: Alright, let's give a value for x. Write 2010.

... Above-mentioned processes are being carried out by G3-A ...

G3-B: What's the result?

G3-A: 4045. Let's take a look.

G3-B: You see, it is 4045. The model is correct.

When the video records were examined, no data were found as to whether the pre-service teachers picked 2010 by randomly or for a specific reason. In order to determine this, group members were brought together, and they were asked whether they had a special reason for choosing the year 2010. The pre-service teachers stated that they elicited the model based on data of 2009 and 2010, validated it based on data of 2009, yet they chose the year 2010. As seen here, the pre-service teachers have the misconception that they must use the data, which were previously utilized to elicit the model, to validate the model.

“It is enough to validate a model with a single data” misconception:

Analysis of the pre-service teachers' model validation process reveals that some of them think that testing the model with a known data is sufficient to validate the model. The pre-service teachers in the sixth group replied to the introduction “Test whether the model you have elicited is correct or not by using real data.” as such:

$$y = -279x + 564835$$

$$y = -279 \cdot 2011 + 564835$$

$$= 3766 \text{ bulduk} \rightarrow \text{Normalde } 3835$$

Yoklork olarak modelimiz dogrudur. 2011 yilini ele alalim;

Operations carried out by Group 3 during the model validation process

As in the case of group 3, the pre-service teachers in the sixth group elicited a linear model by using the data of 2009 and 2010 and stated that the model was correct by considering the year 2011. An analysis of the video records of this process shows that there were such conversations among students in the group:

G6-A: The pre-service teachers in the sixth group replied to the instruction, “Test whether the model you have elicited is correct or not by using real data.”

G6-B: Hmm... Let's take a look after giving a value.

G6-C: What value will we give?

G6-B: Does it matter?

After this conversation, the entire group concurred that they can make validation with any value and validated the model with a single data by choosing the year 2011. As seen here, the pre-service teachers in this group have the misconception that it is enough to validate a model with a single data.

“Model which does not yield the exact result is wrong” misconception:

Analysis of the pre-service teachers' model validation process reveals that some of them believe the model is wrong if the model they have elicited does not exactly yield a known data. The pre-service teachers in the fourth

group replied to the instruction “Test whether the model you have elicited is correct or not by using real data.” as such:

$$\begin{aligned}y &= 279x + 564835 \\y &= -279 \cdot 2011 + 564835 \\y &= 3766\end{aligned}$$

Operations carried out by Group 4 during the model validation process

As in the case of groups 3 and 6, group 4 elicited a linear model by using the data of 2009 and 2010 and tried to validate the model by considering the year 2011. The analysis of the video records of this process shows that there were such conversations among students in the group:

G4-A: *Sooo...It's 3766.*

....G4-B is checking the real data....

G4-B: *But it should be 3835????*

G4-A: *So it is wrong.*

G4-C: *Professor. But our model is wrong. What is going to happen now?*

As seen here, the pre-service teachers in this group think their model is wrong since it does not yield the real result. These students have the misconception that the model that does not yield the exact result is wrong.

CONCLUSIONS

In terms of the importance of validation for the model eliciting process, it is crucial for pre-service math teachers, who will raise students that have modeling competences, to have this competence. But as a result, it was determined that pre-service math teachers have “model can be validated by data which elicited the model”, “it is enough to validate a model with a single data”, “model which does not yield the exact result is wrong” misconceptions. In this context, when these misconceptions are considered, discussions are made at the end of validation processes, it can be attempted to make students capable of validation is “determining the degree to which a model is an accurate representation of the real world from the perspective of the intended uses of the model (AIAA, 1998)”

Also, competencies to validate the solution is include sub-competencies as following; competency • to critically check and reflect on found solutions; • to review some parts of the model or again go through the modelling process if solutions do not fit the situation; • to reflect on other ways of solving the problem or if solutions can be developed differently; • to generally question the model (Blum & Kaiser 1997, p.9). In this context, designing learning environments to equip pre-service teachers with sub-competence expected to arise in the validation process can be recommended.

In addition, this study focuses on the validation process, which is a part of the modelling process. Studies on processes that arise during the modelling process such as simplifying, mathematizing, working with mathematics, interpreting can be carried out. Considering outcome this studies, effective teacher training courses need to be developed which are connected to teachers' needs and add to their knowledge as well as support the necessary competencies and understandings.

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Too Much Talk

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Abstract

Talking is vital. It has an important role in personal growth. It allows us to make relationships with each other, to express our feelings moods and attitudes-in short, to express our personality. Talk is also crucial in enabling us to be fully functional members of a community (Barnes, 2008). The speech of our community may be reflected in our dialect, accent and expression but through talking and listening to others, we also learn about the social purposes of talk, the need to take turns listening to others we also learn about the social purposes of talk the need to take turns and the conventions of spoken etiquette and when it is appropriate to use our local dialect or to choose formal or informal language. Finally talk is essential to the development of thought.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

A great deal of school room learning is accompanied by talking. The questions that teachers and pupils ask and answer orally give insight into the progress of learning and into the types of learning which the teacher deems most important. With the impending curriculum in the UK emerging in 2014 the question of classroom talk is a major focus of this. Both the National Numeracy and Literacy Strategies have emphasised the importance of interactive whole class teaching whether ‘pupils are expected to play an active part by answering questions, contributing points to discussion and by explaining and demonstrating their methods and solutions to others in the class’ (DfES, 2014). The aim is to increase the quality of teaching and learning within the primary classroom in a way which engages and motivates pupils and demands active participation. English et al. (2002) argue that one of the aims behind the focus on ‘interactive whole class teaching’ is to reduce the extent to which teachers dominate discussions, since pupil participation has been linked to academic success in international competition. Alexander (2000) takes this further to suggest that ‘interactive whole class teaching’ is seen as ‘the X factor which would do for primary education in the UK what it has done for education and indeed economic performance in continental Europe and South –east Asia (Alexander 2000; 391).

To enhance the role of talk in developing learning requires interaction patterns which reduce the teacher’s role as orchestrator or controller of classroom talk, and instead reposition the teacher as an enabler of talk for thinking. Qugotsky’s belief (1972) that language is fundamental to the process of learning and upon the complex interplay of thought and language in shaping meaning is at the heart of any consideration of how classroom talk promotes learning. Talk is both ‘a medium for teaching and learning’ and ‘one of the materials form which a child constructs meaning’ (Edwards and Mercer, 1987, p.20); in other words, talk is not only a product which can be formally assessed (as in the English National Curriculum) but also a process, a tool for learning. Howe (1992) summarises this potential under three headings; formulation- the way talk can crystallise thought and shape ideas; reformulation-the way talk can clarify and focus ideas; communication-the way talk can be used to reflect upon learning. Togogg’s notion of guided participation offers an alternative discourse framework in which children’s interactions with others, including the teacher ‘assists children in their development by guiding their participation in relevant activities, helping them to adapt their understanding to new situations’ (1991, p.191). In a similar vein, Mercer (2000) sees teachers potentially as ‘discourse guides guiding children into ways of using language of thinking collectively’. Alexander (2004) has advocated the use of dialogic teaching which aims to be ‘more consistently searching and more genuinely active’ teaching. Alexander’s comparisons of pedagogy in primary education across Europe found that in many European cultures talk is used considerably more as a basis for learning than in the UK and ‘classroom talk is seen as mainly cognitive, whereas in England it tends to be seen as a primarily casual or affective (Alexander, 2004, p.15).

But what are the factors that influence the occurrence of effective interactive teaching in the classroom? And do we identify such factors within a research context?. Research on classroom discourse over the past three decades has been primarily concerned with how teachers and pupils use talk most effectively to construct meaning and

consequently, facilitate the acquisition of new knowledge (Barnes and Todd, 1995; Mercer, 1998, 1995). Emphasis has been placed on the 'dialogic' nature of the interaction where the learner and a more knowledgeable adult/peer actively attempt to interpret the meaning of each other's words (Wells 1999) and the teacher's use of less controlled communicative strategies which allow pupils the freedom to explore ideas (Brierly et al., 1992). But what do we mean when we talk about the promotion of talk in classroom? how are we as teachers influencing talk in the classroom from home?

From home to school

By the time children arrive in school most are accomplished talkers. Immersed in a language-using community, they will have participated in rich everyday conversations with many different people and have used talk to communicate their needs and to make sense of the world around them. In everyday situations at home, talk between parent and child is characterised by immediate interest and need and is in essence a shared dialogue. For many children entering a class, one of the most difficult accomplishments is to make sense of classroom talk. Being asked to reply to your name in the register, seeking permission to go to the toilet and having to respond to various questions. Very quickly it appears, children grasp the subtle rules that govern talk in the classroom. In the study by Mary Willes (1983) of young children entering reception class, it became apparent that mastering the discourse patterns of the setting was an important requirement of fulfilling their role as pupils. Indeed, even on their first day, Willes memorably describes children's learning about the rules of listening to a story. Increasingly in the last two decades there has been a greater awareness of the cultural capital that children bring to school and the need to ensure that children have plenty of opportunities to talk with adults and their peers. Classrooms are generally characterised as places where talk, both teacher and child-led, is valued with a marked encouragement for children to explore ideas, speculate, analyse and criticise. However, there is still plenty of evidence to suggest that there remains a marked inequality in the extent which different children participate in classroom discussions. In a recent project by Myhill (2002) early observations of classes suggested that it was the high achievers who were more likely to participate in whole class discussion than low achievers and that girls were more likely to participate than boys. The off task behaviour and shouting out that was characteristic of many boys and low achievers began in Year 2 and continued into Year 6. The other main finding that came from this initial observation was that there was very little talk initiated by children.

The teachers Role

To develop children as speakers an ethos needs to be established where children feel secure and free to talk without being judged. Teachers need to acknowledge and value the language that children bring to school and this included not just the languages of children of different nationalities but the variety of accents and dialects of our own language. Through what teachers say or how they respond children develop a sense of how they are valued as speakers. This focus on building respectful relationships is crucially important in the early years as it provides the basis for genuinely mutual conversations between children and adults and between children and children. Classrooms where sustained shared thinking dialogue can take place are created by the way teachers converse with children. We need to listen very carefully to what children say and build on their contributions by commenting or reflecting or adding information as well as by asking questions. What children says is at the heart of the conversation about learning and teachers need to convey that message through their own part in the conversation.

It is important to plan real reasons for talking. Where conversation arise out of shared activity there is the opportunity for children to be involved in meaningful dialogue which develops and extends thought. In the best early years practice the potential of activities such as cooking gardening and building offer opportunities for many different types of thoughtful talk between adults and children including sorting, ordering, speculation and planning. One of the most important things that teachers can do to develop the quality of children's talk in the class is to make explicit the kinds of talk they want children to use. These include the eleven different kinds of learning talk identified by Robin Alexander (2001) in *Culture and Pedagogy*

- Narrate
- Explain
- Instruct
- Ask different kinds of questions
- Perceive build upon answers
- Analyse problems

- Specialise and imagine
- Explore and evaluate ideas
- Discuss
- Argue or defend a position
- Negotiate.

The challenge is how best to consider how best to set the conditions for these different kinds of talk to arise and develop.

Another important aspect of the teacher's role is to help children to use talk to think together in groups. Inspired by Douglas Barnes's (1976) classroom-based research on how productive group discussion can contribute not only to the development of children's language and reasoning skills but also their individual learning, Dawes et al. (2000) have devised practical research-based guidelines designed to teach children explicitly how to use exploratory forms of talk, such talk requires children not only to use language to explore ideas and possibilities, share information and give reasons for their viewpoint but also to constructively and respectfully, engage critically with each other's ideas to ensure that all possible insights inform final agreement. However, children need to be supported in establishing ground rules for talk and teachers need to actively model how to talk effectively in groups. The value of talking partners cannot be overestimated in introducing this kind of work. Indeed, the pair may be the essential context for the majority of child-to-child talk, having an explicit set of rules for group talk enables children to self-regulate their talk while sometimes it can be useful to assign key roles to individuals in groups in order to focus more on cooperation between members of a group. Alongside rules. Children should hear and experience what exploratory talk means and learn to use the affordances of dialogic talk.

Discussion

This paper, looked principally on classroom interactions, and in particular focusing on talk for learning. One factor influencing this apparent issue in education is the pattern of teachers' talk, this may be that teachers feel a need to be in control of the discourse. In his study of questioning in an early years setting, Allerton (1993) suggests that closed questioning 'allows the teacher to retain control of interactions' (1993, P.48). By contrast, he found that children's responses to open questions were longer, more divergent and more likely to be controlled by the child. One impact of national strategies which outline in detail curriculum objective for each year of primary education is that teachers are very focused upon their teaching objectives for each lesson and are anxious to cover curriculum requirements. This can lead to a reluctance to relinquish control for fear that curriculum objectives are not met. All too often, however, with the teacher in clear control of the talk domain interaction is reduced to teacher talk with 'gaps into which the students can insert responses' (Francis, 2002, p.29). As a consequence, whole class teaching is constructed principally around the teacher's agenda, and is more concerned with talk for teaching, than talk for learning.

Perhaps as a consequence of this desire to retain control, the question remains the principal initiator of a discourse sequence in the classroom despite the considerable range of other verbal, non-verbal paralinguistic forms which frequently initiate discourse in other social situations. In terms of promoting constructive environments for the construction of meaning or understanding, factual or closed questions often act as inhibitors which 'generate relatively silent children' (Wood, 1988), the more questions teachers ask, the less children say.

Talk is essential to learning and needs to be taught. Teachers need to take into account the richness of talk to build on it rather than ignore it. Language and talk are interconnected. How teachers plan for talk across the curriculum have a significant impact on children's social cultural and cognitive development. Language through talk is both serious and celebratory.

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Oriental Languages Taught in Europe. The Analysis of the Higher Education Teaching System of Chinese

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Abstract

Nowadays, we witness changing trends in terms of the interest in language learning. In Poland, more and more higher education establishments, not only public, but also private, introduce various types of majors concerning oriental languages, such as Chinese translation programmes.

The aim of this paper is to compare the Chinese learning process in China and in Poland. In the first part, a comparative outline of both types of learning processes will be introduced, on the base of author's few years of experience gained while teaching and studying in both of those countries. Furthermore, the author will investigate the results of teaching Chinese in Poland, a place of very few Chinese native speakers, as compared to teaching Chinese in the mainland of China. In the end, the proposals on what to do to improve the Chinese learning system in non-Chinese speaking countries will be introduced.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Due to the globalization, the amount of multilingual people all over the world grows rapidly. Soon, the multilingualism will be treated as a global norm (Chłopek, 2011:35). Reasons for learning languages are numerous, however, trends in teaching and learning languages change mainly depending on the geopolitical situation all over the world. In the 50's no one in the Middle and Eastern Europe would think that English might be world's most popular language used as a medium for communication across cultures and continents, not only during business meetings but also in day-to-day conversation. Such situations have a great impact on establishments of higher education, such as universities. In 1973, the University of Silesia in Poland opened its Institute of English, in the city of Sosnowiec. Students from all over the world came to this department to learn languages. They could choose various majors such as for instance: culture of English speaking countries, history of English language, teaching English major, and finally, translation programme. (Barciak, 2008:225). That was a great step into the future of Silesia, a district in the Southern part of Poland, a country of a very complicated history. With time, more and more languages became in vogue, and they were added to the language modules at the Institute of English, for instance English translation programme with German.

Although at that time English was still the language of mass communication worldwide, Chinese started to become more and more in vogue. Its popularity was due to the so called 改革开放, meaning: The Open Door Policy in 1978. China opened its borders to foreigners, investors, businessmen, students, and other people willing to cooperate. And although China was quite relentless at the beginning we can now see that from the economic perspective it has made a huge impact on the entire world. What is more, that was also a major step into the future importance of the Chinese language education (Shang-Jin Wei, 1995: 74). This situation found its results in 2006, when the Institute of English Department (with prof. J. Arabski leading the proceedings) opened its first group of English translation programme with Chinese. By that time, we could witness slowly changing trends in Poland, as far as the interests in languages were concerned. There were numerous establishments taken over by Chinese investors, numerous business areas were created where Chinese investors invested their money, the best example is established in 2010 - **Silesia Chinese Center Jaworzno, and many others**. That was a great opportunity for young scholars seeking for well paid jobs working as for instance translators in multinational companies. The new major became a success. In 2006, it was the only such major in Poland. Of course, there were Chinese studies in other universities and Confucius Institutes across Poland, but none of them was even remotely similar to the major created by the Institute of English. Over the years, this programme "has grown from one group up to five groups, and the amount of students willing to apply during the next recruitment in

2013 is still growing” (HSS 2012). “It has been researched that the Chinese translation programme was the most wanted major at the University of Silesia in 2012” and as it later turned out also in 2013 (Bańka, 2013: 134).

In this article, the main focus will be put into the comparative analysis of the Chinese learning process in China and in Poland. At first, the introduction to Chinese language and the learning process in general will be introduced, in order to raise up the awareness of the complex task students/ teachers have to deal with in order to learn/teach this language. Later on, the subject of the research will be examined, namely the students, studying in Poland and in China, and the Chinese teachers of Polish and Chinese origin. This will enable us to fully comprehend the ongoing learning process. Following, I will try to compare both language environments, and finally teaching materials, methods and strategies used during class. After the comparative analysis, I will focus on finding the points which need to be highlighted and I will try introducing ideas on what is needed to be done to improve the Chinese learning system in non-Chinese speaking countries, such as Poland.

It is believed that the conclusions of this research will introduce a new perspective to the Chinese language acquisition, and that will help improving Chinese language learning systems in non-native Chinese countries. There have been various attempts of researching the field of Chinese language acquisition, however, this field is still quite new in Poland, thus, I believe this research will bring a fresh eye on the subject. The secondary goal is to highlight the importance of language learning and to rise up people’s awareness about the complexity of the oriental languages learning process, such as Chinese.

Literature review and Method

In this article, I will base my findings on few years of experience I have gained at the universities, both being a student, and later on working as a teacher. I believe, that this experience will help me to understand students and teachers from the practical point of view, creating a bond in understanding the processes which occur in the field of language acquisition.

In addition, I will use pieces of information of public documents, such as the Chinese module syllabus for the University of Silesia translation programme students created by the teaches, lecturers, and coordinators of particular modules, and also a “Multinational Chinese Language Teaching Programme” published by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press for a Chinese organization popularizing Chinese worldwide, called HanBan (汉办).

Textbooks analyzed for the purposes of this article were published by Beijing Language and Culture University Press in 2007, and are called “Hanyu Jiaocheng”. It is a second edition of a series of textbooks devoted to English speaking Chinese students on various Chinese levels of education. The reason why those textbooks are used most often all over the world is because they have the biggest amount of various textbooks devoted to all the Chinese module components, such as: listening, reading, writing, comprehension, speaking and translation. Because of the fact that in this article the teaching methods of the 1st year Chinese translation programme are being investigated, the textbook Hanyu Jiaocheng vol.1 and vol.2 (汉语教程第一册上和汉语教程第一册下) are being used as a research data. Full reference to the textbooks, “Multinational Chinese Language Teaching Programme” can be found in research material reference at the end of the article.

Methods used in this article are based on written notion introduced in the above mentioned textbooks, and the “Multinational Chinese Language Teaching Programme”, but also on a real-life experience gained over a few years of teaching Chinese at various Polish universities. Most of the research is based on an observation of class teaching systems, teacher-oriented learning, and also student-oriented learning in both Poland and China. For the purposes of the research, I have visited Shanghai Normal University in China, where I took part in Chinese class performed by Chinese teachers. Additionally, I took part in various international discussions and conferences about Chinese teaching systems both in China, Shanghai and in Poland, what helped me to collect necessary data for the further research. Apart from the observation method, a comparative analysis of Chinese teaching systems in Poland and China are being researched using the collected data.

Research

Chinese, 汉语, language of the population of Hans – indigenous Chinese. It is a very different, and much older, language than the Indo-European languages. At first sight, it is just a compilation of little “houses”,

“strokes”, “pictures”, or “paintings”. However, it is much more than that. In the past, characters were indeed pictograms, that underwent series of changes, in order to look the way they look today. And everything has its own agenda, each character has its own unique history. But Chinese is not only about the characters, they have their own phonological equivalents, called “pinyin”. It was introduced for the first time in the People’s Republic of China in 1958, and later on in 1982 was claimed by ISO an international standard phonetic version of Chinese pronunciation (Wu Zhongwei, 2010:10). What is even more unique about Chinese comparing to any other language, is the fact that it is a tonal language. It has 4 major tones that are written above certain vowels in “pinyin” according to a meaning of a particular character. Each tone may change the meaning of a word, e.g. “八” - bā – means: “eight”, “拔” -bá- means: “to pull up”, “把” – bǎ- means: “to hold in one’s hand”, and “爸” - bà – means: “father” (Yue, A. O. 2003). Each word is a syllable, or a set of syllables combined together creating another word, e.g. “火” -huǒ- means: “fire” and „车” -chē- means: “a vehicle”, those two words combined together give us: “火车” - huǒ chē- namely: “a train”. In the past, the trains indeed used fire to power up the engines. Fascinating.

Due to the changing language learning direction towards learning Chinese, from a very hermetic teaching, only in the mainland of China, there has been a great progress in creating facilities teaching Chinese worldwide, also in Poland (Xu Lin, 2010:II). Thus, Chinese language teaching programmes had to be created. However, due to the fact that it is still a fresh research, especially in Poland, there are lots of elements that need to be fixed . At first, the question about the reason for which students have decided to learn Chinese should be brought up. Usually, it is due to increasing difficulty in finding well-paid jobs, enabling people to pursuit lifelong happiness. Some, treat it as a kind of personal issue, they want to check if they are able to learn one of the most difficult languages all over the world, although some say Chinese is not the most difficult language on Earth. Some people say it is Polish that thought to be the most difficult one. And others, treat it as a hobby, and learn Chinese with pleasure and joy.

The analysis of learning skills in Chinese language learning

While assessing the Chinese teaching programmes, we have to understand the difficulties students have to go through during the process of Chinese language learning. All of the learning skills take active part in the learning process, namely the ability to: read, write, listen and speak (Xu Lin, 2010:III). It is obvious, but, in terms of learning such oriental languages like Chinese, it gets more complicated. While reading, students have to be familiar not only with the visual form of the character, but also with its phonetic equivalent in “pinyin” in order to know how to read it. Then, the meaning needs to come to mind, and finally the understanding of a phrase or text that have just been read. As we can see, the process is much more complicated than in the other languages. In writing, in Chinese, the characters have individual stroke order which needs to be followed, apart from that “pinyin” and the tone placed above it are also parts of a word and need to be learned, thus the writing process is also very complex. Listening is as much complicated as in any other foreign language, the only difficulty what may be a more serious constraint while learning process are the tasks written in Chinese characters instead of a phonetic alphabet that we, people using Latin script on a regular basis, are so familiar with. That needs more time to get used to. Speaking is a yet another difficult learning skill in terms of learning Chinese, because apart from pronouncing the words, phrases, sentences and statements appropriately, students have to remember about the tones, which sometimes can cause a lot of problems, often creating misunderstandings in communication. All in all, learning Chinese is like learning two separate languages at the same time, one being a Latin language – with the study of “pinyin”, and the other one concerning learning Chinese characters and the technicalities connected with them.

The Student

After obtaining such knowledge, we can finally move to the process of presenting the object of the research, namely students. During my research I was investigating learning process among two groups of students. The first group consisted of 20 Polish students studying in Poland. All of them being a 1st year English-Chinese translation major students. Second group, consisted of 15 students studying at the Shanghai University in China. The students were of various origin, however, all of them were native speakers of Indo European languages.

In both situations, students have not had any earlier experience with Chinese. They came to the university to study Chinese not knowing any specific details about the language, culture, history, etc. Some of them read

certain articles on what to expect, but these were only few. Apart from that, they did not know whether they had predispositions to learn such a difficult language, because of the lack of experience, even those students that have decided to travel all the way to China to study Chinese. Some, treated it as a journey of a lifetime, without any serious plans for the future, but some were persistent in achieving their goals, and these students have got the best results in the overall result of the research.

In order to learn Chinese, certain skills have to be well developed. It is very useful to have a photographic memory and good imagination, because characters are like pictures, you look at them and see stories, sometimes teachers introduce real explanations of the genesis of particular characters, like in terms of the previously mentioned character “火” meaning: “fire” – it is a person waving hands frightened because of the fire. Sometimes, however, students having good imagination, can make up their own stories, like in the case of the word “困” meaning: “sleepy” – where there is a human being lying down in bed, because s/he is very tired after a long day at work.

Apart from previously mentioned skills, it is good when the student is observant and patient, when s/he puts attention to details. Writing characters is a process of writing stroke after stroke in an appropriate order, a very tiresome work. Sometimes one stroke can make a difference in the word meaning, thus it is necessary to be very careful and precise while writing, e.g. “大” means: “big”, whereas “太” means: “too much”. There is only one small point at the bottom-left side of the second character and it already changes the meaning so much.

What is more, good memory and persistence in continuous character practice are skills very much welcomed in learning Chinese. There are over 6000 characters in Chinese, each different and unique. And although you do not have to learn that many, because 3000 is simply enough, you still have those three thousand characters that you have to memorize. It is not enough, to write them down a few times. We have to remember, that while learning characters we learn their “pictures”, stroke order, phonetic equivalents (“pinyin”), the tones, and the meanings. Five things to remember, definitely, good memory needed, and strong will not to give up.

The teacher

Teacher is a medium between the students and the language. S/he plays a significant role in the process of learning, thus it is necessary for him/her to be well educated not only in the case of language teaching but also in terms of communicative skills. S/he has to be well equipped in certain tools such as: not only teaching skills, but also learning skills. We learn all our lives, it is necessary to never stop learning. Communication tools are needed in order to know how to get through to even the most introverted students. What is more, the ability to listen to student’s wishes, problems, remarks is of a great importance. People not having such tools and the devotion to the job, should think twice before choosing such a career.

Chinese teachers.

As far as the Chinese teachers are concerned, we have to compare two types of university teachers: of Polish and Chinese origin. Each of them has advantages over the other in certain aspects. Let’s discuss a teacher of a Chinese origin first – a native speaker. A person who is most definitely the best and most suitable person for the job. With excellent accent, great grammar preparation and all the necessary skills to teach Chinese. But is it really? It is not enough to just be born in a country around the language that s/he is going to teach. At this point we would have to ask ourselves, as native speakers of our own languages: “Am I able to teach my mother tongue? Am I qualified enough? Do I have what it takes?” I believe that in most of the situations we would say: “No.”. Personally, I tried to teach Polish to Chinese students, it is very, very difficult, but that is a slightly more complicated issue that we have no time for.

What is more, there are 56 ethnic groups in China, over 100 dialects (Kaźmierczak, Ł.: 2003). Students across the world are usually willing to learn Standard Mandarin Chinese, but there is a great chance that the teachers do not speak with a proper standard Mandarin accent. Some teachers, especially those from the South of China, speak Mandarin having problems with such sounds as: “ji”, “qi”, “xi” and “zi”, “ci”, “si” pronouncing “ji” and “zi”, “qi” and “ci”, “xi” and “si” as: “zi”, “ci”, “si”. That is something that should not happen, such teachers should take a better care of their pronunciation.

Of course, Chinese native speakers are still most suitable for all of the oral exercises and other spoken modules in the Chinese learning process. However, in my opinion, they should be evaluated more precisely before going abroad. Another issue worth mentioning is Chinese teachers' poor English level of communication. It is crucial especially when they decide to go abroad to teach. A great deal of Chinese teachers sent by the Embassy to Poland have poor English skills, thus there are technical problems for the university office workers to communicate with them on a regular basis. Not to mention, of course, poor communication with the students, especially of A1 level. That is a very important problem that needs to be solved. The thing is, that university never knows who the Embassy is going to send to work as a Chinese teacher. There are certain standards, but is it enough? From what I have seen, no it is not.

However, there are also some great Chinese teachers, who inspire people to do more, to learn better, who make learning Chinese a piece of cake. It is true, that from all the teachers I have had a pleasure to work with, I can count such teachers on fingers of one hand, but it still gives me hope.

Polish teachers.

As far as Chinese teachers of Polish origin are concerned, they are of a great help especially during A1, A2 and B1 level of education (B2 and the higher levels of Chinese language class should be taught only by Chinese native speakers). Since their mother tongue is the language students speak in, it is easy for them to introduce grammar points, comparing them to Polish examples. There are only few Chinese who can speak good Polish. It is crucial, though, that the teachers are well educated in the case of grammar and other elements, because otherwise, they could complicate the process of Chinese acquisition, introducing wrong data to the students. Most of Polish teachers of Chinese will never speak as well as Native speakers, thus Chinese teachers are most preferable to teach Speaking and Listening. However, Polish teachers' advantage over Chinese teachers is that they perfectly know Polish, thus, they can explain certain issues, situations, rules, not only in terms of grammar, but also in terms of phonetics, phonology, and syntax, comparing them with student's mother tongue. The well known problem about Polish teachers teaching Chinese is, that there are only few such teachers in Poland. Chinese is not a new language, but as I mentioned before it has gained popularity in Poland only few year ago, thus there is still some time needed for creating a group of well prepared teachers willing to show what they have learnt about Chinese.

Teaching strategies and the advantages and disadvantages of both

As we can see the table below, I have created a list of topics concerning general information about the two groups of students in question, and the advantages and disadvantages they go through while learning Chinese. I have decided to focus on a comparative analysis of materials used in the classroom, examination process and strategies used in order to learn all of the necessary elements of Chinese language. Both systems have their advantages and disadvantages. The aim of this research is not about telling which system is better, but about what to do to improve the Polish learning system of Chinese to make it more efficient. Although I have enlisted a vast list of differences (knowing that there are much more worth mentioning), I will focus on the most significant, to me, to point out.

Chinese learning at the University of Silesia, Poland	Chinese learning at the Shanghai Normal University, China
GENERAL	
180 hours a semester	360 hours a semester
Chinese and English study	Chinese study
20-35 students in a group	15-25 students in a group
One language family students	Multinational group – multilingual group
Poor language environment	Great language environment
Listening exercises only in class - Teachers only medium with the language	Great listening exercise - possibility of listening to various native speakers (dialects, language manners)
Scarce amount of outside sources	A lot of outside sources
Scarce amount of a lot of native speakers	A lot of native speakers
Lack of culture related notion outside the classroom	Learning culture related notion friendly
Only Indoors activities	Indoors activities
No outdoors activities	Outdoors activities
Poor artistic sources: song, music, theatre etc.	A lot of artistic sources: song, music, theatre etc.

Teacher-centered	Learner-centered
Class materials	
Poor accessibility to the textbooks	Great accessibility to the textbooks
Still a poor amount of audiovisual sources	A lot of audiovisual sources
Class language	
Polish, English and Chinese	Only Chinese
Textbook	
Hanyu Jiaocheng Vol.1 – one semester and 2-3 weeks of a new semester	Hanyu jiaocheng vol.1 – half of the first semester Hanyu Jiaocheng Vol.2 – the other half of the semester and 2-3 weeks of a new semester
Listening to the recordings	
At home, usually no time during class	At home and during class
Reading dialogues	
- Out loud during class - At home - poor	- Out loud during class - At home – mandatory
Learning vocabulary	
- Reading out loud - Learning by means of collocations - Mental map - Learning stroke order - Imaginative memorizing - Creating stories with characters	- Reading out loud vocabulary - Learning stroke order - Learning by heart - Writing lots of times
Learning grammar points	
- well prepared grammar points followed by lots of examples - compared to Polish – student’s mother tongue	- well prepared grammar points followed by lots of examples
Memorizing characters	
- stroke order - while reading texts - association memorization - creating stories with characters	- stroke order - while reading texts - robot like memorizing – by heart
Examination	
- homework- usually every class - dictations -each week on each module - end of semester exam - grammar tests - final exam	- homework- every class - dictations -each week on each module - end of semester exam - grammar tests - final exam
Classroom activities	
- speaking, reading, writing, listening - watching movies - power point presentations	- speaking, reading, writing, listening - singing songs - performing dialogues – acting in front of a classroom - watching movies - power point presentations - other audiovisual sources
MEANS OF LEARNING	
Repetition	
obligatory	Mandatory, before and after the class
Review lessons	
obligatory	Mandatory
Preview the following lesson material	
obligatory	Mandatory
Memorizing / learning by heart	
- Method used from time to time, - concentration on fixed phrases and culture oriented elements	Constantly used method
Logical thinking	
Quite good level	Poor level
Open-minded learning	
Quite good level	Poor level
Communication directed	
- communication oriented - dialogue like exercises	- more textbook shaped conversation - lack of individual thinking

Table 1.Chinese learning process in China and in Poland – a comparative analysis.

At a first glance, we can see that the amount of Chinese class in China is 360 hours a semester, whereas in Poland it is only half of that time, and because of that, the pace of learning is slower and less effective. Students have Chinese lessons only three times a week leaving space for English lessons (since it is an English-Chinese translation major), whereas in China they learn Chinese everyday for a reasonable amount of time, thus, the textbook Hanyu Jiaocheng Vol. 1 and Vol.2 are nearly finished, whereas in Poland during the first semester it

often happens, that due to some holidays and other situations which cause class cancelling, the Hanyu Jiaocheng Vol.1 book is not even finished during the first semester.

Another problem about learning in Poland is that there is a poor language environment. Students have very little outside sources to learn Chinese, and if they try to use the internet sources, usually the material is too advanced for them to comprehend, especially during A1 and A2 education process. At the beginning, the only medium to Chinese is the teacher. A1 and A2 students' Chinese level is too poor to use the internet to read articles, newspapers, or feel free while surfing through Chinese websites, and the only thing they see are blurry pages, full of complicated characters. Their abilities of getting scholarships are still limited, however, that changes rapidly. In 2006 only one person at the University of Silesia got the scholarship to go to China, now about 5-6 students receive scholarships annually and that amount of people is still growing.

Apart from a casual teaching/ learning of speaking, reading, writing, and listening modules, there are also other things to be taught such as: culture-oriented and history-oriented pieces of information. In Poland the disadvantage is that such activities cannot take place outdoors, in museums, tea houses, or Chinese restaurants, because there are no outside sources enabling us, teachers, to make the lessons more suitable for the students and easier to understand, and even if there were, there is not enough time for that. We have to be aware that A1 level students learn Chinese language from a scratch. They need all of those additional sources in order to fully comprehend the process of learning Chinese. However, audiovisual and other materials making the class more interesting are not yet to be found in Poland. There are only 5 Confucius Institutes in Poland, that have certain amount of interesting materials that can be used for the learning purposes, however, usually they are just Vol. 1 and there is no continuant version of Vol. 2, etc. thus, what is the point of learning from something that after 100 pages will have no continuation. All in all, there are only few sources we can use during the class and all the other sources, like power point presentations, etc. have to be prepared by the teachers themselves. It is very time consuming, thus, lots of teachers just do not do it.

Polish university students are relentless to singing songs, listening to Chinese pop music, performing in front of their classmates. They prefer sitting down and listening to the teacher's monologue, thus sometimes teaching in Poland is too much teacher-oriented. Simply speaking, students are lazy, not willing to make too much effort in order to make lessons more interesting. But that is something we, teachers, cannot change. We cannot make adults do something they are not willing to do.

It is important to notice that although Chinese learning method is learner-oriented, and that most of the time the class language is only Chinese, what creates a great language experience, the teachers require students to learn dialogues by heart, memorizing characters in a robot-like way – writing each word a hundred times. Those kind of activities do not teach how to remember better, they do not teach logical thinking, nor improving our language skills or senses. And, most importantly, they do not help us using vocabulary and phrases in real life situations. In China, 95% of students study only for the tests, for the results, without logical thinking, without any display of free will and random conversation practice. Just memorizing-passing-forgetting. Polish learning system is based on communication, because what is the goal of learning languages? To communicate across cultures and continents.

The other thing is that Chinese teachers are usually very easy going, in order to have good relations with their students. Thus, students learning in China are getting more and more lazy and often use the fact that they are "foreigners" to skip class, talk in English with their teachers or persuade them with their charm not to organize tests. But there are also strict teachers following the class curriculum. In Poland, however, the teachers are too strict. The syllabuses for each Chinese component are very precise, thus we have to follow the rules and organize class time the way which would enable us to cover the entire material, even though some class are cancelled due to the previously mentioned factors. It concerns both, Polish and Chinese teachers in Poland. The question is, where is the middle? There should be some situations, in which the teachers ease the pain of learning Chinese, but teachers should also remember about following the rules and class regulations. It is very hard to find the middle in all of it indeed.

What is a very great advantage of Chinese learning system in China over the Polish one, is the mandatory revision of previously learned texts, that helps learning characters from the last lesson better, and prevision of the vocabulary and lesson notion of a following lesson. This way, students are prepared, they know what to expect, they are familiar with the vocabulary, and learn grammar easily, thus the pace of language learning is faster. Polish students are too lazy, and no one can make them study faster. We cannot make them do the

revisions and previewing lessons, everything is obligatory. That is why, it takes more time for them to understand the lesson's notion and the teachers have more explaining to do. And although Chinese teachers are more into making students learn for the examination, to score the best result, they also lead towards obtaining as much knowledge as it is possible. When Polish students do not feel like doing any exercises, they just do not do it and complain about the amount of time spent studying, saying that "Chinese is difficult". All in all, Polish people like being grumble.

Conclusions

In the chapter above I have enlisted a set of advantages and disadvantages of learning Chinese both in China and in Poland. Each learning process has its good and bad sides. I do not want to decide whether it is better to learn here or there. What is important is to sum up all the above mentioned notion and do something about it in order to make learning Chinese in Poland better.

Below I have enlisted a set of most important problems occurring in the process of learning Chinese in Poland and a set of good points which should be more vigorously put into practice.

Good points	Bad points
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - communication oriented learning - Polish teachers helping to understand Chinese via Polish - Teaching grammar points comparing to mother tongue - creative thinking learning methods - learning by means of collocations - learning by means of association 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - poor language environment - lack of well prepared books for Polish students studying Chinese - lack of audiovisual materials - lack of cultural notion data - lack of outdoor activities with language learning - poor verification of Chinese teachers send by the Embassy - small amount of class hours - narrow opportunities of receiving a scholarship - teacher-oriented learning - no revisions of previously learned notion by the students - no previewing of a following lessons by the students - too big language groups

Table 2. The conclusions of Chinese learning process in Poland

As we can see there are still numerous things to be corrected. In my believe, since there are very few Chinese native speakers walking on the streets of Poland, we, teachers, should give our students more possibilities to study among Chinese and in China. We should try finding sponsors, organizations, establishments willing to help our students going abroad for language courses in order to improve their Chinese. Next, although it is very time consuming, teachers should feel obliged to prepare additional material apart from the one the textbook provides. While there is one topic being analyzed, the teacher should introduce a vast area of vocabulary and phrases that can use around the given subject. For instance, when learning about body parts, it would be good to learn how to say: "I'm sick" or "This and that hurts". That way, apart from describing their body parts, students can also create short dialogues at the doctor's. This kind of contextual/situational teaching enables students to find themselves in more day-to-day situations.

Most books are prepared for English native speakers. HanBan (汉班) have prepared translated into Polish textbooks of various levels devoted not only for kids and youth, but also for adults, however, these are only the first volumes, without continuant books, so what is the point of choosing such a book, when you know that after one semester you will have no source to go on with. What is more, those books are translated into Polish with lots of mistakes. They are not prepared especially for teaching Polish students, thus sometimes it is difficult to comprehend the notion of the texts or the translated into Polish grammar explanations, using sometimes such strange Polish phrases that even teachers do not understand it. Thus, teachers usually decide to use English textbooks making learning Chinese more complicated, because of learning one foreign language (Chinese-L3) via another (English-L2), while thinking in their mother tongue (Polish-L1). Because of that, teachers willing to help their students learn better, need to spend lots of extra hours to prepare flash cards, audiovisual materials and culture-oriented data, that is hardly accessible in Poland.

Apart from having only half the time to study Chinese in Polish universities Chinese learning programmes comparing to China, the language groups are too big. In my opinion, groups should amount to not more than 15 people, and that is already a lot. However, due to the big interest Chinese received over the past few years, there are lots of students willing to study, but not enough qualified teachers, thus, the groups sometimes amount up to 35 people. Try checking dictations every week, short tests twice a month, or end of semester exams for such an amount of people. University officials should either employ more Chinese teachers or accept less students. No wonder why during class the lesson is teacher-oriented, since there is simply not enough time to let all the students speak. And the teacher has to keep up the pace of learning in order to meet up the syllabus' standard.

Last but not least, are the demands towards the students, namely revisions and previsions. We, Chinese language teachers in Poland, should create a more strict set of rules which would make students revising previously learned texts, and previewing new ones. That way the pace of learning would improve and students would understand better and learn faster and with ease. The problem is, since they are adults, can we make them do it? Absolutely not. It is a very delicate matter, teachers should act on. They should suggest, let the students understand that is for their own good. Crucial in this situation is to show the students that we know how they feel. I do. I still remember my beginnings of learning Chinese. It was something new, fresh, but also time consuming, tiresome, difficult, and I often called it a daunting task. I hope I will never forget the first impression after starting learning Chinese, because it helps me understanding my students better.

All in all, Chinese learning programme in Poland is not as different from the one organized in China. However, despite the differences, both of them bring good results and the best students become very successful in their working environment. Polish learning system of Chinese is still under construction, thus I believe, that despite we still have a lot of work ahead of us, we will succeed in creating an impeccable Chinese learning system focusing directly on Polish native speakers.

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A Way of Not Seeing: Reflections on Paradigms in Teacher Education

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Abstract

Teacher education has increasingly been blamed for the shortcomings of the educational system in the United States. This paper suggests that the dominant paradigm in teaching and teacher education which rests primarily on psychological foundations may be a factor underlying some of the problems. This more individualistic and psychological paradigm is reflected in conceptions of the learner, approaches to assessment, the structure of rewards, classroom management, accreditation guidelines, etc. Since a way of seeing is also a way of not seeing, it is suggested that a paradigm resting on a more sociological perspective may offer useful complementary strategies that would enable teachers to be more adept at treating schools and classrooms as learning communities with all the facets and group dynamics of any social system. In effect, this paper suggests that teachers may benefit from being prepared as applied sociologists as much as they are as applied psychologists.

Keywords.

SECTION I - INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

The theme of this conference, teacher education, concerns a matter of central significance in our educational systems. Teacher education plays a crucial role in recruiting, screening and preparing the next generation of teachers and is central to building the capacity of educational systems to address the needs of its students and families. Regrettably, I am cautiously pessimistic about the current prospects of teacher education. For one thing, teacher education seems to have lost credibility in the larger policy community and to have become an easy target to blame for so many problems such as for teacher dropouts, for the poor performance of teachers, for the poor performance of students, for not closing the achievement gap, for the decline in public support for schools, and so on, to the point that many in the U.S. question whether there is really a need for formal or extensive teacher education and certification.

Indeed, there are various movements in the U.S. that are experiencing growing popularity, such as charter schools and Teach for America, that can be seen as challenges to the future of teacher certification and education, especially as it is currently linked to universities. Perhaps it is more important than ever for those of us who believe in the need for truly qualified teachers and high quality teacher education to reflect on how we might improve and be seen to improve what we are doing in teacher education.

It has been suggested that a way of seeing is also a way of not seeing. This presentation is not intended to present original research; it is not intended to present proofs or conclusions; it is not meant as a critique or attack. Instead, it is intended as a reflection concerning some aspects and data concerning teachers and teacher education. It is intended rather as an invitation to look at things in a different light, to offer another way of seeing.

SECTION II - TEACHER DROPOUTS IN THE U.S.: RATES AND REASONS

In the U.S., in the first 3-5 years of teaching, a large percentage of new teachers leave teaching. Some studies suggest that as high as 50% of new teachers quit the profession in their first 5 years. Similar results have been reported for comparable professions such as social work and nursing. However, I do not think that this decreases the significance of this phenomenon concerning teachers. In fact, I suspect that there are similar underlying reasons for the high attrition rates of newer entries in these professions.

No doubt, some would suggest that this is part of the natural sorting and selection process in a free market and that it should not be a matter of serious concern. However, the extent of teacher dropouts strikes me as disturbingly high and worth trying to understand better. What might it be indicative of?

The research and policy literature suggests that a number of factors contribute to this high teacher dropout rate, including: workload and working conditions, salary, job stress, lack of respect for the role, lack of awareness of what teaching actually entails, the climate of testing, de-professionalization and routinization of work, inadequate preparation and lack of effective mentoring.

I would like to pause for a moment to note one phenomenon that I have detected in observing the assignment of teachers as well as their migration from one school district to another. On the first point, there appears to be a pattern of assigning new teachers to the more difficult classes or less desirable courses. A number of sources report that schools located in low-income communities are typically staffed with the newest, least experienced teachers. Not only does this further disadvantage students who are already disadvantaged, it can be seen as a major source of stress for new teachers. With respect to migration, there appears to be a pattern of flow from the more challenging districts to districts that are less challenging or more affluent. These patterns imply that the less experienced and perhaps less effective teachers are often assigned to the most challenging classes and students, that is, the neediest students may be studying with the teachers who are less able to address their needs. Having the most challenging assignments combined with inadequacies of preparation and of professional development seems like a powerful recipe for stress and may well be a set of factors related to why the teacher dropout rate appears to be so high among new teachers.

Let me turn back to discussing one set of factors that I think is particularly intriguing and which particularly relates to the topic of this conference: the issue of adequacy of teacher preparation.

Although I think there is merit in the point that teachers are often not sufficiently prepared to handle issues of classroom management or the diversity of urban classrooms, I am concerned that this approach, this emphasis on the inadequacies of teacher preparation, seems like a form of blaming the victim. It is not much of a leap from saying that this teacher is inadequately prepared to saying that this teacher is inadequate and thus winds up focusing our attention on the teacher and her or his shortcomings.

In an interesting way, then, the explanations of why teachers leave teaching and the proposed remedies (such as doing away with teacher education programs) can be seen as a combination of blaming the teacher for her or his inadequacies and blaming the system of teacher education for its inadequacies. This focus of blame, this way of seeing, spares or forgives the framework or foundation of teacher education. It does not question the possible fundamental limitations to the basic theoretical system or paradigm underlying teaching and teacher education. This way of seeing does not ask whether there is a relationship among the teacher dropout rate, the inadequacies of teacher preparation, and the dominant paradigm of pedagogy and teacher preparation. Of course, this is not surprising since paradigms do not usually challenge their own premises.

SECTION III - A WAY OF SEEING: THE DOMINANT PARADIGM IN TEACHING IN THE U.S.

What, then, is the dominant paradigm or approach underlying contemporary pedagogy and teacher preparation in the U.S.? What is the main way of seeing and conceptualizing teaching and how might it create blind spots or divert attention from other important aspects? I think it is fair to say that, at least in the U.S., teaching and teacher education are grounded in psychology as the dominant paradigm -- particularly a blend of behaviorist and developmental psychology.

In many respects, teachers are expected to be, in effect, applied psychologists and this is reflected in many aspects of their professional practice and preparation. It is reflected in conceptions of the learner and the focus on the student as the unit of analysis and intervention. It is manifest in how rewards and punishments are generally focused on the individual and how we generally employ competition among individuals in order to motivate students.

The focus of assessment or evaluation on individual students and teachers is also a reflection of this paradigm. As well, the dominant psychological paradigm is reflected in the kind of training that is generally emphasized as appropriate for prospective teachers. Elementary school teachers are generally expected to major in psychology in their undergraduate programs. Even secondary school teachers are often encouraged to undertake a minor in psychology. The paradigm is also reflected in approaches to professional development in the U.S. in which teaching is treated, to an important extent, as a private, isolated and individualistic occupation -- in contrast to professional development in other countries such as Japan which has such heavily collegial practices as lesson study. Further, this paradigm is manifest in traditional approaches to classroom management which draw heavily on strategies from counseling and behavior modification. In sum, the preparation of teachers and conceptions of the practice of teaching are centered around a paradigm that can be characterized as primarily individualistic, atomistic, and psychological. Of course, it is not surprising that teaching is so grounded in a psychological perspective since the dominant themes in American culture are so strongly individualistic -- although I do recognize that this may be an over-simplification.

One other important facet of teacher education to consider in getting at what is the dominant paradigm in the U.S. is the approved national accreditation standards -- the standards of what teachers are expected to know and what teacher education programs are expected to deliver. Consider then the standards of NCATE, the National Council on the Accreditation of Teacher Education. Teacher candidates are expected to "know how students learn and how to make ideas accessible to them." (i.e. target). Teacher candidates are expected to "plan instruction based on knowledge of content, students, families, the community and curriculum goals." (Explanation section of Standard 1). Teacher candidates are expected to "evaluate students' academic achievement as well as social and physical development and to use the results to maximize students' motivation and learning." (Explanation section of Standard 1).

What strikes me about these key passages and in reading through the whole document is the lack of any explicit expectation of knowledge and skill in dealing with groups, with classrooms as communities of learners. The focus is clearly on student learning and student development -- as it probably should be. However, there seems to be strikingly limited attention to classrooms and schools as social systems. There is little recognition that teachers need to be effective managers of group processes and group development and all that this involves.

SECTION IV - TEACHERS AS APPLIED SOCIOLOGISTS

Now, this is where I want to return to the notion that a way of seeing is also a way of not seeing. While a psychologistic or individualistic perspective may help direct the attention and energies of teachers to certain phenomena, it may also fail to prepare them for dealing with some of the major challenges of teaching in contemporary classrooms.

What I want to suggest, then, is that teaching is, among other things, a form of applied sociology and that teachers, in order to be effective, are or need to be applied sociologists as much as they are applied psychologists. They must understand and develop skills in working with group processes as much as individual processes. They must be able to foster group development as much as individual development. They must be able to understand, respect and work with the culture of students and the diverse mix in the classroom as much as with distinct personal differences. They must be able to establish and maintain a normative order in the classroom that is conducive to learning, whether it be a competitive, individualistic one or an inclusive, supportive culture, or some combination of both.

If, as the saying goes, it takes a village to educate a child, then teachers as applied sociologists must understand the dynamics of that village and how to make it work for them in promoting a productive educational context. In short, teachers need to be adept at viewing and treating schools and classes as learning communities or small-scale social systems with all the facets of any social system such as group values, norms, and climate; interactions and inter-dependencies among participants and sub-groups; power, leadership and followership; reflections of the broader society and culture in which they are embedded including issues of social class, gender and ethnic relations, and the like.

As applied sociologists, the attention of teachers would be drawn to a concern with some of the following aspects of their classes as small scale social systems:

- group dynamics including collective goal setting, developing group identity, and team building through common purposes and tasks,
- the relationships among communications, morale and productivity,
- the role of inter-group contact in lessening prejudice and promoting tolerance and mutual respect,
- the role of natural leaders among students and how they can be enlisted to help promote a positive learning environment,
- the phases of group development and how one can use them to advance one's teaching objectives,
- indicators of group attentiveness and engagement such as the number or rate of questions being asked by students or the rate of absenteeism in a class, and
- peer influences and student-student interactions -- an area that I think is under-appreciated in research and practice.

What else does it imply if we think of a teacher as an applied sociologist? Well, we cannot have a paradigm without a methodology. A concrete example of this comes to mind when I think of my father's work. For a number of years, my father was a theatrical stage manager on Broadway. One of the jobs that he or his assistant had to do was to monitor how the show's performances were doing. He and his assistant would keep track of such indicators as the number of laughs per performance. They would also time the show to evaluate whether it was starting to drag. And so on. In effect, he was assessing the overall performance or group process and

outcomes, not the performance of individual actors. It is that kind of group level phenomena that I am suggesting would be valuable for teachers or observers to monitor and analyze.

So, the notion that teachers are applied sociologists who need to understand and deal with group level phenomena suggests that they need methodological strategies and tools to do so. They need ways to gather and analyze information about how to assess group processes and group development, about classroom climate and student interaction.

As an applied sociologist, the teacher would have a methodological tool kit that would draw on classic techniques and strategies of sociology for looking at schools and classes as communities of learners such as surveys employing rating scales; interviews and focus groups to try to monitor how students are perceiving or experiencing aspects of the curriculum; systematic observation of interactions; incident analysis (that looks at how groups typically respond to a type of situation such as a member being frustrated); sociometric analysis; content analysis; ethnographic study that looks at systems of meanings and knowledge; etc.

This can be seen as part of an effort to get a better picture and understanding of teacher-student, and student-student interactions as well as the values and perceptions of a class or school as a community of learners. In addition to providing teachers with greater insight, the very act of gathering this information could enhance student morale and productivity -- similar to the famous Hawthorne Western Electric studies in which the very act of studying workers enhanced their sense of being cared about by management which, in turn, positively affected their morale and productivity.

One other area I would like to touch on is the topic of classroom management. One of the most crucial challenges, perhaps the most crucial challenge, that one hears from beginning teachers is how to handle classroom management. It appears to be the greatest source of stress and frustration of new teachers, and the major area that many complain about not having been adequately prepared to handle.

In the literature on classroom management, I think we can see perhaps the most useful and developed movement towards elements of applied sociology. Moving beyond the strategic use of praise and rewards, we see guidelines that include the following strategies to foster effective classroom management:

- clear communication of expectations, equivalent to establishing the normative order of the classroom (a central concern of sociology),
- enlisting students in the development of that normative order by having them help to formulate rules and protocols, thus creating a sense of shared ownership of classroom governance,
- employing tasks that are engaging, meaningful and personally relevant in light of students values and interests,
- establishing open communications and feedback channels such that students feel that teachers are caring and concerned about them, and
- employing culturally appropriate management strategies (examples offered in the literature include differences in how Latino, Filipino or Chinese students are likely to respond to expectations of individual performance).

Of course, this notion of the teacher as an applied sociologist has implications for the skills and knowledge that may need to be fostered in professional development experiences. I am not suggesting that teachers learn all these concepts, principles, and methodological tools and employ them beyond what is reasonable and feasible. What I do think is useful here is for teachers to be thinking about their work from the perspective of applied sociology in which they want to and are able to look at some data about their everyday practices and that the data focus on important facets of group level phenomena.

SECTION V - SOME CONCLUDING REMARKS

None of this has been intended to imply that teachers are not already acting to some extent and in some respects as applied sociologists. Generally, they are attentive to classroom climate, try to be sensitive to student backgrounds, and often employ group-based instructional strategies. In short, teachers use these perspectives and techniques in varying degrees. Indeed, all of us, in order to function effectively in society, must be applied sociologists. But some of us are more successful applied sociologists than others--and I think that awareness of principles, strategies and methods is an important factor in being successful. My concern then is to see these principles used more extensively, consciously, and systematically as they might be if teachers saw themselves and were seen as applied sociologists.

My advocacy of a more explicit recognition of teaching as, among other things, a form of applied sociology rests, in part, on the view that practice alone does not make perfect. I would argue that mentored, well-coached practice helps make perfect. And, beyond that, mentored, well-coached practice grounded explicitly on disciplinary foundations with clear principles and research protocols helps make perfect. Of course, intensive

internships and practica are invaluable just as teaching hospitals are crucial to the education of doctors. However, just as the preparation of doctors is grounded in the study and understanding and application of biology, so too should the preparation of teachers be understood to include explicit grounding in sociology.

There is a related argument for justifying my concern with being more aware of and explicit about the fuller spectrum of theoretical foundations underlying teaching and teacher education. This is that one of the distinguishing features of a profession as opposed to a craft -- and what teaching and other professions have evolved out of -- is linkage to or grounding in the principles, methods and systematic research of an analytic discipline. This is, of course, also part of the justification for placing professional education in a university context.

I think that John Dewey offers us a useful perspective here:

"Command of scientific methods and systematized subject matter liberates individuals; it enables them to see new problems, devise new procedures, and in general makes for diversification rather than set uniformity."

"This knowledge and understanding render [the teacher's] practice more intelligent, more flexible, and better adapted to deal effectively with concrete phenomena of practice....Seeing more relations, [the teacher] sees more opportunities. His ability to judge being enriched, he has a wider range of alternatives to select from in dealing with individual situations."

In reflecting on what I have presented, I am concerned that my argument might be misunderstood to imply that I think a grounding in sociology is opposed to or more important than a grounding in psychology for teachers. Far from that, I think that both are fundamental and complementary.

Let me close with one last story. I apologize for it being so personal but it is what I know best. And this experience had an enormous impact on me and how I have come to think about teaching. As you may have guessed, I was brought up in a theatre family -- both my parents were in acting and theatrical production. When I was about 12 years old, I was hired to be the understudy for young King Ptolemy -- yes, it is true, I have been an Egyptian in an earlier life -- as young King Ptolemy in a British touring production of Caesar and Cleopatra when it came to New York. The star and director of the show was Sir Laurence Olivier.

As luck would have it, I received a call one day that the boy who played the King had become sick and that I needed to go on, to perform that evening. After some intense, last minute rehearsing (including some rather tricky pieces of business with Lady Vivien Leigh who played Cleopatra -- but that's another story), I was deemed sufficiently ready to go on. I did and fortunately I managed not to forget my lines or trip on the stairs leading up to the throne.

On the night of my second performance, as I was waiting in the wings to go on, Olivier came over to me and said, "You did well, but Ptolemy should think of Caesar as his friend." And, so during the scene, when Caesar (that is, Olivier) came to look at Ptolemy (that is, me), I managed a smile. And, then, to my amazement, Olivier did something that deeply impressed me. On stage, in the magnificent old Ziegfeld Theatre, in front of an audience of about 2,000 people, Olivier whispers to me so that no one else could see or hear, "Good, good." What has stayed with me to this day and what so deeply impressed me was that, not only was he performing as the star of the show, but he was in such command of his craft that he could notice and acknowledge and give feedback to a fellow actor.

And maybe this is what great teaching is about and where a psychological and a sociological perspective come together -- being able, at one and the same time, to both focus on the whole performance and production as well as on the unique and individual, to perceive and promote positive group process but never to lose sight of individuals and their needs.

Osmanlı Misyoner Okullarındaki Öğretmenlerin Eğitimi: Islington Koleji (1825-1879)

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Özet

Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun himayesi altında yüzyıllarca kendilerinden emin bir güven ve rahat ortam içerisinde yaşayan Rum, Ermeni, Musevi, Süryani, Nasturi, Yezidi unsurlar gibi Müslüman nüfus da, imparatorluğun askeri, siyasi ve iktisadi güç kaybettiği XIX. yüzyıldan itibaren Protestan misyonerlerin hedef kitlesi olmuştur (Haydaroğlu, 1993; Vahapoğlu, 1990; Mutlu, 2005; Kocabaşoğlu, 1989; Dalyan, 2012; Erdoğan, 2008; Aykıt, 2006; Oymak, 2012; Turan, 2011; Tozlu, 1991; Sevinç, 2002). Artık imparatorlukta yaşanan her türlü felaket; askeri yenilgi, enflasyon, yangın ve depremler İslamiyet'in çöküşü olarak telakki ediliyor ve misyonerlik faaliyetlerine yeni bir ivme kazandırıyor (CMS Arşivi, Eylül 1829, *Foreign Intelligence*, s. 417). Misyonerler Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'ndaki Batılılaşma hareketlerinin, eğitimin modernleştirilmesinin, ordunun yeniden yapılandırılmasının, basın-yayın hayatının canlandırılmasının vb. gelişmelerin İncil'in/Hristiyanlık'ın imparatorluk topraklarına girişini ve kabulünü kolaylaştıracağı yönünde pozitif bir etkisi olacağı kanaatini taşımışlardır (CMS Arşivi, Kasım 1834, *Foreign Intelligence*, s. 502).

Anglo-Sakson misyonerlik faaliyetlerinin Osmanlı-İngiliz ilişkilerinin gelişim sürecinde oynadıkları belirleyici rol ise en büyük Protestan cemiyetlerinden biri olan Church Missionary Society'nin (CMS) imparatorlukta faaliyet alanının yaygınlığıyla açık bir biçimde sergilenmektedir. CMS'in hedef bölgesi İran Körfezi'nden Karadeniz'e kadar olan kısımdır. Bu hat Hindistan'daki Bombay İncil Cemiyeti'ne dek uzanmış, bu cemiyet aracılığıyla Fırat ve Dicle üzerinden Mezopotamya'daki tüm kiliselere ulaşılmaya çalışılmıştır (CMS Arşivi, Nisan 1820, *Foreign Intelligence*, s. 168). Misyonerler Malta, Yunanistan ve Adalar, Anadolu, Suriye, Kutsal Topraklar, Mısır, Habeşistan ve Kuzey Afrika'dan oluşan Akdeniz misyon bölgesinde yerli halktan bilhassa varlıklı kesimlerin eğitime önem verdiklerini fark etmiş ve Rum, Musevi vs. milletten özellikle sosyo-ekonomik gelir düzeyi yüksek ailelerin çocuklarına eğitim götürme çabasında olmuşlardır (CMS Arşivi, Eylül 1829, *Foreign Intelligence*, s. 408). Diğer taraftan çok küçük yaşlarda olup fakirlik vb. sebeplerden ötürü tahsil imkânı bulamayan çocukları da himayelerine alıp tam anlamıyla kendi dinlerine, cemiyetlerine ve ideallerine bağlı genç rahipler olarak yetiştirmeyi de ihmal etmemişlerdir. Bunun yanı sıra misyonerler, okulda verilen eğitimin hedeflenen etkiyi gösterebilmesinin, annenin eğitim düzeyine bağlı olduğu gerçeğinden ve telkininden hareketle bilhassa kız çocuklarının, okullara devamını sağlamaya çalışmışlar ve kadın eğitiminde gerçekleştirdikleri öncülükte nüfuzlarını artırmak istemişlerdir (CMS Arşivi, Temmuz 1826, *Foreign Intelligence*, s. 326).

Misyonerlerin raporlarında yalnızca gerçekleştirdikleri propaganda faaliyetleri değil aynı zamanda Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun siyasi yapısı, devlet adamlarının tutumu, askeriye ve ilmiye sınıfları, eğitim sistemi, ulemanın halk eğitimindeki hakimiyeti, bölgenin sosyolojik özellikleri, İslamiyet'in önemi, anlamı ve uygulanışı ile bunlara dair kadı, şeyh, imam, müftü, molla, derviş vb. terimleri içeren bilgiler de mevcuttur. Bu ifadeler arasında bilhassa Bektaşilik hakkındaki eleştiriler ile ulemanın ülkedeki tüm reform hareketlerine ve yenileşmeye karşı olduğunu belirten cümleler dikkati çekmektedir. Ayrıca Arabistan'daki Vahhabi isyanı, Yunanistan'ın imparatorluktan ayrılması neticesinde başkentin Mısır ve hatta Suriye'yle bağlantısının inkıtaya uğraması, Yeniçeri Ocağı'ndaki bozulma, Şii temayüllerin başgöstermesi misyonerler tarafından İslamiyet'in çöküşe geçtiğinin göstergeleri olarak değerlendirilmiştir (CMS Arşivi, Mayıs 1829, *Foreign Intelligence*, s. 230). On dokuzuncu yüzyılın başlarından itibaren evvela Kahire olmak üzere muhtelif Osmanlı vilayetlerinde Müslüman ailelerin, çocuklarını misyoner okullarına ve Avrupa'ya talebe olarak göndermeye başlaması, misyonerlerin Hristiyanlık inancını Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'na yaymak üzere başlattıkları çabalarda yeni bir motivasyon unsuru olmuştur. Dini gerekçelerden ziyade resmi eğitimdeki eksikliklerin, çocukları üzerindeki olumsuz etkilerinden duydukları endişeyle bu okullara müracaat eden aileler, misyonerleri Müslümanlar arasında dahi Protestanlık'ı yaygınlaştırmanın mümkün olabileceğine dair ümitlendirmişti. Ancak misyonerlerin yine de temkinli adımlarla ilerlemeyi tercih ettikleri ve bir anda tüm Müslümanlar'ın şimşeklerini üzerlerine çekmekten imtina ettikleri anlaşılmaktadır. Sözelimi CMS'in Akdeniz misyonunda görevli misyonerlerinden Papaz Schlieniz; Hristiyanlık propagandasında çok yavaş ve derinden hareket etmenin, bir süre izleyici olarak kalmanın; matbaa ve sağlık sektörlerinde çalışarak halk nazarında bir sempati kazanmanın ve imparatorluğun en hassas döneminde faaliyetleri şiddetlendirmenin gerektiği konusunda uyarıyordu (CMS Arşivi, Aralık 1832,

Foreign Intelligence, s. 511).

Bu bağlamda, Hristiyanlık'ın temel dogma ve düşüncelerinin yaygınlaşmasında gerek varoluşsal gerekse fonksiyonel açıdan hayati olan misyonerlerin, eğitim gördükleri kolejlerin, seminarilerin, teoloji fakültelerinin, araştırma enstitülerinin vs. kurumların günümüzde en yaygın dinsel-siyasal hareket olan misyonerliğin iyi anlaşılıp tahlil edilmesinde önemi büyüktür. Misyoner öğretmen yetiştiren merkezler üzerindeki müstakil çalışmalar, misyon anlayışının daha iyi kavranmasına yardımcı olurken, misyonerlerin hem içinde yaşadıkları hem görevlendirildikleri sosyal-siyasal çevreye yönelik düşüncelerinin nasıl şekillendiğini irdelemeye katkı sağlamaktadır. İsa Mesih, kurtuluş, günah, tövbe kavramları etrafında gelişen eğitim programları misyon hareketinde merkezi bir önemi haizdir. İngiliz Anglikan Kilisesi'ne bağlı Church Missionary Society'nin Islington'daki koleji; XIX. yüzyılda insanoğlunun kötülüğün tahakkümünden kurtarılması, şeytanın yeryüzündeki saltanatının son bulması, gönül ve ruhun yüce kudrete, ilahi çağrıya açılması mesajlarını yayan ve hesap günü konusunda halkı uyararak onları tövbeye ve Tanrı'ya imana davet eden kimseleri yetiştiren kurumlardan biridir. Araştırmanın temel problemi; kendilerini insanların kurtuluşu için araçlar, Tanrı'nın mutlak hakimiyetine inanan muvahhidler ve Hristiyan geleneğinin haricinde kalan tüm anlayışları değiştirmeye çalışan sosyal inşacılar olarak gören misyonerlerin nasıl bir özel-öğretmenlik eğitiminden –ders programları, öğretim kadrosu, teşkilat yapısı, değerlendirme süreci– geçerek görevlendirildikleri konusudur. Böylece imparatorluktaki misyoner okullarında faaliyet gösteren “misyoner öğretmen” fenomeninin aydınlatılmasına katkı sağlamak hedeflenmiştir. Bu kapsamda XIX. yüzyılda, Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nda en yoğun ve etkili faaliyet gösteren Church Missionary Society'ye (CMS) mensup misyonerlerin elyazılı metinleri, gelen-giden evrakı, fotoğraflar, merkez tarafından alınan kararlar kendi koşulları içerisinde, olduğu gibi tarihsel yöntemden ve söz konusu cemiyet hakkında kaleme alınmış eser, makale ve tezlerden oluşan ikinci el kaynaklar tarihsel araştırma deseninden yararlanılarak yorumlanmaya çalışılacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler. Islington Koleji, eğitim, eğitim programı, misyoner, cemiyet, Church Missionary Society.

OSMANLI MİSYONER OKULLARINDAKİ ÖĞRETMENLERİN EĞİTİMİ : ISLINGTON KOLEJİ (1825-1879)

Misyoner yetiştirme merkezleri dini hayatı anlama ve algılama noktasında öğrencilerine bir inanç ve düşünce sistematiği sunan, bu inanç ve düşünce çerçevesinde davranış kalıplarını içeren bir yaşam tarzı endoktrine eden ve yine bu çerçevede misyoner adaylarının doğal ve sosyal çevreleriyle münasebetlerini düzenlemelerini öngören bir programı takip etmeleri açısından dinsel ve siyasal Hristiyan yayılcılığında önemlidir. Bu doğrultuda faaliyette bulunan öğretim elemanları, misyoner adaylarının düşünce ve davranış kalıplarını belirleme ve yönlendirme çabasında olmuşlar, dolayısıyla misyoner kimliğinin inşasında kalıcı izler bırakmışlardır. Bu merkezler arasında dünyanın en büyük Protestan teşkilatlarından biri olan İngiliz Anglikan Kilisesi'ne bağlı Church Missionary Society'nin (CMS) [Doggett, 1941; Hodder, 1901; Stock, 1899; Barnes, 1906; Latourette, 1958; Latourette, C. 2, 1970] 1825 senesinde açtığı Islington Misyoner Enstitüsü –sonradan koleji- uyguladığı programları, temsil ettiği düşünceleri ve hayat tarzı, mezunları ve yaptığı faaliyetleri nedeniyle misyonerlik tarihinin akışına yön vermiştir. Mezunları arasında; yaşamları günümüze dek süregelen çeşitli dinsel geleneklerin ortaya çıkışı açısından birer başlangıç olan, misyon hareketinin dinamiğini oluşturan fikirlere önderlik etmiş bulunan simaların yer alması okulun önemini şüphe götürmez bir noktaya taşımaktadır (Tottenham, 1847, s. 3).

Islington Koleji kurulduğu tarihten itibaren hem Anglo-Sakson taraftarlarının ve dostlarının hem de İngiliz olmayan dindaşlarının ilgi odağı olmuştur. Bu ilgiye neden olan programın hedeflerinin, içeriğinin ne olduğu, hangi yöntemler eşliğinde uygulandığı, değerlendirme kriterlerinin neler olduğu ve kimler tarafından tatbik edildiği konuları bu araştırmanın temel problemleridir. Bu soruların cevaplanmasının Protestan misyon anlayışını tanıma ve analitik olarak değerlendirme çabalarına katkı sağlayacağı fikriyse araştırmanın temel varsayımdır.

Türkçe alan yazında, yabancı dildekilerin aksine misyon hareketinin paradigmalarının belirlenmesinde, misyoner eğitiminin yeri ve önemi araştırmacıların dikkatini çeken konular arasında yer almamaktadır. Nitekim gerek Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nda gerekse Türkiye Cumhuriyeti'nde azimle çalışan misyonerlerin faaliyetleri, benimsedikleri doktrinleri incelenmişse de (Haydaroglu, 1993; Vahapoğlu, 1990; Mutlu, 2005; Kocabaşoğlu, 1989; Dalyan, 2012; Erdoğan, 2008; Aykıt, 2006; Oymak, 2012; Turan, 2011; Tozlu, 1991; Sevinç, 2002; Kırşehirlioğlu, 1963; Halidi-Ferruh, 1991; Gündüz-Aydın, 2002; Küçükoglu, 2005; *Türkiye'de Misyonerlik Faaliyetleri*, 2004), söz konusu misyonerlerin kimliğinin, öğretilerinin nasıl ve hangi şartlar altında şekillendiği hakkında analitik çalışmaların yapıldığı söylenemez. Sözelimi 1849'da Kudüs piskoposluğuna getirilen Samuel Gobat'ın (CMS Arşivi, *Circulars and Other Papers*, V. 5, 1883-1887, G/AZ1/5, No. 18; V. 6, 1886-1891,

G/AZ1/6, No. 82, 83, 93, 94, 95, 97; Eylül 1851, *The Church Missionary Intelligencer [Intelligencer]*, s. 223-224) imparatorluğun Arap vilayetlerindeki faaliyetlerinden bahseden çalışmaların ötesinde bu misyoneri yetiştiren okulları, onun misyon hareketiyle teolojik bakış açısının nasıl şekillendiği inceleme konusu yapılmamıştır.

CMS'in faaliyetlerinde, toplumlarla/fertlerle münasebetlerindeki müstakbel nizam dini esaslar üzerine mi kurulacaktır yoksa hayatın icaplarına uygun yeni prensipler üzerine mi yahut her ikisini kapsayan karma ilkeler üzerine mi? Vakıa sualin cevabı, misyonerlik faaliyetlerinin Britanya İmparatorluğu'nun siyaseten ilgi gösterdiği yerlerde yoğunlaşmasıyla fiili bakımdan verilmiş olmaktadır. Ancak nazari bakımdan bu düğümü çözmeye yarayacak her vesika ve tedkinin kıymetinin inkâr götürmeyeceği kanaatindeyiz. Şahsen Islington Misyoner Enstitüsü'ne dair büyük değer biçtiğimiz vesikaların delaletiyle bu noktaya bir dereceye kadar açıklık getirebileceğimizi ümit etmekteyiz.

Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun başta Arap vilayetlerinde olmak üzere Anadolu ve Afrika kıtasındaki topraklarında da yoğun misyon faaliyetinde bulunan CMS'in açtığı (*CMS in Palestine*, 1891; *The Palestine Mission*, 1910; *Christian Education in the Near East in its bearing on the upbuilding of the Christian Church*, 1938; CMS Arşivi, Ocak 1870, *Intelligencer*, s. 4-7; Nurdoğan, 2009, s. 770-787; Tibawi, 1961) misyoner yetiştirme enstitüsünde takip edilen programın merkezinde Mesih, mesaj, kurtuluş, vaftiz, evrensel günah ve benzeri kavramlar yer almıştır. Misyoner adayları gerek teolojilerini gerekse insan, tarih, medeniyet ve kurtuluş anlayışlarını bu temel kavramlara dair değerlendirmeler üzerine inşa etmiştir. Kolej müfredatında bütün bu kavramlara yüklenen anlam Anglikan misyon hareketinin temelini oluşturmaktadır.

Kolejin Kuruluşu ve İdaresi

İngiliz Anglikan Kilisesi'nin en önemli ve en büyük misyon teşkilatı olan Church Missionary Society (1799), misyoner adaylarını misyon bölgelerinde aktif faaliyet gösterebilecek nitelikte yetiştirmek üzere 31 Ocak 1825 tarihinde *Church Missionary Institute* adıyla bir kolej açmıştır (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations", G/AZ1/2, s. 4). Kolej mahallinin Islington olarak tercih edilmesi; bölgenin Londra'ya yakınlığından dolayı cemiyetin nezaret ve gözetimi altında tutulabilmesindeki elverişlilikten kaynaklanmıştır. Böylece talebeler cemiyetin ruhban ve laik kesimden üyeleriyle (Piggin, 1984; Potter, 1975; CMS Arşivi, Şubat 1870, *Intelligencer*, s. 51-56; *Register of Missionaries, Clerical, Lay, and Female, and Native Clergy from 1804 to 1904*) kolay iletişime geçebileceklerdir. Ayrıca Islington'ın çevre vilayetlerle demiryolu bağlantısının ve posthanesinin bulunması da bu tercihte etkili olmuştur. İletişim ve ulaşım imkânlarındaki rahatlık, talebelerin komşu bölgelerde stajyer misyonerlik yapmalarını kolaylaştırdığı gibi misyon bölgelerindeki misyonerlerle de irtibatı hızlandırmıştır (CMS Arşivi, 1855-1876, "Report of the Sub-Committee, appointed by a Resolution of the General Committee of October 14, 1850", G/AZ1/2, s. 2). Kolej, cemiyet genel kurulu tarafından atanan bir müdür ve yardımcısı ile yatılı ve gündüzlü olmak üzere iki öğretmen tarafından idare edilmiştir. Müdür ve yardımcısı CMS genel kurulu, öğretmenler ise müdür tarafından tespit edilen isimler arasından genel kurulca onaylanmaları üzerine görevlendirilmişlerdir (CMS Arşivi, 1877, G/AZ1/1-229). Anglikan ruhban sınıfına mensup bulunan öğretmenlerin işten çıkarılabilmeleri de, yine müdür ve genel kurulun tasdikine bağlı olarak gerçekleşmiştir. CMS'in Enstitü'yü bir kolej olarak görmek yerine; öğretim kadrosu, çalışanları ve öğrencileriyle geniş bir aile müessesesi gibi tanımlamayı tercih ettiği anlaşılmaktadır. Nitekim nizamnamedeki "akşam dua saatinde herkes evde hazır bulunmak mecburiyetindedir" ifadesi bu anlayışın en açık delilidir (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations", G/AZ1/2, s. 6).

Müdür ve öğretmenlerin öncelikli vazifeleri; talebeleriyle gizli ve açık olarak kurdukları yakın ve etkili iletişim sayesinde öğrencileri misyon hizmetine akademik, sosyal, duygusal olarak hazırlamaktır. Bu münasebet sayesinde kolejin tüm öğretim kadrosu; öğrencileri ve meslektaşlarıyla olumlu ilişkiler kurabilen, mesleğini seven, kendini geliştirmeye önem veren, giyimine özen gösteren, dış dünyaya karşı açık, sabırlı, sorumluluk sahibi ve alanlarına hakim bireyler olarak öğretmen yetiştirme anlayışında bizzat rol-modellik yapmışlardır. Bu noktada, kolej müdürünün her gün öğrenci görüşme saatleri belirleyerek talebelerle yüz yüze mülakatlar gerçekleştirmesi hususuna nizamnamede özellikle yer verilmiştir (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations for the Church Missionary Soceity's Institution at Islington", H/H15/E3/1D (I-Z); E-F, No. 125/35, s. 1).

Kolej müdürü ve yatılı öğretmen talebelerin ve kurumun tüm ihtiyaçlarını karşılamaktan sorumlu oldukları gibi her sabah ve akşam dini ayinleri icra ve idare etmekten, Yeni Ahit'i açıklamaktan da mesullerdi. Ayinlere tüm öğrenci ve öğretim kadrosuyla birlikte müdürün iştiraki mecburi tutulmuştu. Ancak zorunlu hallerde öğretmenlerden biri tarafından idare edilmesi öngörülmüştü. Cumartesi akşamları gerçekleştirilen ve haricilerin katılmasına müsaade edilmeyen "aile ibadetleri"nde verilen vaazların, cemiyetin süreli yayınlarından herhangi birinde (CMS Arşivi, 19 Şubat 1894, G/AZ1/1-140, s. 3; CMS Arşivi, 20-21 Şubat 1894, G/AZ1/4, s. 199; CMS Arşivi, 31 Ocak-14 Şubat 1894, G/AZ1/1-140, s. 18-19; 29 Şubat 1894, G/AZ1/4-199, s. 2-3) yayınlamasına

karar verilmişti. Yatılı öğretmenin her zaman, müdürün ise müsait vakitlerinde yemeklerini öğrencilerle birarada yemesi, nizamnamede belirtilen maddeler arasındaydı (CMS Arşivi, “Arrangements for the Management of a Mission of the Church Missionary Society where no Corresponding Committee has been Appointed as Representatives of the Parent Committee”, H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/216, s. 7).

Kolejin İdari ve Öğretim Kadrosu

Ailesiyle birlikte okulun batı kanadında ikamet etmekte olan müdürün maaşı senelik 500 pounddu. Talebelere maaş hesaplamalarında cemiyetin; misyon bölgesinde faaliyet gösteren bir misyonerin gelirinin, İngiltere’deki düşük rütbeli bir din adamının kazandığından daha az olmaması hususunu dikkate aldığı özellikle ifade edilmişti (CMS Arşivi, “Present System of Training Candidates for the Islington College”, 1881-1883, G/AZ1/4, No. 181, s. 6). Temizlik işlerini gören müstahdeme yıllık 30 pounddan, bekçi ile kadın hizmetkârlara 25 pounddan fazla ödeme yapılmaması şartıyla, öğretmenlerin ve diğer görevlilerin ücretlerinin ödenmesi hususunda kolej müdürü yetkili kılınmıştı. Ayrıca kolejdeki ders programının belirlenen hedefler doğrultusunda uygulanmasından öncelikle müdür sorumlu tutulmuştu. Söz konusu mesuliyeti müdür, CMS genel kurulunun nezaret ve denetiminde yerine getirmiştir.

Misyoner adaylarına, Protestan ahlakına ilişkin değerleri ve kavramları aktarması beklenen kolej müdürü, ayrıca talebelerin teolojik eğitiminden, İncil’in mesajının tam ve kusursuz olarak gösterilmesinden de sorumluydu. Bu gaye, müdürün Cumartesi akşamları talebelerin ahlaken aydınlatılmasına dair nutuklar vermesini gerektirmiştir (CMS Arşivi, 13 Haziran 1883, G/C1/38, s. 357; 2 Mart 1884, G/C1/39, s. 39-51; 24 Mart 1884, G/C1/40, s. 72-73). Bireyin kendisine dini bir kişilik imal etme, kimlik kazandırma sürecinde öğretmenlerin ve eğitimin rolünü öğretme vazifesi de müdüre verilmiştir. Bu tedrisat sırasında öğrencilerle kuracağı yakın temas neticesinde müdürün; karakter itibarıyla, sosyal-bilişsel ve duyuşsal açıdan misyoner olmak için yeterli bulunan adayların genel kurula takdiminde ve kimin hangi bölgede çalışmaya uygun olacağını tespitinde doğrudan katkısı beklenmektedir. Cemiyetin kolejdeki talebelerin eğitimleri, şahsiyet gelişimleri hakkındaki her türlü sorusuna birinci derecede muhatap yine müdürdür (CMS Arşivi, 1872-1888, G/AZ1/1-156). Ayrıca kolejdeki disiplinin muhafazasından ve bu kapsamda alınan ihraç kararlarından da sorumlu tutulan müdür, bütün işlerinde olduğu gibi bu süreçte de cemiyete rapor göndermek zorundadır. İhtilafli durumlarda müdürün verdiği karar, genel kurulca tekrar değerlendirmeye alınabilirdi. Öğretmenler ise müdürün nezaretinde talebelerin fen ve edebiyat branşlarında tedrisiyle vazifelendirilmişlerdir (CMS Arşivi, “Regulations for the Church Missionary Soceity’s Institution at Islington”, H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/35, s. 2).

Misyonerlik enstitüsündeki öğrencilerin seçimine ve eğitimine özen gösteren CMS, misyoner okullarında görev yapan elemanlarla ilgili olarak da aynı hassasiyeti sergilemiştir. Cemiyet, tüm çalışanların kurumsal aidiyet fikrine sahip olmasına önem vermiş ve öğrencileri de kapsayan birlik ruhunun korunmasına dikkat etmişti. Bu amaçla, her Pazar tüm öğrenci ve öğretmenlerin katılımıyla toplu ayinler düzenlenmişti. Öğretmenler evlerini talebelere açarak onlarla samimi bir ilişki geliştirmişlerdi. Ayrıca okul-aile işbirliği planı çerçevesinde öğretmen ve müdürlerin yönetiminde tüm velilerin katıldığı ayinler gerçekleştirilmişti. Kolej çalışanları, bu toplantılar sırasında öğrenciler ve veliler ile kurulan samimi münasebetlerin disiplinden taviz vermek anlamına gelmediği uyarısını sıklıkla tekrarlamışlardı (CMS Arşivi, 1877, G/AZ1/1-229).

Öğrenciler

Bir misyoner cemiyetine mensup olmak, din adamı olmayı gerekli ve zorunlu kılmamaktaydı. Hemen tüm cemiyetlerde din adamları kadar, kimi zaman daha fazla sayıda seküler üye de mevcuttu. Bunlar arasında başlıca doktorlar, okul idarecileri vs. din dışı alanlarda profesyonel meslek sahibi kimseler gelmekteydi. Nitekim CMS’in Islington’daki misyoner yetiştirme merkezindeki öğrencilerin büyük bir kısmı kumaşçı, eczahane çırağı, nalbant, demiryolu işçisi, ambar memuru, fotoğrafçı, vaiz, garson, denizci, madenci, polis oğlu, polis memuru yahut hizmetkârdı (CMS Arşivi, 5 Ocak 1884, G/AZ1/4-181, s. 3; Piggın, 1984, s. 209-214; Potter, 1975). Bunların dışında, CMS’e teoloji ve misyon teorisi konusunda herhangi bir eğitime gereksinim duymayacak nitelik ve formasyonda da üyeler kaydedilmişti (Stock, 1899, C. II, s. 394; C. III, s. 47-48).

Benimsenen çok amaçlılık ilkesi doğrultusunda koleje üstün nitelikte öğrencilerin alınması, CMS’in takip ettiği eğitim politikasının temeliydi. Zengin misyon geçmişine sahip olanların tecrübelerinden hareketle, sahada mücadele etmek zorunda kalacakları ruhsal, fiziksel ve duygusal problemler karşısında sarsılmayacak bir iman gücünü muhafaza etmesi beklenen misyonerlerin yetiştirilmesi dikkate alındığında, bu keyfiyet adeta bir zorunluluk halini almıştı. Bu doğrultuda, koleje kabul edilmek için bir dizi standart benimsenmiş ve bunu sağlayamayanlar tamamen dışlanmak yerine, ileride müracaatlarını tekrarlamak üzere çalışmaya teşvik edilmişlerdi. Standartlar, yalnızca entelektüel birikimi ölçmek üzere tespit edilmemiş, karakter gelişimini ve

problem çözme becerisini de hesaba katmak üzere belirlenmişti (CMS Arşivi, 13 Temmuz 1868, “Minutes and Resolutions on the means of giving to missionary students a more complete training for their future work”, H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/156, s. 3).

Giriş standartlarından ilki, müracaatta bulunan talebelerin CMS mensubu olmalarıydı. Ayrıca Anglikan Kilisesi'nin ilke ve doktrinlerini benimsemeleri ve cemiyetin işaret ettiği dünyanın herhangi bir bölgesinde çalışmaya rıza göstermeleri, öncelikli olarak aranan şartlardandı. Cemiyet mensubu iki din adamından referans mektubu almış olmak da önemliydi. İlâveten adayın sağlıklı olduğuna dair bir doktor raporu, paskalya tatilini müteakip gerçekleştirilen başvurular sırasında istenen belgelerdendi (CMS Arşivi, “Regulations”, G/AZ1/2, s. 1).

Öğrencilerin temel düzeyde Latince ve Grekçe bilgisine sahip olmaları da, kolejdaki eğitimin keyfiyeti noktasında dikkat edilen hususlardandı. Adayların dil bilgileri, cemiyet tarafından yapılan yazılı bir sınavla ölçülmüştü. Sınavlar birinci ve ikinci standart olmak üzere iki aşamada gerçekleştirilmişti. İkinci standartta başarı gösteren talebeler, istikbalde misyon bölgesinde lider olmaya aday kabul edilmişlerdi (CMS Arşivi, 8 Ekim 1883, “Language Examinations”, 1883-1887, G/AZ1/5, No. 86, s. 3). Sınavda başarılı bulunanlar, cemiyetin bir alt komitesi tarafından kolejin hangi şubesinde yer almalarının daha uygun olacaklarını değerlendirmek üzere mülakata alınmışlardı. Bu bağlamda kilise için yetiştirilecekler, bir hocanın himayesinde özel eğitime tabi tutulacaklar ile misyonda aktif görev için hazırlanacaklar tespit edilirdi (CMS Arşivi, “Regulations”, G/AZ1/2, s. 4). Dil sınavının haricinde cemiyet zaman zaman, adayın gerek kolejdaki eğitim gerekse teşkilata aidiyet için uygun olup olmadığını tespit etmek üzere teolojik konulara dair bir sınav düzenlemiş ve başarılı görülenler kabul edilmişlerdi (CMS Arşivi, “Regulations”, G/AZ1/2, s. 2).

Koleje kaydedilen öğrenciler altı ay deneme sürecine tabi tutulmuş, bu sürenin sonunda yazılı ve sözlü bir sınava alınarak, cemiyetin muhaberat komisyonunca neticesi kolej müdürü ve yardımcısına bir rapor halinde sunulmuştu (CMS Arşivi, “Arrangements for the Management of a Mission of the Church Missionary Society where no Corresponding Committee has been Appointed as Representatives of the Parent Committee”, H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/216, s. 3). Bununla birlikte cemiyet yahut kolej yetkilileri, talebelerin okul ve kolejle ilişkilerini herhangi bir aşamada kesebilir ve onları himaye etmekten vazgeçebilirlerdi (CMS Arşivi, “Regulations”, G/AZ1/2, s. 3). Dikkat çekici başarı gösterenler ise ruhban sınıfına dahil edilmek üzere Londra piskoposu ile Canterbury başpiskoposuna takdim edilmişlerdi. Misyoner adaylarının görev yerlerinde gitmeden evvel (CMS Arşivi, 1855-1876, “Minute and Resolutions of the Corresponding Committee, on the means of giving to missionary students a more complete training for their future work”, G/AZ1/2, No. 265, s. 2), en az bir yıl süreyle öğrenim görmeleri ve Aralık ayında yapılacak sınavda başarı göstermeleri şarttı. Bu süre zarfında öğrenci, aynı zamanda kilise hiyerarşisine dahil olmak yahut Hristiyan literatürünün gelişmesine katkıda bulunmak üzere lisan eğitimine vb. devam edebilirdi (CMS Arşivi, 13 Temmuz 1868, “Minutes and Resolutions on the means of giving to missionary students a more complete training for their future work”, H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/156, s. 5).

CMS koleje yalnızca papazlık ve misyonerlik vazifeleri için ruhen ve bedenen gerekli güce, heyecana, inanca sahip olduğuna inandıkları gençleri talebe olarak kabul etmiştir. Koleje daha evvel okul müdürü/öğretmen yahut kateşist olarak çalışmış kimseler de talebe olarak kaydedilmişti (Ahmed Hamdi Bey, 2010, s. 71). Zira sahada görevlendirilmeden önce kısa süreyle misyoner sorumluluğunu kazandırmak, Tanrı'nın krallığını inşa edecek, insanlığın tek ve gerçek dini olan Hristiyan inancını duyurma yollarını aktarmak hedeflenmişti. Bu talebelerin yerli misyoner yetiştirme potansiyeline sahip oldukları düşüncesiyle öğretmenlik formasyon derslerinin gösterilmesine dikkat edilmişti. Başka bir ifadeyle öğrenciler, sosyal projelere destek vererek yahut Pazar okullarında çalışarak kilise ve misyonerlik alanlarında uzmanlaşmaları konusunda teşvik edilmişlerdir (CMS Arşivi, 1855-1876, “Report of the Sub-Committee, appointed by a Resolution of the General Committee of October 14, 1850”, G/AZ1/2 (Circulars and Other Papers), s. 2). Bu çerçevede Tanrı'ya hizmet etmek için hem akademik hem pratik eğitim alan talebelerin, Ocak ayında başlayan öğrenimlerine Ağustos ayından itibaren altı hafta boyunca ara verilmiştir. Yaz tatili sonunda her öğrenci kurumun kayıt defterine ismini yazdıracaktır. Ayrıca Christmas'da dört hafta ve paskalyada on beş gün tatil olarak kabul edilmiştir (CMS Arşivi, “Regulations”, G/AZ1/2, s. 6).

Sınavlar ders yılı sonunda yahut paskalya tatilinden evvel CMS tarafından belirlenen bir heyet aracılığıyla genel konular ile Şark bilimlerinde iki aşamalı olarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Sınavlardaki başarının dua ve ayinlere, tüm toplantı ve konferanslara düzenli katılım göstermek suretiyle pekiştirilmesi şarttır. Zira müdürün ve öğretmenlerin bu hususlarla ilgili kaleme alacağı olumlu raporlar, öğrencinin ruhban sınıfına kabul edilmek üzere Londra piskoposunun yahut Canterbury başpiskoposunun huzuruna çıkması anlamına gelmektedir (CMS Arşivi, “Regulations”, G/AZ1/2, s. 7; Stock, 1899, C. II, s. 79). Papazlık görevi için tahsil gören talebelerin, herhangi bir piskoposluk bölgesinde bir din adamının himayesinde kilise ve cemaat işleriyle ilgilenmesi, kolej yetkilileri ve cemiyet üzerinde onların kendilerini kiliseye adanmalarına daha hazır oldukları izlenimini

uyandırmıştır. Bu deneyim, atanmak üzere Londra piskoposluğuna takdim edildiği sırada da öğrenci lehine etki etmiştir. Misyonerlik için hazırlanan talebelerin ise ekonomik kaynaklarını rasyonel değerlendirebilme, tasarruf edebilme ve isteklerini erteleyebilme yetilerine sahip olmaları, sahadaki görevlendirilmeler öncesinde müspet tesir bırakan niteliklerdi (CMS Arşivi, “Arrangements for the Management of a Mission of the Church Missionary Society where no Corresponding Committee has been Appointed as Representatives of the Parent Committee”, H/H15/E3/1D (I-Z); E-F, No. 125/216, s. 5). Ayrıca düzen, disiplin, temizlik değerleriyle ödev ve sorumluluklarını zamanında tamamlama, kitaplarını gereği gibi muhafaza etme becerileri ile düzenli defter tutma alışkanlığına sahip bulunmaları, misyonerlik faaliyetini yürütebilecek adaylarda aranan şartlardı. İlâveten kolejin bahçesinde yahut marangozluk atölyesinde aktif olma, alt sınıftaki öğrencilerin etüd çalışmalarında yer alma, kasabaları, köyleri ve küçük yerleşim birimlerini ziyaret etme, misyoner adaylarının gelecekteki hayatlarında karşılaşılabilecekleri sorunları çözme becerisini kazandıklarını gösteren işaretler arasında değerlendirilmiştir. Görev yeri belirlenen misyonerler, kolej müdürünün yardımıyla cemiyet başkanlarına hitaben, genel kurulun atama kararını tasdik edip etmediğini soran resmi bir mektup kaleme alacaklardı. Yine görev yerine hareket etmeden evvel, misyon bölgesine göre içeriği farklılaşan talimatnamesini aldığına dair kolejde bulunan bir deftere imza atacaklardı (CMS Arşivi, “Regulations for the Church Missionary Society’s Institution at Islington”, H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/35, s. 6-7; 1883-1887, “General Instructions delivered to Missionaries proceeding to their Stations, September 30th, 1884”, G/AZ1/5, No. 30).

CMS’deki üye sayısı, yapılan müracaatlar, kabul ve red edilenler hakkında sağlıklı istatistik bilgilerine ulaşmak kolay değildir. Zira, Islington’daki misyoner okulunda yıl içerisindeki talebe sayısı hiçbir zaman sabit olmamıştır. Ayrıca kaç kişinin okula kaydedildiği ve ne kadarının ayrıldığı hususunda da raporlar arasında bir tutarlılık yoktur. Yine de, okulun karşılama komitesi tarafından hazırlanmış listelerden, yaklaşık rakamlara ulaşmak mümkündür. Ancak bu listeler de 1882 yılında aniden kesilmiştir. 1875’de bu kez Genel Kurul, Reading’teki CMS okulunda öğrenim gören talebelerin sayısını gösteren listeler hazırlamaya başlamıştır. Bu belgeler ışığında CMS’in misyoner okullarındaki öğrenci sayısı ile ilgili aşağıdaki istatistik çıkarılabilir:

1865 – 43	1871 – 18	1877 – 68
1866 – 43	1872 – 18	1878 – 44
1867 – 33	1873 – 23	1879 – 43
1868 – 36	1874 – 16	1880 – 36
1869 – 36	1875 – 17	1881 – 25
1870 - 36	1876 – 20 (öğrenci)	
	23 (stajyer)	

Bu tablodan, CMS’in Islington Misyoner Enstitüsü’nün açıldığı ilk iki yılda öğrenci sayısının, 43 gibi hayli yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Bunun sebebi, ekonomik sıkıntılardan dolayı dış misyonlarda yapılan görevlendirmelerin az olması buna karşılık, okuldaki eğitim süresinin fazlalığı idi (CMS Arşivi, 2 Eylül 1882, G/C1/36, s. 721-722). 1871 ve 1872 yıllarında öğrenci sayısındaki azalma, CMS’in, diğer Protestan cemiyetleriyle ilişkiye geçmek istemesindeki nedenlerden biri olmalıdır. Nitekim 1872’deki bu çabanın ardından, öğrenci olmak için başvuranların sayısı elliye yükselmiş ve fakat bunların tamamı kabul edilmemiştir. Öğrenci kabulünde gösterilen bu seçicilik 1876 ve 1877 senelerinde sürdürülmemiş ve talebe sayısı hiç olmadığı kadar artmıştı. 1865 ile 1882 yılları arasında misyonlara gönderilen misyoner sayısı 564’tü. Bunlardan 147’si Islington Misyoner Enstitüsü’nde misyoloji eğitimine tabi tutulmaksızın sahada görevlendirilmişti (Stock, 1899, C. II, s. 391-394; C. III, s. 45-48). Rakamlardaki hata payı dikkate alınmakla birlikte, 1825-1882 arasında CMS’in Islington’daki okulundan mezun 465 misyonerin sahada istihdam edildiği söylenebilir (CMS Arşivi, *Missionary Publications Miscellania*, C. V, No. 47, s. 6-7).

Bununla birlikte, CMS’in özellikle 1877 ile 1881’deki mali kriz yüzünden öğrenci kayıtlarını sınırlamak zorunda kaldığı bilinmektedir. Genel Kurul Islington’daki öğrenci sayısını evvela 40’a, ardından 33’e düşürme kararını vermiştir. Böylece 1878 ve 1879 yıllarında yeni kabul edilen öğrenci sayısı on dörde; 1880-1881’de yediye ve 1881-1885’de on bire düşmüştür (Stock, 1899, C. III, s. 255-256; CMS Arşivi, 2 Eylül 1882, G/C1/36, s. 721-722; 9 Haziran 1883, G/C1/39, s. 39-41).

CMS okullarında esprit de corps’u kuvvetlendiren unsurlardan biri de öğrenci dernekleriydi. Bu derneklerdeki aktiviteler arasında, üst sınıftaki öğrencilerin yeni talebelere mentorluk etmeleri dikkati çekmektedir. Okula kabul edilen öğrencilere teftiş kurulu tarafından hazırlanan bir yönerge verilmiş ve yatakhanelerini üst sınıftaki ağabeyleriyle paylaşacaklarına dair bir evrak imzalamaları istenmişti (CMS Arşivi, 13 Ocak 1884, G/C1/42, s. 349). Bu kitapçık, yalnızca okulda geçerli kuralları içermeyip, aynı zamanda evlilik kaideleri, çalışma alanları vb. konularda öğrencileri nasıl bir geleceğin beklediğine dair ön bilgileri de vermekteydi. Başka bir ifadeyle, hem misyonerlik eğitim sürecinde hem istikbaldeki kariyerinde CMS için makbul bireyin tanımı yapılmıştı. Yönerge genel kurulun, öğrencilerin sahip oldukları iman gücü ve değerleri sayesinde eğitimleri süresince kuralları eksiksiz yerine getireceklerine dair bir iyi niyet ifadesiyle sona

ermekteydi (CMS Arşivi, 1877, G/AZ1/1-229). Adayın misyonda görevlendirilebilmesi için temel şart; en geç bir yıl içinde yabancı dil sınavlarından geçmesi ve sahaya çıkmasında bir engelin bulunmadığına dair sağlık raporunu almasıydı (CMS Arşivi, 1877-1890, G/AZ1/1-229; G/AZ1/2-251).

Islington'daki eğitimini tamamlayan misyoner adayı, mezuniyetini müteakip kilise hiyerarşisinde bir konuma atanmak üzere Londra piskoposuna takdim edilirdi. Piskopos tarafından yapılan sınavda da başarılı bulunması durumunda, düşük bir rütbeyle misyonda vazifelenmesine izin verilirdi. Cemiyet, piskoposluktan verilen karar doğrultusunda gerekli tahsisatı temin etmekle sorumluydu. Ayrıca misyonda görevlendirilen misyonerin, cemiyetle bağlantısını koruyabilmesi için yalnızca maddi zorunluluklar yeterli bulunmamış, sahadaki çalışmalarına ilgili sürekli bir bilgi akışını sağlaması istenmiştir. Bu bilgilendirme iki yönlüdür ve sadece misyondan merkeze değil, merkezden misyona da bilgiler, uyarılar, tavsiyeler, değişiklik kararları gönderilmiştir.

Cemiyetle irtibatın kesilmek istenmesi durumunda da birtakım prosedürlerin tamamlanması beklenmekteydi. Şayet ayrılık kararı eğitim aşamasındayken verilmişse, o takdirde güçlük çıkmadan işlemler halledilebilirdi. Özellikle bu karar aday tarafından değil de, okul idarecileri, Genel Kurul yahut Teftiş Kurulu'nca öğrencinin yeterli bulunmaması gerekçesiyle verilmişse, adayın cemiyetten ihraç edilme süreci ivedilikle tamamlanmıştı. Ancak kilise hiyerarşisinde bir rütbe kazanmış ve misyonda görevlendirilmiş bir kimse, kendi istek ve iradesiyle cemiyetten ayrılma kararı almışsa, bir miktar para cezası ödemek zorunda bırakılmıştı. Bu ceza asgari, tahsil döneminde kendisi için harcanan tutar, azami olarak ise misyonerlik süresince ödenen ücretlerin bir kısmı idi (CMS Arşivi, 1877-1890, G/AZ1/1-229). Cemiyet geri ödeme zorunluluğunun yol açabileceği sorunları hesaba katarak, ilk senelerden farklı olmak üzere misyonerlerle hayat-boyu geçerliliği bulunan bir sözleşme yapmamaya karar vermiştir. Böylece her yıl yenilenen sözleşmeli misyonerlerin cemiyetle bağlantısını kesmek istemeleri Genel Kurul için bir sorun olmaktan çıkmıştır (CMS Arşivi, *Intelligencer*, Mayıs 1881, s. 286-289).

Kadın misyoner yetiştirmek üzere Islington kolejinde kız öğrencilerin kabulü fikri ilk defa 1859'da CMS genel kurulu üyelerinden Papaz Penefather ve Papaz Banet tarafından kaleme alınan bir tasarıyla gündeme gelmiştir. Genel kurul, kadın misyonerlerin sahada istihdamlarına ve cemiyete üyeliklerine çekimser bir tavır sergilemişken bu öneriye sempatiyle yaklaşmıştır. CMS'in bu yöndeki ilk adımı, 1863'de Sierra Leone'daki Protestan kız okulunda kadın misyonerleri vazifelenmesiydi. Bu kararı takiben aynı yılın Ekim ayında çok sayıda kadın, misyoner-öğretmenlik için başvuruda bulunmuştu. Çoğunluğunu CMS mensubu misyonerlerin eşlerinin, kardeşlerinin yahut kızlarının teşkil ettiği bu başvurular, İngiltere'deki evanjelik uyanışın (Warren, 1963, s. 115-123) neticelerinden biri olsa da, cemiyetin aktif görev için uzun süre ayak dirediği anlaşılmaktadır (Stock, 1899, C. II, s. 398). Nihayet 1864 senesinde CMS, kadın misyonerlerin yetiştirilmesi ve misyon bölgelerinde istihdam edilmeleriyle ilgili olmak üzere şu kararları kabul etmiştir:

- 1) Evvela Akdeniz ve Hindistan'daki misyon bölgelerinde faaliyet gösteren Protestan okullarında –çocuklar ve yetişkinler için-, Pazar okullarında erkek misyonerlerin eşleri, kızkardeşleri yahut kızları sorumluluk üstlenebilecektir. Misyoner öğretmen olarak vazifelenilmeden önce cemiyet, kadınların tahsili için Islington kolejinde yeni bir yapılanmaya gidecektir. Bu durum zamanla kadınların misyon bölgelerinde müstakil ve münferid faaliyetlerine elverişli bir zemin hazırlayacaktır.
- 2) Islington kolejinde kadınlara yönelik sınıflarda öğretmenlik eğitimine, misyolojik ve teolojik konulara oranla daha fazla önem verilecektir.
- 3) Kadın misyonerlerin her türlü işlerinden sorumlu olmak üzere cemiyette bir Kadınlar Komitesi teşkil edilecektir (Erdoğan, 2008, s. 62). Bununla birlikte gerek eğitim alanında gerekse diğer misyonerlik hizmetlerinde kadınların bağımsız olarak hareket etmelerine izin verilmeyecektir.

Bu kararlara rağmen CMS'in beş yıl içerisinde, 1864'ten 1869'a dek misyoner olarak görevlendirdiği kadın sayısı bir elin parmaklarını geçmemiştir (Stock, 1899, C. II, s. 389-399).

Islington Koleji'nden mezun olup misyonlarda çalışan misyonerlerin Mayıs 1862 itibarıyla oranını gösteren tablo aşağıdaki gibiydi (CMS Arşivi, H/H5/E2 [Home Division], No. 299, s. 46) :

	Kateşist	Müdür	Müdire	Toplam
Afrika	22	41	11	74
Akdeniz	4	3	0	7
Kuzey Hindistan	82	225	54	361
Güney Hindistan	286	430	144	860
Batı Hindistan	12	42	5	59
Sri Lanka	47	67	37	151
Morityus	2	3	1	6
Çin	10	8	1	19
Yeni Zelenda	-	-	-	542
Kuzeybatı Amerika	10	10	0	20
Toplam				2099

Bu oran İngiltere’de 1859-1861 yılları arasındaki evanjelik hareketin etkisiyle iki misline yükselmişse de, üniversite mezunlarını koleje çekme konusunda sıkıntılar devam etmişti. Meselenin halledilememesi, cemiyet genel kurulunda birtakım tepkilere neden olmuş ve koleje giriş şartlarının çok ağır olduğundan şikayet edilmişti. Öyle ki bazı üyeler, koleje kabul edilmek için “piskoposlardan dahi fazla teolojik bilginin istenmesini” eleştirmişlerdi. Söz konusu tenkitlere cemiyet tarafından, kamusal alanlarda vaizlik yapanların dua ve ibadet esaslarından başka bir şey bilmedikleri gerekçesiyle itibar edilmemesi, ihtilafın büyümesine yol açmıştı. Diğer taraftan Piskopos Richard Bickersteth gibi “hiç kimse acı ve zorluk çekmekten şikayetçi olmasın! Son yıllarda eğitim kurumlarındaki disiplinin bozulmasının, aşırı tüketimin ve ferdiyetçi düşünce tarzının, en az inançsızlık kadar tehlikeli olan hür düşünce akımının önlenmesinin, standartlarından taviz vermeyen bir teolojik ve misyolojik eğitimle engellenebileceği” fikrinde olanlar da mevcuttu (CMS Arşivi, Eylül 1879, *Intelligencer*, s. 540). Nitekim cemiyet tarafından 1871’de kaleme alınan bir raporda; insanlığın ahlaki ve dini sapkınlıktan kurtarılmasının özel yeteneklerle donatılmış misyonerler vasıtasıyla mümkün olabileceğinden, kolejdeki standartlardan taviz verilmeyeceği ifade edilmişti. CMS bu tavrıyla kemmiyetten ziyade keyfiyetin ön plana çıkarıldığını ve başta Cambridge olmak üzere Islington’a kabul edilen üniversite mezunlarının hizmetin yaygınlaşmasında büyük potansiyel arzettiklerini eklemiştir (Stock, 1899, C. II, s. 392).

Papaz Frost’un 1875’te müdürlük görevinden ayrılmasını müteakip (Stock, 1899, C. III, s. 46), kolejin idaresine getirilen Papaz Barlow döneminde (1875-1898) aktif misyonerlik yapan 91 talebe yetiştirilmiştir. Barlow’un Cambridge mezunu olması, koleje ve cemiyete üniversite mezunlarının bu dönemde daha yoğun ilgi göstermesini sağlamıştır. Müdür Barlow, 1870-1872 yılları arasındaki kadar olmasa da, devam eden öğrenci sıkıntısını aşabilmek düşüncesiyle Cambridge’e taşınma teklifini genel kurula sunmuştur. Cambridge’deki üniversite ortamının nitelik ve nicelik açısından koleji müspet yönde etkileyeceğini varsaymıştır. Ne var ki CMS, Islington’daki binada kalmanın kurumsal devamlılık ve tarihi süreklilik açısından daha fazla itibar kazandıracak düşüncesiyle teklife sıcak bakmamıştır. Nitelik ve nicelik açısından iyileştirme yollarının arandığı tam da bu dönemde, misyoner adaylarının Oxford ve Cambridge’deki teoloji sınavlarına kabul edilmeleri ve Islington kolejinin, öğrencileri bu sınava hazırlayacağını vaad etmesi okulu, bir “enstitü” olmaktan çıkarmış ve “kolej” haline getirmiştir (Bullock, 1976, s. 123-125; CMS Arşivi, 18 Ekim 1883, G/C1/42, s. 84-88; 27 Aralık 1883, G/C1/43, s. 191-194; G/C1/47, s. 593). Bu bağlamda Papaz Barlow, tüm öğrenciler için kep ve cüppe giyme zorunluluğu getirerek bu hissiyatı perçinlemek istemiştir (Stock, 1899, C. III, s. 45). Kıyafet mecburiyeti yemeklerde, dua ve ayinler ile ders saatlerinde geçerlidir (CMS Arşivi, 24 Ağustos 1883, G/C1/41, s. 662). Böylece Islington Koleji, Londra piskoposluğu için yapılan sınava ilaveten, İngiltere’nin en prestijli üniversitelerindeki teoloji fakültelerine giriş sınavları için de en verimli çalışmaların yapıldığı yerlerden biri haline gelmiştir.

Aynı yıllarda Papaz W.H. Barlow, Genel Kurul’a bir teklif tasarısı sunmuş ve Oxford veya Cambridge Üniversiteleri’nde misyoner adaylarının eğitimi için bir binanın tahsisıyla ilgili cemiyetin harekete geçmesini talep etmiştir. Böylece öğrencilerin bir kısmı, misyoner adaylarına özel teoloji derslerini takip ederken diğerleri üniversitenin normal programına devam edebilecektir. Ayrıca tıp ve filoloji alanındaki profesörlerin de misyoner adayı öğrencilerin eğitimine destek verebilme ihtimalleri sorulmuştur. Barlow diğer taraftan misyoner adaylarının, bu üniversitelerdeki yoğun felsefe öğretiminden olumsuz etkilenme ve tamamen dünyevi amaçları gözetken bir kariyer planlaması yapma tehlikesinin bulunduğu dikkat çekmiş ve yalnızca teolojik silahlarla bu savaşın kazanılacağını ifade etmiştir. Ne var ki, genel kurul böyle bir adım için henüz erken olduğunu ve planın başarısız olması durumunda cemiyetin büyük bir prestij kaybına uğrayacağını belirterek öneriyi reddetmiştir. Ayrıca bu üniversitelerdeki imkânların tesirinde kalacak olan öğrenciler, misyonlara gitmek yerine ülkelerinde yaşamayı tercih edeceklerdi (CMS Arşivi, 1876-1882, G/C5). Papaz Barlow genel kurula teklifini kabul ettirememişti, ancak kendi başkanlık döneminde Islington Misyoner Enstitüsü’nü kolej haline getirmeyi başarmıştı (Stock, 1899, C. II, s. 99-100). Kolej programında misyonerlerin ikinci bir dil öğrenmesi zorunlu kılınmıştı (CMS Arşivi, 22 Temmuz 1883, G/C1/38, s. 453).

Ders Programı

Anglikan ruhban hiyerarşisine dahil edilmek üzere ileri seviyede misyoloji ve teoloji eğitimi verilen kolejde, öğrencilerin bireysel seviyeleri, kişisel geçmişleri ve gelecekteki beklentileri doğrultusunda tedrisat yapılmıştır. Başka bir ifadeyle, teoloji fakültelerinin yahut seminerlerin aksine tek yönlü bir program uygulamak yerine yetiştirme amacına uygun olarak farklı alanlarda eğitim verilmiştir. Teoloji eğitimi çerçevesinde klasik dillerde – Latince, Grekçe ve İbranice- verilen eğitim ve bu kademedeki gösterilen performans, öğrencilerin tüm tahsil hayatını belirleyici bir aşama olarak kabul edilmiştir. Bu lisanların yanısıra adaylara, misyon bölgelerinde geçerli dillerde bilgi sahibi olma imkânını veren bir strateji takip edilmiştir. Ayrıca İngilizce ve/veya modern

dillerde kompozisyon ve inşa dersleri misyonerlik faaliyetleri açısından zorunlu olarak okutulması gereken dersler arasında görülmüştür. Aritmetik, coğrafya, tarih, tabiat bilimlerine giriş, doğa felsefesi, tıp, botanik ve kimya dersleri fen eğitimi kapsamında okutulan derslerdir. Tüm bu derslerin misyoloji alanında öğrencilerin entelektüel ve ruhsal formasyonuna katkı sağlayacak şekilde öğretilmesi gerekliliğine dikkat çekilmiştir.

Takip edilen programla, misyonerlerin nitelikli bir formasyona sahip bulunmaları gerektiğine inandığını gösteren CMS, teolojinin temel temalarının müdür ve öğretmenler tarafından mütemadiyen verilen konferanslar vasıtasıyla da pekiştirilmesini istemiştir (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations for the Church Missionary Society's Institution at Islington", H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/35, s. 3). Tarih dersleri genel ve eklesiyastik olmak üzere iki bölüm halinde yapılandırılmıştır (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations", G/AZ1/2, s. 5). Eklesiyastik tarih dersleri öğrencilere; kilisenin misyon hareketine dair öğretileri, normları, İncil müjdecilerinin yüzyıllardır katettikleri yolları ve tarih boyunca uygulanmış metodları öğretmenin yanısıra onları Hristiyanlık haricindeki (Doğu'daki) din ve kültürlerle diyalog için bilimsel açıdan hazırlamayı da hedeflemiştir. Kolejin dogmatik, biblika, ahlaki, tarihsel ve fen branşlarındaki öğretiminde tüm dikkatler misyoner unsurlar üzerinde odaklanmıştır. Nitekim geleceğin misyon erlerine, kutsal mesajın en iyi şekilde anlatıldığı vaazları kaleme almalarını ve dünyanın herhangi bir bölgesinde faaliyet yürütmelerini sağlayacak etkili iletişim becerileri konusunda uzmanlaşma imkânı verildiği anlaşılmaktadır. Mezmur okuma sanatı bu yöndeki hedeflerin önemli bir boyutudur. Teknik bilgilere ilaveten ziraat konuları da tarıma ve bahçeciliğe dair bilgi ve donanım sahibi kılmak, muhatap kitleyle daha güçlü bir ilişki geliştirmelerini sağlamak amacıyla uygulamaya yönelik dersler kapsamında gösterilmiştir (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations", G/AZ1/2, s. 5). Ayrıca CMS'in misyon bölgelerindeki temel geçim ve ticaret kaynağının tarım olduğu dikkate alındığında bu derslerin önemi nispeten artmaktadır.

Öğretmenlerin öğrencilere birebir eğitim verdikleri derslerin yanısıra, üst sınıftaki başarılı öğrencilerin alt sınıftakileri çalıştırdıkları etüd saatlerine programda yer verilmesi, cemiyetin ekonomik imkânları hesaba katarak eğitim faaliyetlerini yürütmek zorunda olduğuna işaret etmektedir. Bu metod, misyoner adaylarının henüz tahsil sürecinde iken öğretmenlik uygulaması yapmaları, eğitim yönetimi ve okul idaresi hakkında genel prensipleri edinmeleri konusunda birtakım kazanımlar elde etmelerini kolaylaştırmıştır (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations for the Church Missionary Society's Institution at Islington", H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/35, s. 3).

Islington Koleji'nde misyon bölgelerinde ortaya çıkan ihtiyaçlar doğrultusunda yeni derslerin eklenmesine izin veren esnek bir eğitim programı takip edilmiştir. İlave edilmesi öngörülen konular arasında; Karşılaştırmalı Filoloji derslerini desteklemek üzere bir Şark dili, Misyonerlik Tarihi, Misyonerlerin Biyografileri ve sahadaki tecrübeleri ile Butler'ın Analojisi gibi Müslüman ulemaya yahut pagan unsurlara karşı kullanılabileceği düşünülen apolojetik eserler bulunmaktaydı. Ayrıca öğrencilere, genel kültürlerini ve algılama-analiz düzeylerini artırmaları amacıyla Londra'daki muhtelif akademilerde fen bilimlerinde verilen konferanslara katılma imkânı tanınmıştı (CMS Arşivi, 1855-1876, "Minute and Resolutions of the Corresponding Committee, on the means of giving to missionary students a more complete training for their future work", G/AZ1/2 (Circulars and Other Papers), No. 265, s. 4).

Öğrenci sayısı iki yıl içerisinde elliye yükselen kolejdeki (CMS Arşivi, 1855-1876, "Report of the Sub-Committee, appointed by a Resolution of the General Committee of October 14, 1850", G/AZ1/2 (Circulars and Other Papers), s. 1) müfredat; başlangıçtan itibaren talebelerin, İngiliz Anglikan Kilisesi'nce kabul edilen doktrinel eğitimi almaları yönünde planlanmıştır. Bu eğitim hem Anglikan kilisesinin hakikiliğini ve evrenselliğini hem de dünyadaki inanç sistemlerine nazaran üstünlüğünü içermektedir. Sözkonusu tedrisat, misyoner adaylarının hazırlandıkları görevle irtibatlı tüm çalışmaların yanısıra kendilerine yarar sağlayacak diğer aktiviteleri de içine almıştır. Başka bir ifadeyle, Hristiyan olmayanların Hristiyanlaştırılmasına yönelik daha istekli olunmasının gerekliliğine inandıracak dogmatik ve biblika eğitimle birlikte bilişsel algı, bellek, muhakeme gibi zihinsel yeteneklerin güçlendirilmesine; veciz, sade ve basit üslupta sözlü ve yazılı ifade verilebilmesine; uyanık, tetik ve ihtiyatlı olunmasına, sabır ve sebat duygularının geliştirilmesine, tevazu, nezaket değerlerinin kazandırılmasına çalışılmış ve bu suretle sahada karşılaşılabilecekleri problemleri aşabilecek donanımın verilmesi istenmiştir (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations", G/AZ1/2, s. 5). Öğrencileri öncelikli vazifelerinin; Tanrı krallığı ile bilim, kültür, dil, dünya görüşü vb. unsurların etkili olduğu bu dünyanın krallıkları arasındaki engelleri kaldırmak ve İncil'in mesajını başarılı bir şekilde iletmek olan Mesih elçileri olduklarına inandırmak, kolej ve cemiyet yetkililerince bir zorunluluk kabul edilmiştir.

Temel amacı Hristiyan olmayan topluluklar arasında evanjelist faaliyetler yürütecek nitelikte bireyler yetiştirmek olan kolejde, ruhban olmak isteyen talebeler için biblika, teolojik ve tarihsel bilgiye dayanan Hristiyanlık eğitimi de verilmişti. Bu doğrultuda takip edilen eğitim-öğretim ilkelerinin temel unsurları şunlardır:

- 1) İngiliz Anglikan Kilisesi'nin ruhban hiyerarşisine dahil olmak isteyen talebeler Latince, Grekçe ve İbranice öğrenmek zorundalardı.

- 2) Tüm öğrenciler cemiyet bursuyla tahsil hayatını tamamlamaktaydı. Buna bağlı olarak mezuniyetten sonra CMS'in uygun gördüğü tüm vazifelerde çalışmak yahut öğrenim bursunu iade etmek zorundalardı (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations", G/AZ1/2, s. 3).
- 3) Hem yazılı hem sözlü olarak İngilizce'yi etkin bir şekilde kullanması gereken öğrenciler, ilaveten Karşılaştırmalı Filoloji, Tabiat Felsefesi'ne Giriş, Tıp, Kimya ve Botanik derslerini almışlardı. Karşılaştırmalı Filoloji dersi, talebelere yeni bir lisan öğrenme konusunda temel oluşturacağı düşüncesiyle özellikle önemsenmişti.
- 4) Kilise Tarihi ve Genel Beşeri Tarih ile Teoloji ileri seviyedeki öğrenciler için zorunlu dersler arasında yer almıştır. Ayrıca İsa Mesih'in Hz. Muhammed ile karşılaştırılması, dünyadaki farklı inanç sistemlerine nazaran Hristiyanlık'ın üstün olmasındaki gerekçeler ve Şark toplumlarındaki kültürel, linguistik, sosyolojik dinamiklerin tanınmasına ilişkin konular da bu seviyede okutulan derslerdi.
- 5) Teorik eğitimin yanısıra öğrenciler Kutsal Kitab'ı en veciz, sade, basit, kati, ilmi ve sistematik şekilde yazılı ve sözlü olarak ifade edebilme becerisini kazanacakları, vaaz verme yeteneklerini geliştirecekleri pratik dersler görmüşlerdir. Uygulamalar öğrencilerde; temel kavramlar üzerinde hakimiyet kurma, Hristiyanlık'ın kaynaklarını tanıyıp kavrama, dinin temel inanç, ibadet ve ahlak esaslarını öğrenme, Hristiyanlık tarihindeki olayları sebep ve sonuçlarıyla birlikte açıklama, din ile birey, toplum, kültür, bilim ilişkisini izah etme, dindeki farklı görüş ve yorumları bilme, teoloji alanında temel problemleri tanıma ve diğer inanç sistemleri hakkında yeterli bilgiye sahip olma niteliklerini kazanmaları doğrultusunda gerçekleştirilmiştir.
- 6) Zorunlu dersler arasında yer alan mezmurları okuma sanatı ile sahada aktif ve etkin faaliyet göstermelerinde faydalı olacak teknik becerilerin kazandırılması, tarla, bahçe işlerinde yerli ahaliyle rabitasını güçlendirecek düzeyde yeterliliğin geliştirilmesi programın öne çıkan unsurları arasında yer almaktadır.
- 7) Kolejdeki öğrenim süresi üç yıl olup, ilk yılı misyoner adaylarının sahadaki faaliyetlerinden evvel alması gereken standart dersler olarak kabul edilmiş, son iki sınıf ise bütünüyle teolojik eğitime tahsis edilmiştir. Yerel dillerin eğitimi yine bu dönemde verilmiştir. Ancak klasik dillerden herhangi birini bilmeyen talebeler, ilk iki yılda lisan derslerini ve genel eğitimi tamamlayacak, teoloji tahsillerini ise sonraki iki senede alacaklardı (CMS Arşivi, 1855-1876, "Minute and Resolutions of the Corresponding Committee, on the means of giving to missionary students a more complete training for their future work", G/AZ1/2 (Circulars and Other Papers), No. 265, s. 3). Yine ruhban sınıfı için hazırlanan öğrenciler, müdürün uygun gördüğü konuları da çalışmak üzere daha uzun süre derslere devam edebileceklerdi (CMS Arşivi, "Regulations", G/AZ1/2, s. 7).
- 8) Her talebe öğrenim süresince en az bir dönem, İngiltere'nin en iyi okullarından birinde muayyen süre bulunmak zorundaydı. Bu uygulamalı eğitim, öğrencilerin okul kurumunu tüm unsurlarıyla birlikte tanıyıp alışmasına imkân vermiştir. Söz konusu ders; okuldaki yapılanmayı kavramak, okuldaki birim ve unsurları tanımak, öğretmenlik için gerekli olan bilgi ve beceriyi kazandırmak amacıyla gözlem ağırlıklı bir ders olarak planlanmıştır.
- 9) Kolejde verilen öğretmenlik formasyon dersleri ve uygulamaları talebelerin; misyon bölgelerinde faaliyete geçirilecek Protestan okullarında, yerli ahalden cemaate ve kiliseye liderlik edebilecek, Hristiyan literatürünü yerel dillere çevirebilecek, genç nesilleri öğretmen ve din adamı olarak yetiştirecek eğitim programlarını takip edebilecek yeterliliğe ulaştırılmasını hedeflemişti (CMS Arşivi, 1855-1876, "Minute and Resolutions of the Corresponding Committee, on the means of giving to missionary students a more complete training for their future work", G/AZ1/2, No. 265, s. 2).
- 10) Toplumla işbirlikli ve eşgüdümlü çalışmalar gerçekleştirmek bilhassa yardıma, aydınlatılmaya muhtaç kesimlere hizmet götürmek, misyoloji ve teoloji eğitiminin ayrılmaz bir parçası olarak kabul edildiğinden, öğrencilerin Islington piskoposluk bölgesinin varoşlarında kateşistlik yapma uygulamalarına program kapsamında yer verilmiştir. Bu uygulamalar aynı zamanda, öğrencilerin misyon alanında karşılaşılabilecekleri problem ve meseleleri kavramaları ve bunları çözmek üzere nasıl bir strateji takip etmeleri gerektiğini öğrenmeleri açısından da önemlidir.
- 11) Kolejdeki teolojik eğitim Protestan olmayan Hristiyan toplumlar arasında da faaliyet gösterebilecek donanımda misyonerlerin yetiştirilmesi hedefini gözeterek öğrencilere, Anglikan kilisesinin emsallerine oranla Hristiyanlık tarihindeki, düşüncesindeki yerini ve önemini aktarma yetisini kazandıracak şekilde planlanmıştır.
- 12) Kurumun iç yapılanması talebelerde uyanık ve itiyatlı olma, sabretme, ötekine karşı duyarlılık geliştirme, şahsi hırs ve beklentilerini dizginleyebilme, basit, sade, açık bir kişiliğe sahip bulunma vb. misyonerlik yetilerinin geliştirilmesine ve zihnin güçlendirilmesine yönelik olmak üzere teşkilatlandırılmıştır.
- 13) Kolejdeki eğitimin her aşaması; diğer din mensuplarına Hristiyanlık'ı tanıtmak, onların Hristiyan olmalarını sağlamak, Mesih tutkusunu aşılama, misyonerlik faaliyetleri neticesinde yeni Hristiyan olmuş kişilerle irtibatı korumak ve Hristiyan olacak yeni insanlar aramak hedefleri doğrultusunda gerçekleştirilmişti (CMS

Arşivi, 13 Temmuz 1868, “Minutes and Resolutions on the means of giving to missionary students a more complete training for their future work”, H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/156, s. 6-7; “Arrangements for the Management of a Mission of the Church Missionary Society where no Corresponding Committee has been Appointed as Representatives of the Parent Committee”, H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/216, s. 2-4).

Bu programdan anlaşıldığı üzere akademik eğitimin yanısıra CMS, misyoner adaylarının pratik konularda da nitelikli bir öğretime tabi tutulmasına özen göstermiştir. Sözelimi, öğrencilerin karşılaşabilecekleri Hristiyan teolojisinin doktrinel temellerine dair meseleleri, bunları nasıl yanıtlayabileceklerini, iletişim kurma ve ikna becerilerini gündeme getiren konferanslar ve münazaralar tertip edilmiştir (CMS Arşivi, 19 Temmuz 1883, G/C1/38, s. 357). Ayrıca tüm misyoner adaylarına on iki ders saati olmak üzere fizyoloji, tıp ve cerrahi konularında temel düzeyde seminerler de verilmiştir (CMS Arşivi, 5 Şubat 1884, G/C1/42, s. 516-518; 29 Şubat 1884, G/C1/43, s. 191-192). Yine 1868’den itibaren adaylar yoksulların evlerine ziyaretlere başlamışlar, onlara inanç konusunda vaazlar vermişler; banliyölerde kateşist ve vaiz olarak bir tür stajyerlik eğitimine tabi tutulmuşlardı (CMS Arşivi, 1872-1888, G/AZ1/1-156).

Sınıf Disiplini ve Kuralları

Kolejdeki eğitim faaliyetlerinin hedeflerine uygun olarak planlı bir şekilde yürütülmesi için bazı disiplin kuralları benimsenmiştir:

- 1) Talebeler; papazlık için hazırlananlar, adaylar, kateşistler ve stajyerler olmak üzere dört şubeye taksim edilmiştir. Öğrencilerin geneli için öğrenim süresi üç sene iken papaz adaylarının teolojide ihtisaslaşmaları amacıyla “statu pupillari” adıyla bir yıl daha eğitimlerini uzatma imkânları mevcuttur (CMS Arşivi, 1855-1876, “Minute and Resolutions of the Corresponding Committee, on the means of giving to missionary students a more complete training for their future work”, G/AZ1/2, No. 265, s. 3).
- 2) Öğrencilerin şubelere dağılımı, koleje kayıt yaptıkları tarihe göre değişebildiği gibi daha evvelki formasyon ve tecrübelerine bağlı olarak da gerçekleşebilmiştir.
- 3) Şubeler arasında, öğrencilere yüklenen sorumluluklar açısından düzey farklılıkları bulunmaktadır. Sözelimi, papazlığa hazırlanan şubedeki talebeler, henüz deneme aşamasında olanlara öğretmenlik yapmakla ve bunların okula oryantasyonlarını sağlamakla görevlendirilmişlerdi. Yine söz konusu öğrenciler, kurumun düzen ve asayişini bozacak ihlaller gördüklerinde yahut mentorlük yaptıkları öğrencilerin misyonerlik görevine engel olabilecek tutum ve davranışlarını tespit ettiklerinde idareye bildireceklerdi.
- 4) Akşam yemeklerinde ve dualarında müdürün izni ve bilgisi haricinde tüm öğrencilerin hazır bulunması şarttı.
- 5) Yemek saatlerinde hazır bulunmayan öğrencilerin isimleri, en ileri düzeydeki sınıfta okuyan talebeler tarafından tutulan deftere kaydedilecekti.
- 6) Kolej müdürü, her öğrenci hakkında tutum ve davranışları değerlendirdiği bir karne tutacak, bu konuyla ilgili mütalaalarını öğrenciyle hususi görüşmelerinde ifade edecekti.
- 7) Öğrenciler sabah ve akşam ayinleri arasında geçen tüm zamanlarını misyoner farkındalık oluşturabilecek uğraşlarla değerlendireceklerdi. Bu noktada müdür ve öğretmenler misyon ve misyonerlik için faydalı etnoloji, linguistik, dinler tarihi, sosyoloji vb. alanlardaki kitaplardan müteşekkil bir okuma listesi hazırlamak suretiyle talebelere yardımcı olacaklardı.
- 8) İzinli olmadıkları sürece tüm öğrencilerin akşam dualarına katılması zorunluydu.
- 9) Talebelerin evci oldukları günleri ve okula geldikleri saatleri idareye bildirmeleri şarttı.
- 10) Yatılı öğrencilerin odalarını, idarenin izni olmaksızın değiştirmeleri yasaktı.
- 11) Akşam duasından sonra tüm öğrenciler yatakhanelerine çekilecek ve ertesi sabaha dek salona çıkamayacaklardı.
- 12) Kolejin dış kapısı 25 Eylül ile 25 Mart arasında akşam yedide, 25 Mart’tan itibaren dokuzda kapatılacaktı. Bu saatlerden sonra yazılı izin olmaksızın yahut öğretmenin refakati bulunmaksızın okul dışına çıkılamazdı (CMS Arşivi, “Arrangements for the Management of a Mission of the Church Missionary Society, where no corresponding committee has been appointed as representatives of the parent committee”, H/H15/E3/1D (I-Z); E3/E-F (Home Division), No. 216, s. 4-5).

Kütüphane

Talebelerin misyoloji ve teolojiye dair eserlere kolay ulaşmasını sağlamak için Islington Koleji’nde birtakım kurallar benimsenmiştir. Kütüphanenin bir kütüphaneci ile öğrenciler arasından seçilen bir asistanın idaresi altında bulundurulması bu kuralların ilkidir. Ayrıca kitapların, müdürün izni olmaksızın raflardan alınmayacak

olması, buna karşılık kitapların kütüphane içerisinde rahatça okunmasını sağlayacak ortamların oluşturulması da söz konusu kurallar arasında yer almıştır. Talebelerin kütüphane dışına çıkarabilecekleri eserler üç kısma ayrılmıştır. Bu amaçla her gün, sabah duasını müteakip bir zamanda kütüphaneci ile asistanı kütüphaneyi açıp, öğrencilere yanlarına alabilecekleri kitapları dağıtacaktır. Bu dağıtım esnasında öğrenciler, kitapları kolej haricine çıkarmamayı ve takas etmemeyi taahhüd edeceklerdi. Ayrıca her ayın ilk pazartesi günü, bütün talebeler ellerindeki kitapları kütüphaneye getirip kontrol ettirecekler; süresi geçtiği halde geri vermedikleri eserleri kütüphaneye teslim edecekler ve tüm sahifelerin, nüshaların eksiksiz, hasarsız korunduğuna dair kayıt yaptıracaklardı (CMS Arşivi, “Regulations for the Church Missionary Society’s Institution at Islington”, H/H15/E3/1D(I-Z); E-F, No. 125/35, s. 5).

Teftiş Kurulu

Islington Misyoner Yetiştirme Enstitüsü’nün/Koleji’nin tüm faaliyetlerini denetlemekten sorumlu teftiş kurulu, müdür ve CMS genel sekreterlerinin de üyesi bulunduğu dokuz kişi tarafından teşkil edilmiştir. Daha ziyade cemiyetin akademik kariyer sahibi mensupları arasından belirlenen kurul üyeleri, herhangi bir suiistimalin önlenmesi amacıyla her sene yeniden tespit edilmiştir. Kurul zaruri hallerin dışında, üç ayda bir koleji teftiş etmek, idari-eğitsel faaliyetlerin nizamnameye uygun olarak yürütülüp yürütülmediğini denetlemek ve programa, öğretim yöntemlerine ve öğrencilere dair değişiklik önerileri getirmekle vazifelendirilmiştir (CMS Arşivi, 1855-1876, “Minute and Resolutions of the Corresponding Committee, on the means of giving to missionary students a more complete training for their future work”, G/AZ1/2 (Circulars and Other Papers), No. 265, s. 6; “Present System of Training Candidates for the Islington College”, 1881-1883, G/AZ1/4, No. 181). Bu ziyaretlerin, kurul üyeleri yani cemiyet mensupları ile kolej öğrencileri/misyoner adayları arasında yakın teması sağlayacağı düşüncesiyle hiçbir zaman aksatılmaması gerekliliğine dikkat çekilmiştir. Ayrıca kolejden ihraç edilmek istenen öğrenci/öğrenciler hakkında nihai kararı da teftiş kurulu vermiş ve gerekçelerini yazılı bir rapor halinde cemiyet genel kuruluna sunmuştur.

Kolej yetkilileri yemekhanede, yatakhane, kütüphanede ve sınıflarda en ekonomik, sağlıklı ve hijyenik koşulların sağlanmasına yönelik gerekli tedbirleri almakla sorumlu tutulmuşlardır. Bu konuda kendilerine yardımcı olmak, kolejin tüm dahili tehzizatı, tefrişatıyla ilgili ihtiyaçların karşılanmasında ve masrafların ödenmesinde destek vermek üzere her yıl yeniden belirlenen bir dahili komite de (house committee) teşkil edilmiştir.

SONUÇ

Church Missionary Society hedefi belli olan, bu hedef doğrultusunda yapılan ve hedefe hizmet edecek misyonerlerin yetiştirilmesine büyük önem vermiştir. Sahada aktif misyonerlik yapanların, vazifeleri nihayetinde ruhban hiyerarşisine dahil edilecek olmaları kolejdeki eğitimi, üniversite düzeyinde olmasa da Hristiyanlık’a yeni insanlar kazandırmanın bir vasıtası olarak teoloji ile Kutsal Kitab’ı öğretmenin ve genç öğrencilere Hristiyan mesajını iletmenin metodları üzerinde yoğunlaştırmıştır.

CMS’in Islington ve Reading’teki misyoner yetiştirme okullarında adaylar zihinsel, fiziksel ve dini-ahlaki bir eğitim sürecine tabi tutulmuşlardır. Adayların beden güçlerini artıracığı düşüncesiyle; yiyecek, giyecek vb. ihtiyaçları sınırlı olanaklarla karşılanmaya çalışılmış, bilhassa 16 ile 24 yaşları arasında, yemeklerden sonra ağır talimler yaptırma vs. uygulamalar yoğun olarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bununla birlikte enstitü idarecileri, misyoner adaylarının fiziksel aktiviteleri sıkıcı bulduklarından, çoğu zaman katılmak istemediklerinden ve yapılan nasihatleri dinlemediklerinden şikayet etmişlerdir.

Teolojik-misyolojik eğitim, misyoner okullarında takip edilen programın en önemli kısmı olup, dönemin şartları doğrultusunda sık sık revize edilmiştir. Öğrencilere, İngiltere’de ileri gelen bazı okulların yönetim ve idari yapısı tanıtılmış ve nitelikli bir eğitim sisteminin temel unsurları öğretilmiştir. Bu programın üç yıl içerisinde tamamlanması öngörülmüş ve son iki sene filoloji ve teoloji çalışmalarına ağırlık verilmesi planlanmıştır.

Sözkonusu müfredatın, öğrencilere bilgileri sağlayan, sunan ve ezberleten özellikler taşımakla birlikte, bu bilgileri kullanabileceği, pekiştirebileceği, transfer edebileceği bir takım uygulamaları da içerdiği anlaşılmaktadır. Programdaki bu gelişme, CMS’in öğrencilere daha geniş imkânlar sunmak üzere Reading’te de bir misyoner enstitüsü açmasını gerektirmiştir. Ayrıca 1870’den itibaren, talebeler için kurumsal aidiyeti artırmak, özel bir misyonu bulunan bir eğitim sürecinden geçtiklerini hatırlatmak ve esprit de corps oluşturmak üzere kep ve cüppe giyme zorunluluğu da getirilmiştir.

CMS, entelektüel ve pratik eğitimle birlikte ahlak eğitimine de hassasiyet göstermiştir. Misyonerlerin en önemli vazifesinin dini propaganda olduğu görüşünden hareketle, bu eğitimin temel özellikleri arasında keskin

bir zekaya sahip olmak, uyanık, etrafta olan bitenlerin farkında olmak, ihtiyatlı olmak, sebat etmek, mütevazî olmak, samimi olmak, kibirden arınmak, nefsin isteklerine hakim olmak, sade, şeffaf, anlaşılabilir ve kolay iletişim kurulabilir bir kişilik sahibi olmak şeklinde sıralanabilir.

Cumartesi akşamları yapılan dualar ve konuşmalar, bu karakter yapısını şekillendirmek amacı doğrultusunda planlanmakta ve eski mezunların, tecrübeli misyonerlerin nutuklarına zaman ayrılmaktaydı. Yine kutsal kitaplar üzerindeki incelemeler de teolojik perspektiften ziyade pratik misyonerlik düşüncesine göre yapılandırılmış derslerdi. Böyle bir eğitim programı; misyoner eğitiminin ve Protestan okullaşmasının, misyon hareketinin en mühim bölümü olduğu düşüncesinin, gerek kolej yetkililerince gerekse cemiyet genel kurulunca sahadaki misyonerlerin tecrübeleriyle de desteklenerek müttefikten kabul edildiğini ortaya koymaktadır.

EK :

CMS'in Islington Koleji'nde Eğitimlerini Tamamlayıp Akdeniz Misyonunda Görevlendirilmiş Misyoner-Öğretmenler

- 1) 1871-1874 yıllarında Kudüs ve Salt, 1876-1880 arasında Nazareth ve Şam'da görevlendirilen Papaz Franklin A. S. Bellamy
- 2) 1836-1838 tarihlerinde Kahire'de bulunan Papaz Charles H. Blumhardt
- 3) 1874-1875'de Salt'ta görevlendirilen Kateşist Francis Bourazan
- 4) 1849'da Kahire'de, 1849-1850'de Kudüs'te, 1850-1851'de Bağdat'ta, 1851'de Halep, Şam ve Kudüs'te, 1854-1855'de Nablus, İskenderiye ve İstanbul'da görevlendirilen Papaz John Bowen
- 5) 1877-1879'da Nablus'ta görevlendirilen Papaz Christian Fallscheer
- 6) 1835-1842'de İzmir ve İstanbul'da görev yapan Papaz Peter Fjellstedt
- 7) 1876-1880'de Yafa'da görevlendirilen Papaz John R. Longley
- 8) 1852-1880 yılları arasında periyodik aralıklarla Nazareth'de görevlendirilen Papaz James J. Huber
- 9) 1830-1842 ile 1856-1857 döneminde Buca, İzmir, İstanbul, Anadolu ve Kudüs'te görevlendirilen Papaz John A. Jetter
- 10) 1834-1835'de İzmir'de görev yapan Papaz John F. Müller
- 11) 1868-1869'da Nazareth'de görevlendirilen Papaz William F. L. Paddon
- 12) 1843-1871'de İzmir, Anadolu, Kudüs ve Filistin'de görevlendirilen Dr. Charles Sandreczki
- 13) 1878-1880'de Gazze'de görevlendirilen Papaz Alexander W. Schapira
- 14) 1860-1878'de İstanbul'da, Anadolu'da, İzmir'de görevlendirilen Papaz Robert H. Weakley
- 15) 1857-1880'de İzmir, Anadolu, Kudüs, İzmir ve Nazareth'de görevlendirilen Papaz Theodore F. Wolters
- 16) 1855-1880'de Kudüs, Nazareth, Suriye ve Filistin'de görev yapan Papaz John Zeller.
- 17) (*A Register of Missionaries (Clerical, Lay & Females) and Native Clergy from 1804 to 1904*, printed by the CMS for private circulation, 1905, s. lxxvii-cxxxiv).

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Beginning Piano Artistry

Patricia Carter-Zagorski ^a

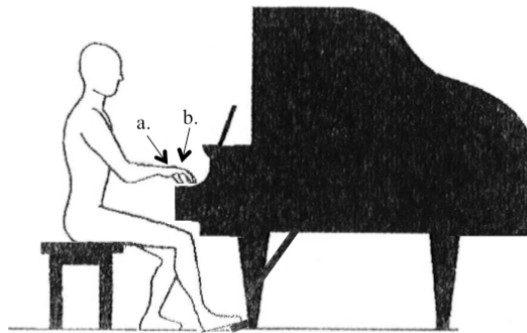
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Beginning Piano Artistry could forever change the way musicians learn to sight-read and play the piano. This unique “big picture” approach focuses on a natural body position, creative improvisation on black key pentatonic scales, sight-reading without looking at the keyboard, reading a musical score with two hands on a grand staff and playing monophonic and homophonic music efficiently.

These lessons fully prepare the student for further keyboard studies.

The main goals of the course include:

1. Achieving an energetic-relaxed whole body position at the piano
2. Exploring the dynamic range of the keyboard through guided improvisation
3. Discovering the poetic idea of the music and the composers intentions
4. Developing tactile awareness of the keyboard through 12 major five-finger patterns, 12 major triads and inversions 12 cadence patterns, five selected scales in contrary and parallel motion
5. Sight-reading on a grand staff with continuity and musicality without looking at the keyboard



LESSON 1: BODY POSITION AT THE KEYBOARD

- First place the big toe of the right foot on the damper pedal with the heel on the floor. (The damper pedal is the pedal on the far right).
- Sit on the front half of the bench, allowing your weight to rest on the four weight points: your two heels on the floor and your two "sitz bones" (rather than the thighs). This position leads to a balanced and tension-free posture.
- The length of the upper arm determines the bench height with elbows at the same level as the white keys. The shorter the upper arm is, the lower the bench can be.
- The arms and hands form a curved position at the keyboard. (See Figure 1, b)
- Float your wrist up to the level of the 3rd knuckle of your hand (See Figure 1, a)

FIND YOUR NATURAL ARM, HAND, AND FINGER POSITIONS

- Let your arms hang loosely from your shoulders.
- Raise your hands above the keyboard, and let them rest on the keyboard in a position that imitates the ergonomic hand position shown on the computer keyboard below.
- Although the piano keyboard is straight, turn your hands slightly inward as if you were using an ergonomic keyboard.
- This ergonomic position will place the fingers conveniently between the black keys.



Ergonomic computer keyboard



Ergonomic hand position at the piano

- Curve your fingers slightly from the third knuckle to the fingertips.
- Position your thumb similarly to the position of the fingers by touching the key on the curve of the nail instead of the first knuckle.

LESSON 2: IMPROVISATION WITH DYNAMICS, ARTICULATIONS AND PHRASING

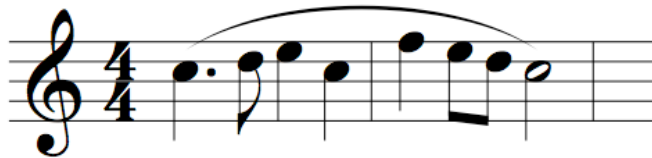
HOW THE PIANO CREATES CONTROLLED DYNAMICS

Create various dynamic levels by depressing a single key at different speeds.

- First depress the key as slowly as possible. {This may result in no sound at all. If possible, look inside a grand piano to see the speed of the hammer movement.}
- Continue striking the key repeatedly at MM (metronome mark) 60 while gradually increasing the key's speed of descent. Notice how this results in a gradual increase in volume.

pp p mp mf f ff

PLAYING WITH PHRASING



Pianists must “walk” from finger to finger in a continuous motion to create a legato sound.

PLAYING STACCATO ARTICULATION



Staccato is Italian for “detached.” In music, this articulation indicates space between notes.

PHRASING AND FORM



“question”

“answer”

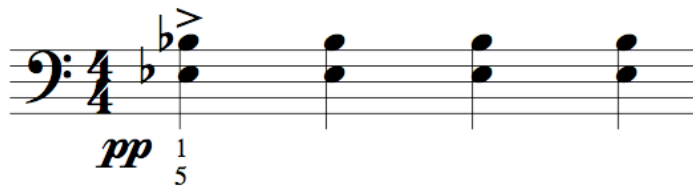
In music, a phrase is a single idea, often in the form of a question or answer. By identifying phrases within a piece of music and looking for repetition, it is possible to understand the overall form. As you play the following improvisation exercises, try creating “questions and answers” in the phrases you build.

IMPROVISATIONS TO A DRONE BASS

Without looking at the keys, place left hand fingers 5 and 1 on the **black keys** E^b-B^b (or the highest black keys of the 2 and 3 black key groups). Play quarter notes at MM 80, which serves as a “drum beat” for your first improvisation exercise.



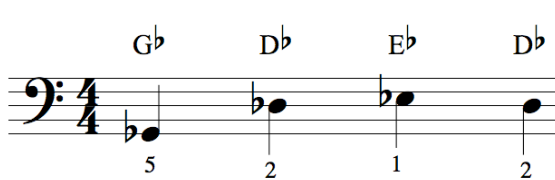
IMPROVISE AN INC



“drum beat” pattern

Play the “drum beat” pattern shown above in the left hand at a *pp* (*pianissimo*) level, i.e. very soft, with an accented downbeat. Meanwhile, improvise one phrase with the right hand on five black keys. Before you play hands together, alternate two measures of the “drum beat” in the left hand followed by two measures of a melody in the right hand. Now, continue your exciting, living legend hands together.

IMPROVISE A CONVERSATION BETWEEN TWO COWBOYS



Bass pattern 1

or



Bass pattern 2

This exercise takes on the character of a conversation between two cowboys on horseback. With the left hand, play a horse’s “clip-ty clop-ty.” Try both of these rhythmic versions in the left hand. Which one feels more natural to you?

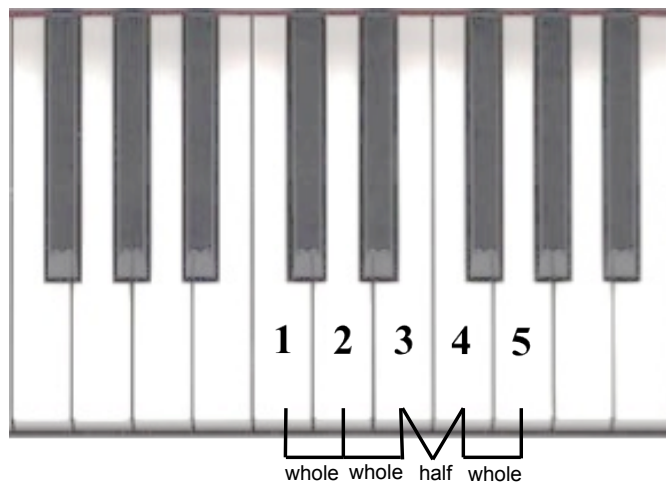
In the right hand, improvise a melody on any of the five black keys or chord clusters that compliment the cowboy theme.

FURTHER IDEAS FOR CREATIVE IMPROVISATION

The following ideas can be used for interesting improvisations. Use two or three techniques below to add variety to the “Indian Legend” or “Cowboy Conversation.”

- Play an octave higher/lower with either hand.
- Change dynamics
- Play staccato or legato
- Change the tempo
- Repeat phrases
- Change the mood of the work

LESSON 3: 12 MAJOR FIVE-FINGER PATTERNS READ FROM KEYBOARD IMAGES



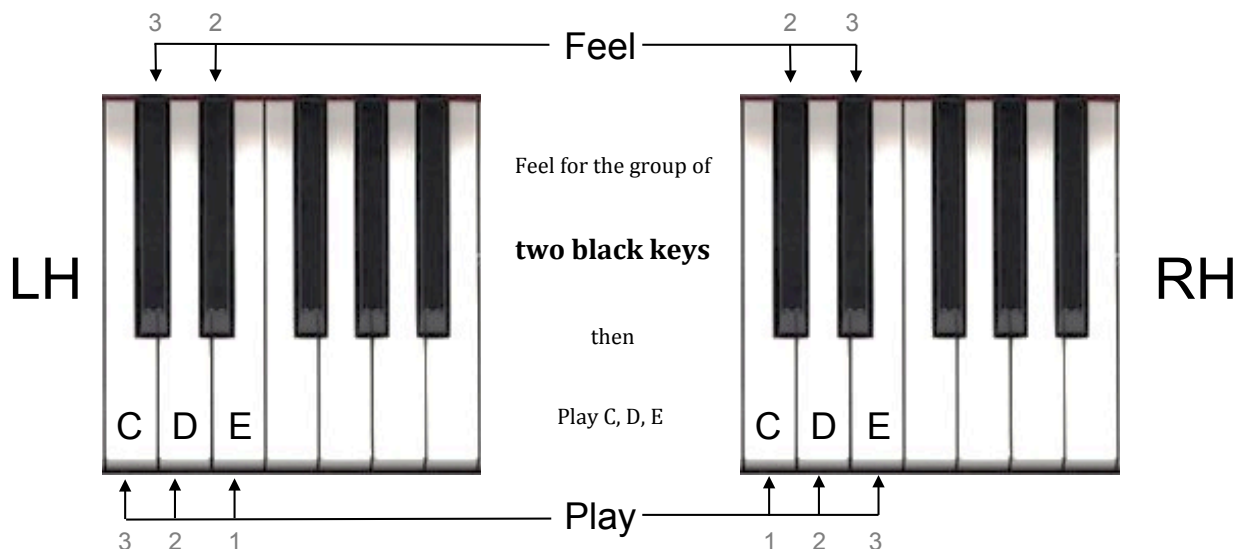
The first five notes of a C major scale represent the C major five-finger patterns.

Finger memory of the twelve major five-finger patterns will help you to read piano music without looking at the keyboard by recognizing the black and white key patterns with your fingers.

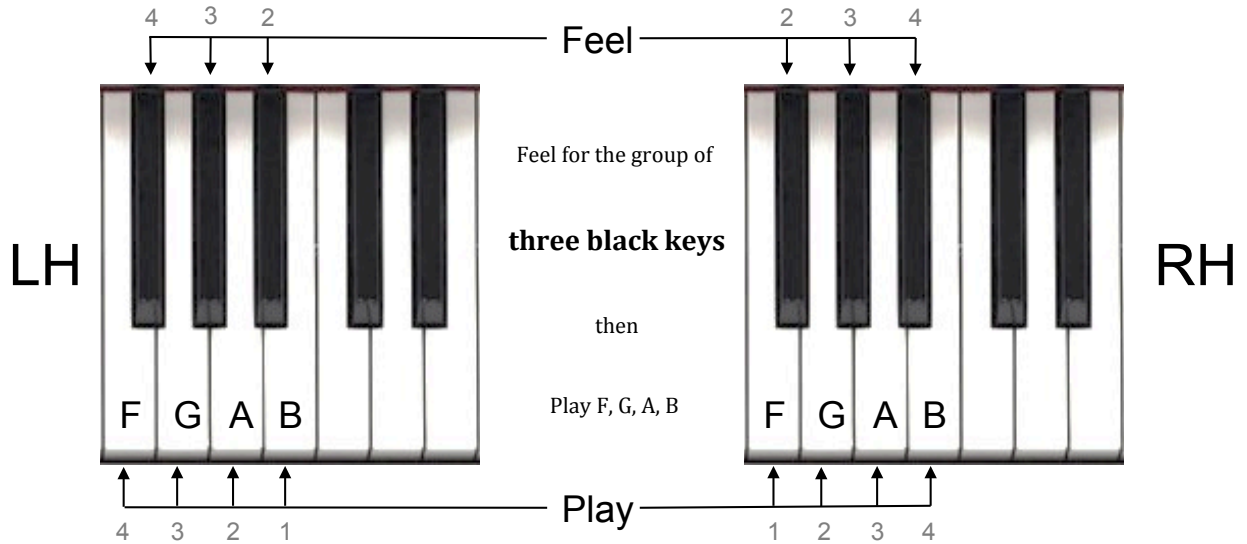
SECRETS OF SIGHT-READING WITHOUT LOOKING AT THE KEYBOARD

Just as you felt your way across the keyboard in Lesson 2, you will expand on this concept in order to learn five-finger patterns. Begin by feeling the black and white key patterns with the right hand *without looking at the keyboard*. The groups of two black keys are surrounded by the white keys C, D, E, and the groups of three black keys are surrounded by F, G, A, B.

Look at the image below, but avoid looking at the real keyboard. Feel the group of two black keys with fingers 2 and 3, then play C, D, E, which surround the two black keys.



Next, look at the image below (but not at the real keyboard). Feel the group of three black keys with fingers 2, 3, and 4—Then play F, G, A, B, which are the white keys that surround the three black key group.



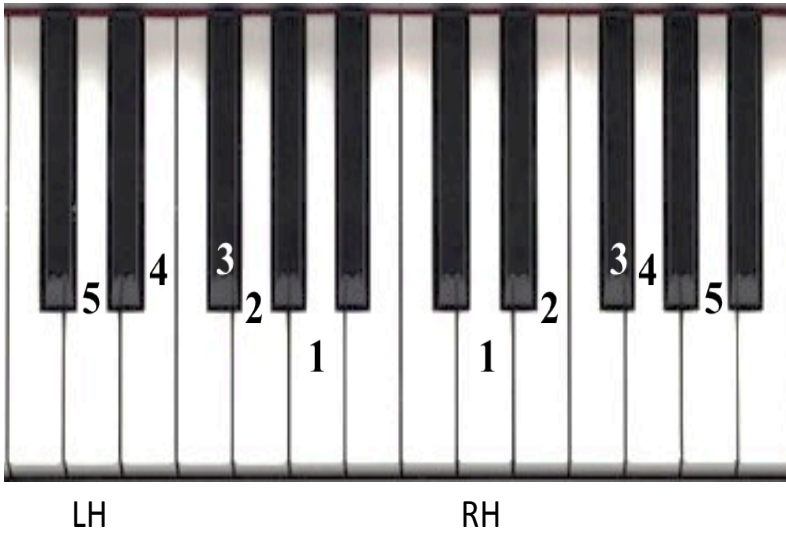
The following chart displays the sequence of black and white keys for each major five-finger pattern. Notice that the black keys and white keys are reversed in each group (D and Db, E and Eb, F and F#/Gb, A and Ab, B and Bb). Play each of these twelve five-finger patterns while keeping your eyes on this chart only. This technique will help you sight-read with continuity as well as prevent tension.

<p>D MAJOR</p> <p>D^b MAJOR</p>	<p>E MAJOR</p> <p>E^b MAJOR</p>	<p>F MAJOR</p> <p>F[#]/G^b MAJOR</p>
<p>A MAJOR</p> <p>A^b MAJOR</p>	<p>B MAJOR</p> <p>B^b MAJOR</p>	<p>C MAJOR</p> <p>G MAJOR</p>

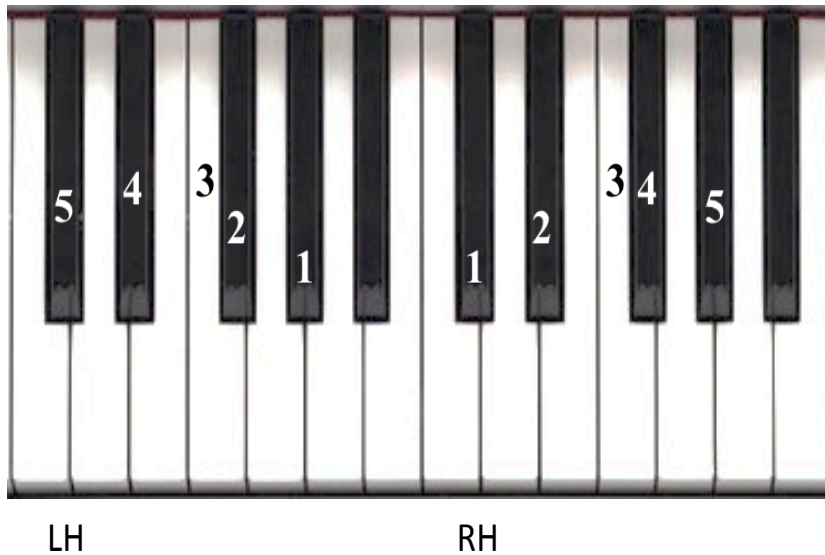
12 MAJOR FIVE-FINGER WARM-UP PATTERNS

Now you will play the major five-finger patterns with both hands in contrary motion. The placement of the fingerings illustrates the natural ergonomic hand and wrist positions, similar to the ergonomic computer keyboard. Numbers indicate finger placement on the keys. Remember: keep your eyes on the printed keyboard rather than the keyboard. **D and Db (see below) are two examples from the twelve major five-finger patterns.**

D 
MA J O R



D 
MA J O R



TECHNIQUE FOR INDEPENDENCE OF HANDS AND FINGERS

Continue to practice the major five-finger patterns you have just learned with the following techniques. Do not look down at the keyboard.

- Legato in both hands
- Staccato (wiping each finger toward the palm) in both hands
- One hand staccato, the other hand legato
- Repeat with hands reversed
- One hand loud (*f*), the other hand soft (*p*)
- Repeat with hands reversed

Note: These 12 major five-finger patterns can become 12 minor five-finger patterns by simply lowering the 3rd scale degree a half step.

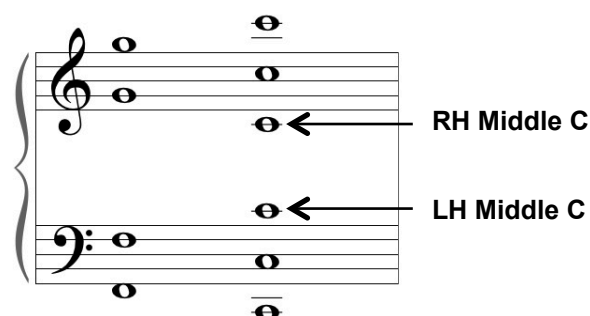
LESSON 4: SIGHT-READING 12 MAJOR FIVE-FINGER PATTERNS ON THE GRAND STAFF

This lesson will help you to recognize rhythmic and major tonal patterns that you will discover in keyboard music. Comprehension of musical vocabulary will help you read groups of notes in a glance rather than single notes.

READING INTERVALS FROM MEMORIZED MARKERS ON THE GRAND STAFF

Memorized markers help musicians who normally read a single staff to read music on the grand staff. Nine notes are mirrored from the center (middle C) of the grand staff.

- If you read a treble clef instrument, base clef C's are a mirrored image of treble clef C's.
- If you read treble clef G's, base clef F's are mirrored.
- The reverse is true if your major instrument is written in bass clef.



Memorized Markers on the Grand Staff

READING ON THE GRAND STAFF HANDS TOGETHER

As you play the following parallel and contrary patterns, you will play two lines together with two hands. If you are accustomed to reading music on a single staff and clef, focus on the clef with which you are less familiar. Before you begin to play, scan the entire line looking for the lowest and highest notes in each grand staff. This will help you to determine a fingering pattern in future sight-reading examples with multiple 5 finger patterns..

Examples of Parallel/Contrary Major Five-Finger Patterns

D |||||
MAJOR

D b

D b |||||
MAJOR

E

FIVE-FINGER PATTERNS WITH DIFFERENT RHYTHMS IN EACH HAND

Play one rhythmic pattern at a time, repeating any measures that need more practice. This exercise is arranged in four consecutive measures. Each measure corresponds to a different rhythmic pattern between LH and RH. Play one rhythmic pattern at a time, repeating any measures that need more practice before moving on to the next measure. Practice this exercise also in [E, Eb] [F, F#/Gb] [A, Ab] [B, Bb] [C and G].

1 2 3 4

1 2 3 4

1 2 3 4

1 2 3 4

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PREPARING TO SIGHT-READ KEYBOARD MUSIC ON THE GRAND STAFF

1. Remember to use your energetic-relaxed **body position** at the piano.
2. Look at the composition's title, then scan the music for tempo and dynamic markings. Use this information to determine the **poetic spirit** of the music.
3. Identify the meter, feel the pulse, at the marked tempo, then look for phrases and climactic points that determine the **form** of the complete composition.
4. Establish the **key**, then find the highest and lowest notes that determine the fingerings for scale and/or chord patterns.

MONOPHONY

Monophony is the simplest musical texture. Monophonic music consists of a melody alone without accompaniment. The melody may be a single line, or multiple lines provided they are played in unison or at the octave. The following musical composition is considered monophonic.

Questions about Unison Melody

- What are the highest and lowest notes in the right hand? In the left hand?
- What five-finger pattern is this composition built on?
- How many phrases are there in this composition?
- What phrase is the most important? Why?
- Play with dynamics to highlight the most important phrase
- Measures 1-3 can be read at one glance, by reading the lowest and highest notes.
- What are other note groups that can be read in one glance?

Usage of Rich Media in Education Process

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Abstract

The rapid development of information and communication technologies brings new opportunities throughout the educational process. Rigorous, systematic, but also meaningful use of modern information technology is one of the basic prerequisites for the development and improvement of all forms of education. The article focuses on the use of multispecies media in the process of e-learning, which is currently an emerging trend in all types of teaching and learning and not just in tertiary education, but also in staff training. The article deals with the advantages and disadvantages of this type of communication and its use in education in general. A practical example is the use of multispecies support for training employees in the Czech Telecom, where e-learning represents over 60% of all education, that is carried out by using 95 e-learning courses, of which 65 are developed itself by the company (Virtual University of Czech Telecom-own portal and educational content / in house). Savings resulting from this method of education are provided, the company has calculated at about 40 million in two years. The article is the research output GAJU 039/2013/S.

Keywords: Rich Media, tertiary education, employee training, benefits, disadvantages

INTRODUCTION

The rapid development of information and communication technologies brings new opportunities throughout the education process. Rigorous, systematic, but also meaningful use of modern information technology is one of the basic prerequisites for the development and improvement of all forms of education. Anyone who is educated, anyone needs to pursue their studies as much information from the field they are studying. Twenty or thirty years ago, the sources of information that were available to students limited to written documents, with long-term (textbook) responsive materials (textbooks) or your own lecture notes (Potáček, 2000).

The situation today is very different. The development of computer technology provides us new information technologies and teaching at universities, but also outside of them may no longer be based only on traditional information sources. Educational programs open up new learning opportunities. Educational programs usage a combination of visual and auditory sensations to store information in human memory. In addition, multimedia teaching aids can capture the course of such events, which students can directly participate in Potáček.

Multispecies media (Rich Media) describe a range of digital interactive media through which it is possible to transmit and share information and communicate in various ways. Interactive media allow active participation of beneficiaries, thus interactivity (two ways communication). We can consider as any form of interface between the end user (audience) and medium for interactive (Hnídková, 2010).

A characteristic feature of multi-species media is their dynamic development. An example might be online streaming video coverage that is updated during the broadcast. The second type of record can be broadcast on the web site along with synchronized slides show, with which the user can interact. Multispecies media usually include subtitling, audio description and keyboard navigation. Suitable media players are those that can seamlessly control all users, including those using screen readers. They should also include features to add titles, captions and audio descriptions (AccessIT, 2010).

Multispecies media are also used as a teaching tool in frame of e-learning, in the field of distance education to online learning through the web. Multispecies media can be used to support peer-to-peer (P2P) synchronous communication, video conferencing, connecting more participants audio and video, in direct support chat within

the virtual class participants synchronous connection and also for sharing objects of different types, which can be for example shared virtual whiteboard (Martinik, 2008).

Multispecies media also bring more channels and offer easy combination of inputs. Further develops as search and indexing (directly from audio recordings). Its role also supports interactive procedures (presentation directly links, etc.). Multispecies media can be downloaded from the website or can be viewed on the website online. If they are possible free download, they can be played in different media player such as Real Networks' Real Player, Microsoft Media Player, Apple's QuickTime or Mplayer. Another option is to purchase special software that allows the creation of multimedia content and share within a pre-defined network (Eduart).

From the perspective of the theory of social communication, a recorded lecture belongs among indirect, unilateral, audiovisual, verbal, formal, recorded, interpersonal, address and asynchronous kind of communication that does not require the speaker and the listener to be in the same room and therefore face to face contact is not practicable. In most cases it is not even possible to get feedback either from the speaker, or the listener (Kovacova, 2010). If we apply the theory of multiple-type media to recorded lectures, we can discuss how natural and information-rich this type of communication medium is, and what is its social proximity. However, nowadays, a majority of the young population perceives multiple-type media communication as personal communication. As a result of this, investigating this issue further would not be relevant to what my point in this paper is. Recorded lectures can become an important source of information not only for students but also for teachers and general public. Students can watch a lecture again, if they missed it, or if they didn't understand the matters discussed sufficiently. This source of information is also highly appreciated during the examination period, as students can easily revise what has been covered during the whole course. It is also an important source of information for students with combined study who cannot attend lectures regularly. Novice presenters can check the level of their presentation skills. This may help them to improve his/her speech. They can also build on the matters presented by the previous teacher. General public may see the way lectures are given at a particular school how it is beneficial or teaching quality. Lecture recordings can also serve as a basis for e-learning

However, it is important to note that the recorded lectures should not be considered as a source of information that enables us to fully participate in a lecture. It is not possible to substitute the lecturer/tutor completely. The lecture want, not only to inform, pass on knowledge, but he/she also aims at motivating and encouraging students. The lecture is therefore not a mere communication of knowledge, expertise and skills, but it also shapes who the students are. (Sedláček, 2006).

RESULT

The use of media in the context of multispecies learning is an integral part of the current development, as the importance of top modern technologies in all areas of human life is constantly increasing. We can say that at present, information and communication technology (ICT) play a key role in every aspect of our lives; therefore, using the knowledge and skills of their use should be part of a university-educated individual who is a member of our knowledge-based society. Nowadays, more and more emphasis is put on the mode of transmission of necessary information; therefore, the understanding of ICT knowledge is required. In terms of practical education, ICT based education can be seen as Just-in-Time Teaching integrated into the value chain of an organization.

Advantages

Among the advantages of ICT based education belong, without any doubt, independence, which is demonstrated by the ability to gain and maintain the necessary information anywhere, and anytime, and at your own rate (which is the biggest advantage especially for groups with different levels of ability to learn). It is an advantage of this method of training or instruction presented more sensory perception of information. As for practical benefits, reducing the costs related to travel and accommodation are just two of them. Easier administration and significantly reduced costs related to accommodating all students into a classroom. An asynchronous communication gives us the opportunity for feedback and reactions to the presented multimedia information processing. Another advantage is that the individual outputs can be updated at any time and from anywhere. There is a very quick option organization and logistics for all, especially the tutor and guarantor of the course. Another undeniable advantage is the obtained higher level of computer literacy of all involved.

Disadvantages

The most frequently present disadvantages are divided into two groups: the first includes input costs, which are nowadays quite high. In particular, the input costs for the introduction of ICT, the cost of creating, managing, and content costs for stable operation of the network and the necessary computer facilities and Internet access. The second group includes the disadvantages that arise from the nature of the use of multiple-type media in the context of e-learning. There is a lack of physical contact with the supervisor, the first phase may manifest distrust of the environment, the longer the time needed for training and precision of work in the e-learning environment.

Problematic is the creation of e-learning with multimedia supports (after their creation, their existence becomes an advantage). Another disadvantage may be the fear of the lecturer that the lecturer recordings of their speech may be misused, or not trusting new technologies in general.

CONCLUSION

Using multiple-type media in either the synchronous or asynchronous communication in tertiary education and in education of employees in SMEs in the Czech Republic is being systematically introduced into companies and universities since 2000. Initial results have been inconsistent due to various factors: first of all, it was an inconsistent investment in e-learning, the lack of management (the system cannot control itself) and last but not least the lack of methodical preparation of authors and tutors (ICT based learning is a completely different pedagogical process). Despite this, today E-learning is used in various forms at every university across the country, and the use of SME is constantly increasing as well.

Universities use commercial and non-commercial (open-source) educational systems (Czech LMS Systems, foreign commercial LMS systems; Microsoft Class Server - Microsoft Learning Gateway; Open Source Systems; Sakai Project).

Figure 1: Application of e-learning tools in university education

LMS	Author	Implementation
Barborka	FEI VŠB-TU Ostrava http://barborka.vsb.cz/lms	Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, VŠB – Technical University of Ostrava (2004) CDV UP in Olomouc (2004)
eDoceo	Trask solutions Ltd. http://www.edoceo.cz	University of Economics, Prague (2001) University of Pardubice (2001) J.E.Purkyně University in Ústí nad Labem (2002)
Eden	RENTEL share-holding company. http://eden.rentel.cz	Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles University in Prague University of West Bohemia Faculty of Management and Economics, Tomas Bata University in Zlín Faculty of Economics, VŠB - Technical University of Ostrava J.E.Purkyně University in Ústí nad Labem University of Veterinary and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Brno
Elis	http://elis.mendelu.cz Faculty of Business and Economics, Mendel University, Brno	Faculty of Business and Economics, Mendel University, Brno
iTutor	Kontis s.r.o. http://firmy.itutor.cz	VŠB - Technical University of Ostrava Silesian University in Opava
MultiPes	Gerstner's laboratory, Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Czech Technical University in Prague	Gerstner's laboratory, Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Czech Technical University in Prague
Unifor	Net-University s.r.o. http://www.net-university.cz	The Faculty of Economics, University of West Bohemia Palacký University Olomouc (2005) VS VSMV Praha ;
ILIAS	Faculty of Informatics, Masaryk University	http://e-learning.fi.muni.cz/ilias
MOODLE	Faculty of Arts, Masaryk University Faculty of Education, Masaryk University Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles University Faculty of Medicine in Pilsen, Charles University Silesian University in Opava Tomas Bata University in Zlín VŠB - Technical University of Ostrava University of South Bohemia in České Budějovice	www.phil.muni.cz/elf/ http://moodlinka.ped.muni.cz http://195.113.33.217:8080/moodle/ http://ovavt.lfp.cuni.cz http://enzo.opf.slu.cz/moodle/ http://uni.utb.cz/moodle/ http://moodle.vsb.cz http://moodle.ju.cz

Source: Kopecký 2006

In the corporate sector large firms and SMEs use of e-learning in different forms and on different levels, mostly they carry out pre-application analysis of education.

Figure 2: Application of e-learning tool in the education of employees in SMEs and large companies.

Company	Number of educated employees	Name of solution and type
Český Telecom	10 000	The virtual University (LMS)
Český mobil (Oskar)	1 500	Tutor 2000 (LMS)
České dráhy	18 000	Tutor 2000 (LMS)
Česká pojišťovna	not identified	Tutor 2000 (LMS)
ČSOB	2500	iTutor (LMS)
McDonald	3700	iTutor (LMS)

Source: Kopecký 2006

The practical case of use of multimedia support for employee training shows practice of Český Telecom. There E-learning represents over 60% of all education, which is realized by the 95 e-learning courses, which 65 of them company has developed themselves (The virtual University of Český Telecom-own portal and content of education / inhouse /). Company calculated the savings resulting from this method of education for about 40 million for two years.

Small and medium-sized companies do not have such options as large companies, but they use e-learning to educate their employees as well, especially for specific training (training of drivers, training of technicians, etc.), language learning (LangMaster), training in ICT (Net-University, Macromedia, Adobe, etc.), management training (EduCity) and education within the accounting, economics, occupational safety and others.

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Developing Listening in Arabic classes: An Integrative approach

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Abstract

The current advocacy in language teaching in general and Arabic language teaching in particular is the integrated teaching of listening. The language scholars and researchers have recommended a great deal of theorizing about second language acquisition, especially, since the early 21st century and that research literature abounds in approaches, theories, models, laws, and principles. Too many models have been built and taken for granted too soon and this has stilled relevant research. Practitioners who have been buffeted across the tears by pressure to adopt different approaches to listening and reading, due to the changing winds of theory may tend to agree with this resistance to theoretical "bandwagon". This work explores the need to advocate for an integrative approach to the teaching of listening so that the other language skills of speaking writing and reading are used to reinforce the teaching of any of the skills. The paper claims that this approach derives its significance from the proficiency force of Arabic language skills and perceives its goals as the development of communicative competence to all students.

Keywords. Listening, Arabic, communicative, competence Integrative and Approach

Introduction

Long (2012) argues that teaching oral skills is teaching only half of the process of communication and adds that the students gain a sense of confidence with the language which their listening attitudes are well developed. This statement indicates that listening should not be thought of as an "activity" but taught directly as a skill in its own right.

Let me cite Joiner (2006, 1997) who identifies four trends that have brought more attention to the development of listening skills in recent years.

- (1) Comprehension based approaches, which advocate a pre-speaking "or silent period" and which maintain that listening is the foundation skill for all language development;
- (2) Emphasis on the receptive skill in general, which has been grooving in the early 1980s;
- (3) The prevalence of functional national approaches and concepts, with their emphasis on fostering an interest in the use of authentic material for listening and emphasizing communicative skill development. Authentic listening materials, as well as writing activities (in a Communicative Curriculum) that involve analysis and interaction with texts, give adult learners more of an opportunity to engage in challenging tasks appropriate to their level of cognitive maturity.

Adults spend 45 percent of their time listening and 11 to 6 percent of their time reading. Listening takes place most often in either face to face conversational encounters or in the presence of the speaker (as when listening to a lecture, public debate, or theoretical performance), written communicative was the primary means of sharing information at a distance. When one considers the enormous changes relating to the way information is received today, particularly with the advent of new and more interactive technologies, the amount of time spent in listening and/or reacting may be even higher.

In the past several decades, there has been a growing interest in designing materials to teach comprehension more actively, especially through the use of culturally authentic text, videotaped materials and computer assisted instructors that allows for greater interaction between the learner and the text. Teachers need more access to listening materials based on natural discourse along with appropriate comprehension activities that teach the process of comprehension so that the skills are transferable to other situations and texts.

In addition to these new and better materials, (CD-ROMs that are now packaged with text books affords much better sound quality) teachers need ideas for restructuring and sequencing instructions, so that a classroom plan for teaching, listening and reading comprehension can be devised. Effective ways to integrate comprehension and productive skill with the teaching of culture are also needed. Some specific ideas for planning instructions of this type in Arabic class are provided in this work. However it would be useful to quickly reflect on some of the similarities and differences in listening and reading tasks, many of which derive from the relationship between speech and writing.

Listening and Reading in Arabic Studies

Although, the goals and some of the global process in listening and Reading comprehension are often similar, the nature of the input (speech or writing) and the way in which that input is processed are quite different. There are several ways in which speech differs from writing. According to Richard (2013) written discourse – particularly in texts produced for a wide and essentially anonymous audience – is normally organized in well-formed grammatical sentences arranged in coherent paragraph. Ideas are planned and produced by one person, allowing the discourse to flow logically as the topic is developed. In contrast spoken discourse – particularly in conversational exchanges – can often include ungrammatical or reduced forms, dropped words and sentences without subjects, verbs, auxiliaries or other parts of speech. Conversations are often marked by pauses, hesitations, false stories and fillers and topics can shift as the conversation is co-constructed with others. A number of things may be left unsaid because both parties assume some common knowledge. In many type of written discourse, however, meaning can not be negotiated directly with the reader and common knowledge can not always be assumed. It is observed that aural comprehension may be more difficult than reading. This is found out to be in study involving beginning and intermediate students of Arabic language of the Lagos State University, where their reading comprehension was superior to their comprehension in listening (Yaqub 2009). This reading advantage appeared to diminish by the time the student reached the third year of their program me. However this does not preclude the possibility of initial advantage for listening in the case of children who are learning to read Arabic as their native language, the opposite appears to be true for the adults engaged in second language learning like Arabic in Nigeria.

Having a text presented twice, either in listening or reading significantly benefited students at all levels. However, our experience with our students at the University indicated that for beginning students, reading and rereading resulted in superior comprehension to listening and re-listening. We propose that, this may be due, in part, to the fact that listeners can not control the pace of presentation of the Arabic text, and often appear to be "grasping at works". This relates to what Stevick (2013) calls the "accessibility" of the text which differ in two modalities. In reading one can look at what was read before and also look ahead to get an idea of what is coming. The listener however, can not do this, and any intention to grant what is to be said, may easily cause him or her to lose an important part of the message, or even all of it.

There are various types of oral speech students of Arabic can listen to and various written discourse, they can read. In this work we identify four basic modes of Arabic speech.

1. Spontaneous free Arabic speech – This is characterized by the inter-activeness and production constraints reviewed above.
2. Deliberate free Arabic speech – This is characterized by interviews and discussion.
3. Oral presentation of a written Arabic text – This can be found in newscasts, more formal commentaries, and lectures, and
4. Oral presentation of a fixed Arabic Script such that produced on stage or in a film.

Written discourse also has a variety of text types. Some of the kinds of Arabic texts which readers might encounter in the second language are identified in this work.

1. **Arabic literary texts:** such as novel, short stories plays, poems, essays and the like.
2. **Specialized or technical text:** such as report, news textbooks, handbooks, statistical data, diagram etc.
3. **Correspondence:** such as personal or business records notes or telegrams.
4. **Journalistic literature:** Such as article from N/papers and magazine, editorials headlines, classified ads, weather reports etc.
5. **Informational Texts:** Such as dictionary, guideboards, phrase books, telephone books, time table, maps, signs, price listing etc.

6. **Miscellaneous realia of various kinds:** such as tickets, menus, recipes, advertisements etc.

To these lists, of course, can be added newer types of texts that are characteristic of the information age, from e-mail correspondence to the texts found in a variety of formats on internet sites as well as in multimedia course materials. These types of resources often present learners with information that requires the integration of listening and reading skill and can easily involve productive skill such as writing as well. In addition, texts such as these are often rich in cultural information and can help Arabic learner make connections to other disciplines, all of which serves to develop the abilities that have been outlined in the standard for foreign language learning.

Teaching Listening Comprehension in Arabic classes. There are certain basic processes involved in listening, we shall propose here a tentative model of the listening process that involves the following steps:-

- 1- Determination of the type of interaction or speech event (such as conversation, lecture, discussion or debate) in which the listener is involved.
- 2- Recalling scripts (or *schemative*) relevant to the situation.
- 3- Making inference about the goals of the speaker.
- 4- Determining the propositional meaning of the utterances.
- 5- Assigning an illocutionary (functional) meaning to the message.
- 6- Remembering and acting upon the information, while deleting the original form of the message.

Apart from these, there are also some skills involved in teaching listening. These are categorized as micro skills. These skills range from very discrete tasks such as discriminating among individual sounds recognizing syntactic patterns, and identifying key words, to more global tasks, such as extracting main ideas and understanding the relationship among the parts of the discourse. Different listening activities can be devised to help the Arabic learners develop the various micro skill at each level of proficiency and the choice of skills for a given tasks can be tailored to the nature of the specific objective for listening.

Planning Instruction for the development of Listening Proficiency in Arabic classes

How can Arabic Instructor determine which type of materials and tasks to use for listening Instruction for their students? There are some indications in the recent literature on comprehension that may help. Most scholars agree that at the lowest proficiency level, Listening materials that present very familiar and, or predictable content and that are relevant to students' interest will be best, given that the students will be able to use their linguistic skill knowledge of the world to aid them in comprehension when there are deficient. For example, videotaped Arabic materials can be especially useful at the lower range of proficiency because of the visual contextual support they provide as long as students know that they are not expected to understand every word.

Arabic teachers design the tasks to be accomplished with various listening materials; they should keep in mind the normal or natural purpose for which someone might listen to a given text. The tasks need to be geared to such purposes but also to the overall level of competence of the students. One can expect, in general, that students will be able to understand the gist and / or a few main ideas in familiar passages at the lower level of proficiency and eventually extract more and more precise information of a detailed nature from a given listening texts as their proficiency develops. Beginning and intermediate students will need pre-listening actions to help them anticipate and predict the relevant content in the passage. Preliminary research indicates that multiple opportunities to listen for a variety of different purposes will also be helpful in increasing student's understanding.

Illustration cited below presents Lund's (2010) taxonomy for teaching second language listening. He suggests that this matrix be used to design instruction so that the full range of competencies in listening is practiced. The sample task given for purpose of illustration all relate to listening to an authentic text type: radio advertisements.

The six functions, listed below, refer to what the listener should try to attend to in the passage. Each function thus represents a potential goal of listening comprehension. The six functions are described below:-

- 1- **Identification:** Recognition or discrimination of aspects of the message rather than the attention to the over all message Content. (Identification of words, word categories phonemic distinctions).
- 2- **Orientation:** Identification of important facts about the text, such as the participants, the situation, the general topic, the tone, the text type and the like.
- 3- **Main idea Comprehension:** Understanding of the higher-order ideas in the listening passage.

- 4- **Detail Comprehension:** Understanding of more specific Information. The amount of detail one can understand typically distinguishes the advanced listener from the intermediate.
- 5- **Full Comprehension:** Understanding the main and the support-line detail. This should be the goal of instruction in listening proficiency.
- 6- **Replication:** Ability to be able to reproduce the message in either the same modality (through the repetition of the content) or in a different modality (such as transcription or dictation).

These listener functions are combined with nine listening responses as follows:

- 1- **Doing:** This implies a physical response of some sort.
- 2- **Choosing** which involves activities such as putting picture in order or matching a product to an advertisement.
- 3- **Transferring:** This involves drawing, tracing a route, filling in a graph, or other kind of transferring of information from one modality to another.
- 4- **Answering:** such as completing a set of question, asking for specific information in the text.
- 5- **Condensing:** involving such activities as preparing an outline, taking note, or preparing captions for pictures based on the listening passage.
- 6- **Extending:** going beyond the text to create an ending, complete a partial transcript, change the text or embellish it in some way.
- 7- **Duplicating:** This proves that function of replication has been completed.
- 8- **Modeling:** Imitation of the feature of the taint or of the text as a whole.
- 9- **Conversing:** This goes with some kind of interaction with the text either in a face to face conversation or in using interactive video programmes.

Using Authentic Materials:

Taking into cognizance, the communicative function of language, yet caution has to be taken in using only unedited and non-pedagogical materials in the classroom. This would seem to create more problem, than it would solve, since materials are often difficult to select, obtain or sequence for Arabic learners at lower proficiency level. Unmodified authentic discourse is often random in respect to vocabulary, structure, functions, content situation and length, making some of it impractical for classroom Arabic teachers to integrate successfully into the curriculum of a frequent basis.

There are two types of authentic discourse:-

- 1- Unmodified authentic discourse which refers to language that occurred originally as a genuine act of communication.
- 2- Simulated authentic discourse which refers to language produced for pedagogical purpose but which exhibits features that have a high probability of occurrence in genuine acts of communication.

The simulated authentic discourse can be incorporated into the classrooms through the use of Semi scripts. A semi script is a set of note or a simple outline that is provided to the native speaker for the purpose of generating a monologue conversation that sound authentic. The note might include specific vocabulary or structures that should be incorporated or discussed. This may be recorded on audio or videotape for use in the classroom. The multimedia software can also be introduced. Effective multimedia must have the following characteristics:

1. It must be immediate.
2. It is interactive nature
3. It must be multi-sensory involving both linguistic and extra-linguistic cues.
4. It can be controlled by speaker and listeners through the use of simple strategy. The effectiveness of multimedia resources is the extent to which the medium can be compared to "face to face communication".

In addition to multimedia software packages, authentic materials for listening can be found on the internet especially web links on the site of language specific professional organization, college, and university of foreign language departments, and individual faculty members. Many foreign language videos offer Arabic sub-titling and DVDs now provide multiple language tracks and the capability of viewing with or without subtitles. There are an increased number of software programs that offer language practice, instruction and /or entertainment. However, as multi-media software and resources become more plentiful, their various features will need to be evaluated as teachers consider whether to use them to supplement classroom instruction.

Various sample classroom activities that can be used for listening activities in Arabic classes at intermediate level are provide below:-

Formats for Listening Comprehension:

Sample I: Advertisement Text

Objective: Student should be made to identify products that are being advertised by matching pictures of the products to the passage heard.

Text: The Instructor may employ various radio commercials recorded from Arabic language situation.

Student task: Drawing of the products (or pictures if available) are marked with a letter (A, B, C, etc) and placed in front of the classroom. Students listen to the recorded advertisements one at a time. As they listen, they try to identify which product is being described by writing down the appropriate letter of the visual that matches the description.

In recursive listening activities, students listen to the same text several times each time with a different listening purpose.

Sample II: Announcement on Board

Objective: Student listen to a passage that includes announcements on board an airplane interspersed with conversation between two passengers. On the first listening, students attempt to distinguish between the formal register of the announcements and the informal register of conversation. On the second listening they will fill out a form with some pertinent flight information.

Pre-listening activities: The teacher orients the students to the passage by telling them that it takes place on an international flight. The teacher explains that the passage includes both formal and informal speech and asks the students to listen the first time fro differences in tone of voice, speech overlap and delivery. They are instructed to raise their hands each time they hear the register shift.

Second listening: A form is designed in which the students fill out, as they listen to the passage a second time, this time attending to some important details.

Sample III: Inspecting Aircraft

Students listen to a brief news report about official order given to inspect aircraft that transport military personnel. They listen first to extract pertinent vocabulary in order to focus on the topic. The second cycle asks students to listen for the basic story line in the news report while a third and fourth hearing focus on supporting details.

First Listening: The instructor tells students that the news report they will hear deals with flying and asks them to write down some words they hear that deal with this topic.

Second Listening: The instructor probes the students' knowledge of the world to see if they can anticipate the general theme of the article. Students are asked to think of a recent airline disaster and see if the news story talks about it.

Third Listening: Students listening for reactions to the events and write down words associated with these reactions.

Fourth Listening: More detail is now elicited so that full comprehension of the news report is achieved.

In this kind of activity, students listen to material that corresponds to a visual aid of some kind and either identify a picture being described, identify objects within the picture, follow a map or diagram, or draw a simple sketch.

Summary

In this work, we have explored various ways to teach more actively the receptive skills for listening in Arabic classes. We have seen that this skill, though similar to other skills in some ways, involved somewhat different processes. In addition, the structures and types of discourse involved in listening are quite different in nature. Comprehension is not a static concept to be assessed in the same fashion at all time; rather we should think of comprehension in terms of the purpose of the listening activity, the types of text or input that is being processed, and the characteristics of listeners themselves. The paper also suggests a pragmatic approach to listening instruction for students whose skills are somewhat more advanced. Arabic teachers using such plans should find

that proficiency goals in listening will be reached more easily and more rapidly by the Arabic students, and that the valuable skills students learn in their Arabic classes will transfer to other areas of curriculum.

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Liselerin Misyon İfadeleri ile Öğretmenlerin Liselerin Misyon İfadelerine İlişkin Görüşlerinin Karşılaştırılması

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Özet

Bu araştırmanın amacı; liselerin misyon ifadeleri ile liselerde görev yapan öğretmenlerin liselerin misyon ifadelerinin içeriğinin nasıl olması gerektiğine ilişkin görüşlerinin karşılaştırılmasıdır. Araştırmada yanıt aranan sorular şunlardır:

- 1) Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde ne tür temalar yer almaktadır?
- 2) Öğretmenlerin görüşlerine göre, liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alması gereken temalar neler olmalıdır?
- 3) Liselerin misyon ifadeleri ile öğretmenlerin misyon ifadelerinin içeriğinin nasıl olması gerektiğine ilişkin görüşleri uyumlu mudur?

Araştırmada nitel araştırma teknikleri kullanılmıştır. Liselerin misyon ifadeleri ile ilgili veriler, Adana ilinde bulunan ve maksimum çeşitlilik ve basit tesadüfi örnekleme yöntemlerinin kullanılmasıyla seçilen 10 liseden elde edilmiştir. Liseler ile ilgili verilere okulların web siteleri üzerinden ulaşılmıştır. 10 lisenin misyon ifadeleri içerik analizi ile çözümlenmiştir. Öğretmen görüşlerine ilişkin veriler, Adana ilinde görev yapan 12 lise öğretmenin katılımı ile gerçekleştirilen yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yoluyla elde edilmiştir. Öğretmenlerin görüşlerine ilişkin veriler de içerik analizi ile çözümlenmiştir. Araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre, liselerin misyon ifadeleri ile öğretmenlerin görüşleri tamamen uyumlu değildir.

Anahtar kelimeler. Liselerin misyon ifadeleri, lise öğretmenleri, liselerin amaçları

GİRİŞ

Misyon ifadeleri; “okul gelişimine rehberlik eden istikamet” (s. 523) şeklinde tanımlanmaktadır (Yeung, 2013). Keeling (2013) ise misyon ifadelerinin; “organizasyonların doğasını, amacını ve rolünü” (s.30) tanımladığını ifade etmiştir.

Lake ve Mrozinski (2011), misyon ifadesinin öncül rolleri arasında; hedefleri açıklama, fırsatlardan yararlanma ve olayları/nesnelere olduğu gibi tanımlamanın yer aldığını belirlemiştir. Misyon ifadesinin gelişmekte olan rollerinin ise; akreditasyon gereksinimi ve takım oluşturma aracı olduğunu ifade etmiştir. Misyon ifadeleri, kurum içinde amaçların paylaşılmasını sağlaması bakımından önem taşımaktadır. Misyon ifadeleri, organizasyon içerisinde bir iletişim aracı olarak kullanılabilir. Organizasyon çalışanlarının rollerini, sorumluluklarını ve organizasyon süreçlerinde elde edilmesi planlanan çıktıyı tanımlaması bakımından organizasyon içinde iletişimi sağlamaktadır (Keeling, 2013).

Ülgen ve Mirze (2013) örgütsel bir misyonun etkili olabilmesi için; ortak değer ve inançları içinde barındırması gerektiğini, organizasyon çalışanlarının tamamına hitap etmesi gerektiğini, nitelikli ilgili konulara yönelik olması ve organizasyona özgü olarak hazırlanması gerektiğini ifade etmiştir. Misyon ifadelerinin başarılı olabilmesi için; amaç ifadelerinin stratejik planlar ile ilişkilendirilmesi ve süreçlerde yer alan kişilerle iletişim kurmaya önem verilmesi gerekmektedir. Aynı zamanda misyon ifadesinin gerçekleştirilmesi ile ilgili performansı değerlendirmek için kontrol mekanizmaları kurmak, misyon ifadelerinin uygulanmasında fayda sağlamaktadır (Yeung, 2013). Ireland ve Hitt (1992) ise, misyon ifadelerinin geliştirilmesinde başarısızlığa neden olan faktörleri şu şekilde sıralamıştır:

- 1) Örgütsel paydaşların sayısı ve çeşitliliği
- 2) Etkili bir misyon ifadesi geliştirmek için gerekli olan işin miktarı
- 3) Bazı paydaşların kuruluşun mevcut durumundan rahatlık duymaya yatkınlığı (statükoyu koruma kabul edilebilir veya tercih edilebilir görülmektedir)
- 4) Misyon ifadelerinin çok fazla gizli, rekabetçi enformasyon açığa çıkarabileceği inancı
- 5) Misyon ifadesinin geliştirilmesiyle oluşabilecek anlaşmazlık
- 6) Üst düzey önemli personel, stratejik konulardan ziyade operasyonel konular üzerinde çok fazla

- zaman harcadığı zaman karşılaşılabilecek zorluk
- 7) Misyon ifadesi geliştirilirken bir alanda uzman olarak değil, genel kültürü kapsamlı bir kişi olarak düşünme gerekliliği
 - 8) Bazı bireylerin örgütsel özerkliğe yönelik aşırı arzusu ve
 - 9) Stratejik planlama süreçlerinin tarihsel formalitesi/usulü (s.37).

Her organizasyon gibi, okulların da ustaca hazırlanmış bir misyon ifadesine sahip olması gerekmektedir. Okulların misyon ifadesine sahip olmasının sağladığı faydalar ile ilgili çeşitli araştırma sonuçları bulunmaktadır. Yeung (2011) misyonun kalite, öğretim veya araştırma gibi konulara odaklanmasına bakılmaksızın, öğrencilerin ve personelin performansını artırmada ve sürekli gelişimi sağlamak için şeffaflığı ve hesap verebilirliği teşvik etmede bir araç olduğu sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Palmer ve Short (2008), misyon ifadelerindeki farklılığın kolejlerin performanslarındaki farklılıklar ile ilişkili olduğunu tespit etmiştir. Misyon ifadeleri öğretmenlerin öğrenci öğrenmesine yönelik sorumluluklarını artırdığı için, hem öğretmenlerin işbirliği içinde çalışmalarını hem de okul çalışmalarının daha verimli olmasını sağlamaktadır (Zmuda, 2007). Eğitim örgütlerinde ortak hedefler belirleyerek fikir birliğinin sağlanması ve güçlü bir iletişim yapısının oluşturulmasında misyonların önemli bir rolü bulunmaktadır. Misyon eğitim kurumlarının eylemlerinin çerçevesini çizmekte ve kurum içinde değerlerin ve inançların paylaşılmasını sağlamaktadır (Çelik, 1995).

Okulların misyon ifadeleri okulların sahip olduğu inançlara yönelik bir açıklama olabileceği gibi, dış çevre tarafından okullara yönelik oluşturulmuş beklentileri de içerebilmektedir (Gow, 2009). Boerema (2006) yaptığı çalışmada okulların misyon ifadelerinin; okulun ayırt edici inançlarını belirten kavramları, okul hedeflerini gösteren kavramları, çevrenin ana hatlarını çizen kavramları, sunulan hizmetler ve veli katılımı kavramlarını içerdiğini tespit etmiştir.

Günümüzde okul yönetiminin arzu edilen öğrenci niteliklerini tanımlayabilmek, okulda kaliteyi yönetebilmek ve öğrenci ve öğretmen performansını artırarak okul performansını geliştirebilmek için, misyon ifadelerinin kullanımına daha fazla önem vermesi gerekmektedir (Yeung, 2011). Okul yöneticilerinin okul düzeyinde misyon belirleme rolleri bulunmaktadır (Balyer, 2012; Çelik, 1995). Okul liderlerinin okul personelinin birbirine yardım ettiği ve birlikte çalıştığı mesleki öğrenme topluluklarını oluşturabilmeleri için, bir misyon ifadesi oluşturarak bu sürece başlamaları gerekmektedir (Lunenburg, 2010). Okul yönetiminin okul misyonunu bilerek tüm okul personeli tarafından bilinirliğini sağlaması gerekmektedir. Çalışanlar misyonu benimseyerek çalışma eğilimi gösterebilirler bile yönetim tarafından oluşturulan örgütsel yapı; iletişimi engelleyici, yeniliklere kapalı ve çalışan motivasyonunu engelleyici özelliklere sahipse belirlenen örgütsel hedeflere ulaşmak oldukça güç olacaktır (Aydoğan, 2002). Kurum paydaşlarının hepsi eğitimle ilgili misyon ifadelerini desteklemelidir (Carnahan & Doyle, 2012).

Okul yöneticileri, yeni bir misyon ifadesi yazma veya mevcut misyon ifadesinde değişiklik yapma çalışmalarında şu aşamalara dikkat etmelidir (Shinn, 2013):

- “Misyona ifadesini okulun genel stratejik planının bir tamamlayıcısı olarak görme” (s.20)
- “Güçlü yönleri belirleme” (s.20)
- “Sahip olunmak istenen güçlü yönleri belirleme” (s.20)
- “Okul topluluğunun ihtiyaçlarını dikkate alma” (s.21)
- “Destek gruplarını dinleme” (s.21)
- “Sağlanamayacakların beyan edilmemesi” (s.21)
- “Önemli kararları misyon ifadeleri ile karşılaştırarak test etme” (s.22)
- “Misyona ifadesini okul yaşamının tüm boyutlarıyla bütünleştirme” (s.22)
- “İhtiyaç halinde misyon ifadesini değiştirmeye hazırlanma” (s.22)
- “Misyona ifadelerini kolaylıkla, düşünmeden değiştirmeme” (s.24)

Okulların misyon ifadelerinin öğretmenlerin ve yöneticilerin işbirliği ile oluşturulması ve belirlenen misyonların okul yönetimi tarafından uygulamalara yansıtılması önem taşımaktadır. Misyon ifadelerinin uygulanabilirliğinin sağlanması için, okul yönetimi tarafından desteklenmesi ve okul çalışanlarının tamamı tarafından benimsenmesi gerekmektedir. Ancak misyon ifadeleri; üzerinde düşünülerek hazırlanmalı, içerik açısından eğitim-öğretimin tek boyutuna yönelik hazırlanmamalı ve bu ifadeleri oluştururken eğitim-öğretim süreçlerinde etkili olabilecek hususlar dikkate alınmalıdır. Dolayısıyla okulların misyon ifadelerinin içerik analizini yapmak; okulların eğitim-öğretimin hangi boyutuna odaklandıklarının ve okullarda gelişimsel açıdan ihmal edilen konuların belirlenmesi bakımından önem taşımaktadır.

Araştırmanın Amacı ve Problemleri

Bu araştırmanın amacı; liselerin misyon ifadeleri ile liselerde görev yapan öğretmenlerin liselerin misyon ifadelerinin içeriğinin nasıl olması gerektiğine ilişkin görüşlerinin karşılaştırılmasıdır. Bu amaçla araştırmada aşağıdaki problemlere yanıt aranmıştır:

1. Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde ne tür temalar yer almaktadır?
2. Öğretmenlerin görüşlerine göre, liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alması gereken temalar neler olmalıdır?
3. Liselerin misyon ifadeleri ile öğretmenlerin misyon ifadelerinin içeriğinin nasıl olması gerektiğine ilişkin görüşleri uyumlu mudur?

Örneklem ve Verilerin Toplanması

Araştırmada iki tür veri toplanmıştır. Araştırmanın ilk bölümünde; liselerin misyon ifadelerine ilişkin veriler, doküman incelemesi yoluyla toplanmıştır. Misyon ifadeleri incelenecek liselerin belirlenmesinde, maksimum çeşitlilik ve basit tesadüfi örnekleme yöntemi birlikte kullanılmıştır. Misyon ifadeleri incelenecek liseler arasında farklı lise türlerinin olması sağlanarak lise türü açısından çeşitlilik elde edilmiştir. Aynı lise türleri arasından misyon ifadeleri incelenecek liseler ise, basit tesadüfi örnekleme yöntemi ile belirlenmiştir. Doküman incelemesinde Adana ilinde bulunan liseler arasından ifade edilen örnekleme yöntemleri ile seçilen 10 lisenin misyon ifadeleri incelenmiştir. Liseler ile ilgili verilere okulların “meb.k12.tr” uzantılı web siteleri üzerinden ulaşılmıştır. Misyon ifadeleri incelenen liselerden; ikisi Anadolu Lisesi, biri Teknik ve Meslek Endüstri Lisesi, biri Teknik ve Endüstri Meslek Lisesi, biri Anadolu Sağlık Meslek Lisesi, ikisi Güzel Sanatlar ve Spor Lisesi, biri Kız Teknik ve Meslek Lisesi, biri Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi ve biri de Fen Lisesidir. Bu liselerin öğretmen sayıları 16 ile 180 arasında; öğrenci sayıları ise, 236 ile 2295 arasında değişmektedir.

Araştırmanın ikinci bölümünde; Adana ilinde bulunan liselerde görev yapan 12 lise öğretmeni ile yapılan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yoluyla veriler toplanmıştır. Katılımcı öğretmenler, maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme yoluyla ve gönüllülük esas alınarak belirlenmiştir. Farklı branşlarda çalışan öğretmenlerle görüşülerek, katılımcıların branş açısından çeşitlilik göstermesi sağlanmıştır. Katılımcı öğretmenlerin; ikisi Türk Dili ve Edebiyatı, ikisi Matematik, ikisi İngilizce, biri Tarih, biri Fizik, biri Biyoloji, biri Müzik ve ikisi de Teknik öğretmenidir. Katılımcıların yaşları 32 ile 45 arasında değişmektedir. Katılımcılarla yapılan görüşmelerin süresi, 25 ile 37 dakika arasında değişmektedir. Görüşmelerde öğretmenlere yöneltilen sorular şunlardır:

1. Okulunuzun misyon ifadesinin içeriğini biliyor musunuz?
 - 1.1. Biliyorsanız, okulunuzun misyon ifadesini uygun ve yeterli buluyor musunuz? Bu konudaki görüşlerinizi açıklar mısınız?
2. Okulunuzun misyon ifadesinin içeriğinde hangi konuların yer alması gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz? Neden?

Verilerin Analizi

Liselerin misyon ifadeleri, öğretmenlerin liselerin misyon ifadelerine ve liselerin misyon ifadelerinin neler olması gerektiğine ilişkin görüşleri içerik analizi ile çözümlenmiştir. Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alan temalar ve öğretmenlerin liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alması gerektiğini düşündükleri temalar; “öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler”, “okulun işlevleri” ve “okul yönetimi” temaları altında kodlanmıştır. Öğretmen görüşlerine ait veri setinde yer alan liselerin misyon ifadeleri ile ilgili görüşleri ise, “misyon ifadeleri oluşturulurken dikkat edilmesi gereken konular” teması altında kodlanmıştır. Araştırma verileri; tema ve alt temalar olmak üzere iki düzeyde kodlanmıştır. Her iki veri setinin kodlanması sürecinde belirlenen temalar ve alt temalar, tamamen veri setlerine dayalı olarak oluşturulmuştur.

Araştırmanın Geçerliliği ve Güvenirliği

Araştırmanın iç geçerliğini sağlamak için; hazırlanan görüşme sorularına, ham verilerle yapılan kodlamalar arasındaki tutarlılığa ve ulaşılan sonuçlara ilişkin uzman incelemesine başvurulmuştur. Liselerin misyon ifadelerine ilişkin ham veriler, bu veri seti için yapılan kodlamalar ve ulaşılan sonuçlar da ayrı olarak uzman görüşüne sunulmuştur. Ayrıca araştırmanın katılımcıları arasında bulunan 3 öğretmene yapılan analizler sonucunda ulaşılan sonuçlar bildirilmiş ve sonuçların kendi düşüncelerini yansıtmadığı hakkında teyitleri alınmıştır. Dış geçerliği sağlamak için, katılımcıların ifadelerinden doğrudan aktarmalara yer verilmiş ve misyon ifadeleri incelenen liselerin ve görüşülen öğretmenlerin seçiminde amaçlı örnekleme yöntemlerinden

maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Aynı zamanda yöntem bölümünde; örneklem, verilerin toplanması ve verilerin analizi süreçlerindeki işlemler ayrıntılı olarak anlatılarak dış geçerliğin sağlanmasına çalışılmıştır. İç ve dış güvenilirliği sağlama çalışmaları kapsamında her iki veri setine ilişkin ham veriler, veri setlerine ilişkin kodlamalar ve ulaşılan sonuçlar uzman görüşüne sunulmuştur. Uzmanlar her iki veri seti için de, ham veriler ve kodlamalar arasındaki tutarlılığa bakarak tutarlık incelemesini ve ham veriler ile ulaşılan sonuçları karşılaştırarak yargı ve yorumlara yönelik teyit incelemesini yapmışlardır. Aynı zamanda liselerin misyon ifadelerine ve öğretmen görüşlerine ilişkin kodlamaların karşılaştırılması ile ulaşılan yargı ve yorumlara yönelik teyit incelemesi de ayrı olarak yapılmıştır.

BULGULAR VE YORUM

Liselerin Misyon İfadelerinde Yer Alan Temalara İlişkin Bulgular

Liselerin misyon ifadelerinin analizinde; liselerin misyon ifadelerinin “öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler”, “okulun işlevleri” ve “okul yönetimi” temalarında toplandığı görülmüştür. Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde bu temalar altında bulunan alt temalar Tablo 1, 2 ve 3’de verilmiştir.

Tablo 1. Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alan öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler temasına bağlı alt temalar

Tema 1: Öğrencilere Kazandırılmak İstlenen Özellikler	
Yeniliklere açık olma	Disiplinli olma
Çevre ve ülke ihtiyaçlarına uygun özelliklere sahip olma	Okumayı, araştırmayı ve sorgulamayı ilke edinme
Metotlu çalışma	Demokratik olma
En az bir yabancı dili çok iyi bilme	Özgüven sahibi olma
Yeni teknolojileri kullanma	Bilimsel düşünceye sahip olma
Bilgi üretme	Düşündüklerini ifade edebilme
Bilgiyi yönetme	Hoşgörülü olma
Proje hazırlama	Kişisel ve toplumsal sorumluluk taşıma
Ülkesini sevmeye	Toplumun gelişmesine katkıda bulunma
Çalışkan olma	Atatürk ilke ve inkılaplarına bağlı olma
Sosyal olma	Dürüst olma
Bilgili olma	Milli değerlere bağlı olma
Evrensel değerleri benimseme	Öğretmeyi ve öğrenmeyi ilke edinme
Manevi değerlere bağlı olma	Ekip çalışması yapabilme
Karar verebilme yeteneğine sahip olma	Sorun çözebilme yeteneğine sahip olma
İş hayatının temel becerilerine sahip olma	Etik ve estetik değerlere sahip olma

Tablo 2. Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alan okulun işlevleri temasına bağlı alt temalar

Tema 2: Okulun İşlevleri	
Bilgi üretme	Öğrencileri bilimsel çalışmalara yönlendirme
Bilim ufkunu genişletme	Öğrencileri yükseköğretime hazırlama
Uluslararası boyutta bilimsel mükemmelliği ölçü alan bir araştırma ve eğitim kurumu olma	Sağlık kurum ve kuruluşlarına insangücü yetiştirme
Türk Milli Eğitiminin genel amaçları ve temel ilkeleri doğrultusunda öğrenci yetiştirme	Öğrencilerin çağın gerektirdiği bilgi ve becerilerle yetişmelerine fırsat sağlama
Sektörün ara eleman ihtiyacını karşılama	Öğrencileri öğretmenlik mesleğine hazırlama
Fen ve matematik alanlarında üstün yetenekli öğrencilerin bu yeteneklerini geliştirme	Sanat eğitiminin hedeflediği amaçlara uygun öğrenci yetiştirme

Tablo 3. Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alan okul yönetimi temasına bağlı alt temalar

Tema 3: Okul Yönetimi	
Öğrenen örgüt anlayışına sahip olma	Sürekli gelişimi ilke olarak benimseme
Yönetim sürecine tüm paydaşların katılımını sağlama	Teknolojik gelişmelerin yakından takip edilmesini sağlama
Sahip olunan kaynakları verimli kullanma	

Tablo 1, 2 ve 3’de görüldüğü gibi, liselerin misyon ifadeleri daha çok öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler temasını içermektedir. Öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özelliklere bakıldığında, bu özelliklerin çoğunun 1739 sayılı Milli Eğitim Temel Kanunu’nda Türk Milli Eğitiminin genel amaçları kapsamında ifade edilen Türk milletinin fertlerine kazandırılmak istenen özellikler doğrultusunda olduğu görülmektedir.

Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler temasından sonra, okulun işlevleri teması ağırlıklı olarak yer almaktadır. Öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler ve okulun işlevleri temasında yer alan alt temalar incelendiğinde, bu temalardan bazılarının okul türüne özgü olduğu görülmektedir. Okulun işlevleri temasına bağlı alt temalar genel olarak, okulların; hangi anlayışlar doğrultusunda öğrenci yetiştirdiğine, bilimsel birikime katkıda bulunduğuna ve yükseköğretime öğrenci hazırladığına işaret etmektedir.

Sınırlı da olsa, okul yönetimi teması da bazı okulların misyon ifadesinde yer almaktadır. Okul yönetimi sürecinde benimsenen ve okul gelişimine katkıda bulunan anlayışlar, okul yönetimi teması kapsamında ifade edilmektedir.

Öğretmenlerin Liselerin Misyon İfadeleri ve Liselerin Misyon İfadelerinde Yer Alması Gereken Temalar Hakkındaki Görüşlerine İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlerin liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alması gereken temalar hakkındaki görüşleri; “öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler”, “okul işlevleri” ve “okul yönetimi” temaları; liselerin misyon ifadelerine ilişkin görüşleri ise, “misyon ifadeleri oluşturulurken dikkat edilmesi gereken konular” teması altında toplanmaktadır. Bu temalara bağlı alt temalar Tablo 4, 5, 6 ve 7’de verilmiştir.

Tablo 4. Öğretmenlerin öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler temasındaki görüşlerine ilişkin belirlenen alt temalar

Tema 1: Öğrencilere Kazandırılmak İstene Özellikler	
Eleştirel düşünebilme	Kuvvetli iletişim becerilerine sahip olma
Sosyal ve kültürel faaliyetlerde başarılı olma	İnsanlara saygı duyma
Kendini tanıma	Sorumluluk sahibi olma
Dürüst olma	İşbirliği yapabilme

Araştırmaya katılan öğretmenler, okulların misyon ifadelerinde öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özelliklerin yer alması gerektiğini ifade etmişlerdir. Ancak bu özellikleri akademik açıdan değil, tamamen sosyal ve kişisel gelişim açısından ele almışlardır. Öğretmenler, liselerin misyon ifadelerinde belirtilen öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özelliklerin sadece akademik odaklı olmaması, sosyal ve kültürel faaliyetlerde başarılı olmanın da misyon olarak benimsenmesi gerektiğini ifade etmişlerdir. Bu konuda Ö4 şunları dile getirmiştir:

Okullarımız maalesef misyon ifadelerinde öğrencilerin sosyal yönden gelişimlerine fazla önem vermiyor. Kültürel ve sportif faaliyetlerde başarılı olabilmeyi, birçok okul misyon edinmiyor. Bu yüzden de müzikte, sporda ve diğer sosyal ve kültürel faaliyetlerde başarılı öğrenciler çok fazla yetiştirilemiyor. Öğrencilerin bu tür sosyal ve kültürel faaliyetlerde başarılı olabilmeleri yönünde yetiştirilmeleri de okulların misyon ifadelerinde yer almalıdır.

Öğretmen görüşlerine göre, sağlıklı sosyal ilişkilere sahip olmak için gerekli olan özellikler öğrencilere okullarda kazandırılmalıdır ve bu da okulların misyon ifadesinde belirtilmelidir. Bu yönde görüş bildiren Ö9’un açıklamaları şu şekildedir:

İletişim becerileri kuvvetli, insanlara saygı duyan, sorumluluk sahibi ve dürüst öğrenciler yetiştirmek okulların misyonu olmalıdır. Öğrenciler bilgiyi her yerde öğrenebilir. Ama öğrenciler bu özellikleri, sosyal ilişkilerin yoğun olduğu okullarda daha kolay öğrenebilir ve kazanabilirler. Bu özellikleri öğrencilere kazandırabilmek, bu konuda duyarlı olmayı ve öğrencilerle ilgilenmeyi gerektiriyor. Belki misyon ifadelerinde bu yazılı olarak ifade edilirse, öğretmenler ve yöneticiler bu konuda daha duyarlı olurlar ve çaba gösterirler.

Tablo 5. Öğretmenlerin okulun işlevleri temasındaki görüşlerine ilişkin belirlenen alt temalar

Tema 2: Okulun İşlevleri	
Bilgi üretme	Bilimsel ve eğitsel kurum ve kuruluşlarla işbirliği yapma
Proje üretme	Öğrencileri ilgi ve yetenekleri doğrultusunda yönlendirme
Bilgiyi kullanma	İşbirlikçi çalışma ortamı oluşturma
İşbirliğine dayalı öğretim anlayışı uygulama	Eğitim-öğretim alanındaki gelişmeler doğrultusunda güncellenen bir eğitim-öğretim anlayışı uygulama
Okul-çevre işbirliğini sağlama	Güvenli bir okul ortamı oluşturma
Pozitif iletişimin ve ilişkilerin olduğu bir okul ortamı oluşturma	

Öğretmenler liselerin misyon ifadelerinde ağırlıklı olarak okulun işlevleri temasının yer alması gerektiğini düşünmektedirler. Okulların öğrencileri ilgi ve yetenekleri doğrultusunda yönlendirme misyonlarının olması gerektiği, öğretmenlerin görüşlerinde öne çıkan alt temalar arasında yer almaktadır. Ö6 bu konudaki görüşlerini şu şekilde açıklamıştır:

Öğrencilerin kendilerini tanımalarına yardımcı olabilecek hizmetler okullar tarafından sunulmalı. Bir öğrenci kendini tanımadıktan, ne istediğini ve ne yapabileceğini bilmedikten sonra istediği kadar bilgiye sahip olsun, hayatta başarılı olma şansı çok az. Öğrencilerin yönlendirilmesi, okulların misyonları arasında olmalı ve bunu da misyon ifadelerine yazmalılar.

Ö5 ise, bu konuda şu şekilde görüşlerini dile getirmiştir:

Öğrencilerimizin becerilerinin farkına varmalarına yardımcı olmamız gerekiyor. Birçok öğrenci, üniversite tercihlerinde yanlış tercihlerde bulunuyor. Daha sonra mesleğini sevmeyen mutsuz insanlara dönüşüyorlar. Öğrencileri ilgi ve yetenekleri doğrultusunda yönlendirme konusuna, okulların misyon ifadelerinde kesinlikle yer verilmelidir.

Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alması gerektiği düşünülen konular arasında öne çıkan bir diğer konu ise, eğitimsel ve bilimsel kurum ve kuruluşlarla işbirliği yapılması olmuştur. Öğretmenler, okullarda bilgi kullanımının bu tür ortaklıklarla daha etkili bir şekilde gerçekleşebileceğini düşünmektedirler. Bu yönde görüşe sahip olan Ö3, şunları ifade etmiştir:

Okullar bilimsel ve eğitsel kurum ve kuruluşlarla işbirliği içinde çalışma misyonuna sahip olmalı ve bunu da misyon ifadelerinde belirtmeli. Bu tarz işbirlikçi çalışmalar, okulları sadece bilginin aktarıldığı yerler olmaktan öteye taşır. Bu şekilde okullar, bilgiyi kullanan ve değerlendiren kurumlar olurlar. Çağımızda okulların bilgiyi üreten ve kullanan kurumlar olması kesinlikle gereklidir.

Tablo 6. Öğretmenlerin okul yönetimi temasındaki görüşlerine ilişkin belirlenen alt temalar

Tema 3: Okul Yönetimi	
Öğretmenlerin katılımına değer veren bir yönetim anlayışı uygulama	İşbirlikçi bir yönetim anlayışı uygulama
Demokratik bir yönetim anlayışı uygulama	

Öğretmenler, okul yönetimi temasının da liselerin misyon ifadeleri arasında yer alması gerektiğini belirtmişlerdir. Öğretmenlerin bu temadaki görüşleri genel olarak değerlendirildiğinde, liselerin okul yönetiminin insan ilişkileri ekseninde gerçekleştirildiği yönünde bir misyonları olmasının gerekli bulunduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Ö8, okul yönetimi temasının gerekliliğini şu şekilde açıklamıştır:

Okulların nasıl yönetildiği misyon ifadelerinde belirtilmeli. Okullar eğitim-öğretim yapmak için var, ama eğitim-öğretimin nasıl yapıldığını etkileyen de birçok durum var. Özellikle okulun nasıl yönetildiği, yani nasıl bir yönetim anlayışının okulda hakim olduğu, yaptığımız işin kalitesini çok fazla etkiliyor. Elbette misyon olarak benimsenen yönetim anlayışı; öğretmenlerin katılımına değer veren, işbirlikçi ve demokratik bir anlayış olmalıdır. Belki bu durum okulun misyon ifadelerine yansıtılırsa, okulların yönetimi daha iyi yapılabilir.

Tablo 7. Öğretmenlerin misyon ifadeleri oluşturulurken dikkat edilmesi gereken konular temasındaki görüşlerine ilişkin belirlenen alt temalar

Tema 4: Misyon İfadeleri Oluşturulurken Dikkat Edilmesi Gereken Konular	
Eğitim-öğretimin içeriğine uygunluk	Öğretmenlerin fikirlerini öğrenme
Öğretmenleri bilgilendirme	Okulların özelliklerine uygunluk
Okulların bulunduğu illerin/bölgelerin özelliklerine uygunluk	Okulların bulunduğu illerin/bölgelerin ihtiyaçlarına cevap verme

Liselerin misyon ifadeleri ile öğretmenlerin liselerin misyon ifadelerinin içeriğinin nasıl olması gerektiğine ilişkin görüşlerinin karşılaştırılması amacıyla öğretmenlere liselerinin misyon ifadelerini bilip bilmedikleri ve misyon ifadelerinin uygunluğu ve yeterliği konusunda ne düşündükleri de ayrıca sorulmuştur. Öğretmenlerin birçoğunun liselerinin misyon ifadesini bilmedikleri görülmüştür. Liselerinin misyon ifadesinden haberdar olan öğretmenler ise, misyon ifadesinin içeriğinden ziyade oluşturulma şeklinin uygunluğu ve yeterliği konusunda görüş bildirmişlerdir. Öğretmenler özellikle liselerin misyon ifadelerinin okullarda verilen eğitimin içeriğine ve okulların bulunduğu ilin/bölgenin özelliklerine ve ihtiyaçlarına uygun olması gerektiğini vurgulamışlardır. Bu yönde görüş bildiren Ö1 ve Ö12'nin görüşleri sırasıyla şu şekildedir:

Öncelikle okulların misyon ifadeleri, okulda yapılan eğitim-öğretimin içeriğine uygun olarak ifade edilmelidir. Yani her okulun misyon ifadesi aynı olmamalı bence.

Okul misyonları bence okulların özelliklerine, okulların bulunduğu illerin veya bölgelerin özelliklerine ve ihtiyaçlarına uygun olmalıdır. Örneğin bir bölgede veya ilde tarım yaygınsa, bu bölgedeki veya ildeki okullarda bu yönde dersler verilmelidir. Nasıl bizler, öğretmenler olarak, sınıflarda öğrencilerin bireysel farklılıklarını dikkate alarak ders işliyorsak, okulların misyonları da biraz önce bahsettiğim farklılıkları dikkate alarak hazırlanmalıdır.

Liselerin Misyon İfadelerinde Yer Alan Temaların ve Öğretmenlerin Liselerin Misyon İfadelerinde Yer Alması Gereken Temalara İlişkin Görüşlerinin Karşılaştırılması

Liselerin misyon ifadelerinin içeriği ve öğretmenlerin liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alması gerektiğini düşündükleri konular, tematik açıdan aynı ana temalar altında toplanmaktadır. Ancak ana temalara bağlı alt temalar incelendiğinde, liselerin misyon ifadelerinin öğretmenlerin görüşleriyle tamamen uyumlu olmadığı anlaşılmaktadır.

Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde ağırlıklı olarak öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler teması yer alırken; öğretmen görüşlerine göre, liselerin misyon ifadelerinde öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özelliklerden daha çok okulun işlevleri teması yer almalıdır.

Öğretmenlerin öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özelliklere ilişkin liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alması gerektiğini düşündükleri özellikler arasında akademik odaklı hiçbir özellik bulunmamaktadır. Ancak liselerin misyon ifadelerinde akademik, sosyal ve kişisel özellikler bir arada bulunmaktadır. Öğretmenler özellikle sosyal ve kültürel faaliyetlerde başarılı öğrenciler yetiştirilmesi gerektiğine işaret etmişlerdir, ancak liselerin misyon ifadelerinde bu konular yer almamaktadır.

Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde okulun işlevleri teması kapsamında ağırlıklı olarak öğrenci yetiştirmede farklı anlayışların uygulanmasına vurgu yapılmaktadır. Öğretmen görüşlerine göre ise, liselerin misyon ifadelerinde okulun işlevlerine ilişkin; öğrencileri yönlendirme, bilimsel/eğitsel kurum ve kuruluşlarla ve çevreyle işbirliği yapma ve pozitif bir okul ortamı oluşturma alt temaları ön plana çıkmalıdır. Bilgi üretme ise, liselerin misyon ifadelerinde ve öğretmen görüşlerinde okulun işlevleri temasında yer alan ortak alt tema olmuştur.

Liselerin misyon ifadelerinde okul yönetimi temasında yer alan alt temalar, ağırlıklı olarak yönetsel süreçler vasıtasıyla okul gelişiminin sağlanmasına yöneliktir. Öğretmen görüşlerine göre ise, liselerin misyon ifadeleri kapsamında okul yönetiminde insanın ve insan ilişkilerinin dikkate alındığının yer alması gerekmektedir.

TARTIŞMA, SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

Araştırmada liselerin misyon ifadelerinin ağırlıklı olarak öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikleri kapsadığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Okulların misyon ifadelerinin çoğunlukla öğrenci özelliklerine odaklandığı ile ilgili çeşitli araştırma sonuçları bulunmaktadır. Jones (2010) okulların misyon ifadeleri kapsamında, öğrencileri yetiştirmede yaratıcılık ve problem çözme ile sorumlu vatandaşlık kavramları üzerinde durulduğunu belirtmiştir. Özdemir (2013), resmi genel liselerin eğitsel amaçlarını belirleme amacıyla yaptığı çalışmada; liselerin öncelikli misyonlarının öğrencilerin bilişsel, sosyal ve duygusal gelişimlerini desteklemek olduğunu tespit etmiştir. Altınkurt ve Yılmaz (2011), ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim okullarının misyon ifadelerinde en çok Atatürk ilke ve inkılaplarına vurgu yapıldığını tespit etmiştir. Daha sonra ise sırayla; milli ve manevi değerlere bağlı bireyler ve özgüven sahibi bireyler yetiştirmenin yer aldığını saptamıştır.

Araştırmada liselerin misyon ifadelerinde yer alan öğrenci özellikleri kapsamında; genel olarak akademik değil, sosyal özelliklere ve karakter özelliklerine değinildiği belirlenmiştir. Ancak bu bulgunun aksine Doolittle, Horner, Bradley, Sugai and Vincent (2007), misyon ifadelerinde daha çok akademik hedeflere odaklanıldığını ve misyon ifadelerinde öğrencilerin sosyal davranışlarının akademik hedeflerin gerisinde kaldığını tespit etmişlerdir. Öğrencilerin karakter özellikleri, gerek toplumsal hayatın düzenli ve sağlıklı olması yönünden,

gerekse öğrencilerin iş ve sosyal yaşamlarındaki başarıları yönünden önem taşımaktadır. Dolayısıyla okulların misyon ifadelerinde öğrencilerin sosyal gelişimlerine ve karakter gelişimlerine yönelik ifadelerin olması gerekmektedir. Davis, Ruhe, Lee ve Rajadhyaksha (2007) okul misyonunun karakter özelliklerinin iş yaşamı başarısı açısından önemi ile ilgili öğrenci algıları üzerindeki etkisini inceledikleri çalışmalarında okul misyonunun, öğrenme ve güven karakter özellikleri açısından farklılık oluşturduğunu tespit etmişlerdir.

Araştırmada görüşme yapılan öğretmenler, liselerin misyon ifadelerinde okulun işlevleri kapsamında öğrencilerin mesleki yönlendirilmelerinin yer alması gerektiği yönünde görüş bildirmişlerdir. Ancak liselerin misyon ifadelerinde öğrenci yönlendirilmesi konusuna pek önem verilmediği saptanmıştır. Benzer şekilde Özdemir (2013), liselerin en az gerçekleştirmek istedikleri eğitsel amacın, öğrencilerin mesleki gelişimlerini desteklemek olduğunu saptamıştır.

Araştırmaya katılan öğretmenler, liselerin misyon ifadelerinde okul yönetiminin anlayışına ve uygulamalarına ilişkin açıklamaların olması gerektiğini düşünmektedirler. Okul yönetimi anlayışı, okul süreçlerinde yapılan işlerin niteliğini ve okulun bu süreçlerdeki tutumunu göstermesi bakımından önem taşımaktadır. Ülgen ve Mirze (2013), bir misyon ifadesinin iyi açıklanmış olabilmesi için; “iş felsefesini ve iş yaklaşımlarını” (s.174) içermesi gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Bir organizasyonun misyonu; “vatandaşlık, çevresel ve sosyal sorumluluk gibi soyut değerleri” (s.32) veya “organizasyonun çevresine (iç ve dış) karşı tutumunu” ve organizasyonların “gelişimlerini nasıl ölçtüklerini” (s.32) içerebilir (Bakoğlu, 2010). Dolayısıyla etkili okul yönetiminin özellikleri, misyon ifadelerinde yer alması açısından önem taşımasının yanı sıra, misyon ifadelerinin gerçekleştirilebilmesi açısından da bir gereklilik oluşturmaktadır.

Okulların misyon ifadeleri ve okul yönetimi arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koyan çeşitli araştırma sonuçları bulunmaktadır. Yeung (2013) okul yönetiminin misyon ifadesi belirleme sürecinde yönetim bağlılığını dikkate alması gerektiğini tespit etmiştir. Verma (2009), misyon ifadelerinin stratejik bir araç olarak kullanıldığını, yöneticilerin davranışlarının misyon ifadelerinde yer alan değerleri yansıttığını ve misyonun yönetimin düşüncelerini ve davranışlarını etkilediğini tespit etmiştir.

Görüşme yapılan öğretmenler arasında, misyon ifadelerinin oluşturulması sürecinde görüşlerinin alınmadığını ve hatta okullarının misyon ifadelerini bilmediklerini belirtenler bulunmaktadır. Okulların misyon ifadelerinin öğretmenler tarafından bilinmemesi ve misyon ifadelerinin belirlenmesi sürecinde öğretmenlerin fikirlerinin alınmaması, misyon ifadelerinin benimsenmesini ve dolayısıyla uygulanmasını engelleyebilmektedir. Okul misyonlarının benimsenmesindeki güclüğü gösteren bu bulguya paralel olarak Ada ve Şahin (2007) yöneticilerin ve öğretmenlerin ilköğretim okullarında, gerçekçi amaçları ortaya koyan ve okul toplumunca benimsenen yazılı bir misyonun az olduğunu düşündüklerini tespit etmiştir.

Araştırmaya katılan öğretmenler, liselerin misyon ifadeleri oluşturulurken okullarda verilen eğitimin içeriğinin ve okulların bulunduğu bölgenin veya ilin sosyo-ekonomik özelliklerinin dikkate alınması gerektiğini belirtmişlerdir. Öğretmenlerin bu görüşünü destekler yönde Palmer ve Short (2008), bulunduğu yer itibarıyla sosyo-ekonomik farklılıkları olan okullar arasında misyon ifadeleri açısından farklılıklar olabileceğini belirtmiştir.

Araştırmanın bulgularına dayalı olarak; misyon ifadelerinin, eğitim-öğretim sürecinin tüm boyutları dikkate alınarak daha kapsamlı bir şekilde hazırlanması önerilmektedir. Sadece öğrencilere kazandırılmak istenen özellikler değil, okulun eğitim-öğretim ve yönetim süreçlerindeki tutumu ve felsefesi de misyon ifadelerine yansıtılabilir. Okulların misyon ifadeleri, öğretmenlerin ve okul yönetiminin işbirliği ile oluşturulmalıdır. Bu şekilde misyon ifadelerinin bilinirliği artabilir ve misyon ifadeleri, farklı bakış açılarının dikkate alınmasıyla hazırlanacağı için daha kapsamlı olabilir. Okullar kendilerine ve buldukları çevreye özgü özellikleri misyon ifadelerine yansıtılabilir.

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The Pedagogical Challenge of Cyber-Plagiarism in Teacher Education

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Abstract

This study employed descriptive survey and correlation design to identify, differentiate and correlate the fourth year education students' extent of awareness and the extent of committing cyber-plagiarism. The participants were 55 fourth year education students and their 10 teachers in an identified university in the Philippines. The statistical methods used to analyze the data were weighted mean, t-test of independence and Spearman's r coefficient of correlation.

The result of the study discussed that majority of the respondents used Google as their search engine in the internet when doing paper works. The study also revealed that the student- respondents were highly aware in the forms of cyber-plagiarism. Despite of this remarkable extent of awareness, majority of them also admitted that they committed the different forms of cyber-plagiarism to a moderate extent. In the survey conducted to the teachers, they revealed that the students have also cyber-plagiarize very often. The p-value ($.142 > \alpha 0.05$) for the significant difference in the extent of cyber-plagiarism behavior as assessed by the students and teachers revealed that there is no significant difference in the assessment of the respondents with respect to the observed cyber –plagiarism behaviors of the fourth year education students. The challenging part of the study was the significant moderate correlation ($r = .554$) between the extent of awareness and the extent of committing cyber-plagiarism among students. These were supported by the student-respondents perceived reasons of committing these acts.

The findings of the study led to the recommendation for the teachers and future educators to practice and implement proposed preventive strategies in cyber-plagiarism using the Anti –cyber-plagiarism in Education Strategies (ACES).

Keywords. Pedagogical challenge, cyber-plagiarism, academic integrity, and future educators

Introduction

Every educator has a multiplier effect. Whatever he or she does in the classroom may leave an inerasable mark on the students' mind. This in time may greatly affect the students' awareness, attitudes and action and may be passed on to many people. Looking into a bigger picture there is an alarming threat for the future front-liners in education- the students in the College of Education. Education teachers must serve as a role model in all their actions specifically in writing, submitting and presenting information. They must possess the highest form of academic integrity in the practice of teaching profession. In other words, teachers and education students should have the highest extent of awareness and act of academic integrity at all times.

In today's generation of teachers-to-be, there is a pedagogical challenge in the use of information and communication technology (ICT) in submitting paper works. Ethical uses of digital resources must be addressed to education students in order to equip them in battling against cyber-plagiarism. According to Jones (2007), cyber-plagiarism is an act of cutting and pasting material from an electronic source without paraphrasing, annotating, and submitting the material as his or her own work. It is one form of criminal act according to Republic Act 10175 which is also known as the Cyber-crime Law of 2012. Preventing this cyber-plagiarism behaviors requires the faculty and future educators to recognize that students have myriad of reasons and different chances to cheat. Different forms and reasons of academic integrity must be addressed to help teachers redesign the education environment that will minimize the opportunity and benefits of using ICT to cyber-plagiarize. In fact, statistical and anecdotal evidence underscores several disturbing trends, indicating that cheating at the college level is not only occurring more frequently, but the students are using much more sophisticated methods for them to prepare and submit their paper works.

There is little literature and research developed on academic integrity specifically on cyber-plagiarism among College of education students. It is a topic that, until now, has not been explored extensively but needs to be investigated due to its short term and long term effects in the pedagogy.

The intent of the researcher is not to claim that the use of ICT have resulted in aberrant cyber-plagiarism behaviors. Rather, the investigation of cyber-plagiarism provides some useful insights on the role of teachers and future educators in helping the students to observe academic integrity at all times.

These reasons prompted the researcher to conduct a study on the pedagogical challenge of cyber-plagiarism among future educators. This study specifically investigated the extent of awareness and extent of cyber-plagiarism behaviors among fourth year College of Education students in an identified university in the Philippines.

Statement of the Problem

This study aimed to determine the pedagogical challenge in cyber- plagiarism among future educators. This study is intended to answer the following questions:

1. What is the Education students' most commonly used search engine in the internet when doing the assigned paper works?
2. What is the Education students' extent of awareness in cyber-plagiarism in accomplishing their paper works?
3. What is the Education students' extent of cyber-plagiarism behaviors in accomplishing their paper works?
4. What is the Education teachers' assessment of their students' extent of cyber-plagiarism behaviors?
5. Is there a significant difference in the professors' and students' assessment of cyber-plagiarism behaviors?
6. Is there a significant relationship between the education students' extent of awareness and their extent of cyber-plagiarism behaviors?
7. What may be the most common reasons why students cyber-plagiarize?
8. How may the findings of the study and the existing literature be utilized in developing an anti- cyber-plagiarism in education strategies (ACES)?

Methodology

Research Design

The researcher used the descriptive- correlation design in this study to determine the relationship existing between fourth year education students' extent of awareness on forms of cyber-plagiarism and extent of cyber plagiarism behavior in preparing and submitting paper works. The responses of students and teachers were also correlated for significant difference in their assessment of cyber- plagiarism behaviors of the fourth year education students.

Research Setting

The study was conducted in one of the autonomous university located in Quezon City Philippines. The population of this study were all the fourth year students (N= 71) in the College of Education based on the data given by the Office of the Registrar. Out of 71 respondents, 55 were present during the gathering of data because some fourth year students are in their respective school assignment in the field study course.

Research Instrument

The researcher made use of a self-constructed questionnaire validated by a lawyer, a dean of the College of Education, a coordinator of Education, a grammarian and an statistician. Comments and suggestions given by the experts were collated and integrated into survey format prior to its pilot study and for reliability test. The first part of the survey was the profile of the College of Education fourth year students which includes the search engine they commonly used in doing paper works. The second part of the questionnaire was the students' extent of awareness in cyber –plagiarism. The third part of the survey was the extent of cyber- plagiarism behaviors of the students as assessed by themselves and by their professors in education. The revised version of the instrument underwent pilot study to 20 fourth year students in different campus of the University which was randomly selected. The researcher used the Cronbach's alpha since the survey used Likert scale. Reliability

analysis revealed that the research tool have higher over-all reliability value ($\alpha=.89$) compared to the cut-off value ($\alpha=.80$).

Ethical Considerations

Approval to conduct the study was obtained from the different sectors including the President of the university through the administrative dean of the campus, the research director and the respondents of the study which includes the students and teachers in the College of Education.

During the conduct of the study, the respondents were given free will to answer the survey tool on their awareness and cyber-plagiarism behaviors. Aside from this, the researcher guaranteed to the respondents that the information would not be made available to anyone who has not directly involved in the study.

Gathering of Data

A written informed consent was furnished and provided to the research locale and to the respondents. The researcher personally gathers the data since the student-respondents are his students. The student-respondents as well as the teachers were informed about the purpose of the study before the questionnaires were distributed. The survey tools were retrieved after which these were tabulated and subjected for statistical analysis.

Statistical Treatment

The statistical techniques used for in depth analysis and interpretation of data were frequency and percentage and weighted mean, t-test and Spearman's r correlation of coefficient. The sum of the weighted mean of the respondents was based on the range from the Likert scale used.

Results

Most Commonly Used Search Engine

Majority of the students use google as their reference for their paper works. The findings will help the teachers and future educators to verify if there are traces of plagiarism in the paper works submitted by students. Even though google can be used to detect plagiarized paper works, Conradson, Stacey and Ramos (2004) stressed in their studies that technology-based tools for detecting plagiarized school work have evolved. Some schools deploy services of TurnItIn.com, InteriGuard, WorkCheck Software, and Essay Verification Engine (Eve 2.2).

Extent of Awareness in the Acts of Cyber-plagiarism

Table 1 presents the fourth year education students extent of awareness in the different acts of cyber-plagiarism. As observed, there was indeed a high extent of awareness in the grand mean which is 3.71 indicating that majority of the respondents are knowledgeable and understand these acts. Despite of these findings, Tsang (2006) stressed that continual efforts to educate the students about cyber-plagiarism are desirable in upholding academic integrity.

Table 1. Summary of the Respondent's Extent of Awareness in Cyber-plagiarism

Indicators	Mean	Verbal Interpretation
1. Claiming submitting another's paper work or creation as own work.	4.22	High Extent
2. Combines partially or the entire cited sources with copied passages without citation.	3.90	High Extent
3. Contains significant portions of text from a single source without changing the ideas.	3.90	High Extent
4. Mixes copied material from two or more sources.	4.04	High Extent
5. Paraphrases the ideas from multiple sources and tried to make them fit together.	3.90	High Extent
6. Annotated the source/s but the information is inaccurate about sources.	3.24	Moderate Extent
7. Includes proper citation to sources but all the contents were copy pasted.	3.70	High Extent
8. Buying or purchasing paper from the internet and claim it as your own work.	3.22	Moderate Extent

9. Copy and pasting pictures without stating the author.	3.60	High Extent
10. Uploading or using parts or the entire content of the video from the internet and claiming it as your own.	3.20	Moderate Extent
Grand Mean	3.71	High Extent

5.00-4.50-Very High Extent, 4.49-3.50-High Extent, 3.49-2.50- Moderate Extent, 2.49-1.50-Low Extent, 1.49-0.50- Very Low Extent

Extent of Students' Cyber-plagiarism Behaviors

The data above implies that majority of the fourth year education students cyber-plagiarize very often. The three highest means from table 3 coincides to the findings of Tsang (2006) that majority of the students admitted frequent commission of cyber-plagiarism specifically in obtaining essay on the internet. In connection to the Table 1, the student- respondents were highly aware of cyber-plagiarism but they still do it much often. Cavanillas (2008) stressed that these cases of plagiarism have to be examined under the light of Cybercrime Law in general and the Institutional manual in specific. Aside from these, the student's manual in some universities does not state the distinction between cases when they negligently omits citing the source of some of the information included in their works.

Table 2. Summary of the Respondent's Extent of Cyber-plagiarism Behaviors

Indicators	Mean	Verbal Interpretation
1. Claiming submitting another's paper work or creation as own work.	3.04	Often
2. Combines partially or the entire cited sources with copied passages without citation.	3.40	Often
Contains significant portions of text from a single source without changing the ideas.	3.58	Frequently
4. Mixes copied material from two or more sources.	3.69	Frequently
5. Paraphrases the ideas from multiple sources and tried to make them fit together.	3.98	Frequently
6. Annotated the source/s but the information is inaccurate about sources.	2.98	Often
7. Includes proper citation to sources but all the contents were copy pasted.	3.40	Often
8. Buying or purchasing paper from the internet and claim it as your own work.	2.51	Often
9. Copy and pasting pictures without stating the author.	3.33	Often
10. Uploading and using parts or the entire content of the video from the internet and claiming it as your own.	2.65	Often
Grand Mean	3.26	Often

5.00-4.50-Always, 4.49-3.50-Frequently, 3.49-2.50- Often, 2.49-1.50-Sometimes, 1.49-0.50- Never

Extent of Students' Cyber-plagiarism Behaviors According to the Education Teachers

In order to avoid the subjectivity of the findings, the researcher also conducted the survey to the teachers of the respondents. The Education teachers revealed that based on their observation and checked paper works of students, students cyber-plagiarize often times. In this case, most of the teachers opined that the teacher has no authority to directly impose deduction of grades due to misbehavior of students or as a form of disciplinary measures as stated in the Batas Pambansa 232. This opinion was supported by Cavanillas (2008) in his findings that the teacher has no legal hold or direct control of students particularly in making deductions in grades. On the contrary, Cavanillas also clarified that the teacher can include the rule as part of the rubrics in checking the paper works of students.

Significant Difference in the Respondents Assessment of Students' Extent of Cyber-plagiarism Behaviors

Table 3 presents the significant difference in the extent of cyber-plagiarism behaviors of education students as assessed by the students themselves and their teachers. As shown on the table, the computed t- value of 1.745 is lesser than the tabulated t-value of 2.120 and concludes that there is no significant

difference in their assessed cyber-plagiarism behaviors of fourth year education students. With the results presented, it implies that the students response to the survey have high reliability. In other words, teachers should find methods to deter cyber-plagiarism and other forms of academic dishonesty.

If these acts will be tolerated, it will lead to a greater damage when they became part of the scientific and academic study. Keep in mind that plagiarized data are misleading and allow the perpetrator to gain undeserved benefit (Pupovac, et al., 2008)

Table 3. Significant Difference in the Respondent's Extent of Cyber-plagiarism Behaviors of the Student

Indicator	Computed Value	Critical Value	df	p-value	Decision	Conclusion
Students and Teachers Observed Ratings	1.745	2.12	16	0.142	Accept Ho	There is no Significant Difference

Note: The amount of difference is significant at alpha 0.01 level. (sig. 2-tailed)

Significant Relationship in the Student- Respondents' Extent of Awareness and Extent of Committing Cyber-plagiarism

Table 4 presents the significant relationship between the fourth year education students' extent of awareness in cyber-plagiarism and extent of committing it. As reflected in the table below, the Pearson r Correlation Coefficient is equivalent to .554 and interpreted as having positive moderate correlation. Thus, it may not guarantee that high extent of awareness would lead to low or no cyber- plagiarism act on the part of the students. These alarming findings should be given emphasis in the pedagogical process. In the European study conducted by Pupovac et. al. (2008), students are generally aware that plagiarism is a form of dishonest behavior but they still commit it. In these case, there is a big need to review the reasons why students cyber-plagiarize in order to give light on how these challenges can be solved or if not be prevented.

Table 4. Significant Relationship of the Respondent's Extent of Cyber-plagiarism Awareness and Behaviors

Indicator	Computed Value	Critical Value	df	Degree of Relationship	Decision	Conclusion
Awareness and Act of Cyber- Plagiarism	0.554	0.352	55	Positive Moderate Correlation	Reject Ho	There is a Significant Relationship

Note: The amount of difference is significant at alpha 0.01 level. (sig. 2-tailed)

Reasons of Committing Cyber-plagiarism

Table 5 explicates the top 10 reasons why students cyber-plagiarize. The least rank stated that the students cheat in their paper works because they look for the easiest and fastest way to accomplish their task. The highest rank goes to the lack of students' understanding of the purpose and importance of accomplishing the paper works in the attainment of their degree. Table 5. Top 10 Reasons Why Students Cyber-plagiarize

1. Students look for the easy way out of completing the paper work
2. Insufficient amount of time was given to finish the task
3. Students poor time management
4. Lack of knowledge about what is allowed and what is not allowed by the teacher.
5. The assigned task or paper work is very difficult to accomplish.
6. The student is lazy.
7. The students want to pass the course at any price.
8. There is no clear criterion in grading the paper work.
9. The students lack knowledge in writing scientific and technical papers.
10. The student did not understand the purpose of the task or paper works.

Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions were made.

1. Google is the most commonly used search engine by the students in making paper works.
2. The fourth year education students have high extent of awareness in the cyber-plagiarism behaviors.
3. Majority of the fourth year education students committed cyber-plagiarism more often in making and submitting their paper works.
4. Teachers also observed that most of the students commit cyber-plagiarism very often in their submitted paper works.
5. There were ten most common reasons why students in commit cyber-plagiarism. Some of their reasons are; a) they cyber – plagiarize in their paper works because they look for the easiest and fastest way to accomplish their task; and b) the lack of students' understanding of the purpose and importance of accomplishing the paper works in the attainment of their degree.
6. There is a moderate correlation between the students' extent of awareness and committing cyber-plagiarism in preparing and submitting paper works.
7. There is no significant difference in students and teachers assessment of the cyber-plagiarism behaviors of fourth year education students.
8. The following strategies were formulated and collated by the researcher in order to help schools specifically Teacher Education Institutions to take proactive role in the pedagogical challenges of cyber-plagiarism based on the cited literature and the findings of the study.

Anti-cyber-plagiarism in Education Strategies (ACES)

8.1 Self- Preventive Techniques for Students

- a) Be aware of the rules and regulations on cyber-plagiarism and other academic integrity concerns based on the students handbook.
- b) Learn the expected outcome of doing the paper works.
- c) Know and understand the criteria and rubrics in assessing your work.
- d) Understand the instructions and guidelines in accomplishing the paper works.
- e) Learn how to paraphrase passages and quotation.
- f) Cite the references correctly.

8.2 For Teachers

- a) Distribute worksheets and discuss about plagiarism, consequences, right behavior and self-preventive techniques.
- b) For the students' awareness strategy, make them understand the relevance, expected outcomes, rules, guidelines, and criteria for grading the assigned paper works. In other words, make the assignment or project clear on the part of the students.
- c) For the early detection of cyber-plagiarism, look for the common clues; know where the resources are; make an initial search in the google; and use a plagiarism detector software.
- d) Give the students ample time to finish the assigned paper works. Teachers can provide a Gantt Chart to monitor the progress of the paper works.

8.3 For the Administrators and Educational Leaders

- a) formulate specific rules and sanctions on cyber-plagiarism instead of using the general term academic honesty and integrity.
- b) encourage the teachers to provide the syllabus for the explanation expected outcome, properly use of the rubrics and explaining cyber-plagiarism in the similar context.

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Future Learning and Prior Learning Assessment and Recognition in Vocational Teacher Education

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Abstract

The paper examines future learning and technologies available to be utilized in future learning. It illustrates personalization, collaboration and informalization as core terms of future learning. Technologies such as wearable computers and haptic and human-integrated technology are described from a future-learning point of view. Furthermore, the paper reports the results of a study that examined how individualization of learning processes and recognition of prior competences can respond to students' needs and to the requirements of future learning. The context of the study was provided by the HAAGA-HELIA School of Vocational Teacher Education and a group of teaching students studying for their certificate in an online vocational teacher education programme. A design science approach was used in the study. A design scientist attempts to engineer innovative educational environments and simultaneously conducts experimental studies of those innovations. In this context, the innovations are related to future learning and prior learning assessment and recognition.

Keywords.

Introduction

The Europe 2020 strategy acknowledges that a fundamental transformation of education and training is needed to supply the new skills and competences that will be required by the future European society (European Commission, 2010a). There is a need to promote active learning in both work- and school-based vocational education and training (VET) and give individuals the opportunity to control and develop their own learning. Issues related to work-based learning are central to the future of education in the knowledge society. Work-based learning has become an area of interest in higher education as a means to support students' personal and professional development and the acquisition of knowledge and skills (Brennan & Little, 2006). Work-based learning facilitates the development of the learning outcomes approach in VET with the shift towards competence-based learning and competence-based qualifications and assessments (European Commission, 2010b). Competence-based approaches have been seen to have potential not only in the way in which employment-related skills are assessed and recognized, but also in influencing the structure and delivery of formal education and training programmes (Bowden, 2004). One reason for the importance of competence-based learning in VET is the underlying idea that vocational education should enable students to acquire the competences needed in their future professions and in society in general (Biemans et al., 2004). In addition to that, while working as professionals, lifelong and life-wide learning are important to develop the competences required for future development of one's work. Future learning demands recognition of competences acquired in non-formal and informal learning, but so far models that recognize those kinds of competences in higher education are missing; only competences, skills and knowledge acquired from formal learning are traditionally recognized. Therefore, there is a need to study where previous competences acquired outside of formal education are recognized in higher education, and determine what kind of personalized learning paths are available.

METHODS

The research method was constructive, and the study aimed at adding to the body of scientific knowledge of prior competence recognition and individualization of curriculums. Design science consists of two activities: building and evaluating (Järvinen, 2001). Building refers to the process of constructing an innovation or model for a specific purpose. Evaluation determines how well the innovation is performed; i.e., it can be asked whether the new innovation or model is better than the old one. The main condition of validity for a model is that it

works, i.e., solves the problem in question (Kasanen et al., 1993). The study was conducted in a VET programme, where work- and competence-based learning provided the context. The main research objective of the study was to gain a better understanding of the assessment and recognition of competences in an online teacher education programme and create a model that suggests how assessment and recognition of prior competences could be performed. The two other objectives were individualization of a curriculum and facilitation of personalized learning processes online. The concept of prior learning assessment and recognition is not new, but it is seldom used in higher education to recognize anything other than formal learning. Prior learning assessment and recognition is based on the premise that significant learning takes place in a wide variety of contexts throughout a person's life, and that it is beneficial to both organizations and individuals to recognize that learning wherever possible (van Kleef, 1998).

FUTURE LEARNING

Although personalization, collaboration and informalization are not new terms, the overall vision is that they are the core of future learning (Redecer et al., 2011). At the same time, lifelong and life-wide learning utilizing information communication technologies (ICT) and new instructional devices will play a key role. Figure 1 below illustrates the future learning strategies as described by Redecer et al. (2011).

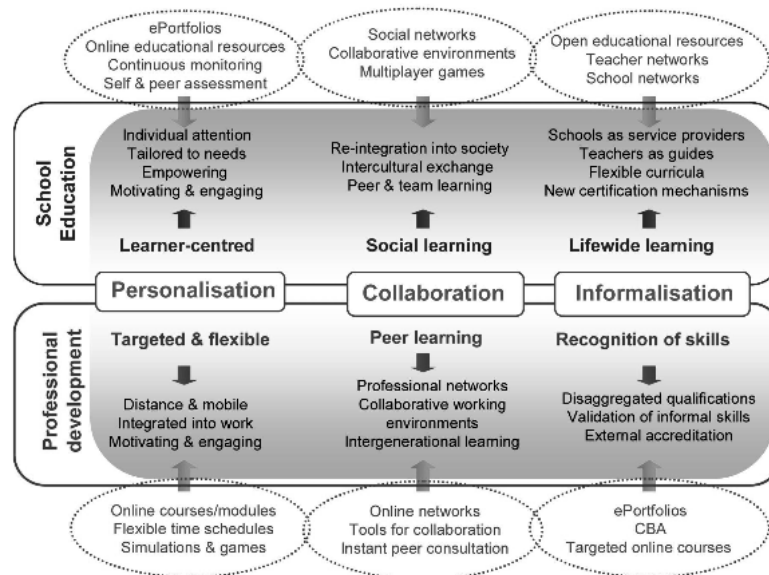


Figure 1: Future learning strategies (Redecer et al., 2011)

The first key issue for future learning is personalization, i.e., assessment and recognition of existing competences and skills and tailor-made learning paths that align with students' learning needs. In practise, this means having online learning journals, diaries or portfolios for reflection of learning and verification of what has been learned. The ePortfolio continuously monitors learning, but also enables self and peer assessment. Students' active participation in the learning process motivates and engages them better than teacher-centred approaches. When personalization promotes integration of learning into students' work, it also boosts professional development.

The second of the future learning elements is collaboration, i.e., team, collaborative and peer learning in social networks and collaborative environments. Collaboration can occur in a work environment, making learning experiences and activities more relevant and developing working life skills. Future teachers need to constantly update their skills and knowledge, and ICT teacher networks can aid this by fostering informal exchanges of good practices and new findings between teachers. This type of online network connects teachers with the same subject and interest areas, removing barriers to supporting each other and facilitating knowledge exchange between young and old.

The third key element of future learning is informalization, i.e., informal learning, which has been promoted by open educational resources (OER) and the expansion of social media. The Massachusetts *Institute of Technology* (MIT) OpenCourseWare project (<http://ocw.mit.edu/index.htm>) introduced a global open

educational resource after announcing in 2001 that it was going to put MIT's entire course catalogue online. Since then, the number of open educational resources has been increasing, e.g., the European Union launched the Open Education Europa portal in 2013 (<http://www.openeducationeuropa.eu/>), which will provide a gateway to high-quality OER produced in Europe, in their original language. Also, Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC) are a recent development, where MOOC promoters such as Coursera (<https://www.coursera.org/>) and OpenLearn (<http://www.open.edu/openlearn/about-openlearn/try>) offer a wide range of educational programmes from leading universities online for free. Lifelong learning and continuous updating of skills and knowledge in the form of open educational resources and MOOC can be seen to promote informal learning. A challenge has been the validation of informally acquired knowledge in a situation where learners need to complement and supplement their formally acquired qualifications with vocational skill training. In future learning, recognition of non-formal and informal learning outcomes is needed.

FUTURE TECHNOLOGIES FACILITATING LEARNING

The increase in the number of personal computers and the launch of the Internet have led to huge changes in distance learning compared to the earlier usage of television, radio or cassette recordings. The decreasing size of devices such as laptops, tablets and smartphones has moved learning from classrooms and homes to vehicles, workplaces, cafes and other places where people spend their time. Figure 2 illustrates the technical innovations utilized to facilitate learning from 1980 to 2030.

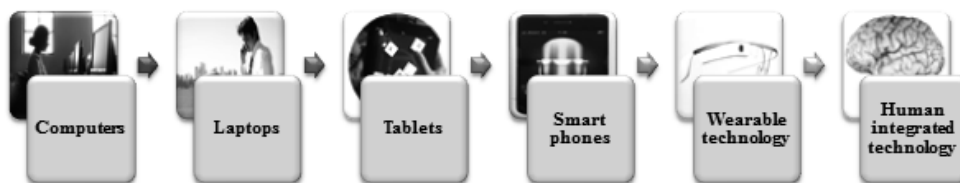


Figure 2: Technical innovations from 1980 to 2030

The European Commission has created the Digital Agenda for Europe, which aims to reboot Europe's economy and help its citizens and businesses to get the most out of digital technologies (European Commission, 2010c). Future technologies will be of great importance in facilitating learning, when learning moves from the buildings of universities, institutions and schools to workplaces, cyberspaces and other learning spaces. Future technologies are needed, in addition to informal and non-formal learning, in formal learning. To make sure the work-based learning and competences acquired in working life are recognized, they need to be visible and proved. In this process, ICT, in addition to future technologies, have a crucial role.

Globalization is one of the trends in education and future technologies are needed to connect people in different parts of the world. One such technology is wearable computers, e.g., the usage of wearable devices such as Google Glass (<http://www.google.com/glass/start/>). How could wearable devices be utilized in learning? A student teacher and an instructor who are in different parts of the country or world could be connected via virtual glasses. The context could be a classroom, where a student teacher is teaching. An instructor could, on his or her computer screen, see what the teacher is seeing through the virtual glasses. Virtual glasses could also enable tutoring of students abroad in real time. If the context is a laboratory, a teacher could instruct a student with the help of virtual glasses while the student is practising their skills (Aarreniemi-Jokipelto, 2013b). Could computers someday interact directly with the human brain? According to the HIVE (Hyper Interaction Viability Experiments) project funded by the European Union, we will witness the coming of age of technologies for fluent brain-computer and computer-mediated brain-to-brain interaction in the next 50 years (Hive, 2012).

In recent years, several novel technologies have been launched, but education has not been swift to adopt them. These technologies could serve pedagogical requirements by enabling more senses to be used in learning, and also by supporting different learning styles. Virtual spaces could be connected to traditional classrooms so that participants can be seen sitting in the same classroom. Currently, this has not been the case, but instead some of the students sit in the classroom and some watch the lesson on the wall via a data projector. Online students have thus far not had the same possibilities to collaborate as students who are present in the classroom.

With the help of haptic technology it is possible to feel an object even if you are not in the same location as the object. This could be used in a learning context when students need to know how an object feels. Currently,

physical objects are studied by reading a text description or seeing a picture, if you are not present in a classroom. In 2012, Nokia was looking for a patent for a haptic tattoo to help people feel who is calling (Technewsworld, 2012). In the future, haptic tattoos could be used to send other kinds of information than just the name of a caller. For example, a teacher could tutor a student teacher while they are teaching using haptic tattoos (Aarreniemi-Jokipelto, 2013b).

STUDY CONDUCTED IN AN ONLINE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME

Over the last three years, assessment and recognition of prior competences and personalized learning paths has been studied at the HAAGA-HELIA School of Vocational Teacher Education, where groups of teaching students studying for their certificate in an online vocational teacher education programme were the subjects. This article reports on the study conducted during the third year, when the results from the first and second years were available. The main challenges faced by students during the first year were related to assessment and recognition of prior competences. Students commented that previous competences were not recognized at all, or were only recognized in a late phase. During the third year, these were the main challenges aimed to be solved.

The student teachers were adults and most of them were working as teachers or in a position in the education system in Finland. Thus, many of them had previously acquired competences, information and skills in the field of teacher education. Due to the student teachers' existing competences, the first aim of the study was to develop methods and procedures to recognize prior competences. The second theme was individualization of the curriculum, i.e., designing personal learning paths based on each student teacher's definition of their own learning goals. The third theme of the study was facilitating the learning process. The online teacher education programme, where the study was conducted, served as a test bed for E-learning and social media learning development and research (Aarreniemi-Jokipelto, 2011, 2013a). Therefore, several E-learning and social media tools were utilized in the facilitation of learning.

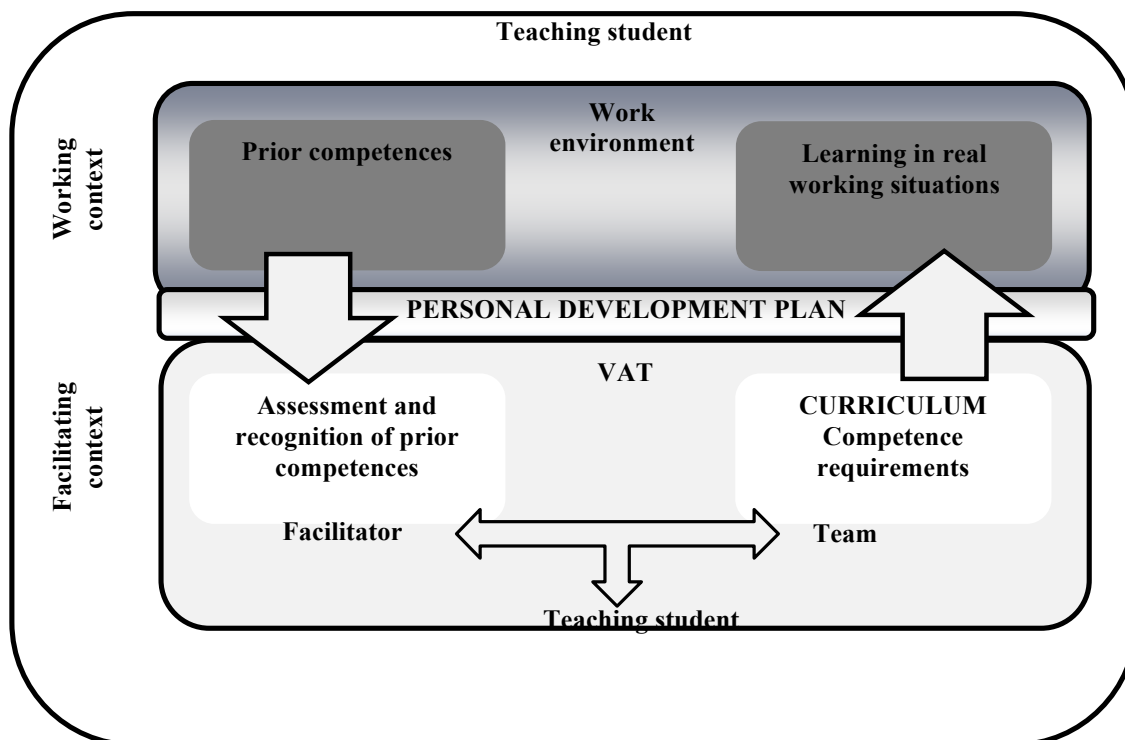


Figure 3: Online teacher education programme during 2013-2014

Figure 3 above illustrates the processes in which the study was conducted and the participants of the processes.

Compared to earlier years, the difference was that the facilitator did not design learning processes for the student teachers beforehand, but instead the learning processes were designed together with each student teacher. The curriculum, describing teachers' competence requirements and general guidelines for study, were given by

the facilitator, but after that each student teacher was encouraged to define his/her learning goals, define learning activities to be utilized for achieving the goals and also define the assessment criteria to be used. Because the student teachers were working mostly in educational organizations they were encouraged to develop their working skills alongside their studies. Therefore, it was crucial that the student teachers used their own work as a learning context as much as possible. Each student had an online personal guidance meeting with the facilitator, during which the first version of the personal development plan was guided. During the first guidance meeting, prior competences were also discussed. If a student had prior competences to be recognized, the student was asked to present them in a portfolio and have another meeting with the facilitator to present her/his competences with the help of certificates, work examples and reflections. Figure 4 illustrates the prior competence assessment and recognition model.

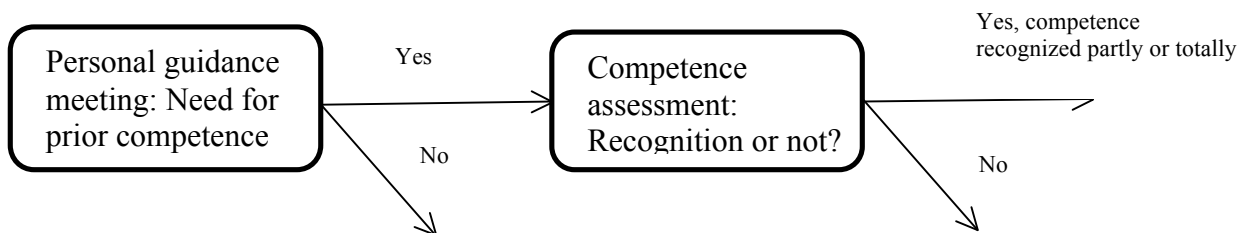


Figure 4: Prior competence assessment and recognition model

It seems that the use of the prior competence assessment and recognition model also supported the individualization of the curriculum. The personal guidance meetings with students took place online, but the competence assessment meetings took place face-to-face, because it was unclear what type of materials students would be presenting in these meetings. In the future, it is planned to arrange the competence assessment meetings online as well, because it seems that the materials can be presented in a digital form.

DISCUSSION

The main research objectives of the study were to gain a better understanding of the recognition of competences in online teacher education programmes, and to create a model that suggests how recognition of previous competences could be performed. The two other objectives were individualization of the curriculum and facilitation of personalized learning processes online. The preliminary results indicated that the model is better than the one used earlier. Due to the prior competence assessment and recognition model, some students graduated earlier, and were more motivated than before. The students had already worked in real life working situations before, but instead of peers they were able to work more in their own networks with their own colleagues. With the help of the competence requirements defined in the curriculum students created learning goals, which resulted in larger targets combining several competence areas and individualized learning paths. A student stated that she had never before seen a curriculum use a tool so well. The students felt that the holistic approach supported them and enabled student-centred approaches. On the other hand, there were students who requested, instead of a holistic approach, a well-defined step-by-step definition of what was required of them.

CONCLUSION

Personalization, collaboration and informalization are expected to be part of future learning. Cyberspace will play a more crucial role as a learning environment than it currently does. There will be new devices that enable learning in new situations, and new ways to utilize those. All these changes demand accompanying changes in the models, methods and practises at universities and other educational organizations. One of these models is the prior competence assessment and recognition model, which is tightly connected to the future learning trends of personalization, collaboration and informalization. The government of Finland has demanded that students graduate earlier nowadays. The wider use of prior learning assessment and recognition in universities could enable earlier graduations for some of the students. Individualized learning paths and collaboration in real working situations motivates students and engages them more in their studies, and could even decrease drop-outs.

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Experiencing the European Union: A simulation game on the European Citizens' Initiative

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Abstract

Simulations can be extremely successful in acquainting participants with a negotiation's logic and process, especially in those political systems in which negotiations are prominent, such as the European Union (EU). After a brief introduction on the constructivist approach to teaching the European integration, in this paper we present step by step a simulation game on the adoption of a real piece of European legislation: the regulation that implemented the European Citizens' Initiative, one of the main innovations of the Lisbon Treaty. Special attention is devoted to the different phases of a simulation design, from the choice of the topic, the choice and allocation of roles, the preparation of all needed documentations, to the debriefing and assessment phases. The paper originates from a two-years long experience with undergraduate students of two Italian Universities.

Keywords. Simulations, Problem-based learning, Constructivism, EU negotiations, European Citizens' Initiative.

Introduction

“The most important thing is not winning but taking part”: Baron De Coubertin's maxim does reflect the spirit and the logic of simulation games. Real negotiations may dramatically fail to deliver an agreement, and so too may simulations. However, simulations of negotiations do not have winners and losers: they do not even have a clear notion of victory. Yet even participants in simulation games who find themselves on the losing side may be those who have benefited most from them. The value of a simulation lies in the process. The outcome is to a large extent irrelevant.

Simulations can be extremely successful in acquainting participants with a negotiation's logic and process, especially in those political systems in which negotiations are prominent, such as the European Union (EU). Everything in the EU points up the central importance of negotiations. There are negotiations between the EU institutions and bodies (the European Commission, the European Council, the Council of the EU, the European Parliament and many others), between them and national/subnational governments and parliaments (inside and outside formal procedures), and between public and private actors. Nothing happens in the EU without negotiations. For this reason, the EU is a particularly suitable field of study for negotiation theories (Meerts and Cede 2004; Elgröm and Jönsson 2005; Dür et al. 2010); simulations, in their turn, can be a powerful instrument to teach how the EU actually works. As an example, we develop step by step a simulation game on the adoption of a real piece of European legislation: the regulation that implemented the European Citizens' Initiative, one of the main innovations of the Lisbon Treaty. Before illustrating the selected example, we introduce some general remarks about the problem-based learning approach and the use of simulations in teaching.

Problem-based learning approach and simulations

Simulations have acquired prominence in contemporary teaching, and especially in international relations. Suffice it to consider the indexes of the leading journals on contemporary politics, teaching, and the discipline of political science to see how extensive the use of simulation games is, and how complex and structured they have become. The pedagogical and educational foundations of simulations are based on the so-called “student-centered” approach (Jonassen and Land 2000), where students actively take part in a learning process that is “constructive, cumulative, self-regulated, goal-oriented situated, collaborative, and individually different” (De Corte 2000, 254).

Today, the growing availability of information and the complexity of the problems to address require universities not only to furnish students with specific skills necessary to acquaint them with debates and issues in

specific disciplines; they are also required to transmit the meta-skills (the ability to do research, the ability to organize meetings, the ability to speak in public, the ability to defend a position through reasoning) that can be applied in diverse environments (at school, but also – and above all – at work).

This change entails the need to identify teaching methods that respond better to the new requirements. The main reason for such a need is, probably, the emergence of a global knowledge society. As Bursens and Van Loon (2007, 2) point out “this era – the ‘information age’ – can be characterized by an ‘infinite, dynamic and changing mass of information’ (Dochy and McDowell 1997, 280) and requires cognitive, meta-cognitive, and social competencies of its citizens. Students need to achieve not only a sound base of discipline specific knowledge and skills but also a number of ‘higher order’ skills and attitudes. In this way, students should become able to cope with ever-changing environments and abstract and complex work processes”.

In light of these changes, many teaching activities are nowadays informed to the Problem-based learning (PBL) approach, which is “the learning that results from the process of working toward the understanding or resolution of a problem” (Barrows and Tamblyn 1980, 18). The theoretical approach that underpins these teaching methodologies is one and the same, i.e. constructivism, whereby what we learn is the result of the construction, interpretation and modification of our representations of reality, which are, in turn, the result of our experiences with the real world. Simulations are one of the main instruments adopted in the PBL approach.

From an educational point of view, simulations have been widely used in the field of international relations, economics, sociology and other disciplines. Certainly, simulations have had mixed fortunes. In the late 1980s, Dorn (1989) identified a peak in scientific contributions on simulations between 1971 and 1975 and a contraction in the period 1981-1986. But the continuing importance of simulations and role-games is confirmed, for example, by the existence of a scientific journal dedicated to them, *Simulation and Gaming* (whose first issue came out in March 1970), and several international associations. More recently they have started to be used in European Studies featuring the decision-making process of the EU.

Despite the many examples and contributions (or probably because of them), it is not easy to define a simulation (or a “simulation game”). In fact, to be precise, a distinction should be drawn among simulation games, games-simulation, gaming simulation, games with simulated environments, teaching games, learning games, instructional games and educational games. To make a long story short, here we embrace the minimalistic definition proposed by Dorn (1989, 2-3):

A game is any contest or play among adversaries or players operating under constraints or rules for an objective or goal. A simulation is an operating representation of central features of reality. A simulation game is an exercise that has the basic characteristics of both games and simulations. Consequently, simulation games are activities undertaken by players whose actions are constrained by a set of explicit rules particular to that game and by a predetermined end point. The elements of the game constitute a more or less accurate representation or model of some external reality with which players interact by playing roles in much the same way as they would interact with reality itself.

One reason of the simulation’ fortune is its adaptability. A simulation can be organized for a few or many participants, besides a number of observers; participants may be homogeneous as regards several variables (a class of students, for instance, or a group of officials); rules may differ in their degree of specificity; participants may have various amounts of informative resources or skills of different kinds; it can also be organized accordingly to the time available. The aim of a simulation is, in general, to achieve a goal (approval of a legislative text, for example) through interaction among the participants.

In a *role-playing* simulation, each participant is given a role and is asked to act as the real person whose role he is interpreting would act. To this end, an important resource for each participant is information about the characteristics and objectives of the person that he interprets. Playing a role can be very difficult, especially if the participant does not agree with the ideas of the real counterpart. But this is one of the factors that make a simulation useful: it forces the participant to assume the guise of a “stranger” and to understand the latter’s point of view. The participant may play the role of a real person (the president of the European Council) or an imaginary one (king of Alpha Centauri), an individual (head of government) or a collective actor (European Commission).

A simulation consists of individual and collective activities. The former may, for example, comprise the preparation of positions or writing reports or press releases, as well as the drafting of amendments; the latter comprise the more or less formalized interaction among participants. The interaction may take place during the formal simulation sessions or outside of them (by e-mail, for example, or through informal contacts). This means that simulation activities have a formal beginning and a formal end. Anything can happen between those two moments as long as it remains within the limits established by the simulation: players can bargain according to the initial position of the character that they represent but without going beyond their mandate. This does not

mean that the role remains the same: characters may change their minds, as happens in any real decision-making process. As in reality, however, changes of position must be justified.

The fact remains that a simulation is a simplification of reality. Some positions may be caricatured and certain rules oversimplified. There is no minimum degree of simplification: it depends on the number of actors, on the process to be simulated, and on the rules to be followed. It goes without saying that the simulation of a decision-making process that in reality involves numerous actors requires careful simplification work if there are very few participants. Experience, but also common sense, will guide the teacher in selecting the process to be simulated.

Scientific literature have sometime questioned the usefulness of simulations, especially in international relations courses (Butcher 2012, 177). However, other scholars have emphasized how simulations enable students:

- to benefit from active learning, defined as “anything that involves students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing” (Bonwell and Eison 1991, 4);
- to experience relevant aspects of the real world which had previously only been studied in abstract in traditional courses;
- to feel the impact of the stress and constraints (e.g. time, information availability, and information reliability) found in crisis situations;
- to witness the prevalence of different decision-making models under specific circumstances (e.g., rational actor model, governmental process model, organizational process model, groupthink);
- to measure the importance of personalities, trust, and personal relationships in the decision-making process, as well as the role of leadership;
- to understand the nature of public opinion and assess its reliability as a tool for decision-making;
- to appreciate the importance of information in decision-making and recognize the remarkable amount of information that policy-makers need about current affairs, historical situations, scientific progress, etc.;
- to see the interaction between domestic and international politics;
- to assess the validity of different explanations of policy-making (e.g., elitism, pluralism, and hyperpluralism) in different situations;
- to gain a first experience in empirical research;
- to acquire a range of skills that may be valuable in a future profession, such as being in someone else shoes, organizing events, reading between the lines, understanding the nuances of diplomatic language, realizing the importance of reasoning and rhetoric to convince or to refute;
- finally, given the fact that the teacher is always in the shadow, to work in group and help each other.

The simulation on the European Citizens’ Initiative

There is no straightforward recipe on how to prepare a simulation exercise: the design of a simulation can be tailored to specific pedagogical needs. We will discuss here an example of simulation concerning the approval of a regulation on the European Citizens’ Initiative we run in Italy and in Brussels in 2011 and 2012 with the undergraduate students of our courses in Public Policy Analysis and European and International Politics.

We have choose the European Citizens’ Initiative for a series of reasons: it is sufficiently accessible for an audience of non-experts, it is able to mobilize students and generate debate, it is suitable for a simulation exercise given the constraints (time available, participants, etc.), there is a balance between the possible arguments within the negotiation (e.g. in favor or against a certain course of action), and, finally, sources of information are accessible so that students can prepare themselves properly.

We are conscious that there are some disadvantages in replicating a real EU negotiations in a simulation. The main one is the risk of recreating a process with very few elements in common with the actual one or, on the contrary, that one of predetermining its outcome. However, there are also some advantages. The most important is that original documentation can be used: the Commission proposal, the prior green paper, the contributions to the public consultation, the report from the European Parliament committees, the opinions of the Committee of the Regions and of the European Economic and Social Committee and others are all available on the EU internet site. Participants can contact experts and inquire about the procedure, they can easily obtain information about the issues at stake from various sources and find the real positions of NGOs and other stakeholders.

Moreover, a negotiation that has attracted significant media attention (like that one we proposed) entails the availability of documents, press releases, position papers and other materials, especially on the Internet. This not only reinforces the motivation of the students but also helps them prepare their positions and find new arguments to defend them. Finally, the participants acquire familiarity with the original documents, understand the relationships among them, and learn how to search in the appropriate databases. The European Citizens’

Initiative is suitable for simulations also because it is a self-standing issue, that is an issue addressed for the first time and by a single Commission proposal. If, on the contrary, a procedure relates to previous initiatives, or to other procedures running in parallel, is chosen, the negotiation may not be fully grasped because all its ramifications cannot be reflected in the simulation.

It is important to remember that a simulation – however accurate – is and remains a simplification. It is always useful to keep a simulation's limits in mind when conceiving one. For example: one cannot simulate all the steps of a decision-making process: it is necessary to focus on the most significant ones; there cannot be as many actors as there are in reality: only the most representative ones should be chosen; one can hardly simulate the negotiation and the adoption of an entire text: the focus should be limited to the most significant issues.

For these reasons, we have decided to simulate the major steps of the policymaking associated to the selected regulation. In the first part of the exercise (2 meetings of about 2 hours each), students have been required to present brief position papers at the public consultation on the Green Paper on a European Citizens' Initiative proposed by the European Commission playing the role of one of the public bodies, associations, NGOs or private citizens involved. This part was not *strictu sensu* a simulation, but just an occasion to make them familiar with the dossier. In the second part (2 meetings of about 3 hours each), students have simulated a COREPER II and a General Affairs Council meeting, interpreting the national permanent representatives and the national foreign ministers respectively.

In every simulation the teacher should be fully aware of his delicate role as the "discreet engine" behind the exercise. The teacher should carefully find an intermediate point between being a passive observer and the *deus ex machina* (pre)determining the course of the exercise from A to Z. The teacher should always be present, although not always visible or in the front line. In particular, he:

- Should hold some introductory lectures, explaining the subject and the organization of the simulation, and offer suggestions on negotiating strategies;
- Should prepare and supply the material for the simulation;
- Can, if appropriate, take an active role in the simulation to facilitate the discussions (for example as an advisor to a key player);
- Should always be reachable by e-mail or via a dedicated website;
- Should provide feedback after the exercise and help link the theoretical notions presented in the introductory lectures with the experience of the simulation;
- Should submit the exercise to evaluation by the participants.

Last but not least, even when the teacher relies on an already-existing exercise, he should be aware that no simulation exercise can be prepared without thorough knowledge of the persons who will take part in it: the simulation should be adapted to the participants (and not viceversa). In our exercise, we have played different roles. In the first part, we have played the role of the Commission Secretariat, in the second one that one of the Council General Secretariat. In both cases, we have played a discreet role, yet close enough to the Presidency to steer the negotiation if necessary.

EU negotiations involve hundreds of actors. At least approximately 12-15 participants are necessary for the proposed simulation to reproduce the realistic dynamics of the EU decision-making within the framework of an ordinary legislative procedure (OLP). In the second part of our simulation, actors that have been represented were the European Commission, the Presidency of the Council, and the representatives of some members in the Council. When choosing the national delegations present in the Council, we have paid attention to the range of viewpoints that would be represented. There was no *a priori* rules as regards the delegations to be selected: they have been chosen in such a way as to reflect the variety of viewpoints in the real negotiation. A balanced number of "big" and "small" states has been reached, as well as of "old" and "new" member states, supporting or opposing the regulation.

Presidency, Commission, and national delegations have therefore negotiated within the Council of the EU. But what about the European Parliament? With a limited number of participants (between 35 and 40 students), it was difficult fully and realistically to integrate the European Parliament into the simulation. In one case we have opted for the creation of a small delegation of European Parliament representatives, comprising the rapporteur and two representatives from two other European Parliament political groups (the shadow rapporteurs). The role of the European Parliament delegation was to represent the Parliament in trilogue meetings with the Presidency and the Commission in order to exchange views on the positions emerging in the respective institutions. In another case, the limited number of participants made it difficult to envisage also this role for the European Parliament, then we have chosen a procedure that takes place only within the Council. In this case, the position of the European Parliament has been invented by the instructors, so that between the meeting of Coreper and Council they foreseen an imaginary trilogue meeting whose outcome – prepared by the instructors and

reflecting the position of the European Parliament – was announced by the Presidency at the beginning of the subsequent meeting.

Allocating the roles – finding the right person for the role – is a delicate task: although all roles are important, and although all roles allow a good negotiator to shine, they do not necessarily entail the same skills. Knowing the participants, we have allocated the most sensible roles by ourselves. We have chosen, as the Commission representatives, students able to speak in public, to digest a significant amount of information in short time, to justify and defend the proposal while answering questions and countering objections from the national delegations, rapidly to understand whether suggestions for amendment are acceptable and, if not, why. As the President of the Council or as the chair of the Coreper II, we have selected participants with a consensual attitude, good at listening, calm and balanced but also with the right mix of political intuition and charisma to imagine a viable compromise and persuade the delegations to accept it. As the representatives of the European Parliament, we have selected students familiar with bold rhetoric and possessing political intuition and advanced negotiating skills. All other roles have been allocated at random. Students have been simply reminded of the importance of each role: with their arguments, attitude, irony, suggestions and alliances each of them can change the outcome of the negotiation.

In general, the amount of information to be shared with participants is the instructors' choice. In our exercise we have decided to provide the students with the following documents:

- An introduction to the simulation (prepared by ourselves);
- The Commission Green Paper on a European Citizens' Initiative;
- The Commission proposal (original document);
- The report drawn up by the responsible EP committee (original document);
- The report from a Council preparatory body to the higher level (prepared by ourselves);
- The relevant articles of the Treaty of Lisbon applicable to the procedure (notably articles 293 and 294 for the ordinary legislative procedure);
- Confidential or guiding instructions for each player (prepared by ourselves), to which we will return later.

Given that participants have been encouraged to search for additional pieces of information by themselves, the following documents have been also made available to them (non-exhaustive list):

- The press release of the Commission announcing the adoption of the proposal;
- The opinions of the Committee of the Regions and of the European Economic and Social Committee.

We don't have distributed the documents all at once preventing participants from concentrating only on the narrow range of issues of interest to their delegation and failing to grasp the big picture. Of the essential documents, the distribution of the confidential instructions and the report from a Council preparatory body to the higher level, for example, have been delayed until the very beginning of second part of the exercise. The report, in fact, reduces the scope of the exercise by focusing it on the issues outstanding after the (imaginary) work of the Council preparatory bodies.

At the beginning of the second part of the negotiation, all players have received short instructions about the tasks that they were supposed to perform, even if in real negotiations such guidelines may not always exist, at least not in written form.

There follow examples of instructions for different roles in the simulation exercise concerning the European Citizens' Initiative.

European Commission

The primary mission of the Commission is to obtain the approval of its proposal and to preserve as much as possible of its original content. The Commission is convinced that the preparatory process of the proposal, which involved a wide range of stakeholders, provides sufficient guarantees about its quality.

During the negotiations, the Commission will defend its choices, based on the arguments put forward during the preparatory stages and building on the views expressed by the stakeholders in the context of the public consultation.

Political realism, however, will require the Commission to compromise. In doing so, it will seek to defend its original proposal and to minimize the substantial changes.

The ordinary legislative procedure requires the agreement of Parliament and the Council on the same text. Against the wishes of the Commission, the Council may amend the proposal only by unanimity (rather than by qualified majority). The President of the Commission specifically asked its services and the Commissioner responsible to secure an agreement by Council and Parliament at first reading.

Presidency

You have one mission: to reach an agreement, ideally by consensus, if necessary by a qualified majority. For an agreement in the Council to become an agreement on the regulation it is necessary that Parliament and Council find a compromise on the same text, possibly with the agreement of the Commission. Without the consent of the Commission, the Council may change the Commission proposal only by unanimity.

You will have to be, and appear to be, a diplomatic president, respectful of all positions, but at the same time pragmatic and resolute. It is up to you, in constant contact with the Commission and benefitting from the assistance of the General Secretariat of the Council, to put forward solutions that mediate among the different positions of delegations and reach a shared agreement.

You will represent the Council in “trilogue” meetings with the Parliament and the Commission. And you will inform the Council about the outcome of your contacts with the Parliament.

Country X (broadly favourable)

You are a supporter of the Commission’s proposal, even if you consider it too conservative in some respects. Regarding the minimum number of signatures, you consider that requiring a minimum percentage of signatories in each of the Member States involved would be unsatisfactory. The existence of a European public sphere means that, by definition, all citizens can participate, not so much on the basis of their nationality, but simply by virtue of the fact that they are European citizens.

At the same time, you flirt with the idea of setting the minimum age required to sign an initiative at 16 years in all countries, regardless of the age required for the European elections.

You consider it essential to multiply the opportunities for citizens to propose and support an initiative. Of course, the possibility of collecting signatures via the Internet should be ensured.

You are concerned by the provision in the proposal requiring all signatories in Europe to prove their identity (with a document) in order to sign an initiative and establish the country where the signature is collected. You believe that a much preferable approach would be to use the address of permanent residence as the criterion with which to determine where the signatures come from. In the case of signatories resident in third countries, the criterion of citizenship should apply.

The transparency of funding is a key element that you intend to promote. Any information about public funding must be constantly updated.

Lobbies cannot fund European citizens’ initiatives.

Finally, you maintain that it should be possible to resubmit a citizens’ initiative on an issue on which European citizens have already expressed themselves. You believe, however, that this should be allowed at least two years after the first initiative.

[You cast xx votes in Council.]

Country Y (strongly against)

You are strongly opposed to the Commission’s proposal and seek the support of those countries that are only moderately favorable or otherwise unhappy.

You are not convinced that the citizens’ initiative could be an effective tool with which to influence the European Commission’s legislative agenda.

EU decision-making rules are clear and you care little that many EU states have provisions within their constitutional arrangements for certain forms of direct democracy: the EU is not a state. That said, you obviously cannot boycott the adoption of a proposal designed to implement a provision and one of the main innovations of the Treaty of Lisbon. You can, however, make the use of this instrument so complicated and cumbersome that its effectiveness would be impaired.

You think that the minimum number of countries from which the statements of support come should be raised to a half of the Member States plus one. You also believe that a million signatures is too few: it is not representative of the European population. You want to prevent legislative initiatives with little relevance from emerging. The age at which a citizen can support an initiative should be 21 years, because only adults can understand the political implications of the initiatives proposed.

You do not mind if initiatives are financed by lobbies and interest groups, as long as their contributions are made public. In your opinion, the idea that lobbying is always a bad thing is definitely exaggerated in the EU.

You believe that the Commission can take up to two years to follow up on an initiative on which enough signatures have been collected.

[You cast xx votes in Council.]

European Parliament (rapporteur)

You head the Delegation of the European Parliament and you speak for the majority of its members (the other members of the delegation will be vigilant that you are respectful of all the views expressed in the Parliament).

The draft report adopted by the Committee on Constitutional Affairs and other committees on 28 October 2010 summarizes the positions of the Parliament on the main elements of the Commission proposal, and you will stick to them in your contacts with the Council.

It is important to underline and to make clear to participants that, especially in the case of the confidential instructions given to national delegates represented in the Council, they are not a mere script to be read out. They set out the overall position of the government as regards a proposal and entrust the representative with the responsibility to obtain as much as possible and to lose as little as possible in the negotiation. Obviously, the lower the level of the meeting, the narrower the margin of manoeuvre for the representative to depart from the instructions received. At the highest political levels, when ministers and heads of state or government are themselves involved in the negotiation, instructions are redundant, and what matters are the priority of the government and the political responsibility of the negotiator.

Preparing the national instructions is perhaps the most delicate and time-consuming task in the organization of a simulation. If these instructions are not realistic, participants will encounter confusing discrepancies between the instructions that they have received and the information that they obtain from real sources (e.g. the national press). The idea, on the contrary, is that they can complement the information that they receive with what they can find themselves. If the instructions are deliberately polarized and caricatured in order to create a more lively debate, there is a high risk that the negotiation in the simulation will depart from the real negotiation, and that what the participants have experienced will bear little resemblance to what EU negotiators actually do.

The “instructions” for institutional actors (Presidency of the Council, Representatives of the Commission and of the European Parliament) were straightforward: as the previous example suggests, they were not so much related to the content of the simulation as to the role that they are required to play by the treaties. National instructions were more demanding. They have been prepared on the basis of a number of documents. For example, the public consultation prior to the proposal often elicited contributions from a country’s national parliament, regions, other public bodies and NGOs: a careful reading of these documents has provided a detailed overview of the country’s stakes in the negotiation.

At the end of the simulation, the feedback session enabled us to focus the attention of participants on key aspects of the simulation and thereby show them the most important lessons to be learned. At this point, participants have also been helped to understand what they did wrong and what they would do differently if they were given a second chance (Dochy and McDowell 1997, 279-298). Feedback from students was equally important for the instructors to understand how the exercise has been perceived and, if necessary, how it could be improved in the future.

There are no strict rules on how a feedback session should be conducted. Our experience is that feedback should be collective: the success of a simulation does not spring from individual performances but is a collective endeavor to be measured in terms of the quality of the outcome and of the negotiations that produced it. As a consequence, the feedback session should focus on group dynamics rather than on single interventions.

There is no single optimal outcome: a successful simulation is one that reproduces realistic dynamics, confronts students with realistic problems, and concludes with a realistic solution. A simulation does not need to conclude with a unanimous vote to be successful. Under certain circumstances, failure to reach agreement is a realistic outcome which does not jeopardize the value of the exercise: on the contrary, it reinforces it.

The feedback session should be used to illustrate the critical junctures of the simulation, i.e. the turning points where the negotiation could have taken a different course. In this regard, the role of players at particular moments should be underlined: the Commission presenting its proposal, replying to questions, and explaining the reasons for not accepting an amendment; a delegation supporting the point made by a previous speaker, followed by several other manifestations of support for the same proposal; the Presidency deciding on the right time to table a compromise proposal; the negotiators finding compromises within trilogue meetings, etc.

Comparison with the actual outcome of the negotiation is always an enriching exercise. For this reason, we have invited an expert who has taken part in the negotiation or knew the substance of it. Differences in the process are more important to underline than differences in the outcome, because they can contribute to shedding light on those dynamics that simulations cannot fully replicate.

The assessment is an essential part of most academic experiences and simulation games are no exception. Yet it cannot be conceived as for any other exam at the end of a course: it has to be adapted to the specific features of this teaching tool. There are various possible ways to assess a simulation game and what we describe here is just the approach we followed in this case.

First of all, we did not use the simulation game to assess individual performances. When a participant had to be marked individually (e.g. when the simulation is part of a course for which each student has to be marked), we relied on other assignments complementary to the simulation, such as the drafting of individual position papers. In our view the simulation game is a collective experience for which there is no “right” conduct. The outcome is the result of individual and collective actions (preparation, tactics, skills, disputes, deliberation, etc.) as well as exogenous factors (time available, role and instruction assigned, rules of the game, information, topics selected, etc.). It would not be fair to assess individual performances when an important share of the outcome does not depend on individual behaviour.

We believe that a simulation is successful when the participants find it useful and benefit from it. If this is the case, then there is no other place to start than the participants themselves. In our view the starting point is thus self-assessment. However, the first question we ask our participants is not, quite trivially, whether they liked the simulation game or if they benefited from it. We ask them to share their feelings about what they just experienced, ideally by mentioning the adjective(s) that describe them best. Usual inputs include terms like “surprised”, “excited”, but also “frustrated” and “confused”. We use each of the inputs received to shed light on selected aspects of the simulation game (e.g. key moments in the negotiation) or some important elements of the EU decision-making process (e.g. the role of the rotating Presidency, the informal negotiations, the voting rules, etc.).

At the end of this rather informal exchange of views, we usually make sure that the following aspects have been included in our debriefing:

- highlight the role of institutional actors, particularly the Presidency and the Commission, as well as the representatives of the European Parliament when applicable;
- underline the importance of informal arenas: some of the crucial decisions and of most significant progress in the negotiation are often made outside the formal meetings;
- explain the difference between the simulation and the real negotiation: usually the real negotiation takes place over a longer period of time, involving more actors, speaking more languages and addressing more issues at the same time;
- emphasise the influence of personalities: one of the most interesting features of simulation games is that exactly the same exercise played by a different group of participants leads to very different dynamics and outcomes. A couple of examples will suffice to convince them that the outcome was in large part determined by the influence (ability, knowledge, character, attitude, etc.) of some actors;
- explain the missing parts of the process. Our simulation, for example, does not reproduce entirely the role of the European Parliament, mainly for logistical reasons (i.e. we did not have enough participants to represent both the Member States in the Council and a sufficient number of political groups in the EP). Yet, participants need to be aware of the full role the EP plays under ordinary legislative procedure.

Separate from this assessment/feedback session, we ask participants to provide a more detailed evaluation of the exercise, which we use mainly to improve future simulation games.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have explained how we conceived and organized a simulation game on the EU, building on an example concerning the Regulation establishing the European Citizens’ Initiative. We have treated simulation games within the framework of the constructivist approach to education, and, more specifically, the problem-based learning approach. We consider simulations to be an important instrument with which to supply the new skills required by the emergence of a global knowledge society: simulations may be useful in equipping students not only with specific knowledge about the EU but also with a number of “higher order” skills like comprehension of the complexity of the “real” world.

For the students, simulation games are powerful tools with which to learn politics. They enable them effectively to experience how politicians decide, how intricate decision-making can be, and how different the points of view of political actors may be. For teachers, simulation games are useful instruments with which to make their classes more participatory and collaborative, so that students become the protagonists of their learning. In other words, a student learns if and when she interacts with colleagues and the teacher. This interaction emphasizes the social dimension of knowledge: the meanings and purposes are socially constructed, and so are the behaviors. We think that, together with good knowledge of the topics, this is an important life-lesson for students.

Although this paper is deliberately celebrative of simulations as tools to teach and learn how the EU works, simulations do not constitute a panacea. For example, they do not replace traditional learning, and they work better when they build on solid knowledge about the EU and its institutions: moreover, they also have intrinsic

limitations in regard to reproducing the dynamics of real negotiations within the EU. We will describe, among the many possible, four of these limitations, which concern timespan, socialization, contingencies, and complexity.

The duration of a simulation exercise is limited to a few weeks at most. Real negotiations rarely last less than one year and often last more than two. The difference is not so much in the amount of time taken by Coreper and Council to discuss an issue, which is limited in both cases, as in the time taken by the issue to be debated at technical level and, crucially, addressed between meetings. In a simulation, the negotiation must necessarily proceed through a dense sequence of meetings concentrated into a few days or weeks. There is little or no time for national positions to be properly articulated, for contacts to be established, for like-minded delegations to recognize each other, for the Presidency and the Commission to learn to work together, etc. In simulation exercises, issues are inevitably dealt with more superficially than in real negotiations.

A related issue is socialization. Whereas the participants in a simulation play their roles for a limited number of days and have little time to familiarize themselves with each other's preferences, skills and attitudes, EU negotiators get to know each other relatively well. A specific feature of EU negotiations, in fact, is their atmosphere of informality and familiarity. In some cases, negotiators are required to meet several times a week. They learn to cooperate, to understand difficulties, to accommodate preferences and, most importantly, to build and sustain trust in their counterparts. Commission, Council and EP officials, national diplomats, MEPs and even ministers operate in small circles or communities that develop not only specific codes of behavior but also a genuine mutual understanding. Simulations do not allow this.

Real negotiations, moreover, do not happen in a vacuum: they are embedded in a specific context that determines their pace, their development, and their outcome. These factors cannot be fully reproduced in a simulation: the imminent elections of the European Parliament may cause the negotiation to be concluded ahead of schedule; a recalcitrant Presidency of the Council may delay the conclusion of a delicate file until the following semester; budgetary reasons may compel negotiators to conclude within a certain deadline. Exogenous pressures may be equally powerful: an international crisis, the threat of a pandemic, the imminence of an international conference, or the sudden fall of a national government may have a decisive impact on a negotiation. Simulations can cope with these contingencies only badly.

Finally, real negotiations are inevitably more complex than simulations, even if they are based largely on the same documentation. Simulations usually take place in one language, whereas real negotiations are multilingual. Simulations cannot focus on highly technical issues impenetrable to non-experts. On the contrary, real negotiations can be painfully complex and require experts to fly to Brussels and discuss the details of certain provisions over several weeks. Whereas the participants in a simulation are alone, a national negotiator can and does draw on a huge body of expertise available at various levels of the public administration. Whereas simulations are by definition concerned with a single issue, real negotiations rarely are so: concessions are sometimes made and compromises reached across procedures, and not necessarily at the same time. In fact, one of the peculiarities of EU negotiations is that they are "repeated negotiations", i.e. consist of several rounds in which no actor is systematically on the losing side. This dynamic can be replicated in simulations to only a very limited extent.

As said above, the scientific literature is divided on the efficacy of simulations. Some authors are enthusiastic: they only see the positive effect of simulations. Others are more critical: they consider the traditional approach more useful and regard simulation as some sort of trivialization of the teacher's activity. Our position is midway between these two. Simulation games can be effective if they are well organized and if they go together with other formative opportunities. In other words, simulation games demonstrate their potential only if they are included in a teaching course structured into different learning opportunities and based on "traditional" and "innovative" methods at the same time. It is likely that not all the students will react positively to the simulation, given that they also react differently to more traditional classes. However, our experience is that simulations motivate students to learn more about the EU.

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Enhancing Academic Performance Through Post-Listening Organisers and Note-Taking Among Colleges of Education Students in Kwara State, Nigeria

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Abstract

Listening is regarded as the polestar of language learning. The focus is to consistently improve students' understanding of instruction, which is entirely given in English language in mostly verbal interaction in Nigeria's schools. This study examined the facilitation of listening in English language through post-listening organisers and note-taking. 189 participants drawn from the five academic divisions (schools) of three Colleges of Education in Kwara State, Nigeria were involved in the quasi-experimental study in 2013. Four adapted TOEFL listening passages earlier trial-tested with a co-efficient of 0.773 from which participants listened and took notes that were graded and used as instruments. It was found that with the students' poor notes; post-listening organisers have positive significant effect on note-taking performance of students. Therefore, listening should be taught and listed first in the curriculum as other language skills; and relevant bodies charged to update teachers on the needful competence of listening teaching.

Keywords. Listening, Note-taking, Post-listening, Organisers, Performance

Introduction

Listening refers to a form of simultaneous actions in the mind. That is, physically listening and processing information listened to for appropriate meaning. It also describes the ability to interpret such simultaneous actions in the speaker's mind. Listening is a compulsory day-to-day activity which is demonstrated in listening to a friend, listening to direction when you are in a new place, and listen to lectures. Spivey and Cuthbert (2006) view listening as a major learning skill which is central to successful studentship.

Holden (2004) pointedly remarks that listening is a multi-dimensional process that requires significant mental effort and offers enormously to the entire arduous task of language learning. He adds that the cognitive advantage of an initial attention on listening comprehension is a pattern common in child attainment of first language. Anderson and Lynch (1988) construct a step-wise analysis of the elements making up the process of listening in a conversation thus:

1. the spoken sounds have to be identified from among the sounds in the environment;
2. the continuous flow of speech has to be divided into units that is recognizable as known words;
3. the structure of the speech has to be mastered and the speaker's intended meaning has to be understood; and
4. the listener has to bring his linguistic knowledge to bear so as to construct correct and appropriate response to what is heard.

Rost (1990) draws from the relevance theory of Sperber and Wilson (1986) that verbal communication is essentially a combined process that includes ostension (articulation of signals by a speaker) and inference (situating those signals in context by a listener). Listening comprehension therefore, describes effective listening which sustains transfer and exchange of meaning through oral input. Olaofe (1997) likens listening comprehension to a form of meaning scooping that does not lead to 'minimal or partial understanding, complete misunderstanding, misinterpretation, misquotation or ambiguity, communicative ineffectiveness, confusion and message abandonment.' (p.14).

Listening as a process involves advanced mental works that makes it more than mere hearing. It is a fact that a lot of useful information got to us through the instrumentality of listening, which allows us to make use of critical thinking to determine the worth of information made by a speaker. Critical thinking entails a reasonable mental process focused on determining the worth of information gathered from observation, experience, or communication as basis to form an opinion, or take action (Hashemi and Zabihi, 2012).

The history of Colleges of Education can be traced to the report of the Ashby Commission of 1959, which examined the need for upgrading the existing educational institutions to address the then immediate manpower challenges of Nigeria. The Commission found that many of the teachers then were untrained and uncertificated. The recommendations of the Ashby Commission led to the creation of a new institution and a new certificate: College of Education, and the Nigeria Certificate of Education (NCE) respectively. The first set of these Colleges are called Advanced Teachers' Colleges (ATCs) Owerri, Lagos and Zaria (1961/ 62); Kano (1964) and Abraka with the name College of Education in 1968 (Iliyas, 2012). Kwara State is one of the 36 federating States and the Federal capital territory (FCT) of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Kwara State was created in 1967 with the three Colleges of Education in Ilorin, Oro and (Technical) Lafiagi owned by the State government used for the study.

Iliyas (2012) describes the NCE as a little lower than degree, but highly qualitative professional certificate in education. There exist conventional and non-conventional Colleges of Education in Nigeria. The conventional being those that present courses in the Sciences, Languages, Arts and Social Sciences, Vocation and Technology. The non-conventional ones include the College of Education (Technical), which presents major courses in all areas of knowledge but Languages, Arts and Social Sciences; military College like the Nigeria Army School of Education (NASE); and specialized College of Education where its programme of study in the various fields include rigorous instruction in the art of teaching students with special needs (the physically challenged pupils). The Colleges of Education operate an organized study programme where related academic subjects are coordinated and run on school basis, a replica of the faculty form at the universities.

The National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE, 2012) (which is the Nigeria's government agency charged with the responsibilities of setting standard, assure quality and supervise the activities of Colleges of Education) features in its revised minimum standard for NCE teachers aspects of note-taking and listening skills across each of the Use of English courses of GSE 111, 121; 211, 221; and 321. Listening features as a core aspect of the various Use of English courses. Some components contained in the document include: Types, strategies and listening defects; listening for note-taking, direction, and instruction; dimensions of listening purposes and critical listening among others.

The note taking components of the courses are sandwiched severally under study skills, writing and grammar. The study skills have such topics as spelling rules, vocabulary, words relation and registers. Also, under writing, punctuation, outlining, logical sequencing of ideas and summary skills are some note taking competence awareness offered in the NCE programme. These topics and such other related knowledge of grammar-verb forms, tenses; writing-summary, sequencing of ideas; speaking and reading- for inference, argument and question serve to communicatively equip students to be effective listeners and meaningful note takers.

As a means of sustaining English language as the sole medium of instruction across the strata of Nigeria's educational system, learning listening as a receptive skill demands extra pedagogical efforts to make it effective due to its peculiar nature. These peculiarities arise from varied listening texts, learners' interest, speed and accent of speaker, background knowledge, and text familiarity or otherwise among others.

Post-listening activities is essentially meant to extend students' listening comprehension skill. This is most effective when done immediately after the listening task. The task at this level of meaning construction through oral input is required to offer activities to verify the extent to which learners have made accurate meaning from listening materials. This level as well helps students to advance their mastery of language or skills. The British Council submits that post-listening is necessary:

for students to remember what they hear and practice some language activities like repetition, role play, retelling and discussion. Besides, such activities can promote students integrating skills by linking to other speaking and writing activities. (p. 4)

Saha and Talukdar (2000) capture post-listening activities as useful in confirming comprehension, evaluate skill, determine use of listening strategies and the utility of knowledge gained in other contexts. They add that post-listening tasks are also called follow-up works; which bears the features of being related to pre-listening activities like confirming earlier prediction. Other activities at this stage may involve creation of real life situation where learners are required to apply knowledge gained through listening; and, an extension of the topic so as to make learners remember new vocabulary.

Carrel (2007) posits that note-taking as a strategy is intuitively appealing to the teaching-listening and is generally seen as a way to enhance the process of learning and remembering. When listeners monitor their comprehension through observable task like note-taking, they are using metacognitive listening strategy (Vandergrift, 2007). Succinctly, note-taking is an endeavour to reduce ideas and facts to concise jottings and summaries as guide for reciting, reviewing and reflecting (Academic Skills Centre, 2001). Iliyas (2012) submits that the acknowledge importance of note-taking gives it pre-eminence in the Use of English courses of all tertiary institutions in Nigeria.

A few of the importance of note-taking, according to Iliyas (2012), include:

- a. produce easy to read outlines;
- b. check forgetting;
- c. unveil deficiency in comprehension
- d. enable practice in applying knowledge; and
- e. make revision and writing reasonably easier.

Scholars (Vandergrift, 2007, Iliyas, 2012) have submitted a number of factors that inhibit appropriate note-taking to include students' lack of preparation, distractions, the speaker's delivery speed and style. Other situations are inadequate vocabulary, text unfamiliarity and essentially bad listening habits.

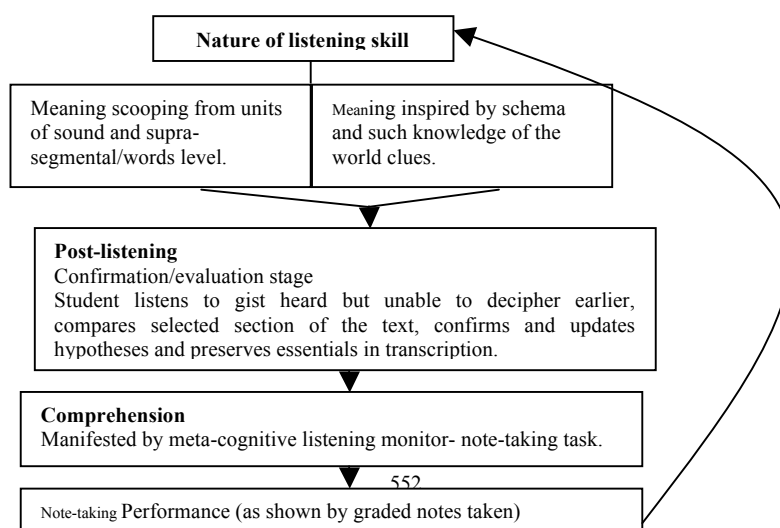


Figure 1: This researcher designed model of the nature of listening and instructional approach of this study

Statement of the Problem

Listening is no longer perceived as a passive skill that is acquired by mere instruction on speaking. Although this is relatively a new development because listening attracts the least attention of the four language skills in term of understanding, teaching and research. Studies (Olaofe, 1994; Spivey and Cuthbert, 2006; Vandergrift, 2007; Passmore, 2011; Iliyas, 2012) have recognized and recommended a wide range of strategies for teaching listening. Yet, lacuna exists on the compelling need to facilitate listening comprehension considering its place in general communication and indeed transmission of academic information. Buoyed by the urge to improve academic performance of Colleges of Education students in Nigeria that effective listening and coherent note-taking are very central to, this researcher used the Use of English course, which accommodates listening and note-taking to understudy the variables of sex, different courses of study and unfamiliarity of text to determine the effect of post-listening organisers on note-taking performance of students of Kwara State Colleges of Education, Nigeria.

Purpose of the Study

Essentially, this study seek to find out the effect of post-listening organisers on note-taking performance of Colleges of Education students in Kwara State, Nigeria at four levels of note-taking features: content of notes, organization of facts, expression of idea and grammatical accuracy. The study specifically, seeks to find out:

1. The benefit of post-listening organisers on the note-taking performance of students from listening text;
2. Whether or not differences will occur in the note-taking performance of students treated with post-listening organisers as male or female;
3. whether upon exposure to post-listening organisers differences will occur in notes taken by students from listening text on the basis of their different courses of study;
4. whether differences will exist in the note-taking performance of students exposed to post-listening organisers on the basis of the unfamiliarity of the text;

Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the conduct of the study:

1. What is the general performance of the students in note-taking from listening text?
2. What difference will occur on the basis of sex in the note-taking performance of students exposed to post-listening organisers?
3. Will any difference exist based on the different courses of study in the note-taking performance of the students treated with post-listening organisers from listening text?
4. Will there be any difference in the note-taking performance of students exposed to post-listening organisers from oral input based on the unfamiliarity of the text?
5. What difference will exist in the note-taking performance of the students who are exposed to post-listening organisers and of those who are excluded from this treatment?

Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

1. There will be no significant difference in the effect of post-listening organisers on students' performance in the note-taking features from listening text.
2. There will be no significant difference in the note-taking performance of male and female students exposed to post-listening organisers from listening text.
3. There will be no significant difference in the effect of post-listening organisers on the note-taking performance of students from listening text on the basis of the different courses of study house severally in the schools of Sciences, Languages, Arts and Social Sciences, Vocations and Technology.
4. Post-listening organisers will not have any significantly different effect on the note-taking performance of students based on the unfamiliarity of the listening text.

Scope of the study

Studies carried out by L1 scholars of ESL with largely estimated knowledge of ESL peculiar listening challenges as can be found in such milieu like Nigeria have yielded findings on strategies of fostering and inculcating listening skill (Vandergrift, 1999; Carrier, 2003; Vandergrift, 2007; and Passmore, 2011). This study examined the effect of specific application of listening strategy (post-listening organisers) to comprehension monitoring device (note-taking) to authenticate the degree of listening success. The study involved second year students of studies leading to the award of Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) and adapted TOEFL listening texts as instrument. Variables like sex, courses of study and text unfamiliarity constituted the intervening variables, with frequency count, simple percentage, mean scores, standard deviation and ANCOVA as statistical tools to analyse data for the study.

Methodology

This study is a quasi-experimental type. The major hypotheses of this study were tested with 4x2x5 factorial design that includes:

- i. The three experimental groups and one control group;
- ii. sex of participants as male and female; and
- iii. the five schools of studies in the Colleges of Education (Languages, Arts and Social Sciences, Vocation, Sciences and Technology).

The target population were all the second year students of the three years NCE programme. 189 students (participants) were purposively sampled in 2013 using quota sampling technique in selecting subjects for the

study. TOEFL listening passages were adapted as instrument to generate data from the participants. Efforts were also made to make learners have clear understanding of the text topic in each case.

The test for the current study were the notes-taken by participants from passages listened to which were then carefully graded using the following marking guides:

- Content of notes (10 marks);
- Organisation of facts (10 marks);
- Expression of ideas (20 marks); and
- Grammatical accuracy of notes taken (10 marks).

Graded notes taken were interpreted as listed below based on the conventional 100% format but divided by 2 for every range because the grading was all over 50:

- 43 – 50 – Very High
- 34 – 42 - High
- 25 – 33 – Average
- 16 – 24 – Low
- 0 – 15 – Very Low

The instruments were trial-tested for reliability in a two week interval test re-test on students at Alayande College of Education, Oyo, Oyo State Nigeria. The data obtained were subjected to Pearson's Product Moment Correlation, giving a co-efficient of 0.773, which showed that the instruments were reliable. The study covered a period of four week beginning with the conduct of the pre-study test and exposure to four different communicative listening passages of TOEFL. Participants took notes in every session that were done during the normal 'Use of English' lectures and a post-study test was conducted, outcomes of which serve as co-variant with the pre-test.

Results

What is the general performance of students in note-taking from listening text?

Table 1: Mean Gain Score of the general performance of students in note-taking from listening text

Group	No	Obtainable Score	Mean Gain Score	Standard Deviation	Decision
Science	65	50	10.9	1.5	Very Low
Vocation	66	50	10.6	1.5	Very Low
Technology	19	50	10.2	1.5	Very Low
Languages	18	50	11.0	1.6	Very Low
Arts and S.S	21	50	10.8	1.1	Very Low

The results in Table 1 show that students of the School of Languages obtained the highest mean score of 11.0 in the general performance of students in the listening text. This is followed by the Schools of Sciences, Arts and Social sciences, Vocation and those of Technology obtained the least mean score of 10.2. This implies that the students from the School of Languages led the note-taking performance from the listening text. Notwithstanding, the general performance was very low.

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant different in the effect of post-listening organisers on students' performance in the note-taking features from listening text.

Table 2: Effect of post-listening organisers on students' performance in note-taking from listening text

Variables	Mean Square (MS)	Df	F.	Sig.	Decision
Post-listening organisers	977.636	97	140.777	.000	H ₀ Rejected

P ≤ 0.05 (significance level)

As shown in Table 2, the p-value of 0 .000 is less than the significance level of 0.05 at 97 degree of freedom. It therefore indicates significant difference at 0.05 level of significance. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected. Hence, post-listening organisers have significant effect on students' performance in note-taking features from listening text.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference in the note-taking performance of male and female students from listening text upon exposure to post-listening organisers.

Table 3: Effect of post-listening organisers on the note-taking performance of male and female students from listening text

Variable	Mean Square (MS)	Df	F.	Sig.	Decision
Sex effect on post-listening organiser and note-taking	31.828	96	1.188	0.279	H ₀ 2 Accepted

P ≤ 0.05 (significance level)

The data in Table 3 reveal that the p-value of 0.279 is greater than the significance level of 0.05 at 96 degree of freedom. Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted. The inference is that significant difference in the effect of post-listening organisers does not exist in the note-taking performance of male and female students from listening text.

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant difference in the effect of Post-listening organisers on the note-taking performance of students on the basis of variation in their main courses of study.

Table 4: Effect of Post-listening organisers on note-taking performance of students on the basis of variation in their main courses of study

	Mean Square (MS)	Df	F.	Sig.	Decision
Courses of study on post-listening and note-taking	25.608	96	0.952	0.419	H ₀ 3 Accepted

P ≤ 0.05 (significance level)

Table 4 reveals that the p-value of 0.419 is greater than the stated significance level of 0.05 at 96 degree of freedom, indicating that the null hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, there was no significant difference in the effect of post-listening organisers on the note-taking performance of students from listening text on the basis of variation in their main courses of study of Sciences, Languages, Arts and Social Sciences, Vocation and Technology.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the effect of post-listening organisers on note-taking performance of students based on the unfamiliarity of the listening text.

Table 5: Effect of post-listening organisers on note-taking performance of students based on the unfamiliarity of the listening text

Variables	Mean Square (MS)	Df	F.	Sig.	Decision
Post-listening organisers based on unfamiliarity of text and note-taking	4.552	96	0.646	0.588	H ₀ 4 Accepted

P ≤ 0.05 (significance level)

Table 5 shows the p-value of 0.588 as greater than the significance level of 0.05 at 96 degree of freedom, hence the null hypothesis was accepted. Thus, post-listening organisers did not have any significant effect on the note-taking performance of students based on the unfamiliarity of the listening text.

Table 6: Mean score of the difference that existed in the note-taking performance of the students who were exposed to post-listening organisers and of those who were excluded from the treatment

Treatment	No of Students	Obtainable Score	Mean Score	Decision
Students exposed To post-listening Organisers	48	50	15.8	Very Low
Students excluded from the treatment (control)	49	50	13.4	Very Low

The results in Table 6 reveal that the students who were exposed to post-listening organisers had a mean score of 15.8 while the control group had 13.4 with the two groups having a very low performance rating from listening text.

Findings

In summary, the findings show that:

- 1) Students take poor notes from listening text in Colleges of Education.
- 2) Post-listening organisers have positive effect on note-taking performance of students of Colleges of Education from listening text.
- 3) Post-listening organisers do not have any significantly different effect on the note-taking performance of male and female students of Colleges of Education from listening text.
- 4) Post-listening organisers have no significant effect on note-taking performance from listening text of Colleges of Education students on the basis of difference in their course of study.
- 5) The note-taking performance of students of Colleges of Education from unfamiliar listening text was not significantly affected by post-listening organisers' treatment.

Discussion

The poor note-taking outcome of participants from listening text in this study suggests a lack of basic linguistic competence for perception and production. This may result from inadequate due and deserved instructional attention to listening as a result of the highly erroneous feeling that listening would occur naturally. This neglect can be laid at the doorsteps of curriculum planners and teachers among others. The finding on the positive effect of post-listening on students' note-taking performance can be said to be due to the uncommon memory mending opportunity post-listening organisers afford listeners. Activities at the post-listening challenges forgetfulness and provide hints on statements of essentials probably lost to acoustic overload.

The absence of significant difference in the effect of post-listening organisers on note-taking performance of students from listening text on the basis of sex however, may not be so surprising considering the fact that not until recently, listening had been generally perceived as a passive natural attribute that might not require any instructional drill to master. The absence of significant difference in the effect of post-listening on note-taking performance based on students' different courses of study found in this study can be said to have derived from such thoughts that informed Holden (2004) to assert that the pre-occupation in post listening activities is basically not about getting the 'right answers' in terms of demonstration of understanding what is heard, but how the answer was arrived at. Also, the non-existence of significant difference in the effect of post-listening organisers on participants' note-taking performance found in this study re-emphasize the pre-eminence of listener's knowledge of the context of the text and relatedness of text to their schemata for comprehension and comprehension inspired task like note-taking to be meaningful.

In the same token, the very marginal difference in the mean scores 15.8 and 13.4 respectfully in the note-taking performance of those who benefited from post-listening organisers' treatment and the control group is yet a clear demonstration of the poor comprehension capability of participants in the study. This challenge could have varied causes, which deficient listening skill is a core factor of.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered based on the findings of this study:

- The teachers of English especially should attend to the four language skills without discrimination in their teaching of English as a second language; and teachers should be made to develop themselves through reading, workshop and seminars on listening research and teaching.
- The school administrators should provide usable audio and video gadgets; allowing listening to have a priority time on the school schedule of activities and motivate English language teachers (of listening)

- through sponsorship on related learned workshops, seminars and conferences.
- Agencies such as the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) and the National Universities Commission (NUC); and the Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) in Nigeria should place listening in a vintage position in the curriculum of educational institutions; and convoke workshops and seminars on listening to update relevant teachers of latest trend on listening teaching.
 - Nigeria government should commit more fund to education, which can proceed from recruitment of right numbers of English language teachers to curb over- crowding in the Use of English classes; addition of more credit hour and provision of sustainable incentives to teachers.
 - Authors and publishers should call for special fund and utilize such effectively by publishing clearly leading and comprehensive text on listening. It will also be of immense benefit to the teaching of listening if publishers endeavour to publish teachers' edition of listening texts.

Conclusion

Considering the findings of this study, it becomes imperative to advocate a rigorous emphasis on the teaching of listening just as speaking, reading and writing are being taught across the schools' strata. It will as well engender all-round language development and sustain academic success when students' confidence are sustained and simple exposure afforded students to perform tasks on listening to native and non-native speakers of English; and especially from unfamiliar oral inputs.

When listeners combine both bottom-up and top-down skills in observing post-listening skills and listening outcome is tied to observable and measurable activity appreciable progress should be made. This can inspire a continuum for sustainable teaching of listening.

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Special child learning difficulty or specific teacher difficulty?

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Abstract

During the pilot implementation of English as a foreign language to 6 years olds in Greek primary schools, a survey of teachers' attitudes reveals that the learners' difficulties were often ascribed to specific learning problems especially among non-native speakers of Greek. If this is correct then the response is alarming but reveals some dangerous misconceptions if the teachers are wrong. Foreign language teachers are rarely trained in teaching children of this age. The present study aims to investigate the accuracy of these reports. 75 questionnaires were administered and then 21 interviews with the teachers were conducted and the findings reveal the misconceptions the teachers were under. The results demonstrate the necessity for informing, updating and training teachers involved with foreign languages at this age. This is an innovative research study appearing for the first time in Greece on a subject that is in a real need of further research.

Keywords.

Context of the study

In a European context where early foreign language teaching has acquired a great significance and the introduction of EFL programmes for young learners in schools has become more and more frequent, Greece has also followed this tendency with the introduction of English as a compulsory subject in some schools at the age of 7 since 2010. The Greek EYL project, also known with the acronym PEAP (<http://rcel.enl.uoa.gr/peap/en>), has been designed and carried out by the University of Athens at the Research Centre for Language Teaching, Testing and Assessment (RCeL). Experts in the field of Early Language Learning from the University of Athens and the University of Thessaloniki have collaborated for the design and implementation of the programme.

The general aim of the PEAP programme is to develop young learners' social literacies through English and this is the foundation upon which the PEAP curriculum, its syllabuses and instructional materials have been based. The programme also aims at familiarizing young learners with English as well as helping them develop a positive attitude towards the language and foreign language learning in general. PEAP students are firstly introduced to spoken language through a data bank of creative activities at the teacher's disposal, which can be adjusted to student needs.

The present study deals with the issue of learning difficulties and their manifestation in very young learners as they learn English as a foreign language in Greek public schools. The aims of the study are:

(a) to shed light on the teachers' perceptions and possible misconceptions regarding learning difficulties at a very young age and

(b) to investigate whether (and which) young learners' characteristics tend to be misinterpreted as signs of a learning difficulty in early language teaching.

What motivated research in this particular area was an interesting finding of a questionnaire survey seeking to profile the teachers who taught English within the context of the programme in the first year of its implementation. One of the striking findings of this study was that half of the respondents (49%) claimed that several students in the PEAP classes seem to have some kind of learning difficulty. Therefore, we decided to further investigate the area of learning difficulties in young learners beginning with teachers' perceptions on the issue.

The idiosyncratic characteristics of young learners were an additional reason for proceeding to further research as they can cause confusion to teachers. Very young learners usually tend to learn quickly but forget easily, have a short attention span and absorb information only when motivated. They are kinaesthetic, they

learn by making and doing and they may go through a silent period at first. This unique profile can become extremely complicated, especially when combined with learning difficulties.

For the purposes of the study and in order to explore the above questions, a two-phase research was designed which is presented in detail below.

Exploring the existing literature in the Greek context

Before proceeding to the description of the methodology employed in the present study, it is worth exploring briefly the already existing studies in the field of learning difficulties in Greece.

The majority of studies concerning the issue of learning difficulties carried out in the Greek context deal with the learners' first language acquisition while few studies focus particularly on dyslexia in the EFL classroom (Lemperou, Chostelidou & Griva, 2011; Andreou & Baseki, 2012; Goudi, 2010). In the case of L1 acquisition, several research studies are concerned with the learner's family environment (Panteliadu, 2007), with the impact of learning difficulties on the student's overall school performance (Panteliadu & Patsiodimou, 2007; Sakkas, 1999) or with the learner's reading and writing skills (Protopapas & Skaloubakas, 2008). In some cases, such factors as student age are taken into account, thus separating students in different age groups subject to analysis (young learners, teenagers and adults with learning difficulties) (Papatheofilou, Chatzivasili, Poga, Kallinaki & Aliferi, 1993; Nousia, 1990).

However, learning a foreign language is a great challenge for learners with learning difficulties, especially if one considers the difficulty of those learners to cope with tasks while learning a foreign language (Crombie, 1995). What has hitherto been investigated in the Greek context concerning this issue, focuses mainly on student performance (particularly of dyslexic students) and on EFL teachers' perceptions and practices with regard to dealing with dyslexia in secondary education. For instance, Rontou (2012) focuses on the differentiation of teaching methods, and on the extra time needed in class for learners with dyslexia in secondary school. EFL teachers' perceptions as regards the issue of dyslexia in Greek state secondary schools have also been explored (Gouzkouri, 2012). Various other studies, which are beyond the scope of the present study and therefore will not be mentioned in detail, deal with the difficulties Greek students face in spelling English due to the opacity of the English language as opposed to the transparency of the Greek language (Spencer, 2000).

Although numerous studies conducted investigate students' performance or the EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions towards learning difficulties, other issues, such as the teacher's ability to recognize and distinguish difficulties in a primary school setting, have yet to be adequately examined. Lemperou (2009) has attempted to identify EFL primary school teachers' experience and views on the challenges of dyslexic children in the mainstream classroom. An investigation of the inclusion techniques employed by state primary school EFL teachers in Greece in order to promote the successful incorporation of students with dyslexia in the general classroom has also been made (Katrini, 2005).

However, and bearing in mind that the PEAP programme constitutes a special EFL context, where school literacy has not yet been introduced and children are exposed to a foreign language at a very young age, it seems as though the issue of learning difficulties in the particular context requires further research. Therefore, the present study is an attempt to investigate the EFL teachers' perceptions of learning difficulties in the PEAP classes and their experience with these learners in general.

It has to be clarified at this point that the term "learning difficulties" in this study is conceptualized as a broader term than the term "dyslexia" as the latter is used in most studies so far. The concept of the "learning difficulty" is hereafter used to refer to students who cannot cope efficiently with basic reading skills, written expression and reasoning in combination with memory and/or attention problems as well as several perceptual disorders, such as the inability to recognize, discriminate and interpret stimuli (Mercer, 1997). This conceptualization of learning difficulties has guided the development of the research tools of this study, used in two research phases, which are presented and explained below.

Methodology and data collection

First research phase: a questionnaire survey

In the first research phase, a questionnaire survey was conducted with a view to tracing PEAP teachers' perceptions concerning learning difficulties in young learners, as well as gathering information on possible misconceptions on this area, which would be further investigated in the second research phase (i.e. the teachers' interviews). The tool employed was an online questionnaire designed by the working team for the elicitation of

data on the PEAP teachers' profile, their views on what a learning difficulty is and its impact on foreign language learning at a very young age.

More specifically, the tool was divided into three sections; in the first section the respondents were asked to provide us with their demographic characteristics, including their years of teaching experience in the public sector in general and the PEAP programme in particular. The participants were also asked to evaluate their knowledge in the field of learning difficulties, as well as to specify on how they have gained it (e.g. their studies, seminars, etc.). The second part of the questionnaire aimed at investigating the teachers' perceptions on learning difficulties and thus, the participants were asked, among others, to describe those student behaviours which they consider a sign of a learning difficulty, to outline the profile of students with learning difficulties and provide their own definition of learning difficulties. In the third and final part of the questionnaire, the respondents commented on the teacher's role when realizing that a student might be facing a learning difficulty. Most items of the present tool were open-ended questions as the working team was aiming at a qualitative analysis of the teachers' views.

The participants were contacted by the School Advisors of English, who kindly accepted to administer the tool to the PEAP teachers in the area of their responsibility (snowball sampling). Although the questionnaire survey took place in the beginning of the school year when several English teachers have not yet been appointed to their schools, 75 PEAP teachers in state schools all over Greece responded to this call and completed the questionnaire.

Second research phase: Interviews

Moving on to the second phase of the research, a structured interview scheme was designed and divided into two parts. The first part contained a number of statements of student behavior classified under four key categories (Reception of oral speech, Production of oral speech, Reading and writing, Reasoning and inclusion in the school environment). Several items have been adopted by Panteliadu & Sideridis' standardized test of tracing learning difficulties (Panteliadu & Sideridis, 2008). The participants were then asked to evaluate these statements as signs of learning difficulty, taking into account their experience in class. They could answer positively, negatively or state that they do not know whether a certain behaviour signifies the existence of a learning difficulty or not. Then, they were asked to contemplate on the frequency of encountering each of the stated behaviours in their classes. As the distinction between signs of a learning difficulty and typical young learner characteristics can be difficult to make, the research team deliberately included some statements in the interview scheme, which were descriptive of typical young learner characteristics and the participants' answers to these specific questions were separately evaluated.

The second part of the interview contained general questions about the teachers' experience with children with learning difficulties. The questions in this part revolved around the following three axes of teacher experience: a) their perceptions of whether bilingual children exhibit signs of learning difficulty in the PEAP classes, b) how the reactions of children with learning difficulties change as their school experience increases and c) the impact of the existence of children with learning difficulty in class on the rest of the children as well as on the teacher's role. Finally, teachers were encouraged to make general comments and express possible problems on the issue of dealing with very young learners with learning difficulties in the English language classroom.

In this research phase, the participants were 21 respondents in the questionnaire of the first phase, who have willingly agreed to participate in 20-minute telephone interviews, thus providing further detail on the issues touched upon in the questionnaire.

Results

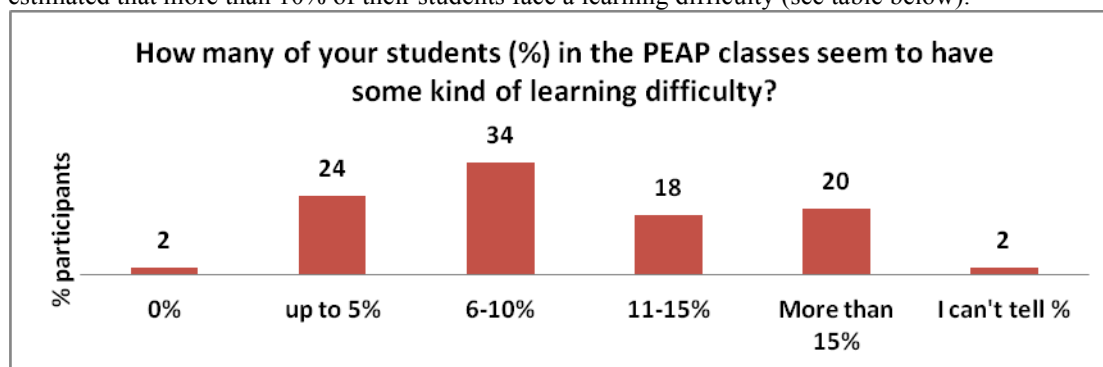
Major questionnaire findings

With regard to the respondents' profile it should be noted that all of them hold a BA in English Language and Literature. A significant number of the participant teachers hold an MA in TEFL (34%), a few of them (14%) hold a BA in a different field and only a small minority (6%) holds a PhD in TEFL. The vast majority of the PEAP teachers who responded to the questionnaire were women (96%). As regards their age, half of the participants (50%) belonged to the 36-45 age group, 18% aged up to 35 years, and 32% were older than 46 years old. Moreover, half of those teachers have more than 16 years of service in the public sector, 32% of them have 6-10 years, 14% have 11-15 years and only 4% have 1-5 years of service. It is also of great significance that 44% of the respondents have been teaching English in grades A and B since the PEAP launch, 16% have been

teaching in the programme for two school years, 24% for just one school year, while 16% of them have just been introduced to the programme. In addition, almost all the participants of the survey (98%) are currently teaching English within the context of PEAP.

The respondents were also asked to comment on the extent to which they consider themselves informed about learning difficulties. Only a small minority (6%) of the respondents declare that they consider themselves very informed, 36% of them consider themselves more or less informed, the majority (58%) claim they are a little informed on learning difficulties, while none of the participants stated that they are not informed whatsoever. What is really interesting though, is their source of information about learning difficulties. The vast majority of the teachers (76%) said that they have been informed in training seminars, 60% that their source is the Internet, 50% that they study bibliography on the field on their own, 42% that they get informed at academic conferences and seminars, 34% stated that their knowledge derives from their BA degree and only 4% that it derives from their MA degree. It becomes obvious that state school English teachers rely on their own initiatives to get informed about learning difficulties, as it is an issue they have to deal with on a daily basis in their classes.

Furthermore, almost all participants (98%) confirmed that they have encountered learners with learning difficulties in their PEAP classes. It is also worth mentioning that a great number of the respondents have estimated that more than 10% of their students face a learning difficulty (see table below).



Graph 1: Teachers' perceptions on the percentage of learners with learning difficulties in their classrooms

When the participants were asked to describe the learner behaviours that they consider a sign of learning difficulty, they have mostly referred to:

- hyperactivity
- poor concentration
- hostility
- inability to cooperate and adjust in the school environment

Many teachers also point out that the students' inability to remember words or sounds, a negative attitude towards writing, difficulties in articulating oral speech, shyness, lack of self-confidence, emotional instability, omission or reversals of letters/syllables, difficulty in holding the pencil or scissors and the inability to understand and follow the teacher's instructions may also indicate a learning difficulty.

All the above problematic behaviours according to the respondents tend to be signs of several learning difficulties such as Dyslexia, Dysgraphia, the Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), the Asperger Syndrome or Autism. Most of the teachers asked also claim that students having a learning difficulty in acquiring their mother tongue, do so in English language acquisition as well.

With regard to this special student group profile, the participants highlight that they often tend to have a generally poor performance at school (i.e. not solely in the language classes). They also have a tendency to adopt problematic behaviour which could be a result of domestic violence, a poor academic and social background of their family or their personal low self-esteem. The respondents stress that these tendencies are often witnessed in immigrant children and their families and thus, teachers should not always conclude that they indicate a learning difficulty. Moreover, they declare that learners with learning difficulties usually find it demanding to cooperate with other students and adjust to the school environment.

In the definitions of learning difficulties, the participants articulated themselves, they referred to learning difficulties as a factor that makes the acquisition of new knowledge difficult for some students. They also stressed that students with learning difficulties are intelligent in their own unique way and that they need a different teaching approach. Below are some of the most interesting definitions provided by the respondents:

(a) Having a learning difficulty usually means that the student finds no joy in learning something new, instead the learning process becomes an exhausting procedure often accompanied by the feeling of disappointment.

(b) Trying to avoid writing, illegible handwriting, difficulty in concentrating.

(c) A student who has a learning difficulty needs more time than other students when working on an activity, while s/he needs to discover his/her own way to memorize and recall information.

(d) Students with learning difficulties need reward and love, not rejection.

(e) Students with learning difficulties are intelligent students who are imaginative and artistic; they find it difficult to adjust to the rules and pace of others mostly because they are too slow for them. They seek for action, creative expression, release of the tension. They often fail to follow and understand linear stream of thought, reading or writing because their own boundaries are broader.

As regards the teacher's role when s/he has an indication that a student has a learning difficulty, the participants stressed that it is their duty to:

cooperate with the class teacher and the school principal

inform, advise and support the students' parents

seek for advice from experts in the field

differentiate his/her instruction adjusting it to the student's needs

support, protect and encourage the student highlighting his/her strengths

keep himself/herself informed so that they are able to detect and face potential problems.

Finally, the majority of the state school teachers of this survey claimed that their experience in the programme did not change their perception of learning difficulties. Those who said that they gained some knowledge on the field, suggest that it derives from their newly-developed insight into teaching young learners.

Major interview findings

Using their background knowledge and their experience in the PEAP classes, 21 teachers participated in the interview and proceeded to an evaluation of a series of statements of learner behaviour. Interestingly, in this first part of the interview, most statements of learner behavior were considered as possible signs of a learning difficulty by the interviewees. However, after responding positively to the evaluation of some statements, many of the participants tended to comment that certain behaviours could also be attributed to the learners' young age. Upon reflection, they identified several additional causes, rather than the mere existence of a learning difficulty, such as the lack of school experience and the lack of practice in English or in general world knowledge on the part of the young learners. Generally, only 10-30% of the respondents tended to state that they did not know whether a statement was a sign of a learning difficulty or not.

Out of the four categories of learner behavior included in the interview and already described above, the statements most frequently evaluated by the participants as signs of learning difficulty were under the headings "Reading and writing" as well as "Reasoning and inclusion in the school environment". This is especially interesting as at the age we are discussing, children **do not** possess **literacy skills**. Specifically, "Reordering, replacing, omitting or adding letters when writing" was considered a sign of difficulty by 85,7% of the respondents, "Negative attitude towards writing" was pointed out as a difficulty by 81% of the respondents, while other behaviours, such as "Easily giving up the effort to understand" was considered a difficulty by 76,2% of the respondents. Similar answers were given for the following statements: "Difficulty in understanding written English (at word level) but relative ease when they hear the oral representation" (61,9% of the respondents), "Being easily distracted when they perform an activity" (66,7%), "Difficulty in discerning phonemes" (57,1%) and "Inability to identify the gist" (57,1%).

Moreover, most of the participants classified many of the most typical young learner characteristics of the aforementioned two categories as signs of a learning difficulty. Specifically, the vast majority of the respondents (90,5%) categorized the learners' "Inability to concentrate for a long time" as a learning difficulty. Behaviours such as the "General difficulty in the initial steps of reading and writing skills development" and the "Signs of hyperactivity" were also characterized as learning difficulties by a percentage of 71,4% of the respondents respectively. More than half of the participants (61,9%) claimed that the "Difficulty to discipline and follow class rules" is a sign of a learning difficulty and almost half of them (47,6%) hold the same belief for the children's "Inability to consolidate and reproduce new knowledge effortlessly".

Apparently, the undoubted difficulty in differentiating between typical young learner behaviour and a possible learning difficulty accounts for the high percentage of respondents stating that these behaviours are signs of a learning difficulty. It should be noted at this point, however, that this is not always a misinterpretation on the part of the teacher as in many cases some of these behaviours might as well have been signs of learning difficulty.

On the other hand, some other statements were deemed as more of a natural and expected behavior by children at this age and at this level of school experience. These statements of learner behavior, which were classified as rather unlikely to be a learning difficulty, are presented below: a) "Difficulty in the comprehension of a quickly uttered phrase/relative ease upon slower repetition of the utterance" (71,4% of the respondents), b) "Misinterpretation of directions given in English" (61,9% of the respondents), c) "Recalling another word of the same semantic category in English (e.g. notebook instead of book)" (52,4% of the respondents), d) "Difficulty in the clear articulation of oral speech in English" (52,4% of the respondents), e) "Inability to recall and reproduce new knowledge easily" (42,9% of the respondents).

Therefore, the respondents appear to be more lenient when young learners show signs of confusion, misinterpretation or difficulty in English than in Greek. For instance, as regards the difficulty in the articulation of oral speech in Greek, almost half of the respondents (47,6%) consider it a sign of learning difficulty, as opposed to a much lower percentage (19%) who state the opposite. On the other hand, when it comes to the difficulty in the articulation of oral speech in English only some of the respondents (19%) answered positively while for half of them (52,4%) this is not a learning difficulty. It seems as though young learners' limited experience with English plays a determining role in their teachers' judgement.

Moving on to the second part of the interview, almost half of the respondents (47,6%) have had the experience of teaching a PEAP class for two consecutive years. In this case, all of them record increased school experience on the part of student as a key factor in alleviating possible learning difficulties and helping learners mature and improve their behaviour.

Regarding the issue of the combination of *bilingualism* and *learning difficulties*, some of the participants (38,1%) claimed they had witnessed learning difficulties in bilingual children. Few respondents (28,6%) stated that they had **not** spotted learning difficulties in bilinguals and a percentage of 33,3% of the respondents were not certain and refrained from providing a specific answer. In an effort to explore their views on this issue, most respondents (61,9%) stated that they do **not** consider bilingual learners as a group of learners more prone to learning difficulty as opposed to a percentage of 23,8% who report the opposite. Another interesting finding is that many teachers have described bilingual students as extreme cases (i.e. either as excellent students or as students of poor performance).

When it comes to the teacher's role in class, the majority of the respondents (71,4%) argued that learners with learning difficulties hinder their work in the PEAP classes. They further explain that by referring to the need for differentiated instruction and the extra planning involved in dealing with mixed ability classes (e.g. simplification of educational material, etc).

A categorization of the responses in the open questions (qualitative analysis) yields the following findings. The PEAP teachers participating in the survey almost unanimously ask for special training in the area of learning difficulties. With respect to the Greek EYL project, they comment on its idiosyncratic nature in general, emphasizing on the carefully designed educational material, which helps soothe learning difficulties, as it familiarizes young learners with oral production, games and songs before the introduction of school literacy. Reference is also made to several other stakeholders, as the participants stress the need for informing parents, children and society as a whole on the issue of learning difficulties. Each of these stakeholders should be informed to the extent that this is necessary and can have a positive impact on the teaching process. Finally, the participant teachers point at the importance of their cooperation with the class teacher or even the kindergarten teacher where this is possible.

When reflecting on how they go about "diagnosing" possible learning difficulties in their students, the participants appear to have developed their own perceptions and "rules", thus being more alert in certain cases. For instance, when they witness a persistent appearance of a "problematic behaviour" in a student even as s/he grows older, they tend to attribute it to the existence of a learning difficulty. This finding renders student age one of the most important factors in "diagnosing" and perceiving learning difficulties. Another factor of great importance for teachers is the combined realization of certain behaviours in a child (e.g. hyperactivity along with a shorter attention span). Finally, frequency and intensity in the manifestation of the "problematic behaviour" also appear to count.

Conclusions

Examining the results of the present survey, it becomes evident that the respondents have already formulated certain views on what constitutes a learning difficulty and how they can go about dealing with it. However, they stress the need for further training which will enable them to recognize and cope with learning difficulties. Moreover, one of the significant findings of the current study was that most of the participants seem to be aware

of young learners' characteristics and of the fact that PEAP students belong to a special group of learners who need time to adjust in the school environment and especially before being introduced to literacy.

Still, teachers appear to misinterpret behaviours that relate to adjustment in the new sector with learning difficulties (hyperactivity, poor concentration, discipline, inability to follow instructions). There appears to be confusion between a typical young behaviour and learning difficulty. Teachers also indicate specific language learning problems in learners who have not developed literacy skills (negative attitude to writing, dyslexia, shyness to read).

What is really encouraging is that the participants have confirmed that the educational material used in the context of the programme helps students with learning difficulties participate in the learning process and build their self-esteem, promotes differentiated learning and gives equal opportunities to all students.

The respondents also admit that bilinguals do encounter several difficulties in language learning but they stress that this is due to their poor linguistic environment and does not always indicate a learning difficulty.

Some additional questions that would be interesting to explore in more detail in the future are:

-How can a teacher best deal with mixed ability classes of young learners?

-How can a teacher handle the parents whose children exhibit a degree of learning difficulty?

-To what extent is knowledge about learning difficulty in one's mother tongue applicable to foreign language acquisition?

Finally, an important limitation needs to be considered. The current study has only examined a small sample of PEAP teachers and the results presented are tendencies concerning the teachers' perceptions on learning difficulties. In order to draw safer and more accurate conclusions which can be generalized for all PEAP teachers, a larger scale survey should be carried out. The current study, however, along with the emerged interesting results can be of use to English teachers, teacher trainers and policy makers especially because teachers strongly emphasise their need for further training on the issue of learning difficulties.

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New Teaching Methods in Nursing Education (HEVI)

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Founded in 1950, the current Sanitary Post High School "Fundeni" comes to represent the most important institution of public education in the field of nursing training in Romania today.

The school's courses are attended by the approximate number of 2200 students, trained for the following specialties: registered nurse, physical therapist, pharmacy assistant, radiology assistant, laboratory assistant.

The school's teaching staff consists of a total of 137 teachers, highly qualified to train students in the art of nursing: 68 nursing professionals and 69 specialist teachers in the field of medicine, biology, psychology, sociology, etc.

The main facilities the Sanitary Post High School "Fundeni" offers consist in: 12 classrooms equipped with modern technology and quality resources for teaching and learning, 12 demonstration rooms with all the necessary resources to provide practical training for nursing students, 5 laboratories for anatomy, pharmacy and informatics lessons, equipped with the latest technology in the field, including audio and video resources and a library with 20.000 specialized books.

As a national training centre for nursing professionals, our school organizes the exams for Level I and Level II, educational psychology and pedagogy courses, as well as specialized courses for all the nursing teachers in Romania.

Since September 1990, The Sanitary Post High School "Fundeni" has established collaborative relationships at an international level, with a group of similar educational institutions from France, Denmark, Ireland, Great Britain, Belgium, Italy, Spain and the USA.

In the period 2008-2010, The Sanitary Post High School "Fundeni" was involved in the program Leonardo da Vinci – Domestic Violence (Intimate Partner Violence), along with similar institutions from other countries: Finland, Bulgaria, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Lithuania.

In the period 2009-2011, The Sanitary Post High School "Fundeni", in collaboration with three hospitals from Bucharest, where practical training was held, carried out the project: „Nursing – the convergence of pre-university medical training with working life” - project funded with European funds – the first innovative project in the field of practical training in healthcare from Romania.

In the period 2010 -2012, The Sanitary Post High School "Fundeni", in collaboration with seven healthcare schools from all the development regions of the country, came to support the students in this field with a new national project to improve practical training and also to offer career guidance and counseling: „S.O.S. The Medical Sector! Pilot project to improve practice and insertion, correlated with national campaigns for promotion, guidance and counseling, in order to reduce the shortage of medical staff”. The project was co-funded by the European Social Fund through Sectoral Operational Program Human Resources Development 2007-2013 “Invest in people!”.

In the period 2010 – 2013, another project was carried out at national level. „Multi-regional program to improve the transition from school to working life for students at healthcare schools” was implemented by The Sanitary Post High School "Fundeni" in partnership with the most representative nursing schools in the country.

The project “Social and Healthcare Teachers against Violence, HEVI 2008-2010” aimed to provide teachers with the necessary tools for teaching and guiding the students on issues of intimate partner violence .

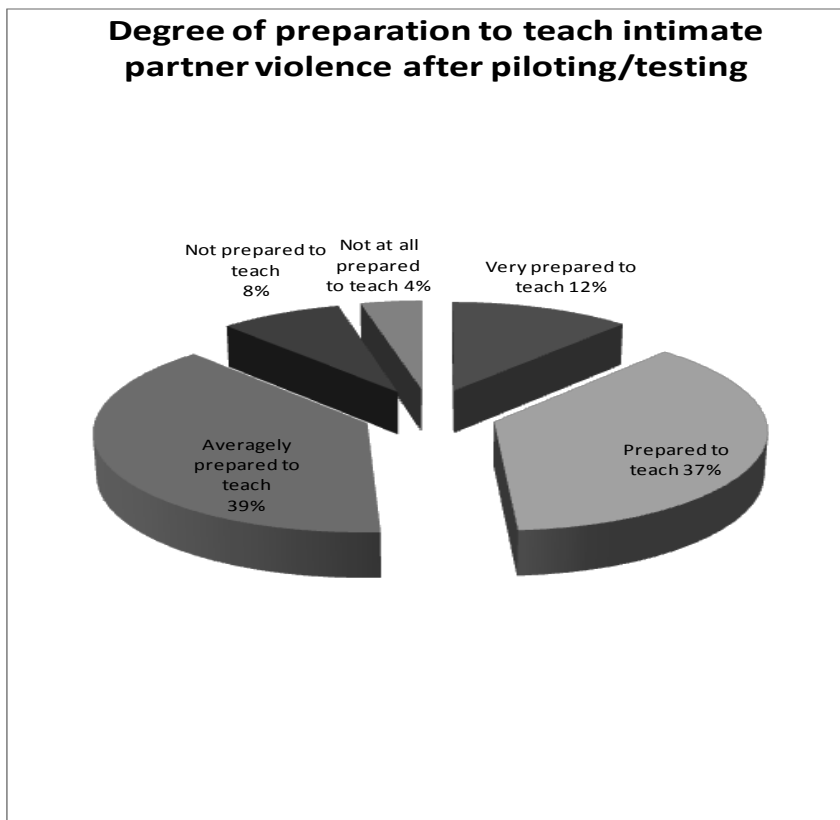
Intimate partner violence as a segment of domestic violence is a problem that affects a significant percentage of the population at European level and worldwide and ranks among the leading causes of death for the people involved (World Health Organization Multi-country Study 2006) .

Eradication / improvement of this phenomenon requires a partnership between Global and European prevention networks, strengthening national capacities and promoting best practices, launching campaigns against violence, developing social and health services at local and national level.

Healthcare professionals, especially those who work in emergency services are first to come into contact with victims of aggression. They must have adequate training for the situations they must cope with. In Romania, the nursing training curriculum includes topics related to family or domestic violence. A special role lies with health and social care teachers and specialists, who can form students to develop the abilities necessary for their work practice.

A study carried out in seven European countries with the participation of 104 health and social care teachers showed that only 13% of respondents consider themselves prepared to teach intimate partner violence and 30% are completely unprepared.

Most participants (39%) believe that after the training they are averagely prepared to teach intimate partner violence and 37% believe that they are prepared to teach intimate partner violence.



During the course of the project "Social and Healthcare Teachers Against Violence, HEVI 2008-2010" some different teaching resources were given to participants: training manual, audiovisual material, booklets, guidance manual, literature and recommendations. The suggested teaching methods and activities were: audio-video based learning problems (case studies), reflective study journal and inner dialogue in writing, "climbing" method, "brainstorming", "world association" method, "four corners" exercise, "true or false" method, "power and control wheel" method, "study cafe" method, the "working group" method, "photographing wounds" method and role play (with different variants).

Among these, we chose to present the audiovisual method, the method of "climbing", the role play and the case study.

The audio-visual method uses animated films or educational films which illustrate conflicts and their deployment. Although they have a strong emotional impact, they allow the teacher to analyze the situations revealed in the film and to develop solving scenarios together with the students.

The development of the activity:

1. The teacher prepares the film and the necessary equipment.
2. He / She assigns a task that the students know and sets the time.
3. He / She tells students the objectives for the while-viewing stage.
4. He / She shows the film.
5. He / She asks students to organize themselves into small groups. Every group should answer 2-3 questions on how to solve the problem shown in the film, naming people or institutions that can participate in improving the situation within the period fixed.
6. At the end of the discussion the groups will meet, will share findings and establish a work strategy for the issue previously mentioned, including services or organizations that may be involved.

The "Climbing" method can be used to discuss important documents regulating the personal and/ or social life of people: the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, patients' rights, children's rights, the rights of persons with disabilities. This method gives students the opportunity to familiarize themselves with various definitions and concepts, facilitates the knowledge acquisition about the rights of different people and also help them recognize situations where the human rights are not respected.

The development of the activity:

1. The teacher prepares a list of the Human Rights and a board to pin papers on.
2. He / She tells the student what is the topic about, the allotted period of time and how the task will proceed.
3. Students will be divided into groups of 4 or 5, depending on their total number. Each group will be given a list of rights that are cut into strips corresponding to each law (30 stripes for the 30 rights).
4. Students will be allowed 10 minutes to read the rights in silence.
5. When the time ends, the teacher asks them to imagine that they are at the foot of a mountain and they have to climb it to the top where there is a cottage; the weather conditions are optimal, but each student carries a backpack where there are those 30 rights. The students feel slightly tired and the teacher suggests that each group should throw 10 rights. For this to happen, the members of the group must come to an agreement (about which rights will be thrown). The teacher gathers the rights thrown by groups and pin them on the board for each team, according to the corresponding number of rights. The trip continues but the students feel tired again after a while and they must throw another 10 rights. When the students are near the top, they are forced to throw another 5 rights and arrive at the cottage with the last 5 rights in the backpack.

The teacher who observed the students throughout the activity may ask them to express their feelings, to argue why they gave up certain rights and not other and also about the difficulty of establishing priorities among rights.

The "role play" method (with different variants) offers the students the opportunity for sensorial experience, to recognize the perpetrators' reasons and strategies, to experiment abusive behavior, to acquire communication skills, such as active listening or listening without criticism and how to use open questions.

The task's objectives and the allotted time depend on the topic addressed by the teacher.

The teacher usually chooses pairs of students to play an aggressor and a victim, while their fellow students observe the situation. At the end of the exercise students will share their experience.

The teacher has an important role in this activity, since he must prepare the students carefully, so they can be credible enough in their part.

The "case study" method can be applied to obtain information about the abused and the abuser, to start and maintain a professional relationship with the assaulted person, to analyze the situation and suggest solutions to solve it.

The teacher introduces students to the data of a case, with as much information as possible, he formulates the task's requirements and determines the required time.

Students can be divided into groups of five, of which one is given the task of writing responses to the task requirements. When the time ends, the groups come together and present their solution(s) in an order determined by the teacher. After that, the solutions will be debated, the teacher's role consisting in assessing the appropriateness of the solutions presented, considering the situation and the requirements of the task.

From the initial questionnaires applied to the participants in this project, it was revealed their interest to be informed about appropriate methods of conveyance of knowledge and skills in this highly sensitive area.

The teaching of the contents existing in the national curriculum for specialty nurse is conditioned by certain characteristics of the students: age limit, differences in attitudes, values and culture, the use of knowledge in practical situations, actual problems in group cooperation, communication difficulties, the issue of ignoring violence, the existence among students of people who had these problems or experienced violence at some point.

At the end of the project the teachers who participated concluded that the modern methods presented are interactive and useful in adult education, they can use real-life examples and give students the knowledge and skills to develop their comprehension and also to analyze and synthesize this knowledge .

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Sosyal Paylaşım Ağlarının İşbirlikli Öğrenmede Kullanımı: Bir Facebook Uygulaması

Using Social Media in Collaborative Learning: A Facebook Application

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Özet

Bu çalışmada çevrimiçi sosyal paylaşım ağlarının, işbirlikli öğrenmeyi desteklediğini ve değişen toplumsal yapı ve yaşam biçimi neticesinde ortaya çıkan bu ortamların işbirlikli öğrenmenin uygulanması için uygun bir ortam olduğunu göstermek amaçlanmaktadır. Bu amaçla yetişkin eğitiminde, işbirliği içerisinde problem çözme becerisini geliştirmek için bir amaçlı senaryo (Schank, 1994) tasarlanmış, bunun için gereken içerik geliştirilmiş ve hazırlanan eğitim uygulaması yetişkin grubuna uygulanarak sonuçları değerlendirilmiştir. Ayrıca bireylerin bilgi teknolojilerini kullanım yetkinlikleri ile işbirlikli öğrenmeye katılım isteklileri arasındaki ilişki de çalışma kapsamında incelenmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: İşbirlikli öğrenme, sosyal paylaşım ağları, problem çözme.

Abstract

The aim of this study is to show that online social networks support the collaboration in education and they are convenient for the use of collaborative learning methods. In order to achieve this, a goal based scenario (Schank, 1994) was designed as a Facebook application with the aim of developing problem solving skills in collaboration for adult learners, then it was practiced by 100 adult learners and finally the results of implementation were analyzed. Furthermore, the study seeks the relation between the digital competence and decision making collaboration of the participants.

Keywords: Collaborative learning, social networks, problem solving.

Marginalization of University Professors Training in Tunisia: From Pedagogical Provisions to Bureaucratic Formalities

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Abstract

While Tunisian authorities seem to acknowledge the correlation between teacher training, teaching effectiveness and student achievement, they are still quite detached from its immediate implications. In this paper, we reflect on the nature and status of Assistant Professors' training programs in Tunisia. We assess the qualitative aspects of the training programs using a questionnaire, referring to the training events attended in 2011 and 2013 at the University of Sousse. This questionnaire aims at soliciting the trainees' opinion on the training programs they attended. The main objective is to elicit a description of their experiences with the current training model and introspection about their needs for training provisions. After a diagnosis of the major problems encountered with the programs, we suggest a number of workable solutions and propose alternative training models that would be tailored to the trainees' needs.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

The training and support of Assistant Professors (APs) is a topic of continuous interest. Indeed, the education research community has extensively addressed the importance of teacher education and professional development along with their influence on teaching quality and student achievement (Desimone, Porter, Garet, Yoon, & Birman, 2002; Fishman, Marx, Best, & Tal, 2003; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001). The major concern has always been to find out the most effective and supportive teacher training models. In fact, it is generally accepted that fostering teacher quality plays a major role in reaching high-quality education. For that reason, authorities are usually concerned with providing the most supportive training programs for APs. Unfortunately; however, in Tunisia the authorities' involvement starts and ends with concern.

As a matter of fact, official recognition and implementation of APs teacher training in Tunisia started in 2008 with an Order of the Minister of Higher Education, Scientific Research and Technology fixing the participation of the new teachers in the educational training. As published in the Official Gazette of the Republic of Tunisia (2008), this Order stipulates that all newly recruited APs must undergo a probationary period/internship of two years that could be extended for one year. The aforementioned internship comprehends two teacher-training cycles that could be organized at the central, territorial or regional level in the framework of the university concerned. The participation as well as the attendance in the cycles of teacher training are considered essential factors in the evaluation of the internship. They are taken into consideration by the relevant bodies during the discussion of the issue of tenure; additionally the progress made on the doctoral thesis is also acknowledged. It is clear that policy-makers acknowledge the importance of providing teacher training for APs, however, nothing is said about the content and character of that training. The official text does not address the question of how teacher training should be made available to teachers nor does it specify its incentives and goals. It relegates this task to the 'university concerned', which in theory should be a good thing for it allows the different educational institutions to provide training opportunities that correspond to the needs of their APs. The actual state of affairs, however, is totally different. Despite recognition of its importance, the teacher training currently available to APs is woefully inadequate. The major problem is that most if not all universities do design teacher-training programs that suffer from a one-size-fits-all approach that does not account for the difference in knowledge, competences and skills of the different AP recruits. The current university-based teacher training programs tend to train APs based on universal 'best practices' without taking into consideration the local contexts or the specific needs related to the different content subjects that the trainees would actually teach.

In the present work, we assess the qualitative aspects of the APs teacher-training programs held at the University of Sousse in 2011 and 2013 (No training programmed/took place in 2012) using a self-completed web-based questionnaire. The latter allows us to elicit a description of the trainees' experiences with the current training model and introspection about their needs for training provisions. After a diagnosis of the major problems encountered with the programs, we suggest a number of workable solutions and propose alternative training models that would be tailored to the trainees' needs.

ASSESSMENT OF THE CURRENT APs TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

If we want to provide a valid assessment of the current teacher-training programs offered by the University of Sousse, we need to identify the key elements that make up any professional development system (Borko, H. 2009: 4):

- The professional development program;
- The teachers, who are the learners in the system;
- The facilitator, who guides teachers as they construct new knowledge and practices; and
- The context in which the professional development occurs.

The professional development program corresponds to the teacher-training programs held at the University of Sousse in 2011 and 2013. The learners here correspond to the freshly recruited Assistant Professors by the University in question. As for the facilitators, they correspond to the trainers who are teachers qualified for training. Eventually, the context in which the professional development occurs is within the district of the University of Sousse.

Methodology

Participants

A group of nineteen diverse and accomplished Assistant Professors freshly recruited by the University of Sousse, and teaching different subject areas took part in this study. 56% of the participants held a doctoral degree.

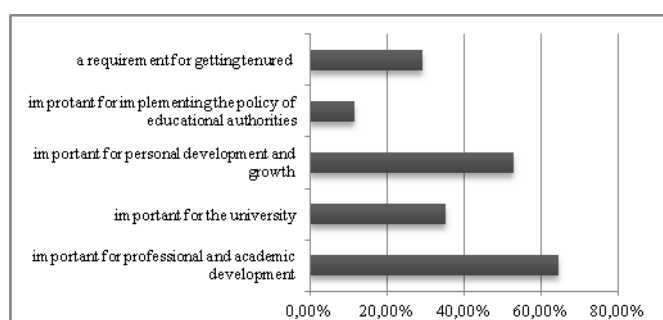
Instrument and Procedure

We used a web-based questionnaire that was distributed to the participants by email. Self-completed web-based questionnaire is a research tool that offers time and place flexibility, reduces biasing errors and provides a higher degree of anonymity for the participants (Phellas et al. 2011). The questionnaire was partially adopted from a project implemented by SPAN on improving the quality of in-service teacher training system in Croatia (SPAN Consultants, 2013). It was designed and distributed using SurveyMonkey Software (www.surveymonkey.com). The questionnaire was administered in French, Tunisians' second language.

Results and analysis

The first part of the questionnaire aimed at eliciting information about the trainees' experiences with the training programs. When asked to describe the importance of the training program, 66.67% reported that it was important for their own job/educational process, 50% that it was important for their personal growth and development, and only 33.33% thought it was important as a requirement for getting tenured.

Graph 1: Importance of teacher training program



Even though they acknowledge the importance of the training, 25% of the participants admit missing some of the training sessions of the 2011 program. When asked for the reasons, 75% asserted that the content did not meet their professional needs and that they did not find the trainers to be skilled enough. Interestingly enough, 87.5% say they have not benefited from the program and 12.5% have a mitigated feeling. In fact, no participant asserted that they have benefited from the program. One participant reflecting on why s/he did not think s/he benefited from the program noted:

[The training program was too general in some cases, and in others too specific dealing only with a couple of disciplines. In addition, the trainers did not show a lot of interest in what they were delivering which made their sessions boring.]

In fact, 66.67% admit that the available training programs did not fulfill their professional and personal development needs. 66.67% find that their institution did not offer quality-training programs, and did not bring specialists in teacher training, pedagogy and communication. Interestingly, 100% of the participants admit that even though they were quite satisfied with their performance as teachers, they still thought they needed some improvement. Thus, it is clear that despite the fact that they were intrinsically motivated, all of the participants were quite dissatisfied with the available teacher-training programs.

One of the most recurrent motifs of the trainees' dissatisfaction with the teacher training programs they attended was the fact that the content did not fulfill their needs. Actually, 72.22% did not think that their respective institutions conducted a needs analysis study before implementing the training program. As a matter of fact, the second part of the questionnaire was specifically designed to address the trainees' teacher-training needs. The latter were divided into two major parts. The first addressed the topics and areas they needed to see more present in the training program. 72.22% of the participants considered teaching methodology as their most needed topic to be covered (4 to 5 on a Likert scale). Likewise, 62.21% expressed a high interest in developing communication skills, whereas 55.56% of the participants thought that research methodology were what they needed to see the most in the training program. Finally, 50% of the participants chose syllabus design and conducting students needs analysis as their most important areas for further development.

The second part is divided into six different sections according to major teaching core competences (SPAN Consultants, 2013). In each section, the participants were asked to assess the importance of a number of competences for teaching and other school related activities of teachers and their corresponding level of need for improvement. The first section addressed the core competence of "facilitating learner-centered innovative learning and work." 75% thought that providing learning experiences that promote problem solving, critical thinking, inquiry and creativity was of the highest importance and 58.33% expressed a high level of need for improvement in that area. 58.33% thought that fostering the development of independence in student learning was of the highest importance and 50% expressed a high level of need in that area.

Table 1: Core Competence 1: Facilitating Learner-Centered Innovative Learning and Work

	IMPORTANCE				NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT			
	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
Develop student learning independence	0%	0%	41.67%	58.33%	0%	8.33%	41.67%	50%
Promote problem solving, critical thinking, inquiry and creativity	0%	0%	25%	75%	0%	8.33%	33.33%	58.33%
Create opportunities for students collaborative work	0%	0%	75%	25%	0%	16.67%	66.67%	16.67%
Make use of ICT and audio-visuals	0%	25%	41.67%	33.33%	0%	8.33%	66.67%	25%
Clearly define and present the aim of the lesson	0%	8.33%	41.67%	50%	8.33%	25%	50%	16.67%
Identify and respond to students learning needs	0%	8.33%	58.33%	33.33%	0%	16.67%	66.67%	16.67%
Develop and implement a program that targets students needs	0%	16.67%	33.33%	50%	0%	16.67%	50%	33.33%
Evaluate work strategies used to address specific students learning needs	0%	33.33%	25%	41.67%	8.33%	25%	16.67%	50%

The second section addressed the core competence of "assessing and monitoring learning processes and outcomes." 58.33% of the participants thought that sharing knowledge and experience of using exemplary assessment strategies with colleagues was of the highest importance and 41.67% expressed a high level of need for improvement in that area. 58.33% declared that formulating learning outcomes, collecting a range of

evidence to monitor student learning outcomes, developing and implementing a range of exemplary assessment strategies, and reviewing the effectiveness of an exemplary assessment strategy were of moderate importance. 75% expressed a moderate level of need for improvement in collecting a range of evidence to monitor student-learning outcomes. Similarly, 66.67% felt a moderate level of need for improvement in formulating learning outcomes and in reviewing the effectiveness of an exemplary assessment strategy.

Table 2: Core Competence 2: Assessing and Monitoring Learning Processes and Outcomes

	IMPORTANCE				NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT			
	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
Formulate learning outcomes	0%	23.08%	53.85%	23.08%	0%	8.33%	41.67%	50%
Collect a range of evidence to monitor student learning outcomes	0%	7.69%	61.54%	30.77%	0%	8.33%	33.33%	58.33%
Record evidence of student attainment of learning outcomes in order to inform ongoing planning and reporting processes	0%	15.38%	46.15%	25%	0%	16.67%	66.67%	16.67%
Report student learning outcomes	15.38%	7.69%	53.85%	38.46%	0%	8.33%	66.67%	25%
Develop and apply fair and inclusive practices in assessment and reporting	0%	15.38%	53.85%	50%	8.33%	25%	50%	16.67%
Review the effectiveness of an exemplary assessment strategy	0%	7.69%	61.54%	33.33%	0%	16.67%	66.67%	16.67%
Share knowledge and experience of using exemplary assessment strategies with colleagues	0%	7.69%	38.46%	50%	0%	16.67%	50%	33.33%
Provide comprehensive, relevant information to students and other stakeholders	0%	7.69%	38.46%	41.67%	8.33%	25%	16.67%	50%

The third section, addressed the core competence of “designing and implementing programs, schedules, training materials and didactic methods.” 50% found that analyzing the institute’s learning environment as input for designing programs and institutional policy, and evaluating programs and institutional policy were of the highest importance. In addition, 41.67% expressed a need for improvement in leading the development and implementation of program design and/or institutional policy, and 50% also expressed a need for improvement in supporting the design, implementation and monitoring of the curriculum or institutional policy.

Table 3: Core Competence 3: Designing and Implementing Programs, Schedules, Training Materials and Didactic Methods

	IMPORTANCE				NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT			
	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
Support the design, implementation and monitoring of the curriculum or institutional policy	0%	0%	53.85%	46.15%	0%	7.69%	46.15%	46.15%
Analyze the institute’s learning environment as input for designing programs and institutional policy	0%	7.69%	46.15%	46.15%	0%	23.08%	30.77%	46.15%
Lead the development and implementation of program design and/or institutional policy	0%	7.69%	69.23%	23.08%	0%	23.08%	38.46%	38.46%
Evaluate programs and institutional policy	0%	7.69%	46.15%	46.15%	0%	23.08%	38.46%	38.46%
Convince superiors to provide necessary technical support and additional materials	0%	7.69%	53.85%	38.46%	0%	15.38%	46.15%	38.46%

The fourth section addressed the core competence of “providing learner guidance and counseling.” 75% thought that maintaining current information about learning resources, educational opportunities and support services was of the highest importance. Similarly, 58.33% found that carrying out individual training needs analyses and adapting the educational program to students’ individual needs with appropriate support were also of the highest importance. When it comes to assessing the level of need for improvement, 58.33% attributed the highest levels of need to maintaining current information about learning resources, educational opportunities and support services, and to building rapport with students to facilitate open communication.

Table 4: Core Competence 4: Providing Learner Guidance and Counseling

	IMPORTANCE				NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT			
	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
Maintain current information about learning resources, educational opportunities and support services	0%	7.69%	15.38%	76.92%	0%	15.38%	30.77%	53.85%
Use appropriate communication strategies	0%	7.69%	38.46%	53.85%	0%	0%	46.15%	53.85%
Build rapport with students to facilitate open communication	7.69%	15.38%	23.08%	53.85%	0%	7.69%	30.77%	61.54%
Carry out individual training needs analyses and adapt the educational program to students' individual needs with appropriate support	0%	15.38%	23.08%	61.54%	7.69%	7.69%	46.15%	38.46%
Recognize when to refer students to other services in-house or external counseling and guidance services	0%	15.38%	46.15%	38.46%	0%	23.08%	30.77%	46.15%

The fifth section addressed the core competence of “forming partnership within and outside own institution.” 76.92% found that developing collaborative partnerships between the institution and the wider community was the most important competence for teachers. 61.54% gave the highest importance to supporting the work of the team, 61.54% to motivating team members toward achieving quality outcomes, and to promoting cooperative decision-making processes. As for the need for improvement, 69.23% expressed the highest level of need for improvement in developing collaborative partnerships between the institution and the wider community, and 53.85% in supporting the work of the team. Furthermore, 61.54% expressed a moderate need for improvement in empowering team members to take responsibility for tasks.

Table 5: Core Competence 5: Forming Partnership within and outside Own Institution

	IMPORTANCE				NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT			
	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
Build partnerships with members of the wider educational community to support student learning	0%	0%	61.54%	38.46%	0%	15.38%	46.15%	38.46%
Engage in team planning processes	0%	15.38%	53.85%	30.77%	0%	38.46%	23.08%	38.46%
Contribute to team meetings	0%	23.08%	30.77%	46.15%	0%	0%	53.85%	46.15%
Support the work of the team	0%	15.38%	23.08%	61.54%	0%	0%	46.15%	53.85%
Motivate team members toward achieving quality outcomes	0%	15.38%	23.08%	61.54%	0%	15.38%	46.15%	38.46%
Provide direction for team members	0%	7.69%	53.85%	38.46%	0%	15.38%	53.85%	30.77%
Share knowledge of educational initiatives and perspectives to inform classroom practice	0%	15.38%	30.77%	53.85%	0%	0%	53.85%	46.15%
Empower team members to take responsibility for tasks	0%	7.69%	61.54%	30.77%	0%	7.69%	61.54%	30.77%
Promote cooperative decision-making processes	0%	7.69%	38.46%	53.85%	0%	15.38%	38.46%	46.15%
Develop collaborative partnerships between the institution and the wider community	0%	15.38%	7.69%	76.92%	0%	23.08%	7.69%	69.23%

The last section dealing with the teachers' needs addressed the core competence of “pursuing own professional development and creativity.” 53.85% gave the highest level of importance to identifying gaps in own competences on the basis of a competence framework analysis, and to integrating new educational methods and practices in designing learning arrangements and programs. 58.97%; however, found that supporting the induction of colleagues, and sharing professional experience, knowledge, understanding and skills with colleagues, and engaging in reflective activities both individually and with others were of moderate importance. As for the need for improvement, 61.54% attributed the highest level of need to identifying gaps in own competences on the basis of a competence framework analysis, demonstrating a strong ongoing commitment to professional learning, incorporating the experiences that learners bring into the educational setting from their multiple roles in life, and to integrating new educational methods, and practices in designing learning. 53.85% expressed that they needed the most improvement at demonstrating proficiency in ICT for instructional and administrative functions, developing and monitoring own professional development plan, and at supporting the induction of colleagues.

Table 6: Core Competence 6: Pursuing Own Professional Development and Creativity

	IMPORTANCE				NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT			
	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
Demonstrate a strong, ongoing commitment to professional learning	0%	15.38%	38.46%	46.15%	0%	7.69%	30.77%	61.54%

Demonstrate proficiency in ICT for instructional and administrative functions	0%	7.69%	46.15%	46.15%	0%	7.69%	38.46%	53.85%
Incorporate the experiences that learners bring into the educational setting from their multiple roles in life	0%	38.46%	15.38%	46.15%	0%	15.38%	23.08%	61.54%
Support the induction of colleagues	0%	30.77%	53.85%	15.38%	0%	15.38%	30.77%	53.85%
Share professional experience, knowledge, understanding and skills with colleagues	0%	0%	61.54%	38.46%	0%	0%	53.85%	46.15%
Identify gaps in own competences on the basis of a competence framework analysis	0%	7.69%	38.46%	53.85%	0%	7.69%	30.77%	61.54%
Develop and monitor own professional development plan	0%	23.08%	38.46%	38.46%	0%	15.38%	30.77%	53.85%
Engage in reflective activities both individually and with others	0%	7.69%	61.54%	30.77%	0%	15.38%	38.46%	46.15%
Integrate new educational methods and practices in designing learning	0%	0%	46.15%	53.85%	0%	7.69%	30.77%	61.54%

The third and last part of the questionnaire, addressed the trainees' preferences regarding the training format. When asked to rank different types of training from the least to the most preferred, 38.46% of the participants chose a combination of a pre-service training and continuous in-service training as their most preferred type. 30.77% of them chose pre-service training while 38.46% chose in-service training as their second most preferred type of training. On the other hand, 38.46% chose a combination of a pre-service training and one-time in-service training as their least preferred type. Thus, it is obvious that APs do favor continuous in-service training.

Table 7: Types Of Training

	1	2	3	4	5
Pre-service training	23.08%	7.69%	30.77%	7.69%	30.77%
In-service training	7.69%	15.38%	23.08%	38.46%	15.38%
Continuous in-service training	23.08%	15.38%	15.38%	23.08%	23.08%
A combination of pre-service training and one-time in-service training	38.46%	23.08%	30.77%	0%	7.69%
A combination of pre-service training and continuous in-service training	23.08%	7.69%	23.08%	7.69%	38.46%

When it comes to the preferred training methods, the first most preferred one (4 to 5 on a Likert scale) was the pedagogical (hands- on) workshop with 84.52%. The second most preferred method was the examples of good practice with 76.92%. 53.85% of the participants favor study visits and peer observation. As for the least preferred training method, it corresponds to the supervision method. Thus, it appears that Assistant Professors do privilege practical methods.

Table 8: Methods Of Training

	1	2	3	4	5
Plenary sessions	23.08%	30.77%	15.38%	23.08%	7.69%
Pedagogical (hands-on) workshops	0%	0%	15.38%	30.77%	53.85%
Examples of good practice	0%	7.69%	15.38%	30.77%	46.15%
Consultations-mentoring	23.08%	15.38%	38.46%	15.38%	7.69%
Modular in-service training	15.38%	23.08%	46.15%	7.69%	7.69%
Supervision	38.46%	38.46%	15.38%	7.69%	0%
Training for trainers	23.08%	7.69%	23.08%	23.08%	23.08%
Roundtable	30.77%	15.38%	15.38%	23.08%	15.38%
Study visits	15.38%	23.08%	7.69%	23.08%	30.77%
Peer observation	23.08%	15.38%	7.69%	23.08%	30.77%

As for the preferred training modes, the first most preferred one (4 to 5 on a Likert scale) was within field of expertise, with 84.62%. The second most preferred training mode was within department, with 46.15%. When it comes to the least preferred training mode, it was attributed to the on-line option, with 30.77%. It is clear that Assistant Professors prefer the training to be tailored to what they actually teach and they prefer the mode that offers the most proximity to their job.

Table 9: Modes Of Training

	1	2	3	4	5
Face-to-face	7.69%	7.69%	30.77%	23.08%	30.77%
Within department	0%	7.69%	23.08%	23.08%	46.15%
Within university	0%	7.69%	38.46%	23.08%	30.77%
Within field of expertise	0%	7.69%	7.69%	23.08%	61.54%
Within rectorate	23.08%	15.38%	38.46%	15.38%	7.69%
Online	30.77%	7.69%	23.08%	23.08%	15.38%
Resources / References	7.69%	7.69%	38.46%	30.77%	15.38%
Self-paced modules	15.38%	7.69%	38.46%	23.08%	15.38%

Trainer-led modules	0%	0%	46.15%	38.46%	15.38%
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DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

While both Tunisian policy makers and APs recognize the crucial necessity for teacher training programs, they tend to diverge on the accommodation and realization of this necessity. Tunisian higher education policy makers see the teacher training programs as an administrative requirement for tenure. Training sessions take place only once throughout the AP's carrier as part of the preparation for tenure and usually few months after the APs are hired. APs, on the other hand, see these programs chiefly as opportunities for professional, academic and personal development. Yet, as shown by the results, only 33.33% of them see the training programs as an important requirement for getting tenured. What lead us to this assumption are the lack of needs analysis prior to the training programs and the lack of pre-service and continuous in-service training. Indeed the micro needs analysis that we conducted for our study shows a disconnection between what the current training programs are offering and how they are implemented, and what the APs needs are. As a matter of fact the 2011 and 2013 programs provided training in the following topics:

- Syllabus/Course planning,
- Learning tools,
- Lecturing and audiovisuals,
- Evaluation of learning,
- Animation of a group,
- Digitization of a course,
- Motivation of the learners,
- Research methodology,
- Communication, and
- Supervision

All of the aforementioned topics were delivered in plenary sessions by different trainers in different institutions. Even though the programs designers consider lecturing and audiovisuals, animation of a group, and motivation of learners as teaching methods, the results show that 72.22% of the trainees still felt that they needed that topic to be more present in the training. The same applies to research methodology and syllabus design with 55.56% and 50% respectively. This discrepancy implies that the trainees' dissatisfaction with both training events is not exclusively related to the content itself. In fact, most topics seem to be consistent with those our results show the participants to need the most. In order to find out the source of the problem, we need to go back to the key elements that make up any professional development system and proceed by elimination. We already ruled out part of the first element, which is the training program in terms of content areas. However, the results show that in terms of modes of delivery of that content, 84.62% of the trainees prefer that to be within their field of expertise. As for the delivering methods, 84.52% prefer pedagogical (hands-on) workshops and 76.92% prefer to have examples of good practice. However, the training programs under study are only delivered in plenary sessions format. Let's consider the second element, which are the learners who in our case are the APs. As shown by the results reported in the previous section, the APs were intrinsically motivated to take the training. Therefore, this option could be safely ruled out. The third key element, are the facilitators i.e. the teacher trainers. As a matter of fact, the results show that 75% of the trainees did not find the trainers to be skilled enough, and 66.67% did not consider them as specialists in the field of pedagogy. Therefore, the quality and competence of the trainers seem to be a major part of the problem, but are they the only problem? To find out we need to explore the last key element, which is the context in which the professional development occurs. As mentioned earlier, all of the training sessions took place in different institutions. The results; however, show that 69.23% of the participants preferred the training to take place in their department. Accordingly, we have spotted a number of problems that could explain the overall dissatisfaction with the training programs. First, the content was not tailored to the trainees' different fields of expertise. Then, the content delivering method did not correspond to their preferences as they clearly favored a more practical approach. In addition, the trainers were not perceived as skillful enough. Finally, the trainees appear to appreciate a greater proximity to their working place, which is not provided by the current program, as they had to take the different sessions in different institutions.

Having spotted the major sources of the trainees' dissatisfaction with the teacher training programs that the University of Sousse is providing, and having an idea about their needs, we make the following suggestions for a more efficient professional development system. Firstly, the training institution should conduct a needs analysis

prior to planning and initiating a training program. Additionally, training sessions should have more emphasis and should be more specifically tailored to the APs field of expertise and their professional needs as well. We also suggest that different modes of delivery be implemented; for example, training programs should provide APs with workshops to not only practice what they have learned of the theory, but also get feedback from trainers and peers alike about their teaching methods. As was indicated in the data above APs prefer trainers who are specialized for teacher training and are employed professionally as experts in training within that field, as opposed to regular staff and faculty. As proximity to one's own institution seems to be important to many APs while training, we recommend that all training be conducted within the institution in which the APs will be working. Additionally, our research suggests that training for an institution should include pre-service training as well as continuous in-service training. This is of paramount importance as it ensures APs are up to date with the most current methods and practices and are consistently learning new techniques and honing those they already possess. In conclusion, we feel that the changes to the methodology of training future APs will not only benefit their respective institutions and students, but also the APs themselves.

CONCLUSION

The present study was meant to evaluate the professional development system adopted by the University of Sousse for its freshly recruited APs. It shows that this system is failing to meet the needs of its beneficiaries for a number of reasons that have to do with several of its components. It appears that the authorities need to adjust their teacher training policies to meet the expectations of the trainees for any program to be successful. The ultimate objective should no longer be tenure but rather promotion of teaching quality. In other words, teacher training should become a pedagogical provision and not a mere bureaucratic formality.

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Gaziantep’te Yabancı Dil Eğitiminde İlkokullarda ve Ortaokullarda Karşılaşılan Problemler

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Özet

Bu araştırmanın amacı; Gaziantep’teki ortaokul ve ilkokullarda yabancı dil öğretimiyle ilgili problemlere ilişkin öğretmen görüşlerini belirlemektir. Bu çalışmada, 2012-2013 yılında Gaziantep merkez ilçelerine, merkez ilçe ve ilçe köylerine bağlı okullarında çalışan İngilizce öğretmenleriyle görüşme yapılmıştır. Bu kapsamda araştırma nitel çalışmadır. Toplamda 30 tane öğretmenle, görev sürelerini, Türkiye’deki yabancı dil eğitimi hakkında ne düşündüklerini ve Gaziantep’teki yabancı dil eğitim problemlerinin neler olduğunu düşündüklerini, bu konudaki önerilerini belirleyen bir görüşme yapılmıştır. Öğretmenlerin sorulara verdikleri yanıtlar kodlanmıştır, daha sonra aynı tema olduğu düşünülen kodlar aynı tema altında sıralanmıştır ve toplamda dört tema tespit edilmiştir. Bu temaların her biri problem kaynağı olarak kabul edilmiştir. Problem kaynaklarına ait problemlerin her birine sayı ile kod verilmiştir ve öğretmenlerin de sorulara verdikleri cevaplar da öğretmenlerin ortak veya farklı çalışma özelliklerine göre karşılaştırılmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre görüşme yapılan tüm öğretmenler Türkiye’de yabancı dil eğitimini problemli görmektedirler ve Gaziantep’te de en çok karşılaşılan problem öğrenci kaynaklı bir problem olan ilgisizliktir.

Anahtar kelimeler. Yabancı dil eğitimi, Gaziantep’te yabancı dil öğretimi, dil öğretim problemleri

BİRİNCİ BÖLÜM

GİRİŞ

Günümüzde bilgedeki değişme baş döndürücü bir hıza ulaşmıştır. İnsanlar kendi mesleki alan bilgilerinde meydana gelen değişimleri bile takip etmekte zorlanmaktadır (Demir, 2006:1). Yirminci yüzyılda, özellikle yüzyılın son çeyreğinde, dünya çok önemli değişim ve dönüşümler yaşadı. Bu değişim ve dönüşümlerin temelinde çeşitli sosyoekonomik gelişmeler ile bilim ve teknoloji alanındaki hızlı ve kapsamlı değişimler yatmaktadır. Bu değişim ve gelişmeler sonucunda günümüz toplumu bilgi ve teknolojinin yoğun olarak üretildiği ve tüketildiği toplum haline gelmiştir (Gedikoğlu, 2005: 67).

Gelişmeyle beraber, küreselleşen ve giderek küçülen dünyamızda farklı toplumlar arasında iletişim çok önemli hale gelmiştir. Günümüzde, iletişim çok yönlü ve farklı şekillerde gerçekleşebilmektedir. Yabancı dil bilmek başka uluslarla iletişim kurmada kuşkusuz önemli bir yere sahiptir. Yabancı dil bilgisi, diplomatik, bilimsel, ekonomik ve diğer birçok alanda uluslararası işbirliği için ön koşuldur ve bu yolları açmak için bir araçtır. Giderek küreselleşen dünyamızda, ülkelerarası yakın etkileşimin doğal sonucu olarak, yabancı dil öğretimi daha fazla önem kazanmıştır ve bu önem her geçen gün artmaktadır. Dünyanın pek çok yerinde yabancılar arasında en çok konuşulan dilin İngilizce olması, İngilizce öğrenme isteğini ve öğretimini artırmıştır. İngilizce artık tüm dünya ülkelerinin ikinci dili olma yolunda ilerlemektedir (Büyükyavuz ve Aydoslu, 2005:1032). Dolayısıyla, günümüz dünyasında çok dillilik özendirilmektedir. Bu bağlamda ülkemizin kalkınmış ülkeler arasındaki yerini alabilmesi için eğitim sistemimizin gelişmiş ülkelerin gerisinde kalmaması gerekir (Arıbaş ve Tok, 2004).

Türkiye’de yabancı dil öğretimi, imparatorluk döneminde sıbyan okulları ve medreselerde Arapçanın öğretilmesiyle; Tanzimat döneminde ise ordu personelinin Batılılaştırmak için Fransızcanın öğretilmesiyle başlamıştır (Wilson ve Başgöz, 1968: 15).

1997-1998 öğretim yılından itibaren uygulamaya konulan Eğitim Reformu kapsamında yabancı dil dersi (İngilizce, Almanca ve Fransızca dillerinden birisi) ilköğretim okullarının dördüncü sınıfından başlamak üzere ortaöğretim onuncu sınıfa kadar zorunlu hale getirilmiştir. Bazı özel okullarda ise İngilizce öğretimi ana sınıfından itibaren başlamaktadır (Büyükyavuz ve Aydoslu,2005:1032).

Son olarak 2012 'de 4+4+4ün getirilmesiyle yabancı Dil öğretimi 2. Sınıftan başlayacaktır (wikipedia 2013). Tüm bunlar yabancı dilin önemi, gerek devlet ve gerekse toplum tarafından benimsenmiş olup, açılan yabancı dil kurum sayısındaki artış bu ilginin en büyük göstergesidir. Bu konuda başarıyı yakalayıp, az zamanda daha çok bilgi ve beceri kazandırmayı hedefleyen kurumlar yarış halindedir (Büyükyavuz ve Aydoslu,2005:1032).

Türkiye'de yabancı dil öğretiminde atılan tüm adımlara rağmen, etkin bir dil öğretimi gerçekleşmemektedir. Dil öğretiminde karşılaşılan güçlükler geçmişte olduğu gibi günümüzde de güncelliğini korumaktadır. Devlet okullarımızda yabancı dil dersleri, ilköğretim dördüncü sınıftan ortaöğretim onuncu sınıfına kadar zorunlu ders olarak okutulmaktadır. Böylece, yaklaşık toplam 589 saat (31 hafta X 19 saat) yabancı dil dersi olarak yükseköğretime gelen öğrencilerin yabancı dil düzeylerine bakıldığında, dil öğretiminde varılan noktanın hiç iç açıcı olmadığı görülmektedir (Büyükyavuz ve Aydoslu, 2005:1032).

Ülkemizde bir yabancı dil bilmenin, özellikle İngilizce bilmenin gereklilikten ziyade gizli bir baskıyla mecbur bırakıldığı günümüzde, dil öğretimi sorunları hala aşılanamamıştır. Bu sorunlar çıkmaz içerisinde ve kısır döngüde devam etmektedir (Gömlüksiz ve Elaldı, 2011:443).

Dil öğretiminde karşılaşılan güçlükler geçmişte olduğu gibi günümüzde de güncelliğini korumakta, dil öğretimiyle ilgili çeşitli sorunlar varlığını her durumda sürdürmektedir. Bizim bu çalışmamızdaki amacımız dil ve dil öğretimi sorunlarının belirlenmesinin yanında belirlediğimiz sorunlara bir çözüm önerisi ya da önerileri üretmektir. Bunları yaparken de dilin tanımını, ülkemizde yabancı dil öğretim yöntemlerine ilişkin sorunları da katacağız (İşeri,1996:1).

DİL ÖĞRETİMİ VE YABANCI DİL

Duygu ve düşüncelerimizi başkalarına aktarabilmemiz, okuduğumuzu anlayıp anlatabilmemiz ve (dil bir düşünce aracı olduğuna göre) doğru düşünmemiz dili kullanma yetimize bağlıdır. Dili kullanma yetisinin edimi de dilbilgisinin temel yasalarını öğrenmekle gerçekleşecektir, zira dil sözcük dağarcığından ve bu sözcüklerin nasıl bir araya getirileceğine dair kurallardan oluşan bir dizgedir. Bir dil pek çok sözcüğün ve kuralın bir araya gelmesiyle örülmüş bir ağ, karmaşık toplumsal bir olgudur. Kendi anadilini iyi kullanan bir kişi başka bir dili öğrenmesi kuşkusuz kendi ana dilini bilmeyen birisine göre daha kolaydır. Bunda kişinin yaşı, öğrenim düzeyi, ortamı ve çevresinin de önemli ölçüde etkisi olduğu görülmektedir (İşeri,1996:5).

Yabancı dil öğretimi dilbilimsel bilginin öğretime uygulandığı bir etkinlik olduğu için dil öğretimiyle ilgilenen bireyler dilin ne olduğunu açıklamaya çalışan çağdaş dilbilgisi kurallarını ve ayrıntılarını iyi bilmek zorundadırlar. Yabancı dil öğrenimi ise, kişinin ses ve anlamdan oluşan yeni bir dil dizgesinin kurallarını öğrenmesi ve bu kurallar dâhilinde dili uygun ve doğru kullanmasıdır.

YABANCI DİL EĞİTİM PROBLEMLERİ

Ülkemizde yabancı dil öğretimini devlet okulları, özel okullar, dershaneler ve üniversiteler yürütmekte olup, ayrıca bir de resmi olmayan özel ders sektörü vardır.

Devlete bağlı okullar aşağıdaki nedenlerden dolayı istenen derecede başarılı olmadığı söylenebilir:

- 1-Öğretmen sayısının yetersizliği
- 2-Ders Öğretim Programlarının iyi hazırlanamaması ve ders saatleri yetersizliği
- 3-Sınıf geçme yönetmeliği
- 4-Öğretim metotlarının yeterince bilinmemesi
- 5-Yeterince öğretim yardımcı malzemesi üretilmemesi
- 6-Test tekniklerinin iyi bilinmemesi
- 7-Lise sınıflarında öğrencilerin ÖSS ye odaklanması
- 8-Sınıfların aşırı kalabalık olması

Bütün yukarıdaki engellemelere rağmen az da olsa başarılı olan devlet okulları vardır. Özel okullar ise kar amacıyla yeni mezun öğretmen peşinde koşmuş ihtisasa önem vermemiş ve yeterli düzeyde eğitim veremediklerinden birçokları kapanmıştır. İçlerinde çok başarılı olanları vardır ancak gerek OKS ve gerekse yüksek düzeyde fiyatlar dolayısıyla her öğrencinin buralarda eğitim görmesi olanaksızdır.

ARAŞTIRMANIN ÖNEMİ

Dil bir iletişim aracıdır. Bir toplumda yaşayan bireyler birbirleriyle aynı dili konuşarak iletişim kurarlar. Hızla gelişen ve değişen dünyamızda diğer milletlerle de iletişim kurmamız gerekiyor. Başka bir deyişle, diğer ülkelerle her alanda bilgi alışverişi yapabilmek, ekonomik ilişkilerimizi yürütebilmek ve kendi düşüncelerimizi

ifade edebilmek için anadilimizden başka en az bir yabancı dili bilmemiz gerekmektedir (Zipmaker, 2007, Şubat, 15)

Türkiye’de sayılı özel ve yabancı kolejler dışında hiçbir ilk ve orta öğretim kurumunda yeterli ve etkin bir yabancı dil öğretimi sağlanamamaktadır. Bu konuya ilişkin hepimizin bildiği birçok neden vardır elbette. Buna karşılık son yıllarda ilköğretimin kesintisiz sekiz yıla çıkarılması çerçevesinde dördüncü sınıftan başlayarak çocuklara yabancı dil dersi uygulamasına geçilmiştir (Anşin,2006:10).

Ardından 4+4+4 sistemine geçilmesiyle aynı şekilde dile önem verildiği vurgulanmıştır. Daha ürünler görülemez de ikinci sınıftan itibaren öğrenciler yabancı dil görmeye başlayacaktır. Ülkemizde yıllardan beri tüketilen zaman, büyük emek ve gayretlere rağmen yabancı dil öğretiminde arzu edilen başarıya ulaşıldığını söylemek zor. Durumun bu hale gelmesi kafalarda soru işareti oluşturmakta ve neden sorusunu sordurmaktadır. Bununla birlikte nedenler bilinirse çözüm yolları geliştirmek de kolay ve etkili olacaktır. Bu yönüyle yabancı dil eğitimindeki problemleri bilmek kaçınılmazdır.

PROBLEM CÜMLESİ

Bu araştırmada “Gaziantep ilinde ilköğretim düzeyinde karşılaşılan yabancı dil öğretimi problemlerine ilişkin öğretmen görüşleri nelerdir?” sorusuna cevap aranmıştır.

ARAŞTIRMANIN AMACI VE ALT PROBLEMLER

Bu araştırmanın amacı Gaziantep ilindeki ilkökuller ve ortaokullarındaki yabancı dil eğitimi problemlerini belirlemektir.

ALT PROBLEMLER

- 1-Merkez okulları problemleri ve köy okulları problemleri benzerlik göstermekte midir?
- 2-Öğretmenlerin ortaya koyduğu problemler çalışma yıllarına göre farklılık göstermekte midir?
- 3-Öğretmenlerin ortaya koyduğu problemler çalıştıkları bölgeye göre farklılık göstermekte midir?
- 4-Öğretmenlerin ortaya koyduğu problemler cinsiyete göre farklılık göstermekte midir?

İKİNCİ BÖLÜM

MATERYAL VE YÖNTEM

Bu bölümde araştırma modeli, evren, örneklem, veri toplama araçları, geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışmaları ve veri çözümlemesi üzerinde durulmuştur.

ARAŞTIRMA MODELİ

Bu çalışmada Gaziantep ilinde merkez ilçede, merkez ilçe köy okullarına bağlı ise 30 öğretmenle görüşme yapılmıştır. Öğretmenlerin sorduğumuz sorulara verdikleri yanıtlar ile problemlerin belirlenmesi hedeflenmiştir.

Bu araştırmada Gaziantep ilinde ilkökuller ve ortaokullarda İngilizce öğretmenlerinin yabancı dil eğitiminde karşılaştığı problemleri belirlemek amacıyla nitel araştırma yönteminden yararlanılmıştır.

Nitel araştırmalar, toplanan verilerin analizinde tümevarıma dayalı bir yaklaşım izler. Araştırmacı, topladığı verilerden yola çıkarak, incelediği probleme ilişkin ana temaları ortaya çıkararak, anlamlı bir yapıya kavuşturur (Kabaca ve Erdoğan,2007: 56).

ÇALIŞMA GRUBU

Bu araştırmanın çalışma grubunu Gaziantep ilinde merkeze ve köye bağlı ilkökuller ve ortaokullarında çalışan toplam 30 İngilizce öğretmeni oluşturmaktadır. Bu öğretmenlerden üçü köyde okullarında diğer 27 öğretmen de merkez okullarda çalışmaktadır. Gaziantep’teki öğretmenliğin 1 ile 5 yıl arasında olan öğretmen sayısı 10 dur; öğretmenliğinin 5 ile 15 yıl arasında olan öğretmen sayısı da 20’dir. Öğretmenlerin çalıştıkları okullar sırayla şunlardır:

- 1-Anneler Ortaokulu
- 2- Bağbaşı Memik Ayçiçek Ortaokulu
- 3-İsmet İnönü Ortaokulu- İsmet İnönü İlkokulu

- 4-Bahattin Kayalı Ortaokulu- Bahattin Kayalı Ortaokulu
- 5-Özdemirbey İlkokulu - Özdemir Bey Ortaokulu
- 6-8 Şubat Ortaokulu
- 7-24 Kasım İlkokulu-24 Kasım Ortaokulu
- 8-Mevlana İlkokulu- Mevlana Ortaokulu
- 9-Münire Kemal Kınoğlu Ortaokulu
- 10-Yüzüncü Yıl İlkokulu
- 11-Kapcağız Ortaokulu
- 12-Nuriye Zekeriya Kıncıl Ortaokulu
- 13-Karacaburç Ortaokulu
- 14-Köksalan Ortaokulu-Köksalan İlkokulu
- 15-Namın Kemal Ortaokulu
- 16-Hatice Karşıgil Ortaokulu
- 17-Hatice Karşıgil İlkokulu
- 18-Kıbrıs Ortaokulu
- 19-Yığınlı İlkokulu-Yığınlı Ortaokulu
- 20-Aktoprak Ortaokulu
- 21-Akçagöze İlkokulu- Akçagöze Ortaokulu
- 22-Abdullah Kep Kep Ortaokulu

2012 yılında eğitim sisteminde değişiklik yapılarak 4+4+4 uygulamasına geçilince, okullar Ortaokul ve İlkokul olarak ayrıldı. Sistem daha yeni olduğu ve yeteri kadar okul binası olmadığı için, Ortaokul ve İlkokulda öğrenim gören öğrenciler aynı okulda eğitim-öğretime devam etmek zorunda kaldı. Aynı şekilde öğretmen yetersizliğinden Ortaokul ve İlkokula ayrı öğretmen atanmadığı için onlar da hem daha önce çalıştıkları ilköğretim okulunun şimdiki ortaokul ve ilkokul kısmında eğitim ve öğretime devam etmek zorunda kaldılar. Biz bu listeyi oluştururken bir maddeye hem ortaokulu hem de ilkokulun adını yazdık. Bu demektir ki bu öğretmen daha önce çalıştığı okulun şu an hem ortaokul kısmında hem de ilkokul kısmında çalışmaktadır.

VERİ TOPLAMA ARACI

Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak, Gaziantep'te ilkokullar ve ortaokullardaki yabancı dil problemlerini belirlemek amacıyla, Gaziantep ilinde çalışan toplam 30 öğretmen ile görüşme yapılmıştır. Görüşmede, öğretmenlere toplamda 5 soru sorulmuştur, bunlar genel hatlarıyla sorunları belirlemede yeterlidir. İlk 2 soru öğretmenlerin hangi okulda ve kaç yıldır çalıştıklarıyla ilgili sorulardır. 3. Soru genel olarak ülkemizdeki yabancı dil eğitiminin boyutuyla alakalıdır. 4. Soru Gaziantep'teki ilkokul ve ortaokuldaki yabancı dil problemleriyle ve 5. soruda da öğretmenlerin problemlerin çözüm önerilerini kapsamaktadır. Sorular Ek 1de görülmektedir.

Görüşme nitel araştırmada en sık kullanılan veri toplama aracı olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Görüşmenin etkili ve verimli bir veri toplama yöntemi olarak kullanılabilmesi için bu yöntemin temel özelliklerini, güçlü ve zayıf yönlerini iyi anlamak, nitel veriye ulaşmayı kolaylaştıracak bir görüşme formu hazırlamada görüşmeyi gerçekleştir (Şimşek ve Yıldırım,2011:119).

VERİLERİN TOPLANMASI VE ÇÖZÜMLENMESİ

Araştırmada Gaziantep'teki İngilizce öğretmenlerinin görüşlerini almak için görüşme yapıldı. Bunu gerçekleştirmek için öğretmenlerin okullarına gidildi, görüşmeler yapılarak verilen cevaplar kaydedildi. Kaydedilen veriler içerik analizine göre incelendi.

İçerik analizinde temel amaç, toplanan verileri açıklayabilecek kavramlara ve ilişkilere ulaşmaktır. Betimsel analize göre daha ayrıntılıdır. Bu çerçevede içerik analizi yoluyla verileri tanımlamaya, verilerin içinde saklı olabilecek gerçekleri ortaya çıkarmaya çalışılır. Yani, birbirine benzeyen veriler belirli kavramlar ve temalar çerçevesinde bir araya getirilir ve bunları okuyucunun anlayabileceği bir biçimde düzenleyerek yorumlanır (Şimşek ve Yıldırım,2011:227).

Bu araştırmanın analizi de bu sıraya göre yapıldı.

2.4.1.Verileri kodlanması: Bu aşamada elde edilen bilgiler incelenerek, anlamlı bölümlere ayrılmaya ve her bölümün kavramsal olarak ne ifade ettiği bulmaya çalışılır. Bu bölümler bazen bir sözcük, bazen bir cümle ya da paragraf, bazen de bir sayfalık veri olabilir (Şimşek ve Yıldırım, 2011:228).

Bu arařtırmada da, problemleri belirlemek amacıyla 3. ve 4. sorulara verilen cevaplar aralarındaki iliřkiye gre kodlanmıřtır. Daha sonra verilen kodlarla birlikte veriler bilgisayar ortamında Excel dosyasına kayıt edilmiřtir. Bu bize btncl bakıř aısı kazandırarak yorumları yapmayı kolaylařtırmıřtır.

2.4.2.Temaların bulunması: Bu ařama, ilk ařamada ortaya ıkan ortaya ıkan kodlardan yola ıkararak verileri, genel dzeyde aıklayabilen ve kodları belirli kategoriler altında toplayabilen temaların bulunma srecidir (řimřek ve Yıldırım, 2011:236).

Bu arařtırmada da yorumlamayı daha anlaşılır hale iin belirlenen kodlara ortak zelliklerine gre temalar verilmiřtir.

2.4.3.Verilerin kodlara ayrılması ve temalara gre dzenlenmesi ve tanımlanması: İlk ařamadaki ayrıntılı kodlama ve ikinci ařamadaki tematik kodlama sonucunda, arařtırmacı topladıđı verileri dzenleyebileđi bir sistem oluřturur; nc ařamada ise arařtırmacı bu sisteme gre elde edilen verileri dzenler ve bu řekilde belirli olgulara gre verileri tanımlamak ve yorumlamak mmkn olur (řimřek ve Yıldırım, 2011:237).

Yukarıda ifade edildiđi gibi bu arařtırmada da elde edilen tema ve kodlar belli olgulara gre sıralanmıřtır.

2.4.4 Bulguların Yorumlanması: Ayrıntılı bir biimde sunulan bulguların arařtırmacı tarafından yorumlanması ve bazı sonuların ıkarılması bu ařamada olmaktadır (řimřek ve Yıldırım 2011:238). Bu ařama da ifade edildiđi gibi gerekleřtirilmiřtir.

NC BLM

BULGULAR

Bu blmde grřmede elde edilen verilere deđinilecektir.

GAZİANTEP’TEKİ İNGİLİZCE ĐRETMENLERİNİN TRKİYE’DEKİ YABANCI DİL ĐRETİMİYLE İLGİLİ GRřLERİ

TABLO 1 Trkiye’de Yabancı Dil Đretimiyle İlgili Grřler

İřİM	CİNSİYET	BLGE	YIL	SORU 3
Đretmen 1	K	Merkez	7	Problemli
Đretmen 2	K	Ky	1	Problemli
Đretmen 3	K	Merkez	4	Problemli
Đretmen 4	K	Ky	1	Geliřme gstermemiř
Đretmen 5	E	Ky	1	Problemli
Đretmen 6	E	Merkez	4	Problemli
Đretmen 7	K	Merkez	7	Geliřme gstermemiř
Đretmen 8	K	Merkez	11	Geliřme gstermemiř
Đretmen 9	K	Merkez	5	Problemli
Đretmen 10	B	Merkez	14	Geliřme gstermemiř
Đretmen 11	E	Merkez	1,5	Problemli
Đretmen 12	K	Merkez	1	Problemli
Đretmen 13	K	Merkez	14	Geliřme gstermemiř
Đretmen 14	E	Merkez	12	Geliřme gstermemiř
Đretmen 15	K	Merkez	5	Problemli
Đretmen 16	K	Merkez	7	Geliřme gstermemiř
Đretmen 17	K	Merkez	1	Geliřme gstermemiř
Đretmen 18	E	Merkez	5	Problemli
Đretmen 19	E	Merkez	6	Problemli
Đretmen 20	E	Merkez		Problemli
Đretmen 21	K	Ky	13	Problemli
Đretmen 22	K	Ky	3	Geliřme gstermemiř

Öğretmen 23	E	Merkez	1,5	Problemlili
Öğretmen 24	K	Merkez	13	Problemlili
Öğretmen 25	E	Merkez	12	Gelişme göstermemiş
Öğretmen 26	K	Merkez	1	Problemlili
Öğretmen 27	K	Köy	3	Problemlili
Öğretmen 28	E	Merkez	5	Gelişme göstermemiş
Öğretmen 29	K	Köy	9	Problemlili
Öğretmen 30	K	Köy	13	Problemlili

Tablo 1’de görüşme yapılan öğretmenlerin 3. Soruya verdikleri cevaplar bulunmaktadır. Tüm öğretmenler “Ülkemizdeki yabancı dil eğitimini nasıl görüyorsunuz?” sorusuna çoğunlukla aynı cevabı vermişlerdir. Tüm öğretmenler Türkiye’de yabancı dil eğitimini problemlili ve geri kalmış olarak görmektedirler. Bu bize farklı bir bakış açısı sunmamaktadır ve söyleyebiliriz ki ülkemizde yabancı dil eğitimi problemlili.

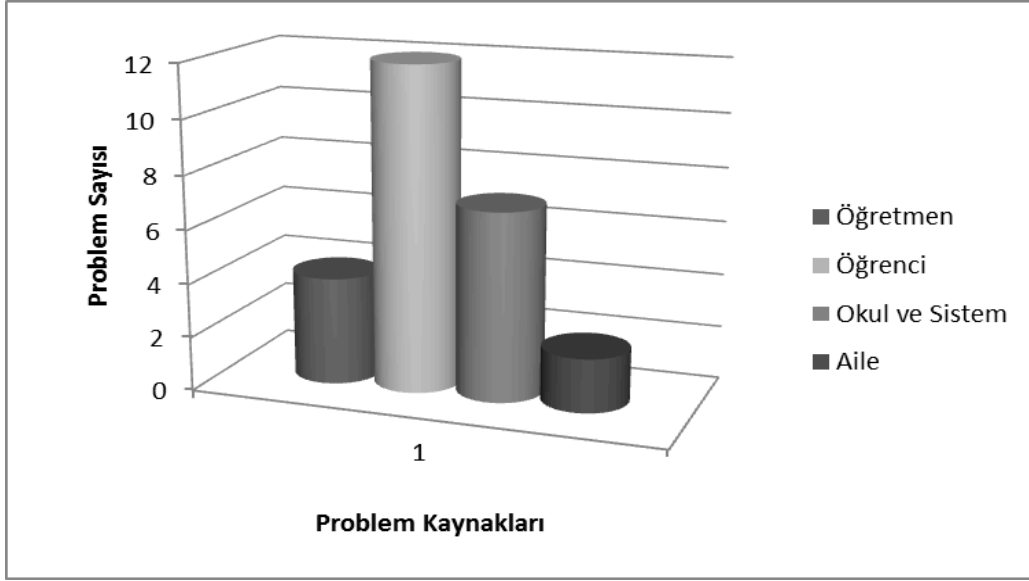
GAZİANTEP’TEKİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN GAZİANTEP’TEKİ YABANCI DİL PROBLEMLERİYLE İLGİLİ GÖRÜŞLERİ

4. soru “Gaziantep’teki ilkokul ve ortaokullardaki yabancı dil problemleri nelerdir?” şeklindedir ve problemleri belirleyecek sorudur. Bu soruya verilen cevaplarla beraber toplamda 25 tane problem belirlenmiştir. Bunlar en çok dile getirilenden en az dile getirilene doğru sırasıyla aşağıdaki gibidir:

- 1-İlgisizlik
- 2-Hazırbulunuşluk düzeyinin düşük olması
- 3-Telaffuz hataları
- 4-Anadile hâkim olmama
- 5-Kelime bilgisi eksikliği
- 6-Çalışma alışkanlığının olmaması
- 7-Cümle üretmede problem
- 8-Verimsiz çalışma
- 9-Türkçe ile İngilizceyi yanlış ilişkilendirme
- 10-Kitap okuma alışkanlığının olmayışı
- 11-Kendine güvenmeme
- 12-Sadece dışsal güdülenme
- 13- Gramer etkinlik ağırlıklı ders işleme
- 14-Öğretmenin güdülenememesi
- 15-Sınav odaklı öğretim
- 16-Öğretmenin donanımlı olmaması
- 17-Materyal eksikliği
- 18- Kalabalık sınıflar
- 19-Fiziki şartların elverişsizliği
- 20-Müfredatın ağır olması
- 21- Haftalık ders saatinin az olması
- 22- Öğretmen yetersizliği
- 23-Pratiğin az olması
- 24-Sosyo ekonomik durumun geride olması
- 25- Çocukların ticarete yönlendirilmesi

Bu problemler belirlendikten sonra yorumlamanın kolaylaşması için birbirinden farklı dört tema belirlenmiştir ve bu temalarla yukarıda saydığımız problemler eşleştirilmiştir. Bu temalar öğrenci kaynaklı problem, öğretmen kaynaklı problem, okul ve sistem kaynaklı problem ve aile kaynaklı problem olarak sıralanmaktadır. Aşağıda temalara göre problem sayıları gözükmektedir:

TABLO 2 Problem Kaynaklarına Göre Dağılım



Tablo 2’de de kaynaklarına göre problemler sıralanmıştır. İlk olarak tabloya göre, en fazla dileme sahip olan kısım öğrenci kısmıdır, toplamda öğrenci kaynaklı 12 tane sorun belirlenmiştir. Diğerlerine göre en yüksek orana sahiptir. Sonra arkasından okul ve sistem kaynaklı problemler gelmektedir. Toplamda 6 tane farklı okul ve sistem kaynaklı problem vardır. Son olarak da öğretmen kaynaklı problemler gelmektedir. O da toplamda 4 tanedir.

Bu tabloya göre yorum yapacak olursak öğretmen kaynaklı problemlerin az olması biraz görüşmenin sadece öğretmenle sınırlı kalmasındandır denilebilir, fakat öğretmenlerin rahatsız oldukları eğitim sisteminden değil de en fazla öğrenciden yakınmaları da objektif olduklarını Gaziantep’teki durumu ortaya koyduğunun belirtisidir.

Kaynaklarına göre problemler de aşağıdaki gibi sıralanmaktadır ve kodlarına göre numaralanmıştır:

Öğrenci Kaynaklı Problemler

- 1-İlgisizlik
- 2-Hazırbulunuşluk düzeyinin düşük olması
- 3-Telaffuz hataları
- 4-Anadile hâkim olmama
- 5-Kelime bilgisi eksikliği
- 6-Çalışma alışkanlığının olmaması
- 7-Cümle üretmede problem
- 8-Verimsiz çalışma
- 9-Türkçe ile İngilizceyi yanlış ilişkilendirme
- 10-Kitap okuma alışkanlığının olmayışı
- 11-Kendine güvenmeme
- 12-Sadece dışsal güdülenme

Öğretmen Kaynaklı Problemler

- 13- Gramer etkinlik ağırlıklı ders işleme
- 14-Öğretmenin güdülenememesi
- 15-Sınav odaklı öğretim
- 16-Öğretmenin donanımlı olmaması

Okul ve Sistem Kaynaklı Problemler

- 17-Materyal eksikliği
- 18- Kalabalık sınıflar
- 19-Fiziki şartların elverişsizliği
- 20-Müfredatın ağır olması
- 21- Haftalık ders saatinin az olması
- 22- Öğretmen yetersizliği
- 23-Pratiğin az olması

Aile Kaynaklı Problemler

- 24-Sosyo ekonomik durumun geride olması
- 25- Çocukların ticarete yönlendirilmesi

Tablo 3. 1-5 Yıldır Çalışan Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	YIL	SORU 4
Öğretmen 1	5	1,7,8,17,20,22,23
Öğretmen 2	1	1,11,13,19,21,23,24,25
Öğretmen 3	4	1,2,6,13,17,19,20,23 ,24,25
Öğretmen 4	1	8,9,13,15,23
Öğretmen 5	1	1,18,22
Öğretmen 6	4	19
Öğretmen 9	5	1,2,3,18,20,23
Öğretmen 11	2	1,2,19,24
Öğretmen 12	1	1,2,3, 10,18,20 ,23
Öğretmen 15	5	1,4
Öğretmen 17	1	1,20,23
Öğretmen 18	5	1,4,8
Öğretmen 20	1	6,9
Öğretmen 22	3	1,2,17,19
Öğretmen 23	2	1,20,23
Öğretmen 26	1	1,6 ,18,20
Öğretmen 27	3	1,2,18,19,20
Öğretmen 28	5	1,2,18,19,20

Tablo 3 1 ile 5 yıl arasında görev yapan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin 4. soruya verdikleri yanıtları içermektedir. Tabloya baktığımızda, en fazla dile getirilen problem, okul ve sistem kaynaklı 20 kodlu müfredatın ağır olması problemidir. İkinci olarak, en çok dile getirilen problem 23 kodlu okul ve sistem kaynaklı pratiğin az olması problemidir. Onu 19 kodlu okul ve sistem kaynaklı fiziki şartların elverişsizliği problemi izler. Son olarak da okul ve sistem kaynaklı 28 kodlu kalabalık sınıflar problemi gelmektedir. Genelde problemler okul ve sistem kaynaklı problemler etrafında yoğunlaşmaktadır. Tek fark öğrenci kaynaklı 1. Kodlu ilgisizlik problemi de çok dile getirilmektedir.

Problem okul ve sistem kaynaklı olanların etrafında dönmesi 1ie 5 yılları arasında çalışan öğretmenlerin daha farklı düşünce yapısı ve deneyimleri olduğunu gösterir. Görevine yeni başlamış bir öğretmen yıllardır öğretmenlik yapan bireye göre daha idealisttir, şartları olgun bekler, problemlerin oradan başladığını düşünür. Durum 6 ile 15 yılları arasında öğretmenlik yapan bireylerden farklıdır.

Tablo 4. 6-15 Yıldır Çalışan Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	YIL	SORU 4
Öğretmen 7	7	1 ,3,5,22
Öğretmen 8	11	1,2,3,10,18 ,20
Öğretmen 10	14	1,2,19,24
Öğretmen 13	14	13,14,18,23
Öğretmen 14	12	1,4,8
Öğretmen 16	7	1,2,3,18,20,23
Öğretmen 19	6	1 ,2,18,19,20
Öğretmen 21	13	1,11,13
Öğretmen 24	13	1,9
Öğretmen 25	12	12
Öğretmen 29	9	8,23
Öğretmen 30	13	14

Tablo 4'te 6 ile 15 yılları arasında çalışan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin 4. soruya verdikleri yanıtları içermektedir. Tabloya baktığımızda en fazla dile getirilen problem 1 kodlu öğrenci kaynaklı problem olan ilgisizliktir. Bunu 2 ve 18 Kodlu problemler olan hazırbulunuşluk düzeyinin düşük olması ve kalabalık sınıflardır. Bunlardan ilki öğrenci kaynaklı problem olup diğeri okul ve sistem kaynaklı problemdir. Son olarak da en çok dile getirilen problem 20. Koda sahip olan yine okul ve sistem kaynaklı problem olan müfredatın ağır olmasıdır.

Bu tabloya baktığımızda diyebiliriz ki 6 ile15 yılları arasında öğretmenlik yapan İngilizce öğretmenleri problemin kaynağını daha çok öğrenci merkezli olarak görmektedirler.

Tablo 5. Gaziantep Merkezinde Çalışan Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	BÖLGE	SORU 4
Öğretmen 1	Merkez	1,7,8,17,20,22,23
Öğretmen 3	Merkez	1,2,6,13,17,19,20,23 ,24,25
Öğretmen 6	Merkez	19
Öğretmen 7	Merkez	1 ,3,5,22
Öğretmen 8	Merkez	1,2,3,10,18 ,20
Öğretmen 9	Merkez	1,2,3,18,20,23
Öğretmen 10	Merkez	1,2,19,24
Öğretmen 11	Merkez	1,2,19,24
Öğretmen 12	Merkez	1,2,3, 10,18,20 ,23
Öğretmen 13	Merkez	13,14,18,23
Öğretmen 14	Merkez	1,4,8
Öğretmen 15	Merkez	1,4
Öğretmen 16	Merkez	1,2,3,18,20,23
Öğretmen 17	Merkez	1,20,23
Öğretmen 18	Merkez	1,4,8
Öğretmen 19	Merkez	1 ,2,18,19,20
Öğretmen 20	Merkez	6,9
Öğretmen 23	Merkez	1,20,23
Öğretmen 24	Merkez	1,9
Öğretmen 25	Merkez	12
Öğretmen 26	Merkez	1,6 ,18,20
Öğretmen 28	Merkez	1,2,18,19,20

Tablo 5'te merkezde görev yapan tüm öğretmenlerin görüşleri vardır. En çok dile getirilen problem 1. Koda sahip olan öğrenci merkezli problem olan ilgisizliktir. Sonra onu okul ve sistem kaynaklı problem olan 20 müfredatın ağır olması da fazla dile getirilenler izlemektedir Son olarak 2 kodlu yine öğrenci kaynaklı problem olan hazırbulunuşluk düzeyinin düşük olmasıdır ve 18 kodlu okul sistem kaynaklı problem olan kalabalık sınıflar takip etmektedir.

Bu tabloya göre ilginç veri merkezde öğrencilerin derse karşı daha ilgili olması beklenirken ilgisiz oldukları görülmüştür.

Tablo 6. Gaziantep Köylerinde Çalışan Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	BÖLGE	SORU 4
Öğretmen 2	Köy	1,11,13,19,21,23,24,25
Öğretmen 4	Köy	8,9,13,15,23
Öğretmen 5	Köy	1,18,22
Öğretmen 21	Köy	1,11,13
Öğretmen 22	Köy	1,2,17,19
Öğretmen 27	Köy	1,2,18,19,20
Öğretmen 29	Köy	8,23
Öğretmen 30	Köy	14

Tablo 6'da köyde çalışan tüm öğretmenlerin görüşleri bulunmaktadır. Görüşler çeşitli olup kaynaklarına baktığımızda en çok öğrenci kaynaklı problemler üzerinde durulmaktadır. Bunlar1. kodlu ilgisizlik,8. kodlu verimsiz çalışma ve 11. kodlu kendine güvenmemedir. Arkasından öğretmen kaynaklı olan sırayla 13. ve 14. kodlu gramer etkinlik ağırlıklı ders işleme ve öğretmenin güdülenememesidir. Son olarak da öğretmenler okul ve sistem kaynaklı problem olan pratiğin az olmasına değinmişlerdir.

Pratiğin az olması problemi kaynak olarak öğrenci, öğretmen ve okul ve sistem grubundan hepsiyle alakalıdır. Fakat öğretmenler bunu dile getirirken her şeyin sistemle başladığını sistem ne istiyorsa o yapıldığı için pratiğin az olmasında en büyük rolün sisteme ait olduğunu savundular. Böyle dile getirilmeseydi öğrenci kaynaklı problem diye değinilebilirdi.

Tablo 7. Bayan Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	CİNSİYET	SORU 4
Öğretmen 1	K	1,7,8,17,20,22,23
Öğretmen 2	K	1,11,13,19,21,23,24,25
Öğretmen 3	K	1,2,6,13,17,19,20,23 ,24,25
Öğretmen 4	K	8,9,13,15,23
Öğretmen 7	K	1 ,3,5,22
Öğretmen 8	K	1,2,3,10,18 ,20
Öğretmen 9	K	1,2,3,18,20,23
Öğretmen 12	K	1,2,3, 10,18,20 ,23
Öğretmen 13	K	13,14,18,23
Öğretmen 15	K	1,4
Öğretmen 16	K	1,2,3,18,20,23
Öğretmen 17	K	1,20,23
Öğretmen 21	K	1,11,13
Öğretmen 22	K	1,2,17,19
Öğretmen 24	K	1,9
Öğretmen 26	K	1,6 ,18,20
Öğretmen 27	K	1,2,18,19,20
Öğretmen 29	K	8,23
Öğretmen 30	K	14

Tablo 7 Gaziantep’te çalışan araştırmaya katılmış tüm bayan İngilizce öğretmenlerin görüşlerini içermektedir. En fazla dile getirilen problem yine 1 kodlu, öğrenci kaynaklı problem olan ilgisizliktir. Diğer dile getirilen problem hazırbulunuşluk düzeyinin düşük olmasıdır. Bu 2 kodlu öğrenci kaynaklı problemidir. Bir diğer problem de 23 kodlu okul ve sistem kaynaklı pratiğin az olmasıdır.

Diğer dikkati çeken problem 20 kodlu okul ve sistem kaynaklı problem olan müfredatın ağır olmasıdır. Bu da zaten araştırma boyunca çok dile getirilen problemler arasındadır.

En çok dile getirilen bir diğer problem 19. Koda sahip olan okul ve sistem kaynaklı problem olan fiziki şartların elverişsizliğidir.

Tablo 8. Erkek Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	CİNSİYET	BÖLGE	SORU 4
Öğretmen 6	E	Merkez	19
Öğretmen 11	E	Merkez	1,2,19,24
Öğretmen 14	E	Merkez	1,4,8
Öğretmen 18	E	Merkez	1,4,8
Öğretmen 19	E	Merkez	1 ,2,18,19,20
Öğretmen 20	E	Merkez	6,9
Öğretmen 23	E	Merkez	1,20,23
Öğretmen 25	E	Merkez	12
Öğretmen 28	E	Merkez	1,2,18,19,20

Tablo 8 ’de Gaziantep’te çalışan araştırmaya katılmış tüm erkek İngilizce öğretmenlerin görüşleri yer almaktadır. Bu tabloda da en çok 1.kodlu öğrenci kaynaklı problem olan ilgisizlik dile getirilmiştir. En çok dile getirilen bir diğer problem 19. Koda sahip olan okul ve sistem kaynaklı problem olan fiziki şartların elverişsizliğidir.

Genel olarak da bakıldığında erkek öğretmenlerin bayan öğretmenlerden farklı olarak dile fazla dile getirdiği bir problem de yoktur. Bu bize cinsiyet ayrımının sonuç üzerinde pek fark yaratmadığını göstermektedir.

Tablo 9. 1-5 yıldır Merkezde Çalışan Bayan Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	CİNSİYET	BÖLGE	YIL	SORU 4
Öğretmen 1	K	Merkez	5	1,7,8,17,20,22,23
Öğretmen 3	K	Merkez	4	1,2,6,13,17,19,20,23 ,24,25
Öğretmen 9	K	Merkez	5	1,2,3,18,20,23
Öğretmen 12	K	Merkez	1	1,2,3, 10,18,20 ,23
Öğretmen 14	K	Merkez	5	1,4
Öğretmen 17	K	Merkez	1	1,20,23
Öğretmen 26	K	Merkez	1	1,6 ,18,20

Tablo 9.'da Gaziantep'te merkezde 1 ile 5 yılları arasında çalışan bayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin görüşleri yer almaktadır. Aynı şekilde, en çok dile getirilen problem 1. koda sahip olan öğrenci kaynaklı ilgisizliktir. Diğer en çok dile getirilen, 20. koda sahip olan okul ve sitem kaynaklı problem müfredatın ağır olmasıdır.

Tablo 10. 1-5 yıldır Merkezde Çalışan Erkek Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	CİNSİYET	BÖLGE	YIL	SORU 4
Öğretmen 6	E	Merkez	4	19
Öğretmen 11	E	Merkez	2	1,2,19,24
Öğretmen 18	E	Merkez	5	1,4,8
Öğretmen 20	E	Merkez	1	6,9
Öğretmen 23	E	Merkez	2	1,20,23
Öğretmen 28	E	Merkez	5	1,2,18,19,20

Tablo 10 Gaziantep'te merkezde 1 ile 5 yılları arasında çalışan erkek İngilizce öğretmenlerinin görüşleri yer almaktadır. En çok dile getirilen problemler sırasıyla ilgisizlik, fiziki şartların elverişsizliği, anadile hâkim olamama ve verimsiz çalışmadır. İlgisizlik ve fiziki şartların elverişsizliği bize merkezde 1 ile 5 yılları arasında merkezde öğretmenlik yapan bayan ve erkek İngilizce öğretmenlerinin görüşlerinin pek farklı olmadığını gösterir.

Tablo 11. 1-5 yıldır Köyde Çalışan Bayan Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	CİNSİYET	BÖLGE	YIL	SORU 4
Öğretmen 2	K	Köy	1	1,11,13,19,21,23,24,25
Öğretmen 4	K	Köy	1	8,9,13,15,23
Öğretmen 22	K	Köy	3	1,2,17,19
Öğretmen 27	K	Köy	3	1,2,18,19,20

Tablo 11'de Gaziantep'te 1 ile 5 yılları arasında köyde görev yapan bayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin görüşleri yer almaktadır. En çok dile getirilen problemler s ilgisizlik, gramer etkinlik ağırlıklı ders işleme, fiziki şartların elverişsizliği ve pratiğin az olmasıdır.

Tablo 12. 1-5 yıldır Köyde Çalışan Erkek Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	CİNSİYET	BÖLGE	OKUL	SORU 4
Öğretmen 6	E	Köy	1	1,18,22

Tablo 3.12'de Gaziantep'te köyde 1 ile 5 yılları arasında çalışan araştırmaya katılan öğretmenin görüşleri yer almaktadır. Dile getirilen problemler sırasıyla ilgisizlik, kalabalık sınıflar ve öğretmen yetersizliğidir. Tablo 11'de olduğu gibi ilgisizlik bir problem olarak gözükmektedir. Bir de fazla dile getirilmeyen fakat önemli bir problem olan öğretmen yetersizliğinin de köyde yaşanıyor olması da beklenen bir durumdur.

Tablo 13. 5-15 yıldır merkezde çalışan erkek öğretmen görüşleri

İSİM	CİNSİYET	BÖLGE	YIL	SORU 4
Öğretmen 14	E	Merkez	12	1,4,8
Öğretmen 19	E	Merkez	6	1,2,18,19,20
Öğretmen 25	E	Merkez	12	12

Tablo 13'de Gaziantep'te merkezde 6-15 yıl arasında çalışan erkek İngilizce öğretmenlerinin görüşleri yer almaktadır. İlgisizlik en çok dile getirilen problemdir. Diğerleri sırasıyla anadile hâkim olamama, çalışma alışkanlığının olmaması, hazırbulunuşluk düzeyinin düşük olması, kalabalık sınıflar, fiziki şartların elverişsizliği, müfredatın ağır olması ve sadece dışsal güdülenmedir.

Tablo 14. 6-15 yıldır Köyde Çalışan Bayan Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	CİNSİYET	BÖLGE	YIL	SORU 4
Öğretmen 21	K	Köy	13	1,11,13
Öğretmen 29	K	Köy	9	8,23
Öğretmen 30	K	Köy	13	14

Tablo 14'te Gaziantep'te 6 ile 15 yılları arasında köyde çalışan bayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin görüşü yer almaktadır. Sırayla ilgisizlik, kendine güvenmeme ve gramer etkinlik ağırlıklı ders işleme, verimsiz çalışma ve pratiğin az olması dile getirilen problemlerdir.

Tablo 15. 6-15 yıldır Merkezde Çalışan Bayan Öğretmen Görüşleri

İSİM	CİNSİYET	BÖLGE	YIL	SORU 4
Öğretmen 7	K	Merkez	7	1,3,5,22
Öğretmen 8	K	Merkez	11	1,2,3,10,18,20
Öğretmen 13	K	Merkez	14	13,14,18,23
Öğretmen 16	K	Merkez	7	1,2,3,18,20,23
Öğretmen 24	K	Merkez	13	1,9

Tablo 15'te Gaziantep'te merkezde 6-15 yıldır çalışan bayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin görüşleri yer almaktadır. En çok dile getirilen problem ilgisizlik, sonra sırayla kalabalık sınıflar ve telaffuz hatalarıdır. Görüldüğü gibi köydeki bayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin ve merkezdeki bayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin belirli farklılık yoktur. Ortak problem ilgisizliktir.

SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

Bu bölümde araştırmanın sonucu ve öneriler üzerinde durulacaktır.

SONUÇ

Araştırma, problemleri ortaya koymada iki soru üzerinde yoğunlaşmıştır. İlk olarak 3. Soru ülkenin yabancı dil eğitiminin nasıl olduğuyla alakalıdır. Sonucun olumsuz olması ne kadar ileride olmadığımızın kanıtı olarak kötü bir durumdur. Fakat öğretmenlerin tutarlı cevap vermeleri de iyi bir durum ifade eder.

Gaziantep'teki yabancı dil problemlerini ortaya çıkaracak olan 4. Soruya verilen cevaplar araştırmanın asıl konusunu oluşturmuştur. Bunlar üzerinde yorum yapacak olursak, en fazla dile getirilen problem öğrenci kaynaklı problem olan ilgisizliktir. Bu problem öğrenci kaynaklı olarak dile getirilmiştir, fakat şöyle bir düşünüldüğünde problemin kaynağı aile kaynaklıdır. Aile kaynaklı problem olan çocukların ticarete yönlendirilmesi çocuğun değil İngilizce 'ye olan ilgisini okula olan ilgisini düşürmektedir. Böylece ortaya amaçsızca eğitim gören öğrenci potansiyeli ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bu da hazırbulunuşluk düzeyinin düşük olması, verimsiz çalışma, çalışma alışkanlığının olmaması gibi diğer öğrenci kaynaklı problemleri de ortaya çıkarmaktadır.

Bir başka dile getirilen durum öğretmen kaynaklı problem olan gramer etkinlik ağırlıklı ders işlemedir. Bu da öğretmen kaynaklı problem olarak görülmektedir. Fakat öğretmenlerin gramer etkinlik ağırlıklı ders işlemleri sınav odaklı bir sistem olmasıyla alakalıdır dolayısıyla bunun asıl kaynağı sistemdir.

Öğretmenlerin en çok üzerinde durdukları diğer bir konu haftalık ders saatinin az olmasıdır ve buna yabancı dil öğretim yaşının düşmesi gerektiği düşüncesindedirler. Bu konuda da hem şanslı hem de şansız olduklarını kabul etmektedirler. Çünkü 4+4+4 sistemiyle 4. ve 5. sınıfların haftalık ders saatleri düşecek fakat yabancı dil eğitimi görmeye öğrenciler 2. Sınıftan itibaren başlayacaklardır.

Yine müfredatın ağır olması çok dile getirilen bir problemdir. Hem konu yoğunluğu hem de öğrenci seviyesine uygunsuzluğu üzerinde durulmaktadır. Haftalık ders saati bu müfredatı yetiştirebilecek kadar fazla değildir ve her öğrenci aynı seviyede olmadığı için konular bazı bölgedeki öğrenciler konulara uzak kalmaktadır. Bu konudan uzak kalma durumunu 27 numaralı öğretmen ifade etmiştir. Gaziantep çok göç alan bir ilimizdir ve Şanlıurfa'dan gelen öğrenci sayısı oldukça fazladır. Öğretmenimiz bu öğrencilerin yoğunlukta olduğu bir okulda çalışmaktadır. Öğretmenimiz 7. Sınıftaki öğrencilerin burçlar hakkında bilgisi olmadığını bulmuş ve konuyu ifade etmekte oldukça zorlanmıştır.

Az önce de söylediğimiz gibi Gaziantep çok göç alan bir ilimizdir. İşçi potansiyeli oldukça yüksek, sanayisi en çok gelişen dünyadaki nadir şehirlere dendir. Sanayinin gelişmesi insanların paraya olan bakış açılarını değiştirmiş kısa kolay yoldan para kazanma fikri onlar için ideal bir durum olmuştur. Aileler de çocuklarını ticarete yönlendirerek bunu önemsediklerini belli etmektedirler. Fakat bu durum okula olan ilgiyi azaltmaktadır.

Öte yandan söz konusu materyal eksikliği ile ilgili konuşacak olursak, materyallerle beraber öğrenci bununla beraber dilin iletişiminde kullanım alanlarını tanır, dinleme ve anlama becerisi edinir. Böylelikle bu öğrencinin diğer becerilerinin yanında konuşma becerisinin gelişmesini de etkileyecek, öğrenci günlük konuşma ortamına ve hızına, tümce yapılarına alışabilecek ve ayrıca sözcük dağarcığını da zenginleştirebilecektir. Onun için

bunlara derslerde mutlaka yer verilmez. Fakat bunun eksikliği yıllardan beri var olan bir durumdur pek ilerleme kaydedilememiştir. Bu da öğretmenlerin yakındığı problemler arsındadır.

Diğer bir üzerinde durulması gereken problem telaffuz hatalarıdır. Telaffuz hataları dinleme ve okuma etkinliklerinin az olmasıyla alakalıdır her dil öğrencisinde bu problemle karşı karşıya gelinir, fakat öğretmenlerimiz Gaziantep ilindeki öğrencilerin çok farklı bir süreç yaşadıklarını belirtmektedir. Çünkü Gaziantep ağzının öğrencilerin kelimeleri söylemelerini zorlaştırmaktadır.

Cümle üretmede problem ülkemizde olduğu gibi Gaziantep'te de öğretmenlerin çok yakındığı bir problemdir. İngilizce ile Türkçeyi yanlış ilişkilendirmeden dolayı cümle üretmede çok fazla sorun yaşanmaktadır.

Öğrenci anadilindeki uygulamalar dışına çıkınca öğrenim zorlaşabilir. Bu İngilizce ve Türkçe arasında ilişki kuramama olarak karşımıza çıkar. Bu durumu bir öğretmenimiz şöyle örnekleştirmektedir. "Türkçede üçüncü tekil kişi için kullanılan "o" sözcüğünün karşıtı İngilizcede dişi, erkek ve yansız olarak üç ayrı sözcükle belirtilir. Türkçe konuşurken üçüncü tekil kişiyi belirten adıda herhangi bir cins ayırımı yapmaya alışkın olmayan bir öğrenci, İngilizce öğrenirken bu cins ayırımı nedeniyle üçüncü tekil kişi adılarını yanlış biçimde kullanabilmektedir. Başka bir örnek vermek gerekirse, "Üç çocuk geldi." tuncesinde olduğu gibi Türkçede adlar sayılarla birlikte kullandığında çoğul eki almaz. Öğrenci İngilizce kurduğu tuncelerde de aynı uygulama eğilimini göstermektedir. Anadiline dayalı olarak yapılan uygulamalar sonucu ortaya çıkan yanlışların öğrenci tarafından düzeltilmesi de "oldukça uzun bir zaman almaktadır. Bu problemler de dediğimiz gibi hem İngilizce ve Türkçe arasında yanlış ilişki kurmaktan hem de anadile hakim olunamamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.

Kısaca belirtilen tüm problemler görüldüğü gibi birbiriyle sıkı sıkıya bağlantılıdır. Çözüm ilgili olanların hepsinin ortak çabasıyla ortadan kalkacaktır.

ÖNERİLER

Tüm bu problemlerle alakalı öğretmenlerimizin önerileri şunlardır.

İlk olarak hataların yapılmasıyla ilgili bir öğretmenimiz, gerçek hayatta dil kullanılmadığı sürece öğrenilemeyeceğini, öğrencilerin yabancı dil kullanabilecekleri ortamlarda bulunması gerektiği yani yurt dışı tecrübelerinin olmasını ifade etmekte ve sistemin bu imkanı yaratması gerektiğini savunmaktadır.

Ders öğretim programının ağır olmasıyla ilgili, okutulan kitapların değişmesi ve daha renkli daha fazla eğlenceli ve ilgi çekici etkinliklerin yer aldığı bir kitap kullanılmasının gerektiği söylenmektedir. Konuların ağır olmasıyla ilgili de sıkıcı ve uzun okuma parçalarından sıyrılması gerektiği ifade edilmektedir.

Öğretmenlere öğrencilerle daha fazla ilgilenmelerini sağlaması açısından sınıfların mevcudunun azaltılması gerekmektedir ve dil öğretimi için uygun laboratuvarların oluşturulması gerekmektedir.

Materyal eksikliğinin de çözülmesi gerekmektedir, ilgili makamlar bu konuya ilgili yapacakları şeyler üzerinde yoğunlaşmalıdırlar.

İlgisizlik problemi de ailelere fikirleri değiştirecek nitelikte farkındalık ve ihtiyaç olarak hissettirecek seminerlerle aşılabılır denilmektedir. Ayrıca velilerle görüşmelerin artırılması gerekmektedir. Bu aileye çocuklarının değerli olduklarını hissettirecektir.

Diğer bir çözüm önerisi de sınav odaklı eğitimden uzaklaşmakla mümkün olacaktı. Bu tür sınavların öğrenci başarısını belirlememesi gerektiği savunulmaktadır. Hatta bir öğretmenimiz konuşmaya ve yazmaya yönelik artırılması mümkünse ülkemizde ve yurt dışında dil kampları oluşturulup bunlardan yararlanılması gerektiğini savunmaktadır.

Diğer bir çözüm önerimiz de yabancı dil öğretiminin erken yaşlarda başlaması gerektiğiyle ilgilidir.

Müfredatın öğrenci seviyesinin ağır olmasıyla alakalı da müfredatta yerleşmeye gidilmesi, öğrenciye görelilik ve yakından uzağa ilkelerinin daha fazla benimsenmesi gerektiği ifade edilmektedir.

İlgisizlikle ilgili yine öğrencilere İngilizce öğrenmenin gerekleri idrak ettirilmelidir.

Başka bir öneri de materyal geliştirmeyle alakalı MEB öğretim yöntemleri, materyal kullanımı ve geliştirme eğitimlerinin verilmesidir. Yaygın eğitim yöntemlerinin kullanılması da hızlı bir gelişim sağlayacaktır.

Haftalık ders saatiyle alakalı olarak bunların artırılması veya müfredatın hafifletilmesi gerektiği ifade ediliyor.

Kitaplarla ilgili, yabancı kaynaklı kitapların tercih edilmesi gerektiği de ifade ediliyor. O kaynakların daha sağlıklı ve kısa zamanda başarılı oldukları ifade ediliyor.

Anadile hâkimiyet konusunda Türkçe ve İngilizce öğretmenlerinin koordineli bir biçimde çalışması gerektiği ifade edilmektedir.

Dil öğrenme yaşının düşürülmesi ve bu konudaki çalışmaların araştırılması gerektiği ifade ediliyor.

Son olarak, İngilizceye olan ilginin aileyle olan kısmının devletin çözebileceği bir durum olarak ifade ediliyor, vatandaşların bunun gerekliliğini anlayabilmesi için devletin çalışması gerektiği ifade ediliyor.

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EKLER

EK 1. EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ EĞİTİM PROGRAMLARI VE ÖĞRETİM ANABİLİMDALI TEZSİZ YÜKSEK LİSANS BİTİRME PROJESİ SORULARI

- 1-Adınız soyadınız? Hangi okulda çalışıyorsunuz?
- 2-Kaç yıldır öğretmenlik yapıyorsunuz? Kaç yıldan beri Gaziantep’te çalışıyorsunuz?
- 3-Gaziantep’te ilköğretimde yabancı dil öğretimini nasıl görüyorsunuz?
- 4-İlköğretim öğrencilerine yabancı dil öğretiminde hangi sorunlarla karşılaşıyorsunuz?
- 5-Genel olarak problemleri ortadan kaldırmada önerileriniz nelerdir?

Sinem KAHRAMAN
EPÖ Tezsiz Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

The Intrusive Sounds in the Connected Speech

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Abstract

In our modern and globally developing age, accurate and fluent verbal communication in English is inevitable for everybody. The use of technologically developing electronic devices, such as computer, Face book, twitter, and Skype has predominantly entailed educated people to learn English at the desired level accepted by all over the world. However, many people whose mother tongues are agglutinating languages, because of the insufficient and baseless educational systems that are based on the Grammar-Translation method put into practice in the developing countries' secondary and high schools, still have difficulty to learn English.

Every English teacher righteously justifies that the Grammar-Translation method is ineffective to teach English. On the other hand, most of the native and non-native ELT teachers find skill-based and task-based teaching methods are more useful and interactive than the Grammar-translation one in teaching English. Teaching pronunciation and articulation in which intrusive sounds play an important role is considered to improve the listening skill for learners.

Students who do not know how the intrusive sounds work and who have no experience in practicing on that have mostly difficulty in understanding what they hear, even if they watch TV in English such as BBC, CNN, and other international media organs.

The Turkish teachers who teach English in non-English speaking environment, especially in Turkey, often advise that the students watch TV, and listen to the radio in English as much as they can so that they can improve their understanding (listening) ability. No matter how much, and how long a student watches TV and listens to the radio in English to improve his or her English listening ability, practicing by students or learners without being informed in the presence of the intrusive sounds is absolutely observed to be less easily digestible than it is advised by those teachers.

After the function of the intrusive sounds being learnt by Turkish students and when they understand how those sounds work in the pronunciation and articulation, their listening abilities will improve quicker than expected.

Keywords. Intrusive sounds, pronunciation, articulation, Turkish language, Turkish learners, language families, language teaching.

Introduction

In our modern and globally developing age, accurate and fluent verbal communication in English is inevitable for everybody. The use of technologically developing electronic devices, such as computer, Face book, twitter, and Skype has predominantly entailed educated people to learn English at the desired level accepted by all over the world. However, many people whose mother tongues are agglutinating languages, because of the ineffective educational systems based on the Grammar-Translation method put into practice in the developing countries' secondary and high schools, still have difficulty to learn English.(especially in Turkey)

Every English teacher righteously justifies that the Grammar-Translation method is ineffective to teach English. On the other hand, most of the native and non-native ELT teachers find skill-based and task-based teaching methods are more useful and interactive than the Grammar-translation one in teaching English. Teaching pronunciation and articulation, as important tools of both listening and speaking abilities, in which intrusive sounds play a significant role is considered to improve the listening skill for learners.

Students who do not know how the intrusive sounds work and who have no experience in practicing on that have mostly difficulty in understanding what they hear, even if they watch TV in English such as BBC, CNN, and other international media organs.

The Turkish teachers who teach English in non-English speaking environment, especially in Turkey, often advise that the students watch TV, and listen to the radio in English as much as they can so that they can improve their understanding (listening) ability. No matter how much, and how long a student watches TV and listens to the radio in English to improve his or her English listening ability, practicing by students or learners without being informed about the presence of the intrusive sounds is absolutely observed to be less easily digestible than it is advised by those teachers.

Supported by well-acquired pronunciation units, listening can be the most accelerating tool for learners to learn speaking ability. Qualified input gives birth to be desired and accepted output in English learning.

The sound changes in the articulation and pronunciation of both the function and content words obscure the familiarity of the sounds of the words that learners encounter before. Especially, the weak forms in the function words cause to be misunderstood in a listening period. Two or three words in connected speech are perceived as if they were one word.

Function words carry only grammatical meaning, such as: prepositions, auxiliaries, articles, quantifiers, and pronouns. However: content words carry real meaning such as: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs.

1) What are the several major problematic areas for learners of English:

The several major problematic areas are as important as the teaching methods of English language.

These are:

1.1)weakening - words such as prepositions, articles & auxiliary verbs are in their unstressed form, they are softer & shorter. The schwa sound **ə** (the most common) & the sounds **ɪ** & **ʊ** are reduced forms.

Here are the weak forms of 'him', 'she', 'does', 'some', 'them', 'was', 'that'.

/ɪm/ /ʃɪ/ /dəz/ /səm/ /ðəm/ /wəz/ /ðət/

1.2) Catenation/linking - a consonant at the end of one word is carried over to connect with a vowel at the beginning of the next word. This causes learners to misinterpret word boundaries. The two words 'he's in' are linked with the 's' & the 'i' - learners can hear this as one word.

/hi:zɪn/

The same linkage with 'an apple'

/ənæpl/

1.3) Intrusion - an extra sound is introduced to lubricate the flow of one vowel to another. The utterance 'we are leaving' needs the /j/ sound between the 'we' & the 'are'. Other common intrusive sounds are the /r/ & /w/

/wi:jəli:vɪŋ/

The /w/ sound is needed between 'go' & 'off'.

/gəʊwɒf/

1.4) Elision - a sound is missed out e.g. for 'correct' -

/krekt/

The /t/ sound is dropped in 'next door'.

/neksdɔ:/

1.5) Assimilation - a sound changes because it is affected by the sound that follows it e.g. for 'sandwich' & 'light blue' -

/sæmwɪdʒ/ /laɪtblu:/

As with all areas of phonology it is a good idea to introduce these gradually. I would introduce them in the order given above. This is based on frequency & the amount of interference they cause.

Any listening activity can be exploited for a focus on these areas. After the listening skills development, focus on a short extract with the script & ask the stds to find examples of one or two of the features.

Look at the following & decide which of the features above are present. (the sound of English, Hudson,J)

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| a. go away | g. waste paper |
| b. acts | h. ten pounds |
| c. three onions | i. bright colour |
| d. scripts | j. I am |
| e. quite good | k. go away |
| | l. two hours |

2.0) Why do Turkish learners have difficulty in understanding, pronouncing, and articulating those sounds in both listening and speaking competence?

2.1) Being a member of Ural-Altaic Language family.

Turkish language is a member of the Ural-Altaic language family. However, English language is a member of The Hindu-European language family. The most important difference between those languages is that Turkish language is an agglutinating language like other languages such as Japanese and Korean.

The stem of the verb in those languages does not change in any form of sentence structure, e.g .positive ,negative, question, and negative-question forms nor in any tense grammatically, such as, the present simple, the present continuous, the simple future, and the past tenses. These differences between two languages, Turkish and English, make English learning difficult in terms of Turkish learners. Turkish language is mostly pronounced as written. So, Turkish learners have trouble with the sounds in which remarkable variations are evident in English languages, such as “th”, diphthongs, intrusive, assimilation, and so on. English is a member of The Inflectional languages.

In these languages, word stems show variation while lexicalising new word, and the word stem becomes unrecognizable. The particles can take place in the word as prefix, infix, and suffix. The main voices in the word stem remain the same while articulating a new sound.

(Hindu-European languages take place in this language family.) (Ceritoglu,M)

2.2) why do Turkish teachers who teach English not give importance to listening and especially pronunciation, articulation in speaking English in the lessons?

The Grammar-Translation method has been predominantly used to teach English at the state secondary, and high schools. The students who got sufficient grades from the English grammar lessons are thought to be good at every skill of English without taking any skill lessons during their education in English. However, in the privately-owned secondary and high schools, English lessons with all skills are considered to be as important as mathematics and science lessons are.

In spite of all efforts, the majority of the students who graduated from the privately-owned schools prefer to go to the U.K. or the U.S.A to improve their English in such a way as to communicate with foreign people and to find a good job either before university or after university graduation. The minority of the teachers who teach English at the state secondary and high schools gives more importance to pronunciation lessons, but they face the limited curriculum of English lesson. Those teachers are ground as wheat between the insufficient hours of lessons and the limited curriculum suggested by the ministry of National education.

The students who take English lessons can be divided into three categories at those schools. The students in the first category aim only to pass English lessons, and those in the second category aim to find a good job when they graduate from their schools by participating any foreign language courses, which will last only two or three months, and those in the third category, who are a minority among the others, expect to communicate with foreign people and want to have a master or phd programmes. Because of that, they give importance to pronunciation and articulation of English so that they can keep track of education given in foreign countries, TheU.K and the U.S.A coming ahead.

3.0) Why do the majority of Turkish learners have difficulty in learning English at the desired level, such as upper-intermediate, and advanced levels?

3.1) Can Turkish learners improve their listening competence only by listening?

They have problems with the English sounds they hear from English-speaking news Agencies, such as BBC, CNN, and others. The main reason why they have problems with those sounds is because they have no additional pronunciation lessons in which the voiced and unvoiced of “th” sounds, the diphthongs, and raising and falling intonation, pitches, catenation, intrusion, assimilations are mainly taught to follow the stream of speech. No matter how much they listen to the English-speaking news agencies, it is not possible for them to improve their listening competence without being learnt the functions of those linguistic peculiarities in English.

3.2) Is Turkish learner’s larynx suitable to pronounce and articulate all sound pronounced in English language?

The articulation and the pronunciation of the voiced and the unvoiced “th” sounds are initially difficult for Turkish learners because no such sounds are available in the agglutinating languages, that is, in Turkish. Secondly, the diphthongs also create another problem for Turkish learners because monothongs are predominantly used in the articulation. Special interest showed by the learners is the unique key to those pronunciation problems which are initially thought not to overcome easily. English language which is learnt in non-English speaking environment, that is, in Turkey is thought to be too difficult for Turkish learners, who are at the state secondary and high school, to learn at any time, and the majority of the learners think that English is the most difficult language that cannot be learnt because their larynxes are unsuitable for either learning or pronouncing. However, Turkish learners’ larynxes are suitable to articulate and pronounce the sounds of every language spoken all over the world. The main issue derives from the fact that they do not dedicate enough time to study English at the RP level.

When they go to the U.K. to improve their English after having intermediate level, they notice that they can articulate and pronounce the sounds of English easily without having difficulty with their larynxes. This proves that, to a certain extent, Turkish learners who are willing to learn how to be able to overcome the issue of articulation.

4.0) Are additional pronunciation and articulation training necessary for Turkish learners with listening and speaking lessons at schools in Turkey?

Absolutely it is. Owing to the remarkable differences between English and Turkish in terms of articulation, pronunciation, and language families that they have, the pronunciation and articulation of English sounds should be taught at the elementary level because it is extremely difficult to correct the wrong articulation and pronunciation at the upper levels.

All the students are Turkish, and they do not know any other foreign language. They have 30 lesson hours of English weekly. 8 of the 30 hours is speaking and listening at the pre-intermediate level. However, no pronunciation lesson is evident in the weekly schedule to support both listening and speaking lessons. The students generally have difficulty in understanding the connected speech when they are exposed to listening.

I selected six students from different classrooms at the pre-intermediate level. I divided them into two groups. The three students in the first group were said to listen to the news from BBC, CNN, and other English broadcasting channels in an hour period every day for two months. They were checked every three days, and I wanted them to record what they listened regularly from the English broadcasting channels.

The three students in the second group were exposed to weak forms of the sounds three hours in the first week. The second week, the catenation /linking were given to them so that they could understand whether the sound or sounds were one word or two words or a combination of a few sounds of the words. The following week, the intrusion in which /w/, /J/, /r/ sounds are , and the fourth week, the elision, and the last week, assimilation are given to the students with the examples of the sounds in the connected speech.

The rest of the three weeks, they were let to listen to the English speaking channels after those training.

As a conclusion, the students in the second group have been observed to be much better than those in the first group. This shows that English is a confusing language to pronounce. Its 19 vowel and 25 consonant sounds, joining rules, weak forms, stress and intonation all present challenges. Perhaps the most confusing aspect of all is the way written English can appear so different to its spoken form.

In particular the 5-week- training course has made them gain, to a certain extent;

*How to pronounce every vowel and consonant sounds of English from IPA chart.

* The rules of joining and sound selection in the intrusive sounds.

*Accurate use of intonation patterns and stress.

4.1) The function of “r” sound is important in British English pronunciation. “R”, “W”, “J” sounds play important roles in intrusive sounds in connecting the sounds one another as if they were one word in English

pronunciation. In addition to this function of “r” sound, it is not pronounced as “R” in final sound of a word. Such as; “beer or wine” (R) sound as final consonant is not pronounced by itself. However, in the connected speech, (r) is pronounced to connect the sound from “ bee-rand-wine”.

Another example for (R) sound in the connected speech; [**I saw a film**], (R) sound as intrusive sound is pronounced to connect the sounds in the speech. / **aɪ s) : r a film** /

4.2) Some examples for the intrusive sounds, [R, J, W] in the connected speech. In some sound connection [(?) glottal stop] is produced. (the sound of English, Hudson,J)

Go out the back way	/ gəʊ?aʊt /	(?)
The law isn't fair.	/ lɔ :rɪ zənt/	(r)
We own a few.	/ wi:jəʊn/	(j)
Yes, you are.	/ ju:wɑ : /	(w)
I study drama and music.	/ drɑ :mə?ænd/	(?)
I am interested.	/ aɪ ?æm/	(?)
My mother is over there.	/ 'mʌðəɪ z (slower, more careful speech)	
My father isn't in.	/ fɑ :ðərɪ zənt /	(r)

5.0) Catenation:

Catenation is as important as intrusive sounds: In order to emphasise the function of catenation, we can see a few examples;

- 1) Wha ta lo tof nonsense. (what a lot of nonsense.)
- 2) I tɪsn ta tall bad. (It isn't at all bad.)
- 3) I fe llin lo veon holiday. (I fell in love on holiday)
- 4) Ca nɪ ta kea napple. (Can I take an apple.)
- 5) Her - ban - kaccoun - ti - sin - the red. (Her bank account is in the red.)
- 6) It - sa - bi - to - fa - joke. (it is a bit of joke.)

6.0) the Sound changing in connected speech:

In spoken English we aim to join words together to create smooth .There are different ways words and sounds can join as follows;

6.1) consonant + consonant joining

When 2 identical sounds appear next to each other, we make one longer sound:

Ball_lunch. I wish_Sharon well.

6.2) consonant +consonant assimilation

Some consonant sounds can join together to form a different sounds (assimilate).

Most commonly this happens to /t/,d/ & /n/:

didn't_you t+j= **tS**
 Anne_Ball n+b= **m**
 That_man t+m=**P**

6.3) consonant+ vowel joining

Final consonants move to the next syllable if the next syllable starts with a vowel:

It _isn't_ always_ easy.= / I tɪ zə n to: weɪ zi: zi/
 Dan _and_ Anne_ aren't_in. / dæ nə næ nɑ :n tɪn/

6.4) vowel+vowel joining

If one word ends with a vowel and the next begins with a vowel, we often join the words with one of /j/ /w/ or /r/ :

You _offer (you **w** offer)
 We _entered (we **j** entered)
 China _expanded (china **r** expanded)

6.5) / R / only one sound as (R) :

* / R / at the end of a word : silent.

* /R / before a consonant : silent.

* /R/ before vowel /R/ is pronounced.

Their / car / worked / for / four / years / before

Breaking= breaking [(R) before vowel is pronounced].

Cu-r-r-y = y= i (i) is vowel so,(R) is pronounced. (the sound of English)

The table which has shown the students' success:

According to the research; 75 students, 38 of whom are girls, have been observed in the oral exam during two-week period in terms of:

- Weakening
- Catenation
- Intrusion
- Elision
- Assimilation

A) The male students from East-part of Turkey. (15 students)

B) The male students from West-part of Turkey.(22 students)

C) The female students from East-part of Turkey (18 students)

D) The female students from West-part of Turkey.(20 students)

	Weakening	Catenation	Intrusion	Elision	Assimilation	Total
A	14	13	14	14	13	68
B	16	15	17	15	15	78
C	16	14	15	16	15	76
D	17	16	18	16	16	83

Each section has 20 pts. : Proficiency grade (Total) is 60 pts.

Oral examination results : (A) got 68 pts out of 100 pts.

(B) got 78 pts out of 100 pts.

(C) got 76 pts out of 100 pts.

(D) got 83 pts out of 100 pts.

Conclusion

English teaching in Turkey at the state secondary and high schools in terms of verbal communication is insufficient. One of the main issues why Turkish learners have difficulty in learning English is that listening activities, in which the weakening, catenation, intrusion, elision, and assimilation factors are not evident, are beyond eliminating the barriers between Turkish learners and inactive English teaching methods.

The listening factors that I have mentioned above such as intrusion, elision, and so on, are thought to be effective in English learning in terms of verbal communication. As a result of the observation that I made over the students, those who are exposed to the training and practice including weakening, elision, assimilation and so on are more willing than the students who are not exposed to. I think that English learning should be initiated by listening. The intrusive sounds are generally thought to be more easily learnt than other factors which make learning easy.

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The bibliography of the writer

I have been teaching English as an ELT lecturer at English department, School of Foreign Languages since 1985, when I graduated from the department of English language at Uludağ

University, Bursa. Teaching English is our family business because every individual of my family is predominantly engaged in teaching English at the schools and the university.

The lessons that I am responsible for are writing, reading, speaking, listening, and international trade English.

As a person who believes in the idea that everybody should refresh himself in his own field every time without considering how old he /she is, I participated in some courses in not only Turkey but also The U.K. Some of them are:

Fulbright in İstanbul,(1988), “Methodology in teaching English” in Norwich, the U.K. (1990), “Creative methodology for the classroom” Kent University, The U.K. (2012), “Workshop presenters’ training” at ITI in İstanbul.I have been doing DELTA [Diploma for English language teaching to adults] (module 3)at ITI in İstanbul (International Training Institute of Cambridge University).

The Conferences and membership:

- 1) On the dates of 2nd and 6th of May 2013,My article is about the pronunciation problems for Turkish learners in articulating of the voiced and unvoiced “ th “ sounds and the techniques of overcoming the difficulties for Turkish learners in English learning.” was accepted by the International Burch University, Sarajevo.
- 2) On the dates 24th and 27th of June 2013, the article I presented orally was about “the pronunciation problems for Turkish learners in articulating and pronouncing “the diphthongs” in the ELT international conference held in Rome.
- 3) On the dates of 30th of October and 3rd of November 2013, “Accessible Izmir 2013 International participation congress of urban problems and solutions for people with disabilities.” My article was about overcoming the problems of stammering [“ speak that I see thee” (Aristoteles)]
- 4) I am a member of (Linked in) ELT professionals around the world.

Appendix

A video presentation in which how the students in my classroom were trained to pronounce the intrusive sounds.

The video presentation is available in the Power Point.

Başarılı Öğretmenin Vasıfları

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Başarılı bir öğretmen, mesleğine bağlılık duyan, dersi en iyi şekilde aktarmak için farklı yöntemleri uygulayabilen, kalbinde sınımsız sevgi, muhabbet parıltıları bulunduran ve sahip olduğu ahlakıyla çevresindeki insanları kendisine imrendiren bir idealisttir.

İnsan iyiyi taklit ederek daha yükseklere çıkabilir. Bir öğretmen de zirveyi yakalaması için bir örnek zihninde canlandırması gerekir. Allah Resulü Hz. Peygamber (salat ve selam üzerine olsun), kıyamete kadar bütün insanlığın en son, en ideal, en başarılı, en örnek alınan ve en sevimli öğretmeni olarak karşımızda durmaktadır.

Başarılı bir öğretmen için bütün insanlığı terbiye etmek, güzel ahlâkı tamamlamak üzere gönderilen Hz. Peygamber (Salat ve selam üzerine olsun) örneği bulunmaktadır. Nitekim Hz. Peygamber (Salat ve selam üzerine olsun) şöyle buyurmuşlardır: “Beni Rabbim terbiye etti ve terbiyemi güzel yaptı” (Cami’us-sağır, Suyûtî, hadis no:1262). Kur’an-ı Kerim’de Yüce Allah da onu şöyle takdim etmiştir: “Andolsun Allah’ın Elçisinde sizin için Allah’a ve ahiret gününe kavuşmaya inanan ve Allah’ı çok anan kimseler için, (uyulacak) en güzel bir örnek” (Ahzab: 21)

Geniş anlamda “nitelik/vasıf” kavramının çok arandığı bir dönemde yaşıyoruz. “Nitelik” meselesi her şey için aranan ve başarı için gerekli bir unsurdur. Dolayısıyla bir öğreticinin yaptığı işin güzel olması ve yaptığı işinde başarılı olabilmesi için bazı niteliklere sahip olması gerekmektedir.

Yapılan bir işin güzel olması, pürüzsüz ve sağlam bir görünüm arz etmesi o işin mahiyetinin kavranması ve şartları gözetilerek yerine getirilmesine bağlıdır. Yüce Allah (c.c) “De ki: «Çalışın: Yaptıklarınızı Allah da, Resulü de, müminler de görecektir.»(*Tevbe Sûresi, 9/105*) ayetiyle işe hakim olmaya ve maharet göstererek yerine getirmeye işaret etmektedir. Bu da insanı hata yapmamak için kontrollü hareket etmeye itecek ve yanlışların sayısı za olacaktır.

Örneğin; bir müezzin güzel ezan okumalı; imam, huşu’ içinde güzel namaz kıldırmalı; cemaatle ibadet eden Müslüman, cemaatle ibadet yapmanın kazandıracağı sevap ve manevi atmosferin bilincinde olmalı; öğretmen hakkını vererek öğretmenlik yapmalı; sürücü, kurallara uygun şekilde aracını kullanmalıdır. Kısacası herkes, dünyası ile ilgili yapacağı en küçük işten ahireti ile yapacağı en cüzi ibadete kadar her davranışında sahip olduğu imkan ve birikimi en iyi şekilde ortaya koyarak kaliteyi yakalama gayretinde olmalıdır. Hz. Peygamber (salat ve selam üzerine olsun) bir hadis-i şeriflerinde “Allah, yaptığı işi itkan/ihsan üzere yapan insanı sever. (*Taberânî, el-mucemu’l-evsat, hadis no:897; Beyhakî, Sünen, hadis no:4929*) buyurmaktadır.

İtkan/Bir işi istenilir düzeyde yerine getirmek, Müslüman kimliğinin en belirgin özelliğidir. İslam, her ferdin ahlakını ve faaliyetlerini başlı başına etkileyen bu ayırt edici özelliği, mensuplarında aramış ve çeşitli tavsiyelerle bunu yerleştirmeye çalışmıştır.

Aslında insanın, dışarıda kendisini tanıtan davranışının güzellik ve çirkinliği, sahip olduğu “ihsan şuuru” ile orantılıdır. Kur’an ve sünneteki “ihsan” zannedildiği gibi sadece “iyilik yapmak” manasına gelmemektedir. Bilakis yapılan neyse onun en güzelini sergilemek, mükemmeliyeti elde etmek çabasıdır. Hz. Peygamber (salat ve selam üzerine olsun) “ihsan”ı tanımlarken “Allah’ı görüyormuşçasına O’na ibadet etmendir” (Buhârî, hadis no:48) ifadesiyle Allah rızasının söz konusu olduğu işlerde bulunmanın gerekliliğine vurgu yaparken aynı zamanda Allah’ı görüyor gibi kulluk yapmayı istemiştir.

Müslüman yaptığı bir işi, ibadete dönüştürebilmesi için onun üzerinde titrer ve sorumluluk bilinciyle hareket eder. Çünkü Müslüman’ın ister dünyevi ister uhrevi olsun yaptığı bir iş, ancak ibadet niyeti ile yapılırsa Allah katında geçerlidir. Zira Yüce Allah (c.c) Kur’an-ı Kerim’de “De ki: «Benim namazım da, her türlü ibadetlerim de, hayatım da ölümüm de hep Alemlerin Rabbi olan Allah’a aittir.»” (En’am Sûresi, 162) buyurmaktadır.

Acaba bizler, Müslüman bir toplumda yaşıyor olmamıza rağmen, yapılacak işin en güzelini ortaya koyacak kimliğe sahip bireyler yetiştirebiliyor muyuz? Belki de bugün geri kalmışlığımıza sebep olan en önemli noktalardan biri de yapacağımız işlerde özen göstermememiz, itkan ve ihsan şuuru ile fert ve toplumumuzu eğitmeyişimizdir.

Geliniz, yaptığımız her işte; öğreticiliğimizde, ibadetlerimizde ve muamelelerimizde ihsan derecesini yakalayabilmemiz için kendimize hedef olarak “güzel”i seçelim. Zira “güzel”de itkan/yapılan işi yerli yerinde

sağlam ve muntazam yapma vardır. Maharet, ustalık ve başarı vardır. Şüphe yok ki bunların bulunduğu yerde de dünya ve ahiret mutluluğu kazanılabilmektedir.

Bu çalışmamızda bir öğreticinin başarılı olabilmesi için gerekli görülen bazı vasıfları/özelliklerden önemli gördüklerimizi şöyle ortaya koyabiliriz:

Akıllı ve Zeki Olması

Akıl, insana işlerinde ve görüşlerinde isabet etmesini, gerçeği yakalayıp onunla hüküm vermesini sağlar. Bir öğretmenin başarılı olması için, her şeyden önce doğal ve fitri olarak akıllı ve zeki olması gerekmektedir. Zira en değerli varlık olan insanı yetiştirmek ile uğraşacaktır. Akıllı ve zekasını sadece ve sadece gerçek bilgi, ilim ve hakikatla donatacak ve çalıştıracaktır.

Ahlak Prensiplerine Bağlı Olması

Ahlak, bir öğretmenin uyması gereken ve uymasında zorunluluk gerektiren davranış kurallarıdır. Her şeyden önce öğrencisini en iyi seviyeye getirmeyi hedef seçen, iyiye ve güzele giden yolu gösteren öğretmenin, öncelikle kendisi ahlaklı olmalıdır. Ahlaki kurallara uygun ve amacı doğrultusunda hareket eden öğretmen, gerek kendisinin gerek başkalarının mutluluğuna yardımcı olmaktadır. Böylece öğretmen, öğrencileri arasında farklılık gösteren mizaçları uygun bir şekilde yönetir ve onlarda güzel huyların ve karakterlerin meydana gelmesini sağlamış olur.

Söz ve Fiillerinde Tutarlı Olması

İnsanı değerli kılan ve önemli yapan özellik, tutarlı olmasıdır. İnsanın tutarlı bir kişiliğe sahip olması, söz ve fiilinin tutarlı olmasına bağlıdır. Bu bağlamda öğretmenin sözü fiilini, davranışı da söylediğini desteklemelidir. Sözü ile fiili birbirine zıt olan, söylediğini davranışı desteklemeyen ve hareketleri sözlerine karşı olan öğretmen, başarılı olması söz konusu değildir. Böyle bir öğretmenin de tutarlı fertler yetiştirmesi beklenemez.

Vasıflı İnsan Yetiştirme Gayretinde Olması

Eğitim ve öğretimin en önemli ferdi ve toplumsal görevi, kişileri alanında yetkin yapmak ve yetiştirmektir. Başarılı bir öğretmen, eğittiği ve öğrettiği kişinin sahasında uzman bir kimliğe sahip olmasını kendisine hedef edinmelidir, bütün topluma faydalı kişiler olmasını sağlamalıdır. Zira toplumda vasıflı kişilerin sayısının az olması o toplumun en büyük eksikliğidir. Böyle bir toplumun uzun vadeli bir şekilde ayakta kalması mümkün değildir. Hatta vasıfsız bir insanın vasıflı bir işte görev alması çok yanlıştır.

Yüksek İdealleri Sahip Olması

Eğitim ve öğretim göreviyle uğraşan öğretmenin yüksek ideallere sahip olması gerekir. Yüksek ideallerin temelinde takva bulunması gerekir. Başarılı öğretmen Allah'ın emirlerini yerine getiren ve yasaklarından kaçınır. Takva, öğretmenin yüksek ideallere sahip olmasını sağlar. Yüzeysel duygulara sahip olan öğretmen yüce ve yüksek ideallerle donatılmış insanlar yetiştiremez. Dolayısıyla ideal kişiliği ile öğretmen, yetiştirdiği öğrencilerin yüksek hedeflere ulaşmaları için onlara rehberliği kendine şiar edinir, bazen de anne-baba konumunda olarak onlar için her şeyini feda eder

Öğrencinin Yanlışlarını Söylemede Yumuşak ve Nazik Tavırlar Takınması

Eğitimci, öğrencisine hitap ederken hitap tarzı çok nazik olmalı, gönül okşayıcı sözlerle hitap etmelidir. Kelimeleri incelik ve sevgi yüklü kelimeler olmalıdır. Öğrencisinde gördüğü bir hatayı düzeltmeyi istiyorsa diğer öğrencilerin önünde bunu yapmamalıdır. Zira hiç kimse başkalarının yanında kusurlarının ortaya dökülmesine tahammül edemez. Hatta üstü kapalı olarak bunların üzerinde konuşmakta sayısız faydalar vardır. Bu konuda en iyi yol, misallerle konuşmaktır. Kişide bulunan bir eksikliği açıkça, onun adını vererek değil de, o hata sanki başka bir kişide imiş gibi misallendirmek daha başarılı bir yöntemdir.

Öğrencilerin Seviyesine Göre Hitap Etmesi

Öğretmen, eğitim ve öğretim faaliyetlerinde muhataplarının kabiliyet ve yaratılışına uygun; zekâlarını, karakter ve kültürel farklılıklarını göz önüne tutarak hitapta bulunmalıdır. Hz. Ali (Allah kendisinden razı olsun) insanların seviyesine göre söz söylemenin önemini ve buna uymamaktan doğan felaketi şu şekilde ortaya koymuştur; "İnsanlara anlayacakları şekilde hitap edin, Allah ve Resulünün yalanlanması mı istiyorsunuz?" (Buhari, 1/37, hadis no:127)

Adaletli olması

Eğitim ve öğretimde öğretmenin adetli olması çok büyük önem taşımaktadır. Zira öğretmen, örnek ve önder durumdadır. Öğrencilerine eşit davranmalıdır. Hiçbir zaman, öğrenciler arasında ayırım yapmamalıdır. Ayırım yapması öğrenciler arasında olumsuz neticeler doğurur. Öğrencilere aynı değeri vermeli, farklı uygulamalarda bulunmamalıdır. Birini diğerine üstün tutmamalıdır.

Bunların yanında başarılı öğretmen her şeyden önce, disiplinli, planlı, vaktini en iyi şekilde kullanan program ve düzen etkenleriyle bütünleşir. Öğretmenlik mesleğini bir zorunluluk olarak görmez, bilakis ondan haz alır. Güler yüzüyle öğrencileriyle irtibatını devam ettirir, onların maneviyatını yükseltmek için onlara destek olmaya çalışır.

Öğretmenin bütün ilim dalları ve bilgilere karşı da objektif olması gerekir. Bilgi, hangi millet, din ve kaynaktan gelirse gelsin bilgiye objektif olarak yaklaşır. Öğretmen bilginin doğru olanına sahip çıkacaktır. Kaynağına bakarak ona karşı çekimser olmamalıdır. Objektiflik özelliğine binaen, bilginin doğru olup olmadığı araştırılacaktır. Bilgiyi kimden olursa olsun, doğru ise alacak, hakikat değilse terk edecektir. Zira bilgi evrenseldir.

Sahip olduğu güce aldanmayıp affedici ve toleranslı davranır, şiddete başvurmadan talep ettiği konularda kararlılığı öğrencileri tarafından kabullenilir. Sınıf hâkimiyetini otoriterlikle değil, sahasına olan hâkimiyeti ve kullandığı metot ve tekniklerin etkisiyle kurandır. Ufku geniş, eğitim metotları ile ilgili yeni çıkan materyali gün be gün takip eden ve sahası ile ilgili konularda kendisini yenileyendir.

Sonuç

Eğitim ve öğretim faaliyetlerinin icrasında birinci derece önemli olan husus, öğretmenin öğrencilere nasıl yaklaşılacağını ve nasıl davranacağını bilmesidir. Konuyu incelerken de ortaya çıktığı gibi öğretmenlik sanatında başarının sırrı, öğretmenin bazı özelliklere sahip olması ve öğrencilerine karşı alacağı pozisyonların nasıl olması gerektiğini çok iyi bir şekilde bilmesinde yatmaktadır.

Öğretmen Adaylarının Öğretmenlik Mesleğine Yönelik Tutumları

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Özet

Sakarya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi'nde öğrenim gören birinci ve dördüncü sınıf öğrencileri ile gerçekleştirilen bu araştırma öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarını ortaya koymayı amaçlamaktadır. Tarama modelinde gerçekleştirilen araştırmanın evrenini Sakarya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi'nde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarından oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın örnekleme ise amaçlı örnekleme yöntemi ile belirlenmiş, Psikolojik Danışmanlık ve Rehberlik ile İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dallarının 1. ve 4. sınıflarında öğrenim görmekte olan 191 öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Toplanan veriler SPSS'e aktarılmış ve ortalama, standart sapma ve t-testi işlemleri yapılmıştır. Analiz sonuçlarına göre, Kız öğretmen adaylarının erkek öğretmen adaylarına göre öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarının daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca mesleki tutumun 4. sınıf öğrencilerinde 1. sınıf öğrencilerine göre daha fazla olduğu belirlenmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenim gördükleri bölümle öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarına ilişkin anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler. Tutum, Öğretmenlik, Meslek, Mesleki Tutum.

Giriş

Birey, toplumun kendinden sosyal ve ekonomik anlamda sorumluluk almasını istemesi sonucu, hem kendi geçimini sağlayacak hem de toplumun kendinden beklediği sorumluluğu yerine getirmek için bilgi, beceri ve ilgileri doğrultusunda bir uğraşı alanında yer edinmeye çalışır. Meslek olarak isimlendirilen bu uğraşı alanı, profesyonel anlamda, özel uzmanlık bilgisi ve becerisi içeren, uzun ve yoğun bir akademik çalışma ile özel bir formasyon sahibi olmayı gerektirir (Erden, 2011). Bireyin tercih ettiği mesleğe ilişkin faaliyetleri etkili bir şekilde yürütebilmesi için gerekli bilgi, beceri, tavır ve tutumları kazandırmaya yönelik mesleki bir eğitimden (Alkan, Doğan ve Sezgin, 2001) geçmesi gerekir.

Günümüzde uzmanlık alan bilgisi, uzun yoğun akademik çalışma ve özel formasyon sahibi olmayı gerektiren ve profesyonel olarak yürütülen bir meslek olarak kabul gören *öğretmenlik*, birçok ülkede 19. yüzyıldan itibaren bir meslek olarak görülmeye başlanmıştır. Türkiye'de ise bu ülkelerin hemen ardından öğretmenlik bir meslek olarak ele alınmaya başlanmış ve 1848 yılında Darül-muallimin adıyla bugünkü manada öğretmen yetiştiren ilk meslek okulu kurulmuştur (Akyüz, 1997). Savaş yıllarının ardından cumhuriyetin ilanı ile birlikte öğretmen açığını kapatmak için "öğretmen nitelikleri" geri plana itilmiş "nicelik" ön plana çıkartılmış ve özellikle geçtiğimiz yirmi yıl içerisinde öğretmen nitelikleri üzerinde yoğun bir şekilde durulmaya başlanmıştır.

Öğretmenlik, eğitim sektörü ile ilgili olan sosyal, kültürel, ekonomik, bilimsel ve teknolojik boyutlara sahip, alanda özel uzmanlık bilgi ve becerisini temel alan akademik çalışma ve mesleki formasyonu gerektiren, profesyonel statüde uğraşı alanıdır (Hacıoğlu ve Alkan, 1997). Stephens ve Crawley'e göre (1994) etkili bir öğretmende (1) konu bilgisi, (2) konuyu uygulayabilme (aktarabilme), (3) sınıf yönetimi bilgisi, (4) Değerlendirme bilgisi, (5) mesleki gelişim olmak üzere beş temel niteliğin bulunması gerekmektedir. Jones'e göre (1993) öğretmen yeterliliğinin, sadece eğitim ve diplomayla belirlenmesiyle, öğretmenlerin sahip olması gereken temel özellikler göz ardı edilmektedir. Bir öğretmenin, sadece kendi konusunu bilmesi yeterli olmayıp aynı zamanda mesleki inanç ve samimiyet duygusuna da sahip olması gerekmektedir. Öğretmen niteliklerine yönelik yapılan araştırmalara göre öğretmenlerin kişilik özellikleri, davranışları, tutumları, ilgileri ve akademik özellikleri, öğretme ve öğrenme sürecinde önemli rol oynamaktadır (Erdem, Gezer ve Çokadar, 2005). Ayrıca öğretmenin alanındaki yeterliliğinin yanında, öğretme sırasındaki yetenekleri, tutumları ve öğrencilerle olan ilişkileri (Eskicumalı, 2002) ve mesleğe karşı olan duyarlılıkları da (Kavcar, 1999; Uygun, 2008; Karabacak ve Uzun, 2013) nitelik açısından oldukça önemli görülmektedir. Bu nedendir ki öğretmenlerin öğretmenlik

mesleğinde daha etkili olabilmeleri için mesleğe yönelik olumlu algılar geliştirmeleri gerekmektedir (Erdem, Gezer ve Çokadar, 2005).

Psikolojide bireylerin bir duruma karşı cevapları üzerine etki eden ve deneyimlerden organize edilmiş mental ve nöral bir hazırlık durumu olduğuna inanılan (Khine, 2001) tutum kavramı, kişilerin, nesnelere ve olayların olumlu veya olumsuz değerlendirilmesi şeklinde tanımlanmaktadır (Gerrig ve Zimbardo, 2012). Genel olarak bireyin çevresindeki herhangi bir olgu veya nesneye ilişkin sahip olduğu tepki eğilimini ifade eden tutum, bireyin kendine, herhangi bir nesne, toplumsal konu, ya da olaya karşı deneyim, bilgi, duygu ve güdülerine (motivation) dayanarak örgütlediği zihinsel, duygusal ve davranışsal bir tepki eğilimi (İnceoğlu, 2010) olarak da ifade edilmektedir. Demirel (2010) ise tutumu, bireyi, insanlar, nesnelere ve durumlar karşısında belli davranışlar göstermeye iten öğrenilmiş eğilimler olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Tutumlar uzun süre sabit kalırsa değerlendirmeler ve yapılanlar arasında güçlü bir ilişki meydana geleceğinden bireylerin davranışlarını tahmin etmek daha kolaylaşır. Ayrıca Tutumlar ve davranışlar arasındaki eşleşmeyi doğru bir şekilde yapabilmek için tutum ölçütlerinin de belirlenmesi gerekmektedir (Gerrig ve Zimbardo, 2012).

Mesleğine karşı olumlu tutum geliştiren bireyler, mesleklerini severek yapacaklarından, öğretmenlik mesleğine, bu mesleğini seven ve isteyen adayların seçilmesi, nitelikli öğretmenlerin yetiştirilmesinin önemli adımlardan biri (Özder, Konedra ve Zeki, 2010) olarak görülmektedir. Ancak ön yargılar, dolaylı ve yanlış bilgilenmeler sonucunda belli bir konu, durum ya da kişiye ilişkin geliştirilen bir takım tutumların, doğru ve yeterli bir bilgilenme süreciyle birlikte değiştirileceği unutulmamalıdır (İnceoğlu, 2010). Diğer bir ifadeyle öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutumlara sahip öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine seçilmesi gerektiği düşünülürken, öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutumlara sahip olmayan adayların da eğitim sürecinde öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutumlar kazanabilecekleri göz ardı edilmemelidir. Bu nedenle öğretmenlik mesleğini seçen ve öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutumlara sahip olmayan öğretmen adaylarının, olumsuz tutumlarının olumlu hale getirilmesinde ve olumlu tutumlara sahip olanların da bu tutumlarının daha da olumlu hale getirilmesinde eğitim fakültelerine büyük görev ve sorumluluk düşmektedir.

Literatür incelendiğinde 1980'lerin sonlarından itibaren öğretmen adaylarının mesleki tutumlarına yönelik çok sayıda araştırmanın gerçekleştirildiği, özellikle 2004 yılından itibaren de bu alanda yapılan araştırmaların sayısının arttığı görülmektedir. (Bknz: Arslan, 2013; Aynal, 2013; Özkan 2012; Açışlı ve Kolomuç, 2012; Eraslan ve Çakıcı, 2011; Coşkun, 2011; Aksoy 2010; Bulut, 2009; Durmuşoğlu, Yanık ve Akkoyunlu 2009; Güneşli ve Aslan, 2009; Akkaya, 2009; Çetinkaya 2009; Başbay, Ünver ve Bümen, 2009; Demirtaş, Çömert ve Özer, 2008; Çapri ve Çelikkaleli, 2008; Pehlivan, 2008, 2004; Sağlam, 2008; Tanel, Şengören ve Tanel, 2007; Terzi ve Tezci, 2007; Özbek, 2007; Bozdoğan, Aydın ve Yıldırım, 2007; Şimşek 2005; Sayın, 2005; Gürbüz Türk ve Genç, 2004; Semerci ve Semerci, 2004; Oral, 2004; Semerci, 1999; Soran, Demirci ve Atay 1996; Çelenk, 1988).

Açışlı ve Kolomuç (2012) Sınıf Öğretmenliği bölümünde öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları üzerinde gerçekleştirdiği araştırmalarında, öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin tutumlarının cinsiyete, öğrenim gördükleri sınıflara ve mezun oldukları liselere göre anlamlı bir farkın bulunmadığını belirlemişlerdir.

Özder, Konedra ve Ender (2010) öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarının akademik başarılarına, cinsiyetlerine, sınıflarına göre farklılık göstermediğini, öğrenim gördükleri programlara göre farklılık gösterdiğini belirlemiştir. Yapmış oldukları araştırma sonuçlarına göre okul öncesi öğretmenliğinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları ile sınıf öğretmenliği bölümünde öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları arasında okul öncesi öğretmenlerin lehine bir farkın bulunduğunu belirlemişlerdir.

Bulut (2009) ilköğretim bölümünde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarını üniversite, anabilim dalı ve cinsiyet değişkenlerine göre incelediği çalışmasında, öğrenim görülen üniversite ve cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir fark belirlememiş, bölümlere göre ise anlamlı bir farkın bulunduğunu belirlemiştir. Bulut'un araştırma sonuçlarına göre Sosyal Bilgiler öğretmenliğinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının Fen Bilgi Öğretmenliğinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına göre öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik daha fazla olumlu tutuma sahip olduğunu belirlemiştir.

Sağlam (2008) ve Oral (2004) tarafından yapılan çalışmalarda, öğretmen adaylarının öğrenim gördükleri sınıflara göre, sınıf seviyesinin yükseldikçe öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarının da olumlu yönde arttığı belirlenmiştir. Güdek (2007) ise müzik öğretmenliğinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları ile gerçekleştirdiği çalışmasında, öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarının sınıflara göre yukarıdaki araştırmalarının aksi yönde farklılık gösterdiğini belirlemiştir. Bu araştırma sonuçlarına göre 1. Sınıfta öğrenim gören müzik öğretmeni adaylarının 4. Sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına göre daha fazla öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu bir tutum içerisinde olduklarını belirlemiştir.

Araştırmanın Amacı

Bu araştırmanın amacı öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarını çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelemektir. Bu amaca ulaşmak için aşağıdaki alt problemlere cevap aranacaktır:

Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları;

- 1) Anabilim Dallarına göre,
- 2) Cinsiyetlerine göre,
- 3) Öğrenim gördüğü sınıflara göre farklılık göstermekte midir?

Araştırmanın Önemi

Bir mesleğe yönelik olarak geliştirilen tutum, bireyin o meslekteki başarısının en önemli belirleyicisidir (Çakır, 2005). Öğretmenlik mesleğini başarılı bir şekilde yerine getirmek için mesleği isteyerek seçmek ve severek yapmak gerektiğinden, öğretmenlik mesleğini ileride icra edecek öğretmen adaylarının bu mesleğe karşı olumlu tutuma sahip olması oldukça önem taşımaktadır. Tutumların, öğretmenlerin öğrencileri etkileyen en önemli kişilik özelliklerinden birisi olduğu ve özellikle mesleğe, öğrenciye ve okul çalışmalarına yönelik tutumların, öğrencilerin öğrenmesine ve kişiliğine geniş ölçüde etki ettiği bilinmektedir (Küçükahmet, 2003). Ayrıca öğretmenlerin mesleklerine yönelik sahip oldukları tutumun, tüm tutumlar gibi sonradan öğrenilmesi öğretmen eğitiminin önemini ortaya koymakta (Can, 1987) ve verilen eğitimin, onların mesleklerine karşı olumlu tutum geliştirmelerini sağlayacak nitelikte olma (Senemoğlu ve Özçelik, 1989) zorunluluğunu da beraberinde getirmektedir. Bu nedenlerden dolayıdır ki öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarının ne düzeyde olduğu ve eğitim fakültelerinin öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutum geliştirmelerini sağlayıp sağlamadığının belirlenmesi büyük bir önem taşımaktadır.

Sınırlılıklar

Bu çalışma, 2013-2014 eğitim-öğretim yılında Sakarya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinin Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik ile İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dallarında öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları ile sınırlıdır.

Yöntem

Araştırmanın Modeli, Evren ve Örneklem

Araştırma geçmişte ya da içinde o anda var olan bir durumu var olduğu şekliyle betimlemeyen ve tanımlamayı amaçlayan araştırma yaklaşımı (Karasar, 2006) olarak bilinen tarama modelinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu araştırmanın evreni Sakarya Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesinin Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik ve İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği Anabilim Daları'nda öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarından oluşmaktadır. Örneklem ise araştırmacının kimlerin çalışmaya dâhil edileceği konusunda kendi yargısını kullandığı ve araştırmanın amacına en uygun olanları belirlemesine imkân veren (Balci, 2005) amaçlı örnekleme yöntemine göre belirlenmiştir. Bu bağlamda İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliğinin birinci ve dördüncü sınıflarından "88" ve Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Anabilim Dalının birinci ve dördüncü sınıflarından "103" olmak üzere toplam "191" öğretmen adayı örnekleme dâhil edilmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları ve Verilerin Toplanması

Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak Semerci tarafından geliştirilen 30 maddeden oluşan "Öğrencilerin Öğretmenlik Mesleğine İlişin Tutum Ölçeği" kullanılmıştır. Beşli Likert tipinde geliştirilen ölçek (5) "Tamamen katılıyorum", (4) "Kısmen katılıyorum", (3) "Kararsızım", (2) "katılmıyorum" ve (1) "Şiddetle Reddediyorum" şeklinde derecelendirilmiştir. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık katsayısı (Cronbach Alfa) "0,68", yapılan geçerlik çalışmasına göre de KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) değeri "0,88", Bartlett testi 89,8025'dir (Semerci 1999). Veriler öğretmen adaylarının derslerini aksatmayacak şekilde araştırmacı tarafından toplanmıştır.

Verilerin Analizi

Verilerin analizinde iki grubun ortalamalarını karşılaştırmak için ise bağımsız gruplar için "t-testi" kullanılmıştır. T-testi sonuçlarına göre anlamlı farklılıkların bulunduğu değişkenlerin ortalamaları, standart sapmaları ve bağıl değişim katsayıları hesaplanmıştır.

Bulgular

Bu bölümde, araştırmada elde edilen veriler ile gerçekleştirilen analizlere göre bulgulara yer verilmiştir. Tablo 1’de araştırmanın örneklemini oluşturan öğretmen adaylarına ait bazı istatistikler bulunmaktadır.

Tablo 1. Öğretmen Adaylarının Demografik Özelliklerine Ait Bulgular

Özellikler	N	%	Özellikler	N	%		
Cinsiyet	Kız	129	67,53	1. Sınıf	114	59,68	
	Erkek	62	32,47	4. Sınıf	77	41,32	
	Toplam	191	100	Toplam	191	100	
Mezuniyet	Düz Lise	72	37,69	Anabilim Dalı	PDR	103	53,92
	Anadolu Lisesi	57	29,84		İMÖ	88	46,08
	Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi	28	14,65		Toplam	191	100
	Diğer	34	17,82				
Toplam	191	100					

Tablo 1’de görüldüğü üzere örnekleme yer alan 191 öğretmen adayının 129’u kız, 62’si erkektir. Öğretmen adaylarının 103’ü Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik (PDR), 88’i de İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliğinde (İME) öğrenim görmektedir. Sınıflara göre incelendiğinde ise 1. sınıfta okuyan “114”, 4. sınıfta okuyan “77” öğretmen adayı bulunmaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının mezun olduğu lise türlerine bakıldığında ise 72’si Düz lise’den, 57’si Anadolu Lisesi’nden, 28’i Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi’nden, 34’ü de diğer liselerden mezun olmuştur.

Anabilim Dallarına Göre Öğretmen Adaylarının Öğretmenlik Mesleğine Yönelik Tutumlarına Ait Bulgular

Öğretmen adaylarının Anabilim Dalı, cinsiyetlerine ve sınıflarına göre öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarına ait gerçekleştirilen t-testi sonuçları Tablo 2’de verilmiştir.

Tablo 2. Öğretmen Adaylarının Anabilim Dalı, Cinsiyetlerin ve Sınıflarına göre Öğretmenlik

Mesleğine Yönelik Tutumlara Ait T-Testi Sonuçları

Bağımsız Değişken	N	\bar{X}	ss.	V%	T	df	P	
Anabilim Dalı	PDR	103	3,0330	,38827	12,8015	,609	189	,543
	İME	88	2,9985	,39330	13,1165			
Cinsiyet	Kız	129	3,0729	,39091	12,7212	2,906	189	,004*
	Erkek	62	2,9011	,36430	12,5573			
Sınıf	1. Sınıf	114	2,9485	,36698	12,4463	3,019	189	,003*
	4. Sınıf	77	3,1186	,40300	12,9224			

*P<0,05

Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin tutumları, Tablo 2’den öğrenim gördükleri anabilim dallarına göre incelendiğinde, t-testi sonuçlarında “t=0,609” ve “p=0,543” değerleri elde edildiğinden “p<0,05” düzeyinde anlamlı bir ilişkinin bulunmadığı belirlenmiştir. Başka bir ifade ile Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Anabilim Dalı’nda öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları ile İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliğinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları arasında bir fark bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca her iki grubun bağıl değişim katsayıları (V%) incelendiğinde, değerlerin “%25” den düşük olduğu görülmektedir (V_{PDR}=12,802 ve V_{İME}=13,116). Bu değerler, grupların homojen bir dağılım gösterdiğini, başka bir ifade ile grup üyelerinin konu hakkında görüş birliği içerisinde olduğunu göstermektedir.

Cinsiyetlerine Göre Öğretmen Adaylarının Öğretmenlik Mesleğine Yönelik Tutumları

Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin tutumları, cinsiyete göre incelendiğinde, Tablo 6'daki t-testi sonuçlarında “ $t=2,96$ ” ve “ $p=0,004$ ” değerleri elde edildiğinden “ $p<0,05$ ” düzeyinde anlamlı bir ilişkinin bulunduğu belirlenmiştir. Aynı Tablo'dan kız öğretmen adaylarının ortalaması ($\bar{X}=3,0729$) ile erkek öğretmen adaylarının ortalaması ($\bar{X}=2,9011$) karşılaştırıldığında, kızların erkeklere oranla öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarının daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Bu ortalamalara göre öğretmen adayların öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarının orta düzeyde olduğu da ifade edilebilir. Ayrıca bağıl değişim katsayıları (V%) incelendiğinde her iki grubun bağıl değişim katsayısının “%25” den düşük olmasından dolayı ($V_{Kız}=12,721$; $V_{Erkek}=12,557$) grupların homojen bir dağılım gösterdiği bulgusuna ulaşılmıştır.

Öğrenim Gördüğü Sınıflara Göre Öğretmen Adaylarının Öğretmenlik Mesleğine Yönelik Tutumları

Öğrenim gördüğü sınıf düzeyine göre öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin tutumlarına ait t-testi sonuçları Tablo 2'den incelendiğinde “ $t=3,019$ ” ve “ $p=0,003$ ” değerlerinin elde edildiği görülmektedir. Bu değerler “ $p<0,05$ ” düzeyinde anlamlı bir ilişkinin bulunduğu ortaya koymaktadır. Aynı Tablo'dan 1. Sınıf öğretmen adaylarının ortalaması ($\bar{X}_{1.Sınıf}=2,9485$) ile 4. Sınıf öğretmen adaylarının ortalaması ($\bar{X}_{4.sınıf}=3,1186$) karşılaştırıldığında, 4. Sınıftaki öğretmen adaylarının, 1. Sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına göre öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutum puanlarının ortalamasının daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Ancak her iki grubun öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumlarının yine de orta düzeyde bulunduğu ifade edilebilir. Bağıl değişim katsayılarının (V%) “%25”den düşük olması her iki gruptaki öğretmen adaylarının konu hakkında görüş birliği içerisinde olduğunu göstermektedir.

Tartışma

Sakarya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi'nin Psikolojik Danışma (PDR) ve Rehberlik (PDR) ve İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliğinde (İMÖ) öğrenim gören 191 öğretmen adayı ile gerçekleştirilen bu araştırmaya ait sonuçlara ilişkin tartışmalara aşağıda yer verilmiştir.

Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Anabilim Dalı'nda öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları ile İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliğinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutum puanlarının ortalaması arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır. Özder, Konedra ve Ender (2010) ise okul öncesinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının Sınıf Öğretmenliğinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına göre öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin tutum puanlarının daha yüksek olduğunu belirlemişlerdir. Bulut'da (2009) araştırmasında Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretmenliğinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının, Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliğinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına göre daha fazla öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutum içerisinde olduklarını belirlemiştir.

Araştırma bulgularına göre kızların erkeklere oranla öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutumlarının daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Bu sonuç, Aksoy (2010), Durmuşoğlu, Yanık ve Akkoyunlu (2009), Güneyl ve Aslan, (2009) Akkaya (2009), Çetinkaya (2009), Çapri ve Çelikkaleli (2008), Pehlivan (2008), Sağlam (2008), Terzi ve Tezci (2007), Özbek (2007), Oral (2004), Çelenk (1988), tarafından gerçekleştirilen araştırma sonuçları ile paralellik göstermektedir. Açışlı ve Kolomuç (2012), Bulut (2009), Tanel, Şengören ve Tanel (2007), Gürbüz Türk ve Genç (2004), Başbay, Ünver ve Bümen (2009), Demirtaş, Çömert ve Özer (2008), Semerci ve Semerci (2004) gibi araştırmacıların gerçekleştirmiş oldukları araştırma sonuçlarına göre cinsiyet ile öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutum arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamasından dolayı örtüşmemektedir. Türkiye'de öğretmenlik bir bayan mesleği olarak (Erden, 2011) görüldüğünden elde edilen bayanların erkeklere göre daha yüksek düzeyde olumlu tutuma sahip olması beklenen bir sonuçtur.

Araştırmada son olarak 4. Sınıftaki öğretmen adaylarının, 1. Sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına göre öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutum puanlarının ortalamasının daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Elde edilen bu bulgu Sağlam (2008) ve Oral'ın (2004) araştırmaları ile tutarlılık gösterirken, eğitim fakültelerinin geleceğinin öğretmenlerini gerekli bilgi ve beceri yönünden yetiştirirken aynı zamanda onların mesleğe ilişkin tutumlarını da geliştirdiğinin bir göstergesidir. Ancak araştırma da elde edilen bu bulgu Açışlı ve Kolomuç (2012), Tekerek ve Polat (2011), Pehlivan (2008) tarafında gerçekleştirilen araştırmalarda sınıf düzeyine göre öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamasından dolayı farklılık göstermektedir. Sağlam (2008) ve Oral (2004) sınıf seviyesinin arttıkça öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olarak öğretmen adaylarının olumlu tutumlarının arttığını belirlemiştir. Ayrıca Güdek (2007) müzik öğretmenliğinde okuyan öğretmen adaylarının sınıf düzeylerine göre öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları arasında anlamlı bir farkın olduğunu belirlemiştir. Ancak Güdek araştırmasında bu araştırmanın tam tersi bir

bulguya ulaşmıştır. Güdek, müzik öğretmenliği birinci sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının 4. Sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına göre daha fazla öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu bir tutum içerisinde bulduklarını belirlemiştir.

Açıışlı ve Kolomuç (2012), Tekerek ve Polat(2011) Pehlivan (2008), Güdek (2007) tarafında gerçekleştirilen arařtırmalarda farklı sonuçlara ulaşılsa da eğitim fakültelerinin dördüncü sınıflarında öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutum puanlarının ortalamasının birinci sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına göre anlamlı düzeyde yüksek olması beklenen bir durumdur. Ancak her ne kadar 4. Sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları birinci sınıfta öğrenim görenlere oranla yüksek çıksa da orta düzeyde kaldığı da (\bar{X} 4. Sınıf =3,1186) göz ardı edilmemelidir. Öğretmenlik mesleği; alan bilgi ve becerilerinin yanı sıra, olumlu tutum ve düzenli alışkanlıklar gerektiren bir meslek olmasında dolayı okullarda öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının, mesleki değerleri ve olumlu tutumları en az bilgi ve beceri kadar kazanması gerekmektedir (Çeliköz ve Çetin, 2004). Eğitim fakültelerinin öğretmenlik mesleğine yüksek düzeyde olumlu tutuma sahip olan öğretmen adaylarını yetiřtirmesi aynı zamanda mesleğini seven, mesleki sorumluluk ve rollerini iyi bir şekilde üstlenen, çevresine ve yetiřtirdiği öğrencilere her zaman örnek olan ve öğrencilere olumlu kişilik özellikleri kazandıran öğretmenleri mesleğe kazandıracaktır.

Daha önce de ifade edildiği gibi mesleki olgunluk, biri mesleki yeterlilik ve diğeri mesleğe yönelik tutum olmak üzere iki boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Mesleki yeterlilik, mesleki bilgi ve beceri ile ilgili iken, mesleğe olan olumsuz tutumlar ileriye ilişkin planlardan ve mesleğin gerektirdiği davranışları edinmekten kaçınmak, olumlu tutumlar ise mesleğe yönelik planları ve ileriye yönelik atılacak olumlu adımları ifade etmektedir (Güdek, 2007). Bu nedenle eğitim fakültelerine yeni başlayan öğretmen adaylarına öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin olumlu tutum kazandırmak, onların bu meslek için gerekli olan bilgi ve beceriler ile sosyal ve duygusal alanda hazırlanma isteğini de olumlu yönde etkileyecektir. Bu bağlamda eğitim fakültelerine düşen görev öğretmen adaylarını sadece mesleki bilgi ve becerini geliřtirmek olmamalıdır.

Sonuçlar

Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Anabilim Dalı'nda öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları ile İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği alanında öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları arasında bir fark yoktur.

Öğretmen adaylarının cinsiyetleri ile öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları arasında anlamlı bir fark vardır. Kız öğretmen adayları erkek öğretmen adaylarına oranla öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin daha olumlu bir tutuma sahiptir.

Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenim gördüğü sınıflara göre öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları arasında anlamlı bir fark vardır. 4. Sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları 1. Sınıfta öğrenim görenlere oranla öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları daha yüksek düzeydedir.

Öneriler

Eğitim Fakülteleri, kız öğretmen adayları ile erkek öğretmen adayları arasında öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik tutumları arasındaki farkı ortadan kaldıracak şekilde programlar düzenleyebilir.

Her ne kadar bu araştırma sonuçlarına göre 4. Sınıftaki öğretmen adaylarının 1. Sınıftaki öğretmen adaylarına göre öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik daha olumlu bir tutum içerisinde bulunsalar da ortalamalarının orta düzeyde kaldığı göz ardı edilmemelidir. Bu nedenle öğretmen adayları eğitim fakültelerine geldiği andan itibaren öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutumlarını arttıracak çalışmalara yer verilebilir.

Belli bir konu, durum ya da kişiye ilişkin geliştirilen bir takım tutumların, doğru ve yeterli bir bilgilendirme süreciyle birlikte değiştirilebilmektedir. (İnceoğlu, 2010). Ayrıca tutum ve davranışlar arasında eşleřtirmeyi doğru bir şekilde yapabilmek için tutum ölçütlerinin belirlenmesi oldukça önemli (Gerrig ve Zimbardo, 2010) görüldüğünden, öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutumları arttıracak ölçütler belirlenebilir. Bu ölçütler eğitim fakültelerindeki ders içeriklerine dahil edilerek veya ayrı bir program şeklinde öğrencilere kazandırılmaya çalışmak sureti ile öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine olan tutumları artırılabilir. Ayrıca bu çalışmanın Türkiye genelinde gerçekleştirilmesi halinde daha önceki arařtırmalarda elde edilen üniversite, bölümler veya anabilim dalları başta olmak üzere bütün bağımsız deęişkenler arasındaki öğretmenlik mesleğine olan tutumlara ilişkin farkları da ortadan kaldırma fırsatı yaratabilir.

Öğretmenlik mesleğine olan olumlu tutuma ilişkin ölçütler belirlendikten sonra deney ve kontrol grubu oluşturularak, kontrol grubunda mevcut program uygulanırken, deney grubuna bu ölçütler çerçevesinde öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik olumlu tutumları arttıracak çalışmaların gerçekleştirildiği deneysel bir araştırma yapılabilir.

Kaynakça

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Teachers Trainers: Village Elders

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Abstract

Throughout the history, professional preparation has been undergoing change. Wallace (1991), classifies English Language Teacher preparation under three models. The Craft Model; The Applied Science Model; and The Reflective Model. According to the Craft Model, trainees learn the skill/craft of the job from the trainer who is experienced and knows the craft well through his/her experience. In the Applied Science Model, educators are university lecturers who pass the results of their research to the trainees. In other words, they educate the trainees. Practice is provided only towards the end of education as a supplement. Finally, Wallace blends the first two: The Craft Model & The Applied Science Model and adds the trainees existing knowledge, practice and reflection. He names this model as The Reflective Model. All these three models are still in practice in different parts of the world. Yet, the teacher trainers do not undergo any of these training/education. Teacher trainers mostly become teacher trainers as a result of experience. The present paper discusses this issue in relation to North Cyprus context.

Keywords. Teacher trainers, English Language Teaching, professional preparation models, North Cyprus.

Introduction

Starting with the 18th century, more in the 19th & 20th centuries and even more importance is given to professional preparation in 21st century. Despite this development, teacher trainers, mostly become trainers after gaining some experience and growing older in the field.

In relation to training foreign language teachers, Zahorik (1984); Zeichner & Lisbon (1986); Fish (1984); and Wallace (1991) suggest classification. In the ELT literature, Wallace's work (1991, Training Foreign Language Teachers) hold a significant place. In this book Wallace (1991) comes up with a classification of English Language Teachers as: Craft Model, The Applied Science Model and Reflective Model.

The Craft Model

The Craft Model is the oldest teacher preparation model. This model emphasizes the art side of teaching. Its conceptual basis, however, is widely utilized in practicum courses in which students work with classroom teachers. This model is based on the model in which a trainee or a novice teacher works closely with the expert teacher. The practitioner is supposed to learn by imitating all the teaching techniques used by the experienced teacher.



Figure 1: The Craft Model (Wallace 1991,p6)

The Applied Science Model

The Applied Science Model is the traditional and perhaps currently the most prevalent model underlying most ESL teacher education programs. Teaching is a science and as such can be examined rationally and objectively. Teachers learn to be teachers by being taught research-based theories. These theories are being conveyed to the students only by those who are considered to be the experts in the particular field. Practice is given towards the end of education and continuous in-service teacher training is provided throughout the teaching profession.

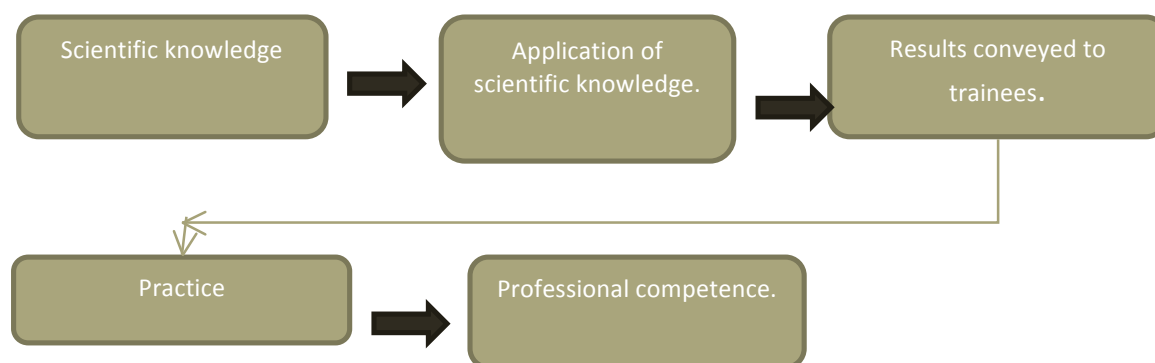


Figure 2 The Applied Science Model (Wallace 1991)

The Reflective Model

The Reflective Model embraces the former two models and adds reflective cycle to them. It is based on Schon’s work (1987), *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. Above all, this model takes the trainees former education into consideration and do not treat the trainees as tabula rasa. Wallace then adds the received knowledge (from the Applied Science Model) and the experiential knowledge (from the Craft Model). Received knowledge is “facts, data, and theories often related to some kind of research” (1991:12). Experiential knowledge is knowing through ongoing experience of being students in the training classroom. He then suggests blending these two types of knowledge with practice in reflective cycle.

The reflective practice has become a dominant paradigm in language teacher education research and programs worldwide. The Reflective Model is based on the assumption that teachers develop professional competence through reflecting on their own practice. In other words, a teaching experience is recalled and considered to reach an evaluation and to provide input into future planning and action

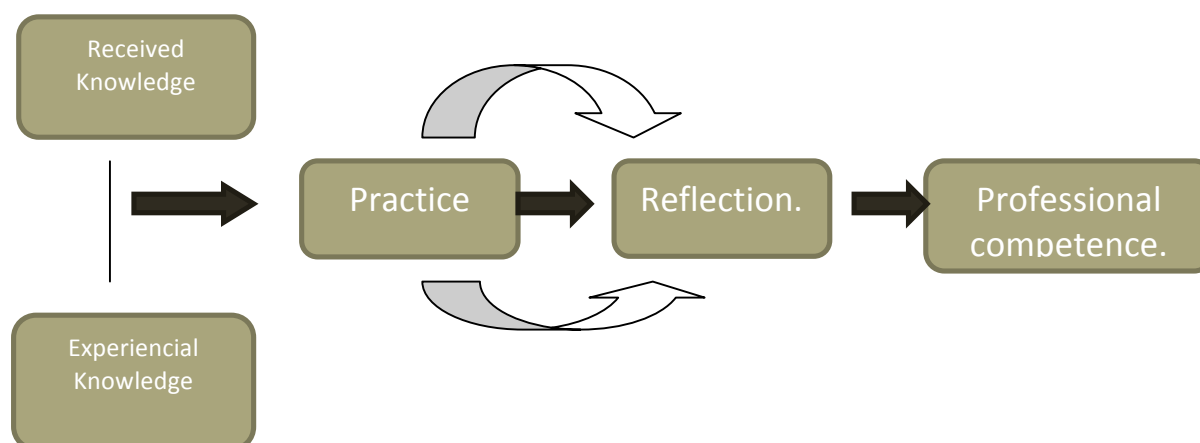


Figure 3 The Reflective Model (Wallace 1991, 49)

Nowadays, in North Cyprus all three models are in practice to a limited extent. Pre-service teacher trainees are sent to longer practicum and are attached to a mentor teacher. 'Sitting with Nellie' (Wallace 1991, p 6) is still in practice. What is more, experience teachers can apply to the Ministry of National Education & Youth and become 'inspectors'. Inspectors not only visit schools and teachers but from time to time are asked to give in-service training to the teachers. Thus, it can be concluded that the 'Craft Model' is still in practice.

Trainees take their pre-service training from universities either at home or abroad. In the local universities lecturers with academic degrees train/educate them. These trainees take in-service teachers training after they start teaching. This calls in the Applied Science Model as the main teacher education model. However, since education is given by the lecturers, this led to the problem of separation of content and process. One of us (Özad, 1997) draws attention to the discrepancy caused by the lecturers' teaching style and teachers teaching style.

With the rise of positivist thinking in education, following other social sciences, teacher training moved from craft training to the training colleges, and then to the universities where tutors delivered their instruction by lecturing. This form of education emphasizes the content of the courses. The assumption behind this form of education is that trainees would gain knowledge in the university and they would put the knowledge they gained during their degree courses into practice. The link between theory and practice - if there was any - was very poor. The only time when these trainees had any practical experience was when they went to teaching practice. After completion of their training course such teachers tend to perpetuate the poor methods of teaching they had been used to (Özad, 1997). This way of educating teachers made trainees impotent because it blocked their ability to be creative, original and mentally active.

In North Cyprus in-service teacher training provided by university lectures of ELT experts from the UK & USA. These experts are more aware of the significance of process and pay specific attention to training. The expert trainees from the UK&USA are aware of content/process dilemma/ distinction in ELT and try to give the best example of how process can be.

The global recognition of English language as "The international language" led to more attention given to this language and thus its teaching. Hence, ELT has been a pioneer in a number of aspects of education. One of these is the English teaching methodology & teacher training. Efforts led the field to look for better means for teacher training. Therefore, more complex model, reflective model is recommended. The Reflective model embraces the prior two models; the Craft model (experiential knowledge) and the Applied Science Model (received knowledge and blends these two with significant element of reflection.)

In North Cyprus, gradually more attention started to be paid to the process (experience) in addition to knowledge. What is more, English Language Teaching literature has grown. Yet, the reflective element is not given enough attention. In pre-service, teachers are asked to complete portfolios and this portfolio is taken as the reflective element. We hold that 'reflection' should be paid attention.

In conclusion, in all these models, teacher trainers or educators act as 'experienced' people (trainers, lecturers, mentors) in the field of education; village elders. However, today's world is more complicated. Now that the Reflective model is used in ELT teacher preparation in some parts of the world, for the preparation of teachers even this has a room to extend: technology.

In the 21st century, people integrate technology into their lives even more than before. People are swift in technology highway. Technology pointing new and numerous opportunities in all fields of our lives. This is very much so respect to our profession. Bearing in mind the distinction of Digital Natives and Digital Immigrants teachers mostly are a disadvantage. With the respect to technology. Thus, for those who will be teacher trainers, in addition to professional support, support in technology is needed.

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Philosophy of Education of Human Anatomy for Dental Students

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Abstract

The aim of this work is to report on the results of the innovation in teaching gross anatomy especially for dental students. There is a clear need for dental students to learn anatomy of head and neck in detailed way; on the other side they should also have an appropriate knowledge of the anatomy of trunk and limbs.

Two groups of dental students underwent learning anatomy, one by the only systemic and other by combined systemic and regional approach. A new study material was prepared for them from regions of the trunk and limbs. The organization of textbook followed a need to be concise guide for dental students.

Teaching of systemic anatomy of head and neck structures was provided in the beginning, then the study was accomplished by the organs of rest of body; and finally, the regional anatomy teaching at the end of course was the most beneficial.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Following new trends in methods of teaching, it is necessary to pay more attention to quality, depth and effectiveness of medical education. The modern tools intended to support educational process offers possibilities that allow teachers to present their subjects in an effective and more demonstrative way. The students have to be allowed to learn and utilize new things in as understandable way as possible. The main goal and the result of education process in human anatomy should be to offer for students of medical faculty the detailed study of human body, its organs and their topographical relation.

In the past, the tools of education were relatively simply, teachers or examiners had a dominant position, often was enough to learn their lectures or their textbooks. The approach to the teaching anatomy was very traditional. For centuries, anatomy has been taught by means of cadaveric classic dissection supplemented by factual lectures, because it is the best way to learn the human body. The main principles of education are also today the same; crucial roles in education process play teacher and students. The students are the main participants in the learning process. The teacher is only a consultant or supervisor, motivation factor in coordination of their work. Nowadays, the education process should to offer an actual knowledge from particular discipline. The nature of anatomy education has changed substantially over past decade due to both a new generation of students who are product of interactive generation and learn differently from those of past years; and enormity of advances in anatomical imaging and teaching. Bloom's taxonomy is helpful by solving the problem how to learn and it can be used also in anatomy to categorize course goals and assessments by these three cognitive objective competences: knowledge, comprehension and application (Bloom, 1956). Fox (1983) came up with the teaching style dimensions. He supposed that there is no best way to teach and he estimated four different personal theories. For anatomy is usable his transfer theory, according this the teaching is about exposing information to students and the critical thing is to find the best way to structure the information. Good way is to show student how they can improve remembering through associations and enforce their imagination. Roxa and Martensson (2009) mentioned about developing more effective conceptions of teaching and learning: "Becoming a good teacher means using observations of teaching and student learning, understanding these observations, and to improve over time." This opinion is also applicable in teaching and learning process in anatomy, because the performing of innovations frequently leads the teacher to find always better and more effectively manner to implement them into lessons. Biggs (1999) differ the learning in two types: deep learning, which makes knowledge personal and relevant to real-world application; and surface learning which relays on memorization and does not lead to deeper understanding. These both types of learning belong to the anatomy; important is also to found the appropriate way, how anatomical nomenclature can be taught more easily.

The aim of subject Anatomy is to provide the basic information about anatomical relations of human body, inner organs and topography of anatomy structures. Students should name parts and structures of the human body using of precise Anatomical nomenclature. Detailed systematic anatomy and topographical relationships of organs and structures of the head and neck is substantial for dental students. The basic and general knowledge of systematic and topographical anatomy of human body below head and neck helps to understand the human body entirely.

Anatomy is one of the most important and basic courses on medical faculties. Subject anatomy for dental students is termed as "General and Oral Anatomy". It is a compulsory two terms course in 1st year of Dental medicine with 7 credits in winter term and 8 in summer one. This course consists of lectures in amount three teaching hours/week and practical lessons in dissecting room with prosecuted material in amount four teaching hours/week. Total number of students is approximately 60 in Slovak course and 25 students in English course.

There was a question if students can handle better learning of systemic or regional anatomy. Systemic anatomy of human body is a traditional approach. It is characterised by description of the organ systems of the body, all organs and tissues for a particular system without recourse to precise location and the understanding of relationship between organs or tissues. Regional anatomy is a modern way how to teach anatomy, which concentrates on locations of organs and tissues, subdivides the regions and describes the relationships between organs or tissues. The advantages of systemic approach are in seeing the entirety of organs; systemic anatomy provides the descriptive skills for different types of anatomical structures and thus provides useful tools for future clinical reasoning. The disadvantages of systemic anatomy is that does not fit well enough with the requirements for those who are training to become surgeons or radiologists, patient's signs and symptoms present are not easily understood not best suited for teaching that involves dissection. On the other hand, the biggest advantage of regional approach is in the training of surgeons and radiologists to aid in the understanding of the presentations of signs and symptoms, appreciates structures, 3-dimensionally, structures as they are found from surface to deep levels. The disadvantage of regional approach is in lack of fit with fully integrated medical programmes.

In education of dental medicine students was the most time devoted to teaching anatomy of head and neck included neuroanatomy; for anatomy bellow the neck was intended to spent less time; thorax, abdomen, upper extremity: there was a need to teach only structures relevant to dental students and the only main structures were taught from the pelvis and lower extremity. There was created the new anatomy book for dental students which serve as a guide through the anatomy of the trunk and limbs.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Anatomy of head and neck for dental students was taught in as detailed way as it was for students of the general medicine. Dental students of two groups were used in this experiment. Both began to study anatomy in the first year of their study. The first group started learning structures of the skull and systemic anatomy of the head and neck in a detailed way: joints, muscles, vessels and nerves. Following, the anatomy of the central nervous system, trunk and limbs was taught systemically, but in a reduced manner comparing by general medicine students. This way of learning was completed for one group of students, while the second group of students began with regional anatomy of head and neck areas, and then continued by the anatomy of the central nervous system and the regional anatomy of the limbs and trunk. The curriculum of both groups was the same, only the way of teaching was different. The first group was taught using only systemic anatomy, while the second using regional approach. The results on practical and theoretical tests between both groups of dental students were compared.

There were two **written** and **two** practical compulsory assessment control tests that correspond to the anatomical regions to be evaluated. Each test covers region in a detailed and coherent manner, before tests the students had lectures and practical reinforcing of each anatomical region. Theoretical test was written during lecture time, it consists of 100 statements; students have to sign each of them if it is true or false. Practical tests done on lesson in dissecting room consists of 30 structures in prosecuted body which students have to recognize. Additional assessments, e.g. small tests on each lesson, were optional in competency of teachers.

A new textbook of anatomy was specifically designed for dental students to help them to study anatomy of trunk and limbs (Kluchova et al., 2014). In this book is limited text in extend which can be demonstrated in the dissecting room according to a new curriculum for dental students. Anatomy of limbs and pelvis was reduced the most, as well as the walls of the trunk. Anatomy of organs and systems of the trunk was taught in a different way. The time originally allocated to anatomy teaching for dental students was cut in one third of previous teaching material. After the introduction, the descriptive terms were offered to learn. Following, main systems were described in general: bones and skeletal system, joints, muscular system, cardiovascular and lymphatic

system. The anatomy of the upper and lower limb was mentioned in a limited way. Similarly, the main structures of the thorax were described. After that, more in detail were shown the very important parts of human body: heart, respiratory system and digestive system. Finally, the main structures of abdomen and retroperitoneal structures were described together with urinary system. Pelvis, male and female genital systems were shortly presented as well, as a last capture of the book. The book was completed by full colour drawings which should help students to learn and understand main anatomy structures of human body.

Our department has been also focusing on innovative teaching processes with substantial attention on anatomy lectures, and has already transferred the load of education on information and communication technologies. Because the imagination is a very important aspect in education of anatomy, the simulations and virtualization methods can be used to revive education. 3-dimensional virtual models serve students to imagine the anatomical structures like in the real body and to achieve as high precision as they need (Majernik, 2013).

RESULTS

The students' responses on changed curricula and mentioned innovations were very positive. In the textbook of human body for dental students were eliminated all unimportant anatomical details of trunk and limbs. Students using new books showed better understanding of anatomy, important for their clinical practice. With the reduction of time devoted to teaching anatomy, there is a need to manage learning of head and neck structures for dental students in a detailed way, as previously. Anatomy of the rest of body was taught in reduced manner.

For improving the imagination in anatomy, our lectures are completed by presentation of 3-dimensional virtual models, with the aim of more effective and more illustrative education. 3-dimensional projection systems are based on principles of virtual reality and can be presented in the specific lecture room. The students feel an existence of 3-dimensional space using specialized glasses. This virtual system consists of three components: large screen projection, teacher workstation and 3-dimensional camera. However, the using of virtual projection is limited to lecture room; due to this the Department of Medical Informatics transformed educational materials into the 2-dimensional pictures playable also outside the projection system. These can be equipped by audio and text comments and/or explanations of teachers. At the present, the movies are prepared according to the syllabus for Anatomy guaranteed by our department (Mjernik et al., 2010).

The effect of the innovation on students' learning method was measured by comparing results between students with innovative method in their group (I-group) and students without innovations in their group (N-group). This can be made after the assessment controls, or after the final exam, or by student feedback answers at the weakly quizzes. We chose to compare their results after completing the 3rd written assessment test. Two groups of students (38 in number) were evaluated, 18 students from the I-group and 20 from the N-group took part in the same written test focusing on the thorax and its structures. The limit for successful passing of the test was 75 points. In I-group 15 students passed the first test successfully, whereas 3 students failed. Therefore, the success rate was 83.3%. In N-group 16 students passed the test successfully, and 4 students failed which equals to a success rate of 80.0%. Absolute majority of anatomy students of both groups passed the test successfully with similar results (81.6% in overage). No significant differences were obtained between results from I-group which learned basic structures of human body by using innovation and N-group which was required to learn by using traditional methods. Both group was able prepare themselves to the written test. There occurred a question: how could we measure the effect of innovation? The time spent with learning and preparing themselves to the test and the results from assessment tests would be compared and evaluated. Students without innovations showed more difficulties with learning anatomy, and so they spent more time to learn the structures and their relationship. This is the way of how we will evaluate the innovation in the future.

At the end of the semester a short questionnaire to students was given to verify observed changes in teaching and learning. Students had to answer three simply questions: Did it work better? Did you understood material more deeply and remember it for longer time? Did you do better in your tests? Mostly answers were: Yes, it did (87%). Yes I did (98%). Yes I did (93%). Result from those: activity of students not only increased during practical lessons, but the students enjoyed the lessons. This is a big positive contribution of our innovation. Students with new textbook and using 3-dimensional imagination were better in their works and in-class activity by learning anatomy structures.

DISCUSSION

In subject, General and Oral Anatomy, information and skills learned in the classroom are in the tight connection not only with the next study of students but also with their future occupation as physicians. Students

have the best input into next subjects of medicine, because knowledge from anatomy build in Latin nomenclature is a base that they will use in their future study and job. The most of students can understand the relevance of this subject and they are interested of it and try to work hard. Hence the forms, methods, philosophy and didactics of the teaching have been changing very dynamically, is there no universal or dominant approach of teaching or learning in educational system. Teaching always depends of personality of each particular teacher. The personal contact of students with teacher and interaction between them is still very important; each student is able to receive information in a different manner. Students would have the opportunity to ask their questions and discuss problems without hesitance of being mocked or ashamed during expressing inquiries or opinions.

The modern teacher is supposed to be educated in modern approaches of teaching. Sad to say, but the greater part of university teachers, have no pedagogical education. Methods of teaching of young teacher are resembled to methods of advanced colleagues and in addition he/she have performed self-study to discover how to teach. The role of teacher is to help students understand the complicate and difficult facts by simply and easily way, teaching allows transferring knowledge from teacher to students. Interesting is share some example from clinical diseases and from own experiences by teaching about particular organs and organ system.

The continuous evaluation of student knowledge is a contributing factor to quality of knowledge and the regular evaluation is one of the motivating factors of study. For study anatomy is very important to evaluate both practical and theoretical knowledge of students that bring a big didactic benefit. It is necessary to continuously test their knowledge during semester for motivation and self controlling of depth of study of individual students. If students know that their efforts will be appreciated, a good result from the test can motivate them to their next work. They realized the importance of the facts mentioned in the test. Students who spend most of their time memorizing essential details without understanding their significance will be less successful in the test and who had understood of subject-matter will be more successful. Exactly this is the role of teacher, to help students understand the complicate and difficult facts by simply and easily way. On the other hand, the students have to be allowed to learn and utilize new things in as understandable way as possible.

There is very important to have lectures before practical lessons, veracity of the lectures has to relate with continuity with lessons. Lessons in dissecting room can be used for student to compare their learning home from lectures, textbooks and atlases. I think that direct instructions on the first lesson that clearly identify the rules regarding lectures, lessons, assessments, credits and exams, are very important for both, students and teachers. We always care for observance of the rules, and never changing them during the semester.

The best way how to reach that goal in teaching is in focussing on the most important facts and (if it is possible) in close cooperation with clinicians. For better retention of knowledge students would know why they learn some particular things. It is very important keep education interesting for students using effective methods how to make them more interesting, attractive manner for study with pleasure. To sum up our teaching philosophy is to teach attractively and focus to important things according to the newest requirements of the clinical practise.

CONCLUSION

There was a need for designing new anatomy curricula for dental students while the time for anatomy teaching for them has been reduced. Teaching anatomy faced problems to determine the proportional time for teaching of head and neck and regions bellow neck; what anatomical knowledge bellow neck is essential and in which order the anatomy of human body should be taught. After initial negative students response regarding the too intensive teaching and learning in the beginning; the course was repeatedly concluded as a very positive at its end. Especially the repetition of head and neck structures and teaching of regional anatomy at the end of course was perceived as a very useful. Clinical importance could be presented at the end as well. Conclusion with the reduction of teaching time, a new anatomy curriculum for dental students was created; main emphasize is put on the teaching of head and neck regions, gross anatomy underwent major revisions; firstly systemic anatomy, regional at the end of semester. In the addition, the method using 3-dimensional virtual projections and it offers students the possibilities of more detailed study of human body, its organs and their topographical relations. Using a variety of sophisticated applications they can easily understand the space relationships and synopsis of anatomical structures without the necessity of memorization, students increase self reliance on practical lessons as well. The innovation helps students to prepare for anatomy in a better way.

This study was supported by the Grant KEGA 006UPJS-4/2011.

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Turing Teaching of Science Easy, Friendly, Intriguing and Innovative, Employing Various Teaching Aids

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Abstract

Students must be at the center of the successful educational change that requires time, effort and on-going support. Collaborative practices are the key for sustaining the changes that support student learning. To make teaching of Science more easy, friendly, comprehensible, and Innovative is a big challenge for teachers, educationist and governments. Identifying effective teaching strategies, therefore, is the need of the hour. One should assess the effectiveness of one's current teaching style and consider innovative ways to make the teaching interesting, comprehensible and efficient as per the desired standard of teaching-learning process. Teaching devices are extraordinarily helpful tools for teaching in a classroom as well as for solo-learning. Teaching devices may help improve learning and other skills e.g. illustrate or reinforce a skill, fact, or idea, and relieve anxiety, fears, or boredom of the students. The computer application is a broad introduction to the features of education techniques in addition to achieving the high learning and teaching quality. We should no more stick to the traditional lecturing methods, using a blackboard or simple display charts. The basic principles of learning, i.e. observation, experimentation, discussion and interaction, evaluation, and individual attention, have been prevailing for many years. But, the methods used to implement these principles have always been delayed. The pace of the world has accelerated; fifty years ago students were required to imagine and act out much of their learning and their play, while today many children watch animated programs with highly realistic simulations. To enhance the quality of teaching for under-graduate and post-graduate students, we are using a variety of teaching aids in India, particularly in our University. Importance of teaching aids include clarification of the subject, direct experience, creation of concept of live and active classroom, discouragement of cramming, increasing the attention of students to the subject, motivation among students, and saving time and money. At present, we are using different teaching devices including, the Whiteboard, Display cards, Models, Specimens, Mnemonics, Overhead Projector and Overhead Transparencies, Film-strips and Film-strip Projector, 35-mm Slides and 35-mm Slides Projector, Microslide System, Audios and Videos, Computer Slideshows, (PowerPoint Presentations) etc., which has led to improved teaching standard, teacher's performance and enhanced learning skills in the students.

Keywords. Science teaching, teaching aids, innovative teaching, classroom aids, teaching resources, education widening

INTRODUCTION

Role and Significance of Teaching Aids in Successful Teaching

Teaching aids are integral components in any classroom. The many benefits of teaching aids include helping the learners improve reading comprehension skills, illustrating or reinforcing a skill or concept, differentiating instruction and relieving anxiety or boredom as a result of presenting information in a new and exciting way. Teaching aids also engage students' other senses, since there are no limits in what aids can be utilized when supplementing a lesson.

Reading Comprehension

As students are reading less and less on their own, teachers are finding reading comprehension skills very low among today's students. Teaching aids are helping teachers to close this gap and hone the reading comprehension skills of the students. Using magazine and newspaper articles, print-outs, ads and even comic books are viable teaching aids that assist in helping students comprehend the text.

Reinforcing a Skill or Concept

Teaching aids prove to be the encouraging supplements for teachers when the reinforcement of a skill or concept is necessary. By using these aids, not only do the teachers allow the students more time to practice, but they also present the information in a way which offers students a different way to engage with the study material. Of course, this is important in order to reach the various learning types in the class.

Differentiating Instruction

It is important for the teachers to reach all learners in a classroom. The use of teaching aids facilitates to achieve this objective by assisting teachers in differentiating instruction. Using aids such as graphs, charts, flashcards, videos, and smart boards provides the learners with visual stimulation and the opportunity to access the content from a different view point. This gives each learner the opportunity to interact with the content in a way which allows one to comprehend the subject more easily.

Relieving Boredom

Teaching aids help to make the learning environment interesting and engaging. As we move toward a more digital society, students are being exposed to computer technology and digital devices at a younger age. Since video games and iPods are now exciting the students, when they come to school they have little patience for lecture-style teaching. Students are seeking constant excitement and simply have no tolerance for boredom. Teaching aids are not only improving the quality of education in today's schools but also are providing students with the sense of excitement that they desire.

Teaching Aids Are Gaining Momentum

Teaching aids are becoming the teaching norms in the classroom. As traditional classrooms with blackboard and chalk indicate a thing of the past, and smart classrooms have become the usual norms of teaching, teaching aids are growing in popularity and advancement. Consequently, the blackboards are being replaced with white and smart boards. TVs are being replaced with LCD projectors and screens. And educators are becoming more focused on students growing with the technology, integrating it into the curriculum. Students are making podcasts, videos and even are creating web-quests. All of which are sound teaching aids to incorporate into the classroom. Current teaching methods, in developing countries, have some major limitations, where teaching is still practiced with traditional lecturing methods, utilizing blackboard and chalk or simply using the display charts. There, the teaching aids may prove extraordinarily helpful tools for teaching in a classroom; they can help the individual learners as well. Teachers can use them to help the students improve the reading and other skills, illustrate or reinforce a skill, concept, fact, or idea, in addition to relieving the anxiety, fears, or boredom of the students. Several teaching aids are very impressive and motivating, making the concepts of the subject to the students crystal clear with no doubts. In this context, the computer architecture is a broad introduction to the features of education techniques. In fact, internet has tremendously revolutionised the teaching of science as well as other subjects. It is now possible to sit in Aligarh and access lecture notes and slides for a course being offered at Cambridge, MIT or Berkley institutions. Undoubtedly, the teaching aids help the teachers to achieve the high performance in addition to driving the students toward achieving the goal of gaining perfect understanding of the subject.

About Our University

Aligarh Muslim University (AMU), is a residential academic university (<http://www.amu.ac.in>), established in 1875 by Sir Syed Ahmed Khan as Mohammedan Angelo-Oriental College; later, it was granted the status of Central University by an Act of the Indian Parliament in 1920. Spread over 468 hectares of land in the city of Aligarh (Uttar Pradesh), it is one of the first institutions established during the British rule. It has played a pioneering role in the independence of India. The university is one of the two in India to have earned the epithet "Oxford of the East" in its past. AMU is open for all and prohibits discrimination in all of its programs and activities on the basis of religion, race, color, disability, sex, etc.

AMU occupies an exalted position among Indian Universities and its contribution to nation building is in no way inferior to the best among the lot. With more than 30,000 students, about 1,400 teachers and some 6,000

non-teaching staff on its rolls, it has 12 faculties, comprising a wide spectrum of academic disciplines (95 departments, 5 institution and 13 centers) and 18 ‘Halls’ (residential areas protected by walls and gates) encompassing 73 hostels. The University offers 325 courses in the traditional and modern branches of education.

We are using a number of teaching aids in AMU for about a decade and their use has turned the quality of teaching up to a remarkable degree. Teaching aids have provided an incentive among the students for discovery and thinking. Using teaching aids in addition to the verbal and personal communications and interactions with the students, there has arisen activity-based learning among the students. In fact, using teaching aids is a confirmation that a teacher can be more careful about the students with the help of these learning aids. Global education systems stress upon the education quality, which should be judged by its contribution to the development of cognitive skills and behavioral traits, attitudes and values that are necessary for good citizenship and effective life in the community. Over the last decade, researches have been able to demonstrate that the quality of education has a statistically significant and positive effect on socio-economic growth. Indeed, the number of applicants in BSc, MSc and PhD courses has increased since the time these educational aids were used in th department as well as at those educational institutions where our educational materials was borrowed and used. In addition, the number and quality of research publications have also increased significantly wherever the technique of using teaching aids was applied. There was also an escalation in the number of research projects offered by different government agencies.

The teaching aids we are using are given as following:

Display cards. An educational display is an organized visual card-size (A3 or A4) presentation of a program or a concept. Such an educational display stimulates teachers’ thoughts regarding important facts or processes; additionally, it may result in response action on the reader’s part. The educational display may be a poster, a tabletop display, an A4 or A3 size paper display. Display may show any topic of an educational nature. The display may include electron micrographs, deficiency symptoms of an element in plants, shape of a crystal and so on. This is a good educational material that fits well for those who have limited funds to spend on education.

Mnemonics. Mnemonic means something related to the memory or that which aids the process of recalling or memorizing. Hence, a process or a series of steps in order to help a person to memorize things or facts is called as “mnemonic”. In other words, a mnemonic is a memory aid. For example: VIBGYOR is a mnemonic to remember 7 colors of sunlight, viz. Violet, Indigo, Blue, Green, Yellow, Orange and Red. Here are some examples of mnemonics:

- 1) To remember the order of the planets – starting from closest to the farthest to the sun. “My Very Educated Mother Just Served Us Nine Pizzas”; it may help memorize the seven planets as: Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune, and Pluto.
- 2) A mnemonic to memorize “Mineral Hardness scale (1-10)”
- 3) “Teachers’ Guidance Can Flourish an Outstanding Quest to Cease Discord”
- 4) Talc (=1), Gypsum (=2), Calcite (=3), Fluorite (=4), Apatite (=5), Orthoclase (=6), Quartz (=7)
- 5) Topaz (=8), Corundum (=9) and Diamond (=10).
- 6) Similarly, we have prepared the following mnemonic to memorize 20 essential elements for plants.

A Mnemonic to Memorize 20 Essential Elements for Plants

C. Hopkin’s café claiming mighty good b’coz it’s cuisine is monarch-liked

C. Hopkin’s café claiming mighty good b’coz it’s cuisine is monarch-liked

↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	
C	H	OP	K×	N	S	Ca	Fe	Cl	Mn	Mg	B	Co	Zn	×	Cu	Si	Ni	×	Mo	Na
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	

- (1) To remember four levels of the atmosphere, there is mnemonic: “Tonight Snakes Make Tea”.

Explanation

T – Troposphere, S – Stratosphere, M- Mesosphere, T- Thermosphere

Overhead Projector and Overhead Transparencies. Even in this computer age, the overhead projector (OHP) is still one of the most effective teaching aids in the classroom. A well-prepared OHP presentation can often be more effective than an ill-prepared computer slideshow. Here are some tips in the usage of an OHP:

- (1) Make sure that the lighting near the teaching podium is *dimmed* to allow easy viewing of the screen contents.
- (2) Move the OHP sideways if necessary to ensure that the projection falls on the *centre of the screen*
- (3) Vary the distance between the OHP and the screen to *maximize* the size of the projection (Remember: the image is enlarged by moving the OHP away from the screen)
- (4) Make sure that the projection does not deviate too much from a square shape; use a book underneath the OHP to adjust the tilt of the machine if necessary
- (5) Make sure that the OHP is in focus
- (6) To enhance readability, underline the keywords/phrases with a colour marker, or if typed notes are shown, highlight them with a blue or green (but not yellow as it is too faint) marker
- (7) Give a title to each transparency
- (8) Use graphics to enhance effectiveness
- (9) Do not write too much information on to a transparency

Transparencies can be prepared in one of the two ways: First, a laser printer can be connected to a computer, which is loaded with a cartridge of cellulose acetate sheets. An image or document is then created within the computer, though images are prevalent due to text being illegible at certain distances from a projection, and then formatted to be printed. From there, the printer is engaged and the document printed on to the acetate sheet. It is wise to test the transparency before sending it out to the person requesting it.

Uses for transparencies are as varied as the organizations that use them. Certain classes, such as those associated with Mathematics or History, employ transparencies to illustrate a point or problem. Math classes in particular use a roll of acetate sheet to illustrate sufficiently long problems and to create illustrations that a computer cannot, due to the lack of math symbols on a standard computer keyboard. This problem is typically limited to High School and College-level mathematics, because of the inclusion of Algebra and Calculus courses in the syllabus. In recent years, more and more colleges are switching to digital projectors and PowerPoint presentations.

Film-strips and Film-strip Projector. This is also a useful teaching-aid in which a filmstrip is projected on a screen using a projector and a cassette is run in synchronization. In this way, the students view and listen the lesson simultaneously, getting a thorough perception of the subject. A filmstrip is a spooled roll of 35 mm positive film with approximately thirty to fifty images arranged in sequential order. A filmstrip is inserted vertically down in front of the projector aperture, rather than horizontally as in a slide projector. Therefore, the frame size is smaller than normal 35 mm film. A two-image frame of a filmstrip takes up the same amount of space as a single 35mm frame, including its guard band, so that a 25 exposure 35mm film can contain fifty filmstrip images. Earlier, celluloid filmstrips had a habit of melting or combusting from the intense and sustained heat of the projection lamp. These were called 'Pictorial Filmstrips' the first kind of filmstrips that were produced in a complete set. Typically, a filmstrip's running time was between ten and twenty minutes. Depending on how they were narrated or produced, filmstrips (which often came with an Instructor's Guide) were flexible enough to be used in self-paced learning formats or in a format suited for a full classroom. This teaching device is although obsolete in developed countries but can be used in developing countries as these are much inexpensive as compared with LCD projectors.

Microslide System. Microslides are 35mm image strips that are viewed using a Microslide Viewer, made up of high-impact styrene plastic. The viewer has two adjusting knobs for focusing. Each microslide lesson includes a strip of 35 mm film (microslide) showing different images of stained specimens photographed under ideal condition, from whole mount to electron micrographs. During the past thirty years, tens of thousands of teachers have been using the Microslide System in their classrooms to teach a number of students at a time. Combining superb photo-micrographs with detailed curriculum material and optional reproducible student activity sheets, the Microslide System is a comprehensive classroom ready-resource that has been proven to help students in learning. It provides micro-images that would otherwise be difficult to obtain. And, best of all, it is very affordable. Each Microslide System has three parts as given below:

- (1) **Microslide Lesson Sets:** These are the heart of the Microslide System. Each Lesson set contains a microslide showing eight examples of the subject and a highly detailed lesson plan designed to stimulate the students to answer the questions about the topic under discussion. Each lesson plan has a handy pocket to hold the microslide concerned. Lesson plans are printed on heavy tag stock and will serve for repeated use.
- (2) **Microslides:** These are reproducible microslides designed to reinforce the student's understanding of the lesson material. You may use them as a master to make as many as copies as you want.
- (3) **Microslide Viewer:** It is a teaching tool specially designed for viewing microslides. Students simply have to slip in the microslide, focus it and view.

35-mm Slides and 35-mm Slides Projector. A slide is a small piece of transparent material on which a single pictorial image or scene or graphic image has been photographed or reproduced otherwise. Slides are a form of projected media that are easy to prepare. They are still pictures on a positive film which you can process and mount individually yourself or send to a film laboratory. The standard size of a slide is 2 "× 2 "; any 35mm camera will make satisfactory slides. Slides can be made from photographs and pictures by teachers and pupils taking photographs and snapshots when they go on fieldtrips for historical, geographical, literary or scientific excursions. The arrangement of slides in proper sequence, according to the topic discussed, is an important aspect of teaching, as a matter of fact.

Advantages of Slide Projector:

1. No desktop, laptop or iPad is required.
2. Requires only filming, processing and mounting by oneself or laboratory staff.
3. Results are colorful, realistic, reproducible, and original as per demand of the subject.
4. Preparation is feasible with any 35mm camera for multiple uses.
5. Teaching material is easy to revise and up-date.
6. System is easily handled, stored and re-arranged for various uses.
7. The system can be combined with narration tape that can save time for discussion.
8. The device may be assigned to a group or is also fit for individual use.
9. 35 mm slides are also less expensive than other computer based teaching aids.

Computer Slide-shows (PowerPoint Presentation). The use of presentation softwares can save a lot of time for people who otherwise would have used other types of visual aid such as hand-drawn or mechanically typeset slides, blackboards or whiteboards, or overhead projections. Easy use of this device also encourages those who otherwise would not have used visual aids, or would not have given a presentation at all. As PowerPoint's style, animation, and multimedia abilities have become more sophisticated, and as the application has generally made it easier to produce presentations (even to the point of having an "AutoContent Wizard" (discontinued in PowerPoint 2007), the difference in needs and desires of presenters and audiences has become more noticeable.

PowerPoint is not only is it a useful tool for introductory lectures, but it also has multiple functions that also allow to review games, especially in the younger grades. Notwithstanding, yet there are no compelling results to prove or disprove that PowerPoint is more effective for learner attention than traditional presentation methods. The following are some tips to use PowerPoint.

Much of the advice for running the computer slideshows is similar to that of OHP usage.

- (1) Make sure that the lighting is *dim enough* for easy viewing of the projected image (the dim-light requirement is usually higher with PowerPoint than with the OHP, as the brightness of the image from the video projector is usually not as high as that from the OHP)
- (2) Use large font size and bold colors
- (3) Use bullet points instead of full sentences
- (4) Call up the bullet points one by one rather than showing them all at a time
- (5) Add *graphics* to enhance attractiveness
- (6) Use multimedia techniques (i.e. inclusion of still pictures, audio clips, video clips, animations, etc.) creatively if you can.
- (7) Include hyperlinks to relevant websites (make sure beforehand that the classroom has Internet connection).

Using websites. We can also make teaching of science easy and interesting by using hundreds of science education websites available on net. Further, we can prepare excellent websites that may be useful for the students and the scientific community. There are numerous websites on the World Wide Web (www) that have been created specifically for ESL/EFL learners as well as for native speakers of English. Many of these websites can help the students to improve their proficiency in English too. A great advantage of the World Wide Web is that it is available 24 hours a day and; if your students have access to the Internet outside the classroom, they can access the websites as per their leisure and space. We have developed two websites for the students of science, particularly the Plant Science. The following websites have been launched by us.

1. Innovative teaching - <http://innovative-teaching.in>
2. Directory of Useful Websites of Plant and Allied Sciences
<http://www.life.illinois.edu/govindjee/directory.html>

Acknowledgement

The first author, M.M.A. Khan, is highly grateful to the University Grants Commission, New Delhi for granting a Major Research Project on Proliferation of Science Education.

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Asian Parenting Styles and Academic Achievement Through the Lens of Confucianism

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Abstract

In light of the consistent Asian students PISA (Program for International Student Assessment) data results, this paper examines Asian parenting style and its relationship with students' academic performance through the lens of Confucianism. A literature review supports this conceptual paper that examines parenting styles and Confucianism's influences. Concerning parenting styles, the authors were drawn to the media phenomenon created by Amy Chua's book *Battle Hymn of the Tiger Mother* about Chua's parenting experiences raising two daughters. Chua's parenting style is quite strict by US standards. The authors classify her style as mixed ethnic minority and authoritarian parenting style. In this presentation, a framework of variables is introduced that defines each style, i.e. responsiveness to the child's needs, demandingness, and the extent interests of the child are encouraged. These variables are linked to Confucianism that is embedded in Asian culture and places value on education at societal, familial, and individual level.

Keywords. Confucianism, parenting styles, academic achievement, academic performance, Asian students

INTRODUCTION

The US media touts an achievement gap between white and African Americans and between white and Hispanic Americans so the general public tends to be aware of this achievement gap. However, less media attention is given to another achievement gap: the one between Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans. (Yong & Wei, 2009). Asian Americans out score whites, especially in mathematics, science and other technical areas. The latest PISA (Program for International Student Assessment) survey, an international educational survey conducted every three years by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) released in 2012, indicated the top five overall ranking, including Shanghai (China), Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and South Korea, are all Asian countries (Brown, 2013). In the U.S., Asian American score higher on the SAT and ACT, and are overrepresented among winners of different prestigious scholarships, such as National Merit, US Presidential, and Westinghouse Science talent Search Scholars (Flynn, 1991; Zhao & Qiu, 2009). Hildebrand, Phenice, Gray, & Hines (2008) indicated that Asian Americans have become the largest ethnic minority group in many career fields and at many elite colleges. In 2003, 51 percent of Asian American males and 44 percent of females age 25 and older had a bachelor's degree or higher compared with 32 percent of non-Hispanic white males and 27 percent of non-Hispanic white females. In 1980, Asian Americans comprised only 1.5 percent of the population but Asian Americans consisted of 5 percent of all engineers and 8 percent of all doctors in the United States.

Why do Asian students attain such high academic performance in mathematics, science, reading, and technical fields? In this conceptual paper, we will relate parenting style and concepts involved in Confucianism on Asians' high academic performance. Drawing from western parenting theories, literature, and eastern philosophy, we examine relationships among Asian parenting style and Confucian influences on children's academic achievement.

Parenting Styles: Theories and Literature

Our interest in Asian parenting style drew from the media attention given to Amy Chua's (2011) book, *Battle Hymn of the Tiger Mother*. Chua's views and practices raised much controversy regarding parent-child interaction. Public and media began debating and discussing different views and practices about parenting (Chang, 2011; Chua, 2011; Flanagan, 2011; Husbands, 2012; Kohler, Kilgo, & Christensen, 2012a; Kohler,

Kilgo, & Christensen, 2012b; Ninh, 2011; Poon, 2011; Wang, 2011). Chua's book is a memoir of her own philosophy and practices of parenting raising two high achieving daughters. She placed great emphasis on her children's academic achievement. First, we focus on how adult-child interaction relates to children's academic achievement.

Based on Maccoby and Martin's (1983) work, the two primary factors or dimensions to determine parenting style are responsiveness and demandingness. Parental responsiveness refers to the degree parents respond to the child's needs. Parental demandingness or parental control is the degree of demands, control, or expectations parents have toward children (Maccoby and Martin, 1983). Analyzed by these two factors, 6 different types of parenting styles emerged (Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby and Martin, 1983). They are authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, ethnic minority, indifferent, and inconsistent parenting styles. This typology of parenting styles is commonly used to describe and examine parenting. In our analysis, we also look primarily at the demandingness/ control dimension. Another dimension considered here is the extent parents support the interests of children for it seems to be a distinguishing dimension between ethnic minority and authoritative parenting style.

As we consider the literature on parenting styles, we primarily focus on three of the styles articulated in the literature because of the way these three are related to achievement in children. The styles are authoritative, authoritarian, and ethnic minority parenting styles. Based on the findings, the authoritative style is recognized as related to high achievement, while authoritarian style relates to low achievement. Ethnic minority style is less often considered in the literature but reached the public arena through Chua's memoir (Baumrind, 1971; Baumrind, 1987; Chau, 2001; Chua, 2011, Fuligni & Tseng, 1999; Giarrusso, Du, Silverstein, & Bengtson, 2001; Heath, 2012; Hsai & Scanzoni, 1996; McLoyd & Smith, 2002; Shek & Chen, 1999).

With the authoritative parenting style, the parent has reasonable control, uses reasoning with the children, is responsive to the child's needs and interests, and is strongly related to high achieving children (Baumrind, 1971; Chau, 2001; Garg, Levin, Urajnik, & Kauppi, 2005; Heath, 2012; McLoyd & Smith, 2002; Steinberg & Levine, 1997). The authoritarian parenting style emphasizes the hierarchical relationships between adults and children and uses this to maintain control, sometimes with forceful means, may restrict children's autonomy and even respect, and is related to low achieving children. The ethnic minority parent style as articulated by Heath (2012) is less prominent in the literature of parenting styles, but we see coming to understand this style of parent-child interactions as quite important since Asian parenting style seem to fit in this category. Ethnic minority style has high demandingness or control and high responsiveness, but has a lower priority in supporting the child's interest. Ethnic minority style differs from a strict authoritarian style in that it is highly responsive to the child's needs; Ethnic minority style differs from Authoritative style in that parents with this style have high demandingness and do not place children's interests as a priority. Ethnic minority parenting style, at least in Asian American families, is related to high achievement as noted earlier. In this paper, we focus on demandingness and high expectations of the ethnic minority parenting style and how these parenting style traits may be influenced by Confucianism. Table 1 shows how parenting styles relates to the factors of demandingness, responsiveness, interests and academic performance.

Table 1: Parenting style analysis

	Demandingness (control)	Responsiveness	Interests	Children's academic performance
Authoritative parenting	Medium	High	High	High
Authoritarian parenting	High	Low	Low	Low
Ethnic Minority parenting	High	High	Low	High

Confucianism and Asian Families

Though Confucianism was developed in China, the philosophy has influenced many countries in Asia. This paper focuses on Asian Americans. Confucianism, developed by the greatest Chinese philosopher, Confucius, is a philosophy which focuses on the conduct and practices of people in daily life. For nearly 2,000 years, Confucianism has shaped the social, ethical and political aspect of Chinese cultures. It is a complex set of ethical and moral rules that dictate how a person relates to others. The Confucianism philosophy and principles play a key role in forming the norms of social morality which influence the culture in personal, familial, and social relationships. Additionally, Confucianism has a significant influence on education and families' educational practices.

Education and Social Class

Asian Education is associated with a person's social class. In old Chinese society (770 BC to 1910's), success is defined by your class, not necessary by a person's wealth (Lien, 2006). Social class is associated with occupations as well as the moral character related to the occupation. According to Confucius, out of four social strata which includes scholars (*Shi*), farmers (*nong*), workers (*gong*), and businessmen (*Shang*) based on occupation (Park & Chesla, 2007), the scholars strata is considered the highest class. Scholars did "mental labor," and usually made decisions that influenced the whole society. Based on Confucianism, leaders needed to be intelligent, have high standards of ethics, and learn scholarly work (Tu, 1998). Therefore scholarship was associated with high social class, leadership, and high moral character.

Today, Asian society and families still retain the idea that scholars belong to higher social class and education provides a route to reach the "scholarly" status. Highly educated people will become leaders and contribute to society. This value of education and social class influences the everyday life of Asian families. Asians believe that educational success leads to a better life, including higher social status, getting a good job, or a better marriage and relationships (Cheon, 2006; Hildebrand, Phenice, Gray, & Hines, 2008; Louie, 2004; Lien, 2006). Therefore, education is central to most Asian families. In fact, the various statistics indicated in the beginning is evidence of educational emphasis within the family. Asian parents, such as Amy Chua, place a high priority on educational success and that success is often measured by the test score.

Education as a Family Business

On the macro level, Asian cultures value the collectivist ideology (Lu and Shih, 1997) which affects family functions and parent-child interaction. Based on Confucianism, there are five basic human relationships, including father-son, emperor-subject, husband-wife, elder-younger, friend-friend. Three out of five bases of these relations occur in the family (Chang & Holt, 1991). Chinese cultures advocate that each individual should strive to expand the prosperity and vitality of one's family (Lu & Shih, 1997; Miller & Yang, 1997). In other words, individual's development and performance are to achieve the success of the family. Family, then, is in the center of an individual's life and everyday existence, including educational practice.

Education is considered a family business, an interdependent process for many Asian families. Though children are responsible for their own educational success, Asian parents believe that their children's educational achievement is greatly influenced by their parenting practices as well. They believe that they have the obligations and responsibilities to help build their children's success in education.

Parents possess passion and zeal for their children's education (Lien, 2006). Education is an intensive process, almost like a religious practice which affects the whole family's daily interaction and routines. Primary is daily activities and conversations surrounding the topic of education. For example, parents may converse with their children concerning homework and test results as soon as children come home from school.

Parents are highly demanding and exert high control over children's academic practice which relates to one of the dimensions of the ethnic minority parenting style: high demandingness (Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby and Martin, 1983). During the daily parent-child interaction, parental involvement on academic practice is a focused and intense practice. The Asian family takes academic success seriously. If parents have a difficult time exerting influence over their children's academic success, they may regard themselves as a failure as a parent and feel disappointed, anxious, and embarrassed (Kim, 2006). They take their children's academic failure as their own responsibility because they feel that they did not do their best to work with their children. Pressures can be high on both parents and children. Low achievement brings shame and embarrassment to the family (Chen, Miller, Wang, & Mark, 1996). On the other hand, if the child succeeds in academics, it represents the triumph of the entire family and is considered a family achievement.

In Chua's narrative, she did not allow her daughters to have play dates because they needed to focus on school success, not social experiences (Chua, 2011). Chua drilled them on homework from school and on their music lessons, which she also deemed quite important to success.

The Role of Education in Family Hierarchy and Family Harmony

Asian cultures value family hierarchy and harmony which are central concepts in Confucianism. These values also support the high demandingness of Asian parents. Based on Confucianism, the family system has a clear and highly structured hierarchy. Confucius' doctrine distinctly stated the order: *Let the prince be a prince, the minister a minister, the father a father, and the son a son* (Kao, 2006). Each individual's role and responsibilities are clearly defined.

For example, one of the virtues of family hierarchy, filial piety, portrays the relationship between parent and child. Filial piety is an expression of respect from the child toward parent and elderly. In Confucianism, this virtue is associated with a person's citizenship and leadership in the society. Asians believe that children who respect their parents will become good citizens and leaders (Terry, 2005). Therefore, filial piety is highly valued. In daily life, filial piety is reflected in children's respect and obedience on parental demands and authority. In most cases, children do not have many choices but to comply with parents' expectations. Rebellion against parents' authority is unacceptable and will result in harsh consequences. Being "unfilial" was considered a crime in the traditional Chinese society. As Terry (2005) indicated, it could result in death as a punishment. The virtue, filial piety, is interwoven with family's educational practice on a daily basis.

Additionally, Confucianism promotes social harmony in human relationships, including family relationships (Chang & Holt, 1991). To reach harmony within the context of family, it often relies on considering parent's authority, conformity, and role and responsibilities of each individual (Lu & Shih, 1997; Miller & Yang, 1997). Thus, the decisions children make regarding education are associated with family harmony as well. Asian children learn more behavioral rules than Westerner children do. Asian children are comfortable following instructions (Moneta, 2004). Today, parent's authority can be observed in educational decision-making and behaviors in homework, exams, school selections, career choices, and so on.

Because of this emphasis on filial piety and harmony of the family, Asian families are able to demand academic excellence. However, Asian families tend to be less supportive of children's social needs or other interests the children may want to pursue. For example, Lulu, Chua's younger daughter, wanted to learn tennis and she had to battle her mother in order to pursue this interest (Chua, 2011). Yet once Lulu pursued her desire to play tennis, she drew from the discipline she had acquired by working with her mother on academics and playing classical musical instruments, so that she was successful at tennis also.

Conclusion

We speculate that the ideas drawn from Confucianism---a high value placed on education, filial piety, family hierarchy, and family harmony---are many of the family parenting traits that lead to the high academic achievement Asian American youth exhibit. These traits then are reflected in the parenting style literature (ethnic minority parenting style) as high demandingness and high responsiveness especially toward concerns related to school and education. We further speculate, as Amy Chua's parenting illustrates (Chua, 2011), this kind of parenting tends to develop self-discipline in the children over time.

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Prediction of Students' Academic Achievement at Higher Secondary Level on the Basis of Secondary Level Academic Achievement

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Abstract

The main objective of the present research was to construct regression equation for predicting the academic achievement of the standard 12 students based on their 10th standard's result. Following the Documentary Survey method the researcher had chosen 128090 students of standard 12 based on their gender, medium of study and stream and had constructed eight regression equations following the 10th standard results of the same. Derived regressions equations are as following, (1). 'X= 1.41Y-24.02', (2). 'X=1.14Y+45.06', (3) .'X=0.16Y+38.86', (4). 'X=0.2Y+41.69', (5). 'X=0.61Y+14.6', (6). 'X=0.64Y+11.49', (7). 'X=0.84Y-1.44', (8). 'X=0.97Y-13.76'. SPSS 17.0 was used for the analysis of available data.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

There prevails the teaching pattern of 10+2+3 in Gujarat state. This pattern includes standard 9 and 10 into secondary level and standard 11 and 12 into higher secondary. Under this pattern, the examinations of standard 10 and 12 are conducted by *Gujarat Secondary and Higher Secondary Education Board*.

The decision regarding the selection between science stream or general stream is done after the result of standard 10. The branches like medicine, engineering or science graduation are opted after the result of standard 12 of science stream while the branches like arts, commerce graduation etc are opted after the result of standard 12 of general stream.

The students don't get the reliable guidance regarding what their academic performance would be whether they select the science stream or general stream.

The present research will help in predicting their academic performance whether they opt general or science stream based on their 10th standard's result. The result of the present research will be helpful in providing guidance and counselling the students.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the present study are as under.

1. To construct regression equation for predicting the marks of standard 12 on the basis of the marks obtained in standard 10 of the boy students who study in 12th standard general stream of Gujarati medium.
1. To construct regression equation for predicting the marks of standard 12 on the basis of the marks obtained in standard 10 of the boy students who study in 12th standard general stream of Gujarati medium.
2. To construct regression equation for predicting the marks of standard 12 on the basis of the marks obtained in standard 10 of the girl students who study in 12th standard general stream of Gujarati medium.
3. To construct regression equation for predicting the marks of standard 12 on the basis of the marks obtained in standard 10 of the boy students who study in 12th standard general stream of English medium.
4. To construct regression equation for predicting the marks of standard 12 on the basis of the marks obtained in standard 10 of the girl students who study in 12th standard general stream of English medium.
5. To construct regression equation for predicting the marks of standard 12 on the basis of the marks obtained in standard 10 of the boy students who study in 12th standard science stream of Gujarati medium.
6. To construct regression equation for predicting the marks of standard 12 on the basis of the marks obtained in standard 10 of the girl students who study in 12th standard science stream of Gujarati medium.
7. To construct regression equation for predicting the marks of standard 12 on the basis of the marks obtained in standard 10 of the boy students who study in 12th standard science stream of English medium.

8. To construct regression equation for predicting the marks of standard 12 on the basis of the marks obtained in standard 10 of the girl students who study in 12th standard science stream of English medium.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

In the present research some of the words were defined operationally in the following way.

Academic Achievement:- The result of exam in percentage, conducted by the secondary and higher secondary education board.

Secondary Level Academic Achievement:- The result of standard 10 exam in percentage, conducted by the secondary and higher secondary education board.

Higher Secondary Level Academic Achievement:- The result of standard 10 exam in percentage, conducted by the secondary and higher secondary education board.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Documentary Survey Method was used as research method in the present study.

UNIVERSE AND SAMPLE

The boy students and girl students of standard 12 from Gujarati and English medium from state of Gujarat were included as a sample in the present study.

The entire universe was selected as a sample in the present study. The sample chosen for the present study is presented in the table no. 1

Table-1. The number of students of standard 12 general stream and standard 12 science stream

	General Stream			Science Stream			Total
	Gujarati Medium	English Medium	Total	Gujarati Medium	English Medium	Total	
Boys	38492	1540	40032	36848	5346	42194	82226
Girls	24410	1093	25503	17029	3332	20361	45864
Total	62902	2633	65535	53877	8678	62555	128090

According to table no 1 128090 students were selected as sample in the present study. There were 65535 students from general stream out of which the number of boys was 38492 and the number of girls was 24410. The number of boys from English medium was 1540 and the number of girls was 1093. In the same way the total number of students from science stream was 62555 out of which Gujarati medium students were 36848 and Gujarati medium girls were 17029. The number of English medium science stream boys was 5346 and the number of English medium science stream girls was 3332.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

In the present study the result, in percentage, of Gujarati and English medium boy and girl students of standard 12 general and science stream exam- conducted by the secondary and higher secondary education board- were collected. The same students' results in percentage of the standard 10 exam conducted by the secondary and higher secondary education board were collected.

The collected information of boys and girls of Gujarati and English medium from general and science stream is presented in the Table-2

Table 2. The Regression Equations for predicting the result of standard 12th exam based on the result of standard 10th exam

Stream			
Gender	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Commerce</td> <td>Science</td> </tr> </table>	Commerce	Science
Commerce	Science		

	Std	Medium										Medium										
		Gujarati					English					Gujarati					English					
		N	M	S D	r	Equation	N	M	S D	r	Equation	N	M	S D	r	Equation	N	M	S D	r	Equation	
Male	10																					
	12	38492	53.79	7.63			1540	55.79	7.87			36848	74.12	10.20			5346	76.06	8.96			
Female	10																					
	12	24410	54.86	7.58			1093	57.30	7.43			17029	76.72	9.40			3332	78.87	8.08			
		38492	51.75	5.39	0.198	$X=1.41Y - 24.02$	1540	52.25	5.24	0.243	$X=0.16Y + 38.86$	36848	59.75	11.81	0.527	$X=0.61Y + 14.6$	5346	62.45	11.71	0.637	$X=0.84Y - 1.44$	
		24410	52.76	5.05	0.213	$X=0.14Y + 45.06$	1093	53.14	4.91	0.296	$X=0.2Y + 41.69$	17029	60.59	11.64	0.520	$X=0.64Y + 11.49$	3332	62.74	11.92	0.658	$X=0.97Y - 13.76$	

Table 2 shows the total number of standard 10th and 12th General stream and Science stream boy and girl students from Gujarati and English medium. It also shows the standard deviation of their average score and correlation score. Based on these scores the regression equation was constructed in accordance with the objectives of the study. SPSS 17.0 was used for this purpose.

FINDINGS.

The findings of the present study were as below.

1. In the present research the equation ' $X= 1.41Y-24.02$ ' was derived for the predicted score of general stream Gujarati medium boys of standard 12 where X = predicted score of standard 12 in percentage and Y = percentage obtained in standard 10.

With the help of this equation, one can predict any student's result of standard 12, in percentage based on the result of standard 10.

2. In the present research the equation ' $X= 1.14Y+45.06$ ' was derived for the predicted score of general stream Gujarati medium girls of standard 12 where X = predicted score of standard 12 in percentage and Y = percentage obtained in standard 10.

With the help of this equation, one can predict any student's result of standard 12, in percentage based on the result of standard 10.

3. In the present research the equation ' $X= 0.16Y+38.86$ ' was derived for the predicted score of general stream English medium boys of standard 12 where X = predicted score of standard 12 in percentage and Y = percentage obtained in standard 10.

With the help of this equation, one can predict any student's result of standard 12, in percentage based on the result of standard 10.

4. In the present research the equation ' $X= 0.2Y+41.69$ ' was derived for the predicted score of general stream English medium girls of standard 12 where X = predicted score of standard 12 in percentage and Y = percentage obtained in standard 10.

With the help of this equation, one can predict any student's result of standard 12, in percentage based on the result of standard 10.

5. In the present research the equation ' $X= 0.61Y+14.6$ ' was derived for the predicted score of science stream Gujarati medium boys of standard 12 where X = predicted score of standard 12 in percentage and Y = percentage obtained in standard 10.

With the help of this equation, one can predict any student's result of standard 12, in percentage based on the result of standard 10.

6. In the present research the equation ' $X= 0.64Y+11.49$ ' was derived for the predicted score of science stream Gujarati medium girls of standard 12 where **X**= predicted score of standard 12 in percentage and **Y**= percentage obtained in standard 10.

With the help of this equation, one can predict any student's result of standard 12, in percentage based on the result of standard 10.

7. In the present research the equation ' $X= 0.84Y-1.44$ ' was derived for the predicted score of science stream English medium boys of standard 12 where **X**= predicted score of standard 12 in percentage and **Y**= percentage obtained in standard 10.

With the help of this equation, one can predict any student's result of standard 12, in percentage based on the result of standard 10.

8. In the present research the equation ' $X= 0.97Y-13.76$ ' was derived for the predicted score of science stream English medium girls of standard 12 where **X**= predicted score of standard 12 in percentage and **Y**= percentage obtained in standard 10.

With the help of this equation, one can predict any student's result of standard 12, in percentage based on the result of standard 10.

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Turkish Preservice Middle School Mathematics Teachers' Misconceptions for Constructing Histograms

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Abstract

This study investigated preservice middle school mathematics teachers' conceptual errors for constructing histograms. Sample consisted of third and fourth year preservice middle school mathematics teachers who already took 'Statistics and Probability' courses for two semesters. Data collected as a part of larger project that investigated preservice middle school mathematics teachers' knowledge of teaching statistics. Results indicated several misconceptions for constructing histograms such as (a) thinking that histograms is bivariate scatterplots, (b) histograms constructed from regular frequency tables, (c) histogram is a type of greatest integer function or interval length should be 1 when data has decimal points, (d) each intervals of histogram has equal number of observations; (e) histograms are constructed with separate rectangles, and (f) intervals of histogram can be shown on vertical axis. These findings revealed that preservice mathematics teachers had misconceptions in statistics even for the concepts they supposed to teach when they become teachers.

Keywords. Preservice teacher, mathematics teacher, statistics, histogram, misconception

INTRODUCTION

The term, histogram, is originally coined by Karl Pearson (Magnello 2005). he coined histogram to describe a 'time-diagram' in his lecture on 'Maps and Chartograms'. His main purpose for using the histogram was for historical graphs. He thought that blocks of time may better explain the investigated phenomena than using single time points. After Pearson, blocks of values principle applied to different variables rather than time.

Histogram in modern statistics books is usually described as series of contiguous rectangles shown on coordinate system where horizontal axes represent class intervals and vertical axes represent corresponding frequencies (Akdeniz, 2002; Black, 2011). It is also expressed that each rectangle's area is proportional to frequency in the group (Ellison et.al. 2009). There is also different ways for labeling the vertical axis. Some statisticians prefer labeling midpoints for each class interval while some prefer labeling start points for each interval.

The definition and construction of histograms mostly depend on class interval (Wasserman, 2004). The size of class interval and starting point may affect the shape of histogram which may prevent one to see the pattern of data.

As in most statistics topics, histograms are also misinterpreted by many students. Bruno and Espinel (2009) analyzed the construction and evaluation errors made by preservice teachers, and found that teacher candidates constructed the histograms making several mistakes such as (a) histograms where the rectangles are separated, (b) labeled the axes incorrectly or (c) omitted the zero frequency intervals.

Another study investigated the conceptual errors of undergraduate students related to histograms (Lee & Meletiou-Mavrotheris, 2003). Students were asked "What goes on the vertical axis and horizontal axis when constructing a histogram for describing the distribution of salaries for individuals that are 40 or older and have not yet retired?"

Most common misconception students held was the interpretation that histograms are two variable scatterplots. Thirty one percent of the students thought age should be on X axes and salary should be on the Y axis. Other similar mistakes were salary on X and Age on Y; age on X and frequency of salary on Y. Some students also have misconception that histograms are displays of raw data, and individuals should be on X axis while salary on Y axis.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to determine preservice middle school mathematics teachers' misconceptions for constructing histograms.

METHOD

In order to determine histogram misconceptions of the preservice middle school mathematics teachers, a previously collected data used. The data was originally collected as a part of the thesis project (Mercimek, 2013) that is conducted to assess content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge of preservice middle school mathematics teachers. An item in this thesis project constructed to measure histogram knowledge of preservice mathematics teachers.

This item requires preservice teachers to construct a histogram from an extra ordinary data. Data presented in item was consisted of values that had one decimal point. Our experience with statistics textbooks indicated that histogram construction examples generally use data that are consisted of integers. Since the procedures in these examples described for integers, this item requires preservice teachers to think thoroughly the logic behind histogram construction, and to extend their histogram knowledge for the data that includes decimal points. The translated version of the Item presented in Figure 1.

A teacher wanted students to collect data to construct histogram. A student wanted to use the weights of students in her classroom as data so she brought a digital scale from her house. Then she measured weight of 30 students using this digital scale. The table shows the measurements of these 30 students. (unit is kilogram)

16,1	16,5	16,6	16,7	16,8	17,6	17,6	17,8	18,0	18,1	19,5	19,8	20,0	20,1	21,8
21,9	22,0	22,1	22,1	22,2	22,4	22,7	22,7	23,5	23,5	23,6	24,5	24,5	24,7	26,8

Using this data, construct a histogram that has 5 intervals.

Figure 1. Translated version of the histogram item

Participants of the thesis project are third and fourth year preservice mathematics teachers who will be eligible to teach in middle schools from fifth grade to eighth grade. All of these preservice teachers also took Statistics and Probability course in their first semester of third year in the mathematics teacher program. Even though 489 preservice middle school mathematics teachers from eight different public universities replied this item in thesis project, only answers that have clear indication of histogram misconception selected for the analysis of this study.

RESULTS

Qualitative analysis preservice teachers' answers revealed several important findings. Some of these preservice teachers constructed a graph that is completely different from histogram. For example, some students draw a scatterplot that shown at Figure 2. These students interpreted data as bivariate and used one axis for data presented in Item. They used another axis either for the data point itself or for the order of corresponding data point. This interpretation resulted in a data that looked similar to $\{(16.1, 16.1), (16.5, 16.5), \dots, (26.8, 26.8)\}$ or $\{(16.1, 1), (16.5, 2), \dots, (26.8, 30)\}$

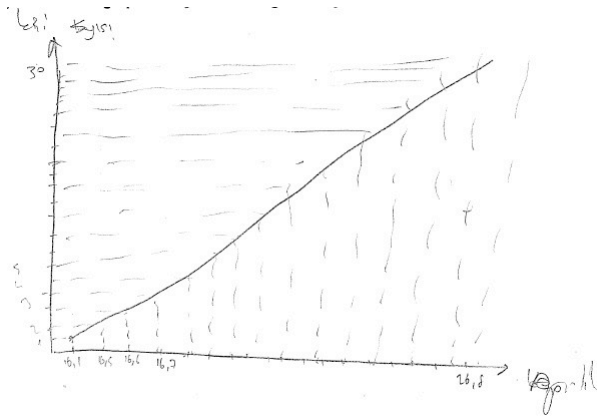


Figure 2. Interpreting data as bivariate

Another group of preservice teachers used regular frequency table for their graphs. Some of them draw line graphs that presented in Figure 3. Some of them draw bar graphs that presented in Figure 4, and some of them draw adjacent rectangles that was similar to histogram, which presented in Figure 5.

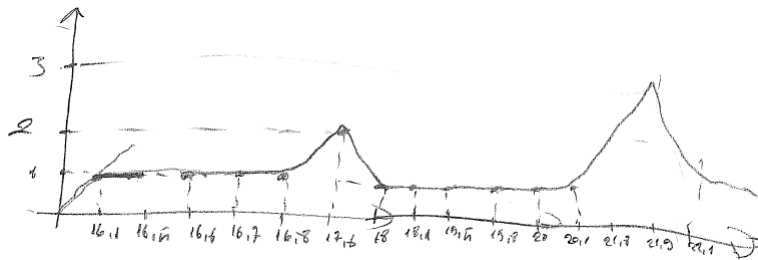


Figure 3. Frequency polygon without intervals

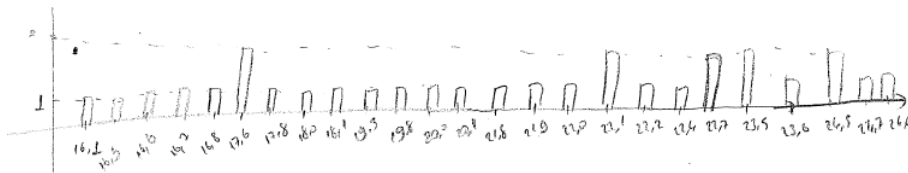


Figure 4. Separate bars without intervals

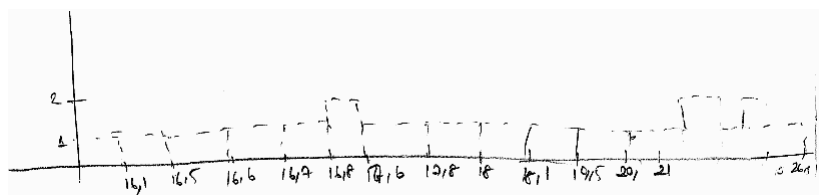


Figure 5. Adjacent bars without intervals

Another group of zero scoring preservice teachers grouped measurements that had same integer parts. This resulted in a frequency table with 11 intervals where the interval length was “1”. Graphs of these preservice teachers also had different patterns. One of them draw a graph that was similar to greatest integer function graph which presented in Figure 6. Another two preservice teachers presented this information using a graph that was similar to histogram that presented in Figure 7

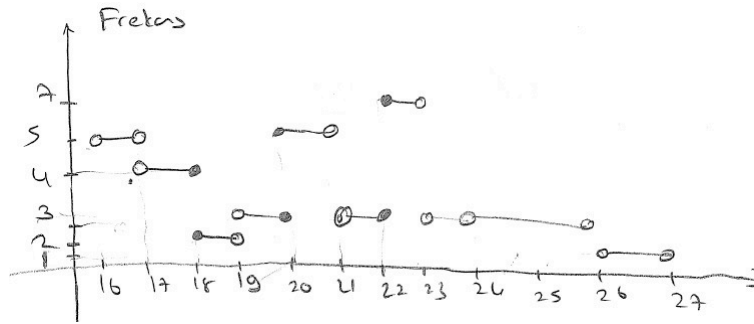


Figure 6. A graph that is similar to greatest integer function

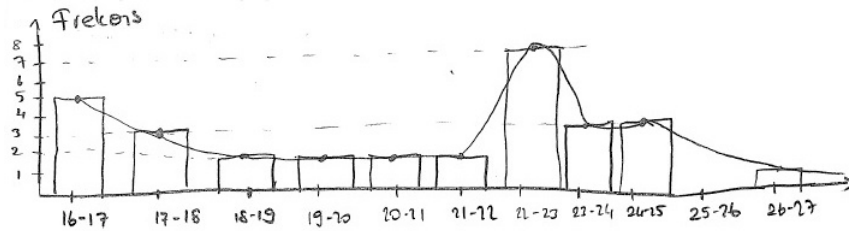
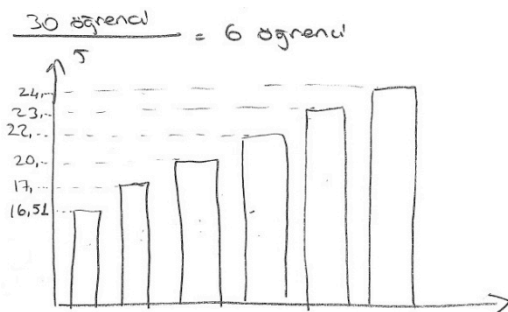
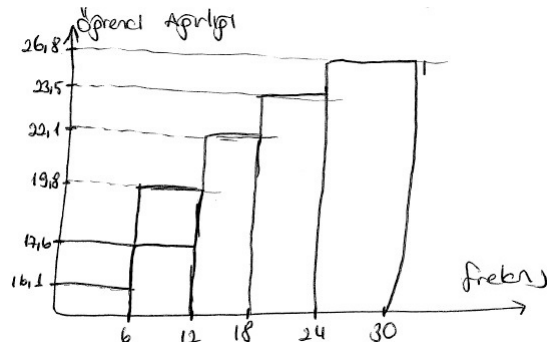


Figure 7. Frequency polygon and separate bars (interval length=1)

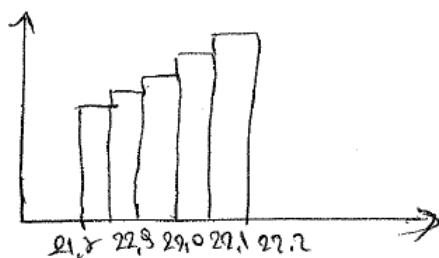
Majority of zero scoring preservice teachers had an idea that constructing a histogram with five intervals requires dividing data (30 measurements) into five equal parts (so every part should have had 6 measurements). After dividing data into five equal groups, they draw graphs in several ways. Some preservice teachers draw rectangles (adjacent as in Figure 8.a or separate as in Figure 8.b) that height of each rectangle increased, and some preservice teachers switched the axis and used y-axis for intervals (Figure 8.c). Most preservice teachers, who divided data into five equal groups, draw graphs looked similar to histograms. Their graphs consisted of same level of rectangles that were separate as in Figure 8 (d) or adjacent.



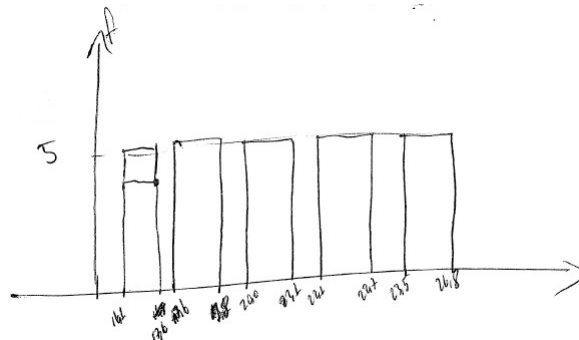
(a) Increasing separate bars with equal measurement in each interval



(b) Increasing adjacent bars with equal measurement in each interval (intervals at vertical scale)



(c) Increasing bars with equal measurement in each interval (Error 3)



(d) Equal separate bars with equal measurement in each interval

Figure 8. Different answers that divide data into five equal parts.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of the histogram related content knowledge item revealed that most Turkish preservice mathematics teachers, who subject to teach histogram to middle school students, couldn't construct a histogram and some of them have clear misconceptions for histogram concept. However, this result does not conflict with results reported for other nations (Bruno & Espinel, 2009; Lee & Meletiou-Mavrotheris, 2003).

Acknowledgements.

The data used in this study is based on Doctoral thesis of Oktay Mercimek that is supervised by Dr. Ayhan Kürşat ERBAŞ.

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Time Impact on Training Effectiveness of Physics Teachers in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

Teachers' professional development is a vital component of any educational system. Therefore, the policy of education in addition to the legislation of civil service in Saudi Arabia confirmed that training of teachers is a continuous process and considered as a part of their jobs both during working hours and out of working hours. The Ten-Year Plan of the Ministry of Education also included the improvement of male and female teachers' quality (*General Directorate of Planning, 2005*).

Although there is a large number of professional development activities for teachers, students' achievement in physics are not satisfied according to the Department of Educational Supervision (2010). Poor practice of physics education is still dominated in schools and consequently, the desired outcomes of learning physics are not achieved properly.

This situation generated the need to evaluate the effectiveness of the actual professional development practices as a first step to identify improvement strategies for physics teachers, and ultimately improve outcomes for students.

Keywords. In-service teacher education, Andragogy

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research shows that learners' achievements can be affected by the duration of professional learning program. For example, from a database consisting of 446,000 student enrollments at Santa Monica College, students enrolled in the 6-week compressed sections had higher success rates than those enrolled in the same courses during a 16-week semester as reported by Logan and Geltner (2000). In addition, Austin, and Gustafson (2006) investigated the link between course length and student learning using a database of over 45,000 observations and they found that intensive courses do result in higher grades than traditional 16 week semester length courses and that this benefit peaks at about 4 weeks. Furthermore, Shaw, Porter and ten Brinke, (2011) evaluated the effectiveness of one-day training on a deception detection task attended by 42 legal and mental health professionals and they found that participants' overall performance increased significantly from 46.4% to 80.9%.

On the other hand, for the same course taught in both intensive and traditional formats within the same year, Kucsera and Zimmaro (2010) affirmed that intensive courses did not significantly differ from traditional courses in overall "instructor" ratings on learner evaluations.

Research also shows that memory in addition to attention levels are affected by the instruction period throughout the day (Klein, 2001) and hence, impact learners' achievement. For example, the result of a study carried out by Barron, et al. (1994) indicated an overall increase in mean scores for the below-grade-level students' mastery of reading skills for afternoon instruction as compared with morning instruction. In addition, according to Spickler, Hernandez-Azarraga and Komorowski (1997), science teachers achieved many desired outcomes during the after-school hands-on science program. Furthermore, in order to examine the influence of time-of-day on elementary students' accuracy in computing mathematical algorithms, a study was conducted by Sjosten-Bell (2005) and an examination of the mean scores showed a trend toward higher scores in the morning followed by the mid-morning then the afternoon. Ray (2009) also, investigated the interactive effect of class time-of-day on students' academic performances of Basic Statistics-I course in Liberal Arts College and the results showed that the afternoon hours impacted academic performance significantly and in a negative manner.

Based on what research has revealed, it can be noticed that short-term memory is better in the morning, while long-term memory is better in the afternoon (Jensen, 2000). As a result, learning activities involving short-term

memory such as mathematics and science may be better to run in the morning (Brewer, and Campbell, 1991) while learning activities involving long-term memory such as art, problem solving techniques and hands-on activities may be better to run in the afternoon (Brewer, and Campbell, 1991) and (Stanciu, 2007).

Finally, the scheduling of professional learning should be considered. For example, in a study conducted by Karagiorgi and Symeou (2007), the results showed that the majority of Cypriot teachers prefer to involve in their in-service training activity during working days followed by holidays and weekends respectively.

Methods

The research reviews data from a relevant sample (N=62) of physics teachers at secondary and intermediate boy schools in the city of *Onaizah*, Saudi Arabia.

Written survey research was used in the study to determine Teachers' experiences of the effectiveness of their in-service professional learning activities.

As well as open-ended questions, closed questions have been used so that teachers respond through the indication of the extent to which they agreed with specific statements on a Likert-type scale (from 1 to 5, with 1 indicating strong agreement and 5 strong disagreements).

Findings

Teachers who responded to this survey were asked to identify their personal opinions on the most helpful duration, period and scheduling of their in-service professional learning. The results derived from the statistical analysis of teachers' responses to the questionnaires as following:

For the duration of physics teachers' professional learning activities, descriptive analysis indicated that the more than half (51.6%) of participants preferred 1-4 days duration, followed by 1-4 hours (24.2%), 1-4 weeks (16.1%), while five teachers preferred other duration (8.1%).

Furthermore, frequency analysis for the period of professional learning activities for physics teachers indicated that the majority (88.7%) of participants preferred morning courses, followed by afternoon courses (6.5%), evening courses (3.2%), while only one teacher preferred other period courses (1.6%).

Regarding to the scheduling of physics teachers' professional learning activities, descriptive analysis indicated that approximately half of teachers (46.77%) preferred their activities to be run at the beginning of semester, followed by the end of semester (22.58%), summer holiday (20.97%), while few teachers preferred to be trained at the middle of semester (9.68%).

Discussion

The teachers preference (51.6%) recorded regarding to the 1-4 days duration, is not surprising due to the advantages of such intensive courses compared with traditional courses. This has been supported by some researchers such as Logan and Geltner (2000), Austin, and Gustafson (2006) and Shaw, Porter and ten Brinke, (2011).

As a result, physics teachers are more likely to learn professionally when they involve in short duration such as 1-4 days.

Furthermore, the preference found the majority (88.7%) regarding to the morning courses is an expected result due to the advantages of this period. Such finding supports the notion that short-term memory is better in the morning, while long-term memory is better in the afternoon (Jensen, 2000). Consequently, by the run of training activities in the morning period, physics teachers are more likely to improve their teaching skills effectively.

Finally, the teachers' preference (79%) to involve in training activities during the working days is not surprising due to the advantages of such date. This has been supported by the finding of a study conducted by Karagiorgi and Symeou (2007) which is showed that the majority of Cypriot teachers prefer to involve in their in-service training activity during working days followed by holidays and weekends respectively.

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Teaching an EAP Course in a Synchronous Videoconferencing Platform: Technological, Pedagogical and Administrative Reflections

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Abstract

Given the latest developments in technology and Internet infrastructure, synchronous videoconferencing (SV) can be seen as a very important platform for delivering distance classes because of its collaborative and interactive functions. This study aims to evaluate the experience of an undergraduate course about English for Academic Purposes (EAP) taught in the SV platform during a single semester. This study used qualitative action research design and included semi-structured interviews with students in Berlin who were taught in a SV room where local students were also taught at the same time. The evaluation considered quality, reliability, user-friendliness and cost-efficiency factors from instructor, student, educational technologist and administrator perspectives, in which course preparation, classroom interactions, course structure, instructional materials, teaching style, and feedback were discussed. The findings showed that students were overall satisfied with learning via SV and its management and requirements.

Keywords. Synchronous Video Conference, Distance Education, EAP, Language Education

INTRODUCTION

For some time now, universities/higher education institutions have been using technologies such as synchronous videoconferencing (SV), online courses, and other technological innovations to deliver language course instruction for a part of their curriculum. This is an opportunity, which is increasingly relevant to the fast-growing need for students to become competent in using high-tech applications and understand the role of learner-centered engagement in language learning (Hoven, 2006). With support of such technologies, most of these language-related courses have started being delivered online by mainly emphasizing oral skills.

EAP is a challenging and multi-faceted area within the wider field of English Language Learning and Teaching (ELT), and is one of the most common forms of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It entails training students in a higher education setting to use language appropriately so that students can improve their ability to study effectively on an undergraduate or postgraduate program in English (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Like other ESP, it is characterized by working out what students' needs are, and then creating a syllabus and program of study to meet them. This particular English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course in this study, an undergraduate course taught in the SV platform during a single semester, aims to develop students' knowledge and skills in the following areas: reading and understanding extracts from academic texts, writing sentences and paragraphs, participating in group discussions, improving study skills such as note-taking and recognizing and using academic grammar and vocabulary. In this study it is aimed to evaluate quality, reliability, user-friendliness and cost-efficiency factors of the EAP course taught in SV platform from technological, pedagogical and administrative perspectives.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite the development of language education with technological improvements, most language teachers still do not prefer interaction in distance education classes. They claim that videoconferencing is not interactive completely, because of the possible problematic nature of the medium itself: the sense of distance, delays causing participants lose the rhythm of communication, poor image quality so that unclear facial expressions, not enough content, less error correction, less active teachers, and slower speaking speeds (Hsieh, Luo, & Breed, 2010). Motamedi (2001) states that the teacher needs to address technical problems immediately so they use up class time. The most common problem, connection instability can have a negative effect on teaching although, the Sloan Consortium (Allen & Seaman, 2006) reports that the online courses are equivalent or even superior to

their face-to-face counterparts in terms of quality. According to Blake (2007), the most important barriers to the implementation of online courses and programs referred to were the acceptance of faculty, “the demands of learning teaching methods, and lack of student discipline in the online learning environment.”

Literature on the subject mainly focuses the problems such as instable connection, unclear image, sound clarity, poor sense of mutuality, and less error correction than in traditional classes (Kember, 1989; Motamedi, 2001). On the other hand, literature also suggests strategies to cope with the issues, including giving immediate feedback, reducing student anxiety or feelings of isolation, and making the class feel more mutual (Hsieh, Luo, & Breed, 2010). It is a fact that technology cannot replace the richness of face-to-face interaction; however, the communication functions of the digital world are increasingly considered as beneficial for the development of learners’ language skills. Many researchers view electronic mediated communication as an effective medium for the development of learners’ intercultural competence in language learning (O’Dowd, 2005; Thorne, 2003; Ware & Kramsch, 2005). In addition, many other researchers claim that this new medium and tools help foster collaborative learning through social engagement and construction of L2 knowledge (Belz, 2002; Lee, 2004a, 2004b).

Three interactive models for distance education were proposed by Moore (1989): (1) Learner-Content Interaction: the development of a conversation between the learner and new ideas in the text, (2) Learner-Instructor Interaction, individualized feedback and support students receive, and (3) Learner-Learner Interaction, the creation of mutual learning resource. Young learners can get more motivated when they interact with their peers. Videoconferencing more closely reflects the educational features of traditional classroom than any other form of distance education (Moore & Kearsley, 1996) and can meet the needs of university students who are required to develop their language proficiency especially in terms of communication, one of the five components of the International standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century, based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment Guidelines (2007). Therefore, genuine oral interaction that aims to foster negotiations of meaning (Long, 1996) through constructive feedback is essential.

There is also a debate which has been carried by the field critics of learning language at a distance that distance-learning curriculum and traditional classroom one are contrary to each other and their designs are not the same. Blake (2007) states that the real issue is to find ways to make learners get used to the idea of distance-learning (DL) offerings integrated into the overall language curriculum to meet the needs of learners without compromising quality. That is to say, Foreign Languages (FL) departments can use DL language courses to meet different needs of their students including study abroad opportunities. This suggestion needs to be considered as one of the most considerable ideas related to instructional and curriculum design and today’s university students’ language learning motivation. It is a fact that DL classes start to play a significant role at least respect to oral proficiency, in foreign language curricula. Many universities offer DL courses these days and the number seems to be increasing because these courses’ convenience is unquestionable in terms of allowing opportunities to learning a language from basic level to advanced proficiency by requiring roughly 700 to 1.350 hours of instruction (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994).

The usefulness of distance education related to oral skills is highly accepted in the field of language teaching; however, teaching writing skills is still controversial. Most language instructors are skeptic about DL and need strong evidence before accepting any online implementations. Chenoweth, Jones, and Tucker (2006) found that students were generally weak in the use of transitions and general essay organization in language courses whether they were in an online class or in a traditional class. Similarly, the results did not register any significant statistical differences between the groups taking the language course separately in those two settings in terms of students’ listening comprehension, grammar knowledge, and reading comprehension (Chenoweth, Jones, & Tucker, 2006). As it is stated in Banados’s (2006, p. 539) framework, not only teachers and but also students are about to adopt new roles in the upgraded learning environment and technologically facilitated classrooms. While students need to be more autonomous and establish a participatory status, teachers have to play the role of guides and collaborators.

Regarding the reviewed research, there are a few studies on the purpose of teaching a second language at an academic level for freshmen in SV platform, which considers all related factors from all technological, pedagogical and administrative perspectives together. Our aim was to evaluate the reflections of freshmen students taught an EAP course in Berlin from a synchronous videoconferencing room where local students are

taught at the same time in order to obtain a better understanding of the student experience related to learning in the synchronous videoconferencing platform. The main considerations addressed in the study were: quality, reliability, user-friendliness and cost-efficiency factors, course preparation, classroom interactions, course structure, instructional materials, teaching style, and feedback.

METHOD

Study Design

A qualitative descriptive design was used because the evaluation's scope included quality, reliability, user-friendliness and cost-efficiency factors from instructor, student, educational technologist and administrator perspectives, in which course preparation, classroom interactions, course structure, instructional materials, teaching style, and feedback were discussed. Qualitative descriptive inquiry was chosen because we desired to describe learning and also teaching in the synchronous videoconferencing platform from the current experiences of students.

Participants and Setting

Participants were freshmen students —from Berlin office— ($N = 11$) enrolled in a core EAP course which was given via synchronous videoconferencing in the 2013 academic fall semester at Bahcesehir University. Of the 11 participants, one was male went from Istanbul, his hometown, to Berlin for one-semester study; the rest were 10 females who are the residents of the city of Berlin and have German high-school education background. Their ages ranged from 19 years of age to 26 years of age. Their departments were heterogeneous, but majority is studying architecture.

The classroom, called “Meta-Smart Classroom”, is equipped with the latest technological devices which perform real-time video-based communication between two campuses (Istanbul and Berlin). This miscellaneous communication enables interactive teaching by allowing both sides to participate to the lesson. CISCO video conference system, which enables this communication, has two cameras that shoot the lecturer and the students at the same time. There are also two IP cameras positioned as CISCO cameras to record lessons. These records are accessible for the registered students after the lessons. There are two data projectors reflected to the scene; one of which shows the screen of interactive wacom tablet, the other one shows the students in the visitor campus (Berlin). The students in the visitor campus can see the lecturer, whiteboard, the screen of the tablet and also the students in this classroom (Istanbul). While the classroom is equipped with advanced technology, it also supports traditional methods as having a classic whiteboard. Lecturers are free to use digital interactive wacom tablet or traditional white board. There are six omni directional microphones which can be enabled by the lecturer when any student wants to talk so that the visitor campus can hear the conversation. There are also hand and lapel microphones which are used by the lecturer. Two TVs are located at the rear of the classroom for the students who don't see the whiteboard clearly. Meta-Smart Classroom is also capable of streaming lessons real-time over Internet. So anyone around the world can attend to the course in this classroom.

Data Collection

After the institutional review process (IRB) at Bahcesehir University was completed and final approval obtained at the very beginning of the semester, recruitment of participants for the research were completed and followed by data collection in two sources: (1) records of the tutorials done weekly after each lesson via synchronous videoconferencing through 14 weeks during the one whole fall semester, and (2) two semi-structured interviews conducted a week after the lessons finished at the end of the semester. Potential participants were notified for the interviews in the last lesson via synchronous videoconferencing and later appointed the interviews by providing the Adobe Connect link contact information via e-mail communication by the researchers.

All students were tutored and interviewed by the researchers on two occasions, for between 50 and 60 minutes. All the tutorials and interviews were recorded, with the permission of the subject students. After the tutorials and interviews, the recordings were transcribed by the researchers carefully to assure the respondents that they and the place of them would not be identifiable in any subsequent report. Once the final research report was written, the recordings of the tutorials and interviews were archived by the researchers.

Data Analysis

Inductive content analysis was implemented for this study. Data were systematically and thoroughly analyzed; all of the transcripts were read by the researchers and put into a table. The answers were coded in the style of a grounded theory approach to data analysis (Altheide, 1996; Atkinson, 1992; Ezzy, 2002; Feldman, 1994; Phillips & Hardy, 2002) to label each condensed meaning and analyzed for words or phrases with the same meaning in order to categorize the responses under the same emerging themes. In other words, the answers were analyzed for words or phrases with the same meaning in order to determine meaning units. Codes were used to label each condensed meaning unit, and categories were grouped into patterns with the final development of themes (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004).

The tutorial and interview texts were sorted into five areas; experiences of having lessons via synchronous videoconferencing in terms of technical, learning issues and teaching issues; and ideas related to improve this course and taking the following course via synchronous videoconferencing. The texts were read through several times to obtain a sense of the whole. Three theme headings related to technology, pedagogy, and administration, were generated from the data and all of the data that were coded took part under these themes. Two independent researchers were asked to verify the accuracy of the categorization and after that it was finalized.

FINDINGS and DISCUSSION

Three themes were identified at the end of the data analysis that reflects the participant's reflections related to their synchronous videoconferencing experience: technology, pedagogy and administration.

Technological Reflections

Students' expressed their experiences related to synchronous videoconferencing classroom as being a virtual classroom with communication quality in understanding, satisfaction, and communication breakdown. This was a consideration related to the overall communication quality between the instructor and participants' location. But, as synchronous videoconferencing and face-to-face instruction are not exactly the same, there is always a room for new technological experiences for students that may go beyond what exists in traditional classroom settings.

Communication

There is no control of the students over tardiness and attendance when there are technical challenges. Students reflected that they had experienced almost no communication breakdowns during the lessons. One student reported, "I think it was a good experience; it was a little bit difficult at the beginning of the semester as it was not easy to follow the lesson because the connection was not so good. But after a while I think it was really nice to have lessons."

Quality

Students all agreed on that the quality of the sound and tablet—an electronic screen showing the entire course related documents and the page the instructor was writing on while teaching— was good and had no problems in understanding the instructor. Students felt comfortable with watching the instructor and following the lesson on the screen via synchronous videoconferencing, as they were familiar with computers and technology from their educational background. They noted that this was not the first online course taken, but this experience was a better one compared to the videos that they had watched before in their previous courses in terms of understanding and satisfaction resulted from the mutual communication quality. They reported that the instructor's voice and the image was high-quality. One student reported a problem with the clarity of the voices of the students in Istanbul and stated that the voices of the students in Istanbul were flat and what they said could not be heard exactly from Berlin, but the AV technicians fixed the problem.

Improvement

Transitioning from face-to-face learning environment to online was challenging for students, putting them at more of a disadvantage due to the need to hold different skills than the ones in a traditional classroom. Students stated that it would be useful if they could participate in an orientation prior to the beginning of the semester that prepared them to attend class successfully in terms of using technology such as headsets with a microphone possible to use in the classroom (Hallford, 2012). Apart from that, students commented that participation in synchronous videoconferencing course did not require a different technological skill set in terms of hand rising, note-taking, and laughing (Hallford, 2012). Another student noted that it would have been great for him if he had seen the instructor's eyes like the instructor were physically there like in the traditional classroom. The technology systems could be improved to offer interactive webcams which show the other students during synchronous class time. The interaction technology could be improved to allow for more technology and more communication to be delivered to students that are challenged by the instructor. From the instructor's point of view, students have always been enjoying themselves with the possibilities of new technologies while learning.

Pedagogical Reflections

Students' expressed their learning experiences related to synchronous videoconferencing classroom with course content, exams, tutorials and feedback, and classroom atmosphere. This was a consideration related to the overall pedagogical objectives of the course. Students' perspective of their learning experience is valuable information that can improve synchronous videoconferencing delivery practices and offerings. Instructors who teach synchronous videoconferencing courses need to use their interpersonal skills to understand visual cues, body language, and facial expressions to create an environment for learning, which is an important task of the instructors' profession (Hallford, 2012). They need to find ways to make a connection and to see the students to form relationships either in a real or a virtual classroom. Discovering what provided meaningful learning experiences for these students can contribute to the field of synchronous videoconferencing delivery. It may also help finding out the unique needs of students and determine the expectations of them in synchronous videoconferencing classes.

Course Content

Students reported that they learned many new things in this format. They reported gaining knowledge and applying it to their education. One student reported, "I like it because I have a feeling of that we learn really academic English and learn maybe some terms [like] cohesion. I [haven't] really heard about this word anywhere [before] and I learned [it] in your class and I have really feeling of that we learn academic English." All of the students referred to synchronous videoconferencing delivery as an enhanced autonomous learning environment that had essential requirements for prerequisite academic skills such as note-taking which was not cared so much in the traditional classroom. One student also commented, "I think we have to understand you. We need academic English skills and you know listening skills are one of them. We had to work harder to improve our academic English. In normal lessons you know professors answer you when you want them to repeat but we have no chance to ask many questions in your lesson while you are teaching. But I know when we listen to you carefully there is no problem actually." Online learning provides skills with raising students' ability to concentrate on the lesson content and corresponds well with the students' learning expectations in this EAP course (Hui et al., 2008). One student noted, "I like visual things and technology. I learned more because you are away and I do not feel anxious so I comprehend more this way." Another student stated, "I'm keeping both vocabulary and grammar journals and while listening to you. I'm adding new things into my journals to use them in my other lessons." She discovered a way that they could apply the knowledge they learned to their departmental courses. This is considered the highest outcome of the course for the instructor.

Exams, Tutorials and Feedback

Students had one mid-term and final examination during the semester which was observed via synchronous videoconferencing. All of them agreed on that the exams they had in this format was fair as the questions were about what was taught to them. They reported that they felt as if the instructor was there and her authority was felt there even she was many kilometers away. They noted that when they did not understand the exam instructions they could ask her. One student stated, "It was okay, when we have questions, and you were all there with your web cam, and nobody copied." One student commented that he learned a lot better in the exams and also in the online feedback sessions of this course because they were to the point because there was a certain time allocated for them. Another student noted, "I learned about the midterm exam so I know what I have to learn for the final." Exams and feedback sessions need to be done in a way that students get encouraged to learn more in cooperation with what is thought based on the objectives of the course in the lessons in a motivating

environment and timed scheduled manner especially if they are taking the course in a virtual classroom. Students know the value of purposeful feedback sessions because these sessions make them prepare themselves for the exams with the instructor, and they have no chance to see the instructor whenever they want as they are in a virtual campus.

Classroom Atmosphere

Students reported that the instructor guided and tried to use an interactive teaching style while leading the tasks. Although students thought that there was less interpersonal interaction between their synchronous videoconferencing class and Istanbul class, they stated that students in Istanbul class and the instructor were very approachable. Mutuality needs to be specially taken care of by the instructor in synchronous videoconferencing classes (Banados, 2006). Activities which are aimed to be done in a synchronous videoconferencing lesson where students share the same textual, audio and visual information on a common tablet are not different than the traditional classroom but needs the instructor's special attention to the joint efforts to achieve common purposes by sharing the same lesson time. Most of the students also felt that they have gotten to know the other students and meet and form new friendships. Many of them reported that they knew each other from the Preparatory School and this class helped them a lot to improve their relationships with their classmates. One student said, "I think it is a good idea to leave the connection open between the break so we can ask questions to each other." Leaving the connection on can provide more opportunities for conversation, and feedback among students. This could be achieved by carrying out connection during break time across both classes for interpersonal interaction. The use of the microphones, remote controls, and the tablet may be promoted to students to use. Many times conversations are about the content of the lesson between students who have difficulties of understanding what is going on in the class and what is expected to be done for the next lesson or homework. Allowing and encouraging them to use the technological facilities in the classroom may help build their own learning communities (Hallford, 2012). It may also help students who want to get together outside of class to study. They can have their classmates' cell phone numbers and e-mail addresses to contact, and use the social media platforms to comment on what they are learning, which may motivate them to a great extent.

Administrative Reflections

Students' expressed their opinions about how the synchronous videoconferencing course is administered by referring to attendance, and assessments. This is a consideration directly related to the overall management and the requirements of the course. Students were responsible for attending the lessons —2 hours in synchronous videoconferencing class, 2 hours on *itslearning* platform during the semester. Those who did not attend class more than 10 hours in 14 weeks were not allowed to take the Final Examination. Students were to bring to class and study the material weekly as referred to in the syllabus by accessing *itslearning*, making full use of all materials and taking clear and complete notes of all the work covered during the semester. Instructors who design a synchronous videoconferencing course need to create principles which include a comprehensive attendance policy and provide a clear map of learning process as the course can be considered easy due to the practicality of the technological facilities that are used (Comas-Quinn, 2011). Students may assume that they can catch the tests any time and attendance is not a problem. The acceptance of the online classroom as a medium of language learning seems to be taken for granted by most students. In fact, attendance, tests and homework are the crucial components of a language learning class.

Attendance

Students reported that the instructor took attendance at every lesson, which was necessary because it made them feel as a university student. They noted that it would be very difficult for them to do the tests on *itslearning* and answer the questions in the mid-term and final examination if they did not attend the lessons. Students also reported that when they learned that the instructors in their other synchronous videoconferencing courses did not take attendance in their lessons, they would decide not to go to the class. One student noted, "My project teacher does not take attendance so I do not go to lesson and I cannot learn a lot." Actually, attendance should be a must not only in language learning but also some other courses which require continuous application.

Assessments

Students were satisfied as there was no one walking around or giving the feeling of annoying close attention in the exams. They reported that they did not feel disturbed with the observation from Istanbul during the mid-term and final examination although they knew that there was an intense invigilation with the help of many cameras located to provide clear visibility. Most of the students thought that they had been examined with very

well-designed questions in a fair situation and. One student commented, “in my other online courses, there are simply notes online, there are online tests, no one is invigilating so many students are cheating. It is not fair.” Feedback about the administration of the assessments can provide evidence that whether synchronous videoconferencing enables students to really feel themselves in a true learning environment or not. Most importantly, instructors need to give them the trust they need from many kilometers away. Instructors need to realize the importance of assessments in students’ life and they need to begin to show an awareness of some of the instructional design aspects gained very much importance these days.

This qualitative descriptive study with its inductive content analysis findings explores the learning experiences of freshmen students who have taken the core EAP course via synchronous videoconferencing. The students in this study help bring out the experiences and needs of synchronous videoconferencing classrooms. The change from traditional classroom delivery to online delivery was welcomed with most students. Students were overall satisfied with learning in a course given via synchronous videoconferencing and its management and its requirements. However, the purposeful sample of students is the limitation of this study. The students may be reserved to be totally honest with the researchers because one of the researchers is also their instructor, and they also have invested money into their education. Because of this, students were asked to answer the questions once in the tutorials and interviews. A larger sample size would be more appropriate to draw conclusions.

CONCLUSION

This study of transforming a traditional language course to online delivery points out the importance of meaningful learning experiences with the help of the advanced technology, opportunities for creating a learning environment and interpersonal communication between students as well as the instructor, and the significance of the administrative issues to build trust between students and the institution. The results of this study indicate that students have some insight into their own learning experiences that may contribute to the field of online learning. Online learning provides learning and opportunities for students that may not be available in a traditional classroom setting. Although, there is an urgent need for understanding the real expectations of students in terms of advanced technology features used in a language course, shared experiences can contribute to the offerings of online delivery of language courses in the future. Accordingly, students’ considerations can be addressed in lesson plans and instructional design with the improvements in technology features.

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Uzaktan İngilizce Öğretmeni Yetiştirmede Uygulama Derslerinin Yönetim ve Organizasyonu: AÖF İÖLP E-Portfolyo Uygulaması

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Özet

Öğretim programlarının etkinliği, öğretmenlerin iyi yetiştirilmesine bağlıdır. Tarihi açıdan bakıldığında, öğretim gereksinimin ortaya çıkması ile öğretmenlerin belli nitelikleri taşımasının gerekliliği ortaya çıkmış ve nitelikli öğretmen yetiştirme çalışmaları başlamış olup, günümüzde de yoğun olarak devam etmektedir.

Türkiye’de sekiz yıllık eğitime geçilmesi ile birlikte mevcut İngilizce Öğretmeni açığının kısa sürede giderilemeyecek boyutlara ulaşması üzerine, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı ve Anadolu Üniversitesi arasında yapılan protokolle Açıköğretim Fakültesi bünyesinde İngilizce Öğretmenliği programı açılmıştır. Program, fakülte-okul işbirliği anlayışında harmanlanmış bir öğrenme modeli uygulamasıdır. Öğretmen adayları kuramsal bilginin yanı sıra Bakanlığa bağlı okullarda uygulama yapmaktadırlar.

Günümüzde, değişen teknolojik koşullar ve eğitim gereksinimlerinin farklılaşması, başta İnternet olmak üzere çağdaş iletişim teknolojilerinin yoğun olarak kullanıldığı ve uzaktan eğitimi klasik işlevlerinin ötesine taşıyan yapılanmalarla birlikte yeni bir dönem başlatmıştır.

Programda e-portfolyo uygulaması ile öğrenenler ve öğretenler arasındaki etkileşimin etkili hale getirilerek, gerçekleştirdikleri uygulamaları tartışmaları amaçlanmıştır.

Bu çalışmada Programın işleyişinde e-portfolyo uygulaması, uygulamanın yararları ve uygulamanın geliştirilme aşamaları açıklanmaya çalışılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Uzaktan eğitim, öğretmen yetiştirme, uygulama dersleri, e-portfolyo

ÖĞRETMEN EĞİTİMİ

Öğretmen, insan yetiştirme işlevini üstlenen, eğitim sisteminin vazgeçilmez ögesidir. Öğretim programlarının etkili bir şekilde uygulanabilmesi, uygulayıcı öğretmenlerin iyi yetiştirilmesine bağlıdır. (Işık ve Evin 2005, s.30)

Tarihsel süreçte, eğitim öğretim gereksiniminin ortaya çıkması ve eğitim öğretim konularında düşünce üretimine başlanması izleyen dönemlerde, belli nitelikleri taşıyan öğretmenlerin yetiştirilmesi gereği ile birlikte öğretmen yetiştirme çabaları başlamıştır. (Keçik, 2012, s.5)

Rönesans sonrasında ahlaki değerlere sahip bilimsel bilginin deney yoluyla öğretilmesi önem kazanmış, daha sonraları J. Dewey’in de belirttiği gibi eğitim-öğretimin amacı düşünmeyi öğretmek olmalı fikrinden hareketle öğretmen, öğrencilere sadece bilgi aktarmak yerine onlara düşünmeyi ve öğrenmeyi öğretmeyi amaçlayan bir birey olmalı görüşü benimsenmiştir.

Günümüzde geliştirilen öğretmen eğitimi programları öğretmen adayına alan ve meslek bilgisi vermenin yanı sıra genel kültürü artırıcı dersleri ve uygulama çalışmalarını kapsamaktadır. (Okçabol, 2005, s.13-17)

1973 yılında yürürlüğe giren Milli Eğitim Temel Yasası her öğretim basamağındaki öğretmenlerin en az ön lisans düzeyinde yükseköğrenim görmesi zorunluluğunu getirmiş, 1982 tarihli Yükseköğretim yasası da öğretmen yetiştiren kurumları yükseköğretim bünyesine almıştır. 1989 tarihli YÖK kararı ile öğretmenlerin en az lisans mezunu olmaları karara bağlanmıştır.

1982’de üniversite yapısına dâhil edilen eğitim fakülteleri, 1996’da Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yeniden yapılandırılmıştır. (Gültekin, 1993) Bu kapsamda YÖK -Dünya Bankası- Milli Eğitimi Geliştirme Projesi kapsamında gerçekleştirilen öğretmen yetiştirme programlarına yönelik çalışmalarda, öğretmen eğitiminde kuramsal temel oluşturma çalışmalarının yanı sıra, uygulama çalışmalarının önemi ve katkısı da göz önüne alınmıştır. (Keçik, 2012, s.7)

Fakülteler ve eğitim kurumları, öğretmen adaylarının günümüzde okullarda uygulanan yöntem, teknik ve yaklaşımları öğrenmelerine ve geliştirmelerine olanak sağlayacak, karşılıklı işbirliği ve etkileşim olanakları geliştirerek, yeni yöntem ve teknikleri uygulama imkânı sağlamalıdır. Bu amaçla, e-portfolyo, net-folyo uygulamaları gibi işbirliğine dayalı stratejiler ve teknoloji etkili bir biçimde kullanılarak, (Barbera, 2009, s.342-

357) arařtırmacı bir yaklařım gerekleřtirilmelidir. Byle bir yaklařım, dzenli dřnce sistematiđini ve uygulamalarını yansıtan, bunların zerine dřnen đretmenlerin geliřimine katkı sađlayabilecektir. (Keik, 2012, s.7)

Aık đretim Fakltesi İngilizce đretmenliđi programı, bu geliřmeler ve faklte-okul iřbirliđi anlayıřı temel alınarak 2000 yılında Milli Eđitim Bakanlıđı ile birlikte đretmen aıđını kapatmak amacı ile bařlatılmıř bir harmanlanmıř đrenme (blended learning) modeli uygulamasıdır. İngilizce đretmenliđi adayları kuramsal bilginin yanı sıra 3 ve 4. sınıfta Milli Eđitim Bakanlıđı'na bađlı okullarda uygulama yaparak đretmenlik deneyimi kazanmaktadırlar. (Hakan, zgr, Kara, Krm & zkanal, 2004, s.2)

2009 yılında programda e-portfolyo uygulaması bařlatılarak, uygulama đretmeni, uygulama đretim elemanı ve đretmen adayları arasındaki etkileřim etkili hale getirilerek, đretmen adaylarının yansıtmaya yapmaları ve đretmenleri ve arkadařları ile duygu, dřnce ve gerekleřtirdikleri uygulamaları tartıřmaları amalanmıřtır. (Keik, 2012, s.7)

UZAKTAN ĐRETMEN EđİTİMİ

đretme ve đrenme tekniklerinde ve teknolojiye yařanan ilerleme đrenme programlarının daha verimli ve etkin kullanımı iin geleneksel yntemlerden farklı ve basit yeni olanaklar sunmuřtur. (Hickman, 2007)

20. yzyılın ortasından sonra yařanan teknolojik geliřmeler eđitim ve đretim alanında da yeni aılımlara nderlik etmiř ve đretmen yetiřtiren programlar da bu aılımların etkisinde kalarak geleceđin đretmenlerini yetiřtirmede ađın teknolojik geliřmelerinden faydalanmaya bařlamıřtır. Bu teknolojik geliřimlerin eđitim alanındaki uygulamalarından birisi de uzaktan eđitim yntemlerinin yksekđretimde kullanılmaya bařlamasıdır.

En yalın tanımıyla uzaktan eđitim, zaman ve mekn aısından đretmen ve đrenci arasında fiziki bađı en aza indirirken, diđer iletiřim aralarından en yksek dzeyde yararlanılması yoluyla daha fazla sayıda kiřinin eđitimini sađlayan bir sistemdir. Uzaktan eđitimin en temel zelliđi zaman ve kullanılan ortam aısından sađladıđı esnekliktir. Gnmzde uzaktan eđitim internet ve bilgi iřlem teknolojisi kullanımına da ađırlıklı olarak yer vermektedir. (Caner, M. 2012, s.13) Uzaktan eđitim uygulamaları tarihsel sre ierisinde beř ařamadan oluřmaktadır. (Somuncuođlu, 2005, s.89)

Birinci nesil uzaktan eđitim uygulamaları 1700'li yıllardaki mektupla eđitim ile bařlamıřtır. (Rautenbach, 2007) İkinci nesil uzaktan eđitim uygulamaları 1950 ve 60'lı yıllarda kitle iletiřim aralarındaki geliřmelere bađlı olarak radyo ve televizyon yayıncılıđından da yararlanarak (Cambre, 1991, s.267-295; ve Davey, 1999) eđitim dnyasındaki yerini almıřtır.

20.yzyılın sonlarında hayatımıza giren internetin kullanımı ise uzaktan eđitim alanında yeni bir dnemi bařlatmıřtır. İnternet ađlarının ve bilgi teknolojileri odaklı,

- İřitsel ortamda konferans (Audiotele-conferencing)
 - Grntl konferans (Video-conferencing)
 - Audiographic Communication
 - Televizyon yayınları ve radyo yayınları (Broadcast TV/Radio and Audio-teleconferencing)
- (Somuncuođlu, 2005, s.89)

gibi eđitim aralarının yaygınlařmasıyla 90'ların bařında 'nc nesil uzaktan eđitim' (Holmberg, 1995) uygulamalarına geilmiřtir. İzleyen dnemde,

- Etkileřimli (evrimii) oklu Ortam (Interactive multimedia (IMM) online)
- İnternete Dayalı Kaynaklar (Internet based Access to WWW resources)
- Bilgisayar Ortamında İletiřim (Computer Mediated Communication)

kullanımı ile esnek đrenme modeli olarak da adlandırılan drdnc nesil uzaktan eđitim uygulamaları kullanılmıřtır. (Somuncuođlu, 2005, s.89)

2000 yılına gelindiđinde artık 'beřinci nesil uzaktan eđitim'(Taylor, 2001) olan harmanlanmıř đrenme (blended learning) ortamları kendi geliřimini srdrmeye bařlamıřtır. Bu kapsamda drdnc nesilde yer alan,

- Etkileřimli (evrimii) oklu Ortam (Interactive multimedia (IMM) online)
- İnternete Dayalı Kaynaklara (Internet based Access to www resources) ek olarak
- Otomatik yanıtlama sistemi kullanılan bilgisayar ortamlı iletiřim,
- Kurumsal kamps portalına eriřim,
- Sre ve kaynakların etkili kullanımı uygulamada yer almaktadır. (Somuncuođlu, 2005, s.89)

Moore ve Kearsley uzaktan eđitimin ařamalarını tarihsel aıdan beř dneme ayırmakta, birinci dnemi mektupla iletiřim, ikinci dnemi radyo ve televizyon yayıncılıđı, nc dnemi aık niversiteler, drdnc dnemi telekonferanslar, beřinci dnemi ise internet / web uygulamaları olarak sıralamaktadır. (Moore ve Kearsley, 2012)

Son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalar, yüz yüze eğitim ile uzaktan eğitimin öğrencilerin öğrenme ve başarısı ile eğitimden aldıkları memnuniyet ve doyum açısından benzer sonuçlara ulaşıldığını ortaya koymuş ve uzaktan eğitime ilginin artmasına yol açmıştır. (Barry ve Runyan, 1995; Schulman ve Sims, 1999; Gagne ve Shepherd, 2001; Hiltz, Zhang ve Turoff, 2002; Russell, 1999; 2001)

Uzaktan eğitim alanındaki bu öğretim yaklaşımı dünyada ve Türkiye’de yükseköğretim alanında yerini almış ve öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlar da bu teknolojiyi etkin olarak kullanmaya başlamışlardır.

Uzaktan öğretim alanında Türkiye’deki öğrenci sayısı 2013 yılı itibariyle yaklaşık 1.400.000 civarındadır ve bu rakam sistemi ilk kullanmaya başlayan Anadolu Üniversitesi dışında diğer üniversitelerin de uzaktan eğitim programları açmasıyla her yıl artmaktadır.

Teknoloji destekli uzaktan eğitimde, teknolojik gelişmelerden yaygın ve yoğun olarak yararlanılmaya başlanması ile öğretim kurumlarının dersleri zaman ve mekân ile sınırlı sınıf ortamlarından farklılaşmıştır. Günümüzde İnternet, uzaktan eğitim uygulamaları içinde ekonomik ve demokratik öğrenme ve öğretme ortamlarından birisi durumuna gelmiştir. (Khan, 1997)

Uzaktan eğitim uygulamalarının, özellikle teknoloji destekli uzaktan eğitim uygulamasının öğretmen yetiştirme alanında da kullanılmaya başlanması hem dünyada hem de ülkemizde oldukça yeni ve gelişmekte olan bir uygulamadır. Bu nedenle, uzaktan eğitimin öğretmen yetiştirme alanında kullanımıyla ilgili kuramsal çalışmalar çok olsa da öğretmenlik uygulamaları ile ilgili deneysel çalışmalar oldukça sınırlı sayıdadır. (Caner, 2012, s.14)

Wittenburg ve McBride (1998) e-posta ile sağlanan danışmanlık ve dönüt verme sürecinin etkili bir iletişim sağladığı ve öğretmen adayları üzerinde olumlu katkılarının olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

King (2002) Amerika’daki bir üniversitede yüz yüze öğretim ile uzaktan eğitimin birleştirildiği “harmanlanmış öğrenme” (blended learning) ortamında öğrenme ortamlarının, öğretmen adayları için interaktif ve katılımcı bir ortam sağladığını ve yüz yüze yapılan öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerinin olumsuz yönlerini en aza indirdiğini gözlemlemiştir.

Whipp (2003), öğretmen adayları arasında oluşturulacak e-posta merkezli bir tartışma grubunun bireysel yansıtma raporları hazırlamaları ve bunları birbirleriyle paylaşmalarının sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının daha etkili mesajlar paylaştıklarını ortaya koymuştur.

Khine ve Lourdasamy (2003) bir web sayfası yoluyla öğretmen adaylarına İnternet üzerinden ulaştırılan ders içeriği, katılımcılara ulaştırılan çoklu ortam destekli CD’ler ve çevrim-içi tartışma platformu yoluyla bir sınıf ortamı oluşturmuştur.

DeWert, Babinski ve Jones (2003) bir eylem araştırması desenleyerek İnternet üzerinden çevrim-içi bir ortam yoluyla profesyonel destek sağlamış ve bu ortamın onlara öğretmenlik sürecindeki katkısını belirlenmeye çalışmıştır.

Jung ve arkadaşları (2006) uzakta eğitimle yetişen öğretmen adaylarına çevrim-içi video konferans yoluyla dönütler vermiş ve bu ortamın öğretmenlik uygulaması sürecine katkılarını incelemiştir.

Bangel, Enersen, Capobianco ve Moon (2006) öğretmen adaylarına bir çevrim-içi destek ortamı oluşturmuş, öğretmen adaylarının verilen çevrim-içi eğitimden yararlandıkları, videoya kaydedilmiş kendi uygulamalarını analiz etmelerinin uygulama sürecinde olumlu katkılar sağladığını ortaya koymuştur.

Young ve Levis (2008) Amerika Birleşik Devletleri’nde uzaktan eğitim yoluyla öğretmen yetiştiren yedi ayrı kurumda öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının uzaktan öğretim ile ilgili görüşlerini ve onların programlarından memnuniyetlerini değişik boyutlarda ele alarak incelemiş ve uzaktan eğitim alan öğretmen adaylarının aldıkları eğitimden memnun olduklarını ve olumlu tutumları olduklarını ortaya koymuştur.

Barnett (2006) web tabanlı profesyonel bir destek sistemi geliştirilmiş ve örnek ders videolarını web üzerinden ulaştırarak, incelemeleri ve derslerle ilgili görüşlerini çevrim-içi tartışma ortamı yoluyla birbirleriyle paylaşmalarını istemiştir. Çalışmada öğretmen adaylarına sağlanan İnternet destekli profesyonel destek sisteminin öğretmen yetiştirmede bir değişim ve reform için olumlu katkıları olduğu ortaya koyulmuştur. (Caner, 2012, s.14-17)

Aydın (2011, s.219-230) yabancı dil öğretiminde senkron sınıfların kullanımının öğrencilere ve farklı örnekler sunma ve öğreticilere farklı etkileşim ortamları yaratmada kolaylık ve avantaj sağladığını belirtmiştir.

Altunay (2011, s.231-246) uzaktan İngilizce Öğretiminde e-öğrenme uygulamalarının öğrenmenin sürekliliğine katkı sağladığını ortaya koyarken, (Şakar, 2011 s.247-261) harmanlanmış öğrenme modelinde Web tabanlı e-öğrenme uygulamalarının çevrim-içi eşzamanlı olmayan uygulamalar ile desteklenmesinin önemini ortaya koymuştur.

İstifçi (2011, s.263-279) ise Anadolu Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı son sınıf öğrencilerinin e-öğrenme ortamı olarak Web 2.0 araçlarını kullanmalarının öğretimde başarının artmasına yol açacağını ortaya koymuştur.

Bir başka çalışmada İngilizce öğretmenliği öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik uygulaması sürecinde daha etkili bir dönüt uygulaması ve adaylar arasında etkili bir iletişim sağlayabilmek için harmanlanmış bir öğretmenlik uygulaması modeli oluşturularak, katılımcıların bu ortamla ilgili görüşleri ve uygulaması sürecinde karşılaşılan sorunlar incelenmiştir. Çalışmada bir web sayfası tasarımı yapılarak öğretmen adaylarının hazırladıkları günlük ders planları ve uygulama okullarındaki ders anlatım videoları İnternet üzerinden katılımcı öğretmen adaylarına ulaştırılmış, öğretim üyesinin ve sınıftaki diğer öğretmen adaylarının ders planları ve kaydedilmiş ders uygulamalarıyla ilgili dönütleri de çevrimiçi tartışma platformu yoluyla paylaşılması sağlanmıştır. Çalışmanın bulguları ışığında ve çalışmaya katılan öğretmen adaylarının bu ortamdan edindikleri memnuniyet ve doyum dikkate alınarak İngilizce öğretmenliği öğretmen adayları için hazırlanan bu ortamın gerek uzaktan öğretim, gerekse yüz yüze (örgün) öğretim öğrencileriyle kullanılmasının öğretmen adaylarının mesleki gelişimleri açısından olumlu katkılar sağladığı bulgusuna ulaşılmıştır. (Caner, 2010, s.14)

Örnekleri verilen uygulamalarda, uzaktan eğitim yoluyla öğretmen yetiştirmede kuramsal derslerde çevrim-içi destekli tartışma platformları kullanma, web sayfaları yoluyla ders videolarını öğretmen adaylarına ulaştırma, internet yoluyla dönüt sağlayarak destek sağlamanın, önemli katkılar sağladığı görülmektedir. Bu nedenle, uzaktan eğitim yoluyla yetiştirilen öğretmen adaylarına öğretmenlik uygulamaları sürecinde çevrim-içi tartışma platformları ve bilgi teknolojileri aracılığı ile profesyonel destek sağlanması, meslek yaşamlarında sıklıkla İnternet ve çoklu ortam araçlarını kullanması beklenen öğretmen adaylarının yetiştirilmesinde önemli katkılar sağlayacaktır. (Caner, 2012, s.14)

AÇIKÖĞRETİM FAKÜLTESİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ LİSANS PROGRAMI

Ülkemizde 1982 yılından itibaren öğretmen yetiştirme görevini üstlenen eğitim fakülteleri bir yandan sistemin ihtiyacı olan öğretmenlerin yetiştirilmesine katkı sağlarken diğer yandan gerek nicel gerekse nitel yönden istenilen düzeye ulaşmakta zorlanmıştır. Bunun sonucu olarak bazı alanlarda ihtiyaçtan fazla öğretmen yetiştirilirken, bazı alanlarda ihtiyaç duyulan sürede karşılanması mümkün olmayan öğretmen açığı ortaya çıkmıştır.

1990'lı yılların sonlarında gerek sekiz yıllık kesintisiz ilköğretim uygulamasının başlatılması gerekse ilköğretim 4. ve 5. sınıflarına yabancı dil dersinin konulmasıyla var olan İngilizce öğretmeni ihtiyacı daha da artmıştır.

Bütün olanakların kullanılmasına karşın İngilizce ve Okul Öncesi öğretmeni ihtiyacının karşılanamaması Milli Eğitim Bakanlığını yeni arayışlara yöneltmiştir. Ülke gerçekleri göz önüne alındığında kaliteden ödün vermeden istenilen sayıda ve en kısa sürede İngilizce ve Okulöncesi Öğretmeni yetiştirilebilmesi için en rasyonel çözümün uzaktan öğretim sistemi ile yapılacak eğitim programı olduğuna karar verilmiştir.

Bu nedenle 2000-2001 öğretim yılından itibaren Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı ile Anadolu Üniversitesi arasında yapılan protokol ile Açık Öğretim Fakültesi bünyesinde İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı (İÖLP) kurulmuştur.

Programın amacı, eğitim sistemimizde ihtiyaç duyulan İngilizce öğretmeni açığının giderilmesine donanımlı mezunlar vererek katkı sağlamaktır.

AÖF İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ LİSANS PROGRAMININ GENEL YAPISI

İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı Anadolu Üniversitesi Açıköğretim Fakültesine bağlı dört yıllık bir öğretmen yetiştirme programıdır. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı ile Anadolu Üniversitesi arasında imzalanan protokol gereği başlatılan bu program, halen ülkemizdeki Eğitim Fakültelerinde uygulanmakta olan örgün İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programlarına eşdeğer bir programdır.

Programda hem örgün hem de uzaktan öğretimin birleştirildiği bir “karma eğitim (blended) modeli” uygulanmaktadır. Programın ilk iki yılı kısmen örgün (yüz yüze eğitim) son iki yılı ise tamamen uzaktan öğretim sistemi sağlanmakta, mesleki ve teorik bilgiler internet üzerinden çevrimiçi derslerle desteklenmektedir. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB) ile Anadolu Üniversitesi arasındaki protokole göre ilk iki yıl dersleri yüz yüze öğretim ile 16 ilde yürütülmüştür. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı ile yapılan protokolün sona erdiği 2007-2008 öğretim yılından bu yana öğretim Anadolu Üniversitesi ile diğer üniversiteler arasında yapılan protokollere göre 8 ilde (Adana, Ankara, Balıkesir, Edirne, Erzurum, Eskişehir, İzmir, Konya) yüz yüze öğretim yürütülmektedir. Programın son iki yılında ise öğrenciler öğrenimlerine uzaktan öğretim sistemiyle istediği ilde devam etmektedirler.

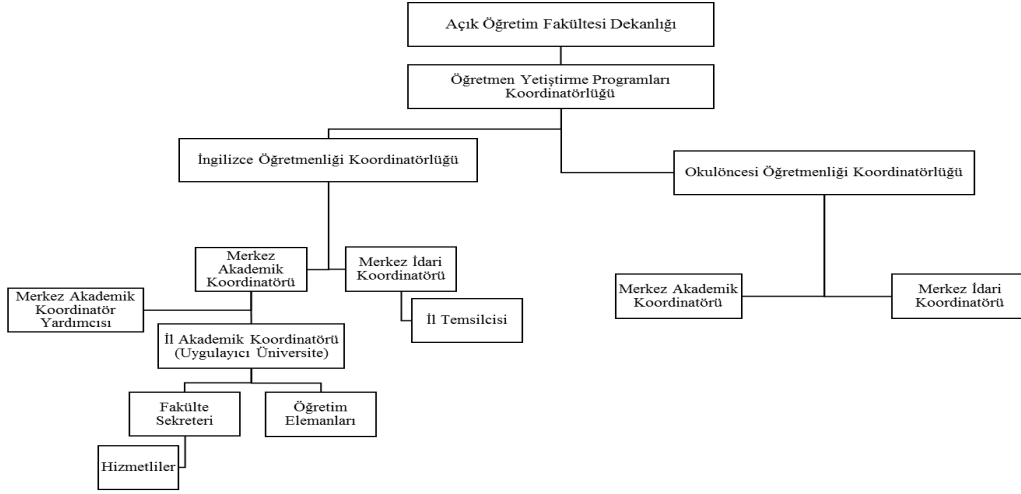
Programda öğrenciler lisans düzeyindeki dört yıllık eğitimlerini başarıyla bitirdiklerinde “İngilizce Öğretmeni Lisans Diploması” almaya hak kazanmakta ve Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın mevzuat hükümlerine göre ihtiyaç oranında İngilizce öğretmeni olarak atanmaktadırlar. Öğrenciler dilerlerse ilk iki yılı başarıyla tamamladıktan sonra kayıtlarını sildirmek koşuluyla “Önlisans Diploması” almaya hak kazanabilirler. Önlisans diploması alan

öğrenciler veya önlisans diploması almayıp üçüncü sınıfa (alttan dersi kalmamak koşuluyla) başarıyla geçen öğrenciler, isterlerse öğretmen olarak mezun olmamalarına karşın, gereksinim oranında Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na bağlı okul ve kurumlarda ücret karşılığında İngilizce okutma görevi alabilmektedirler.

AÖF İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ LİSANS PROGRAMININ YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYONU

Farklı coğrafi bölgelere yayılmış yüz yüze eğitim merkezleri ile uygulama eğitim merkezlerinin tek merkezden yönetilmesi amacıyla programın yönetim ve organizasyon faaliyetleri Fakülte bünyesinde oluşturulan "Koordinasyon Birimi" tarafından yürütülmektedir.

İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı'nda karma eğitim (blended) modeli uygulandığından, öğrenciler ilk 2 yılda bazı dersleri protokolle belirlenen illerdeki yüz yüze eğitim merkezlerinde örgün olarak almaktadırlar. 2000-2001 öğretim yılından bu yana Programda öğrencilere yüz yüze ders veren Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Formatör Öğretmenleri ve Anadolu Üniversitesi ile diğer üniversitelerin öğretim elemanı sayısı 2.313'tür.



Şekil 1: Öğretmenlik Programları Organizasyon Şeması

Ayrıca programın idari ve akademik işlerinin yürütülmesinde Eskişehir'de Merkez Akademik ve İdari Koordinatörlüğü yer alırken diğer il merkezlerindeki yüz yüze ders verilen fakültelerde il akademik koordinatörleri, fakülte sekreterleri, hizmetliler, ders veren öğretim elemanları ile Açıköğretim Fakültesi Bürolarında görevli AÖF il temsilcileri de görev almaktadırlar.

Kurulduğundan bugüne programa toplam 14.613 öğrenci alımı yapılmış olup, 10.553 öğrenci mezun olmuştur. Mezun öğrencilerin Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na bağlı okullarda kadrolu ya da ücret karşılığı atanma oranı yaklaşık %85 düzeyindedir.

UYGULAMA DERSLERİNİN YÖNETİMİ

İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı'nda yer alan uygulama dersleri;

- Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I (3.Sınıf – Güz Dönemi – 5. Yarıyıl)
- Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I (3.Sınıf – Bahar Dönemi – 6. Yarıyıl)
- Okul Deneyimi (4.Sınıf – Güz Dönemi – 7. Yarıyıl)
- Öğretmenlik Uygulaması (4.Sınıf – Bahar Dönemi – 8. Yarıyıl)

olmak üzere 4 tenedir. Dersler 14 haftalık programda uygulanmaktadır. *Okul Deneyimi* ve *Öğretmenlik Uygulaması* dersleri Eğitim Fakültelerinin yeniden yapılandırılması kapsamında hazırlanan Fakülte-Okul İşbirliği kılavuzuna göre yürütülmektedir.

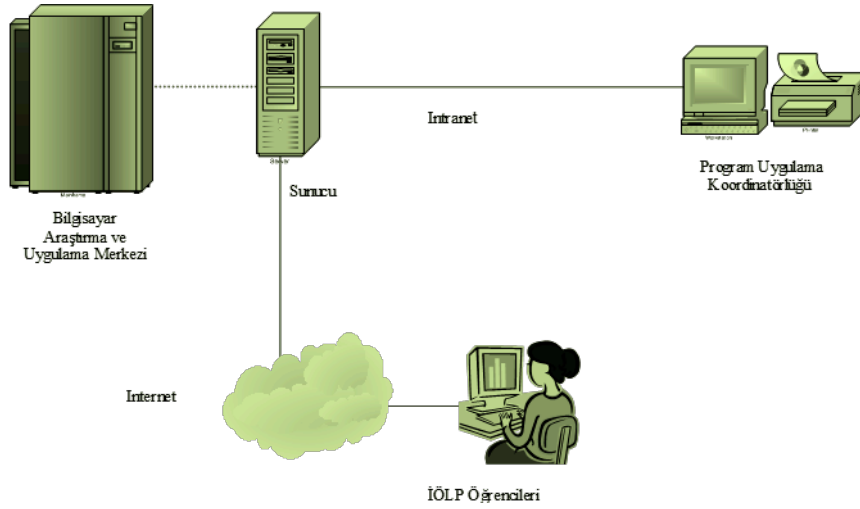
Yükseköğretim Kurulu Başkanlığı onayı ile Fakültelerin öğretmen yetiştiren bölümlerinde yürütülen ders programlarında yapılan değişiklik uyarınca Programa 2008-2009 öğretim yılından itibaren *Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları dersi* konulmuştur. Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları dersinde, öğretmen adaylarının topluma hizmet etmeye yönelik çalışmalarının ilköğretim okullarında uygulanmasına yönelik temel bilgi ve becerileri kazanabilmeleri amaçlanmıştır.

Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı ile Anadolu Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü arasında Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları Dersinin yürütülmesi ile ilgili 11.07.2008 tarihinde imzalanan protokol gereği, İÖLP öğrencilerinin tam gün eğitim veren ilk ve ortaöğretim okullarındaki öğrenciler ile okul bitiminde etüt çalışması şeklinde yapılması öngörülmüştür.

Bu kapsamda, öğretmen adayının etüt çalışmalarının temel amacı olarak öğrencilerin ev ödevlerinde anlamadıkları konulara yardımcı olmak, onay alınması ve zamanın uygun olması durumunda, ilköğretim öğrencilerine İngilizceyi sevdirmeye amaçlı etkinliklere de yer verilmesidir. (Özcan, 2011) Toplum Hizmet Uygulamaları dersi uygulamasının yapılacağı okullar Anadolu Üniversitesi ve İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlükleri ile yapılan yazışmalarla öncelikle sosyal gelir seviyesi düşük semtlerdeki okullar arasından seçilmektedir.

Programda yukarıda adı geçen uygulama derslerinin ülke genelinde yürütülmesi ve koordinasyonu için Program Koordinatörlüğünde bir bilgi sistemi oluşturulmuş ve bu amaçla da “Uygulama Dersleri Yönetim Sitesi” kurulmuştur. MS Windows Server 2003 (IIS 6.0), Office Yazılımları, MS VS Interdev 6.0, MS VS Visual Basic yazılımları kullanılarak hazırlanan bu site “Program Uygulama Koordinatörlüğü” yönetici ve çalışanları tarafından kullanılmaktadır.

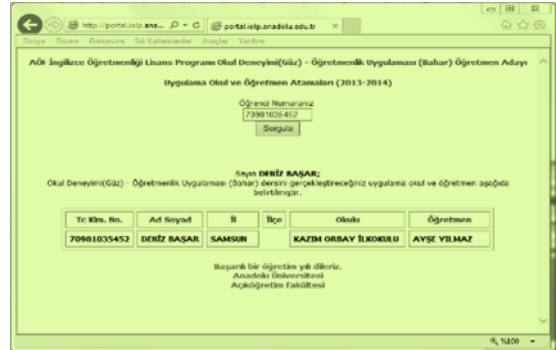
Programda verilerin saklanması amacıyla Anadolu Üniversitesi, Bilgisayar Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezi (BAUM) tarafından sunucu hizmeti verilmekte, Program Uygulama Koordinatörlüğü çalışanları ve akademik danışmanlık hizmeti veren diğer Anadolu Üniversitesi personeli bu sunucuya Yerel Alan Ağı (LAN – Local Area Network) üzerinden erişim sağlarken, İÖLP öğrencileri ile Anadolu Üniversitesi kampüsü dışından bağlanan MEB personeli il uygulama koordinatörleri, okul müdür ve koordinatörleri ve rehber öğretmenler (WAN – Wide Area Network) üzerinden erişim sağlamaktadır.



Şekil 2: Uygulama Dersleri Yönetim Sitesi

Uygulama Dersleri için oluşturulmuş bu bilgi sisteminin fonksiyonları;

- Öğrenciler ve Uygulama derslerinde görev alanların gerekli bilgilerini Veri Tabanı Yönetim Sisteminde saklamak ve güncellemek,
 - Öğrenci kimlik bilgileri,
 - Öğrenci uygulama dersi atama bilgileri,
 - Uygulama dersi görevli bilgileri,
 - Uygulama dersi yapılacak il, okul ve rehber öğretmen bilgileri
- Öğrencilerin uygulama dersi il, okul, okul koordinatörü, öğretmen, öğretim elemanı atamalarının yapılması, duyurulması
- Öğrencilerin uygulama dersi atama değişikliklerin yapılması, izlenmesi ve raporlanması şeklinde sıralanmaktadır.



Şekil 3: Uygulama Dersleri Yönetim Sitesi Duyuru ve Atama Arayüzleri

UYGULAMA DERSLERİNİN ORGANİZASYONU

Uygulama derslerinin organizasyonu *İÖLP Uygulama Koordinatörlüğü* tarafından Türkiye’de 81 il merkezi ve bazı ilçeleri ile KKTC’de yapılmaktadır. İÖLP Uygulama Koordinatörlüğünün her öğretim yılı Güz Dönemi öncesinde uygulama dersleri ile ilgili olarak yürüttüğü işlemler;

- Bilgisayar Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezinden uygulama derslerini alan öğrenci sayılarının elde edilmesi,
- Öğrencilerin kendi belirledikleri adres illerine göre dağılımının yapılarak o ildeki uygulama okulu, okul koordinatörü ve öğretmen ihtiyacının belirlenmesi,
- Belirlenen ihtiyaca göre İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlükleri ile yapılacak yazışmalarla uygulama yapılacak okul, okul yöneticileri ve rehber öğretmenlerin belirlenmesi,
- Anadolu Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu ve Eğitim Fakültesinden, öğrencilere uygulama derslerinde danışmanlık yapacak öğretim elemanlarının belirlenmesinin istenmesi,
- Gelen bilgiler doğrultusunda öğrencilerin uygulama yapacakları uygulama okulu, uygulama öğretmeni ve uygulama öğretim elemanı atamalarının İnternet üzerinden yapılarak duyurulması,
- Atama listelerinin ilgili uygulama öğretmeni ve öğretim elemanlarına, e-posta aracılığıyla iletilmesi ve uygulama dersleri yönetim sitesi aracılığıyla duyurulması,
- Uygulama dersleri atamalarının her bir uygulama dersi için oluşturulan *Uygulama Dersleri Veri Tabanına* işlenmesi

Yukarıda sıralanan işlemlerin organizasyonu her öğretim yılı başında güz dönem için bir kez yapılır ve takip eden bahar dönemini de kapsar. Olağanüstü durumlar dışında öğrenciler güz dönemi öncesinde belirttiği adres dışında başka bir ilde uygulama dersini yürütemezler.

Ders Adı/Öğrenci Sayısı	Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I & II	Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması
Uygulama Öğretmeni Başına Düşen Öğrenci	4 - 6	4 - 6
Uygulama Öğretim Elemanı Başına Düşen Öğrenci	50 - 70	6 - 8

Şekil 4: Uygulama Dersleri Öğrenci Sorumluluk Sayıları

Programda görevli uygulama rehber öğretmenler Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I ve II dersleri ile Okul Deneyimi ve Öğretmenlik Uygulaması derslerinde 4 – 6 arasında öğrenciye rehberlik yapmaktadır.

Diğer taraftan programda Anadolu Üniversitesinde görevli uygulama öğretim elemanları ise Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I ve II derslerinde 50 – 70 arasında, Okul Deneyimi ve Öğretmenlik Uygulaması derslerinde 6 – 8 öğrenciye danışmanlık yapmaktadır.

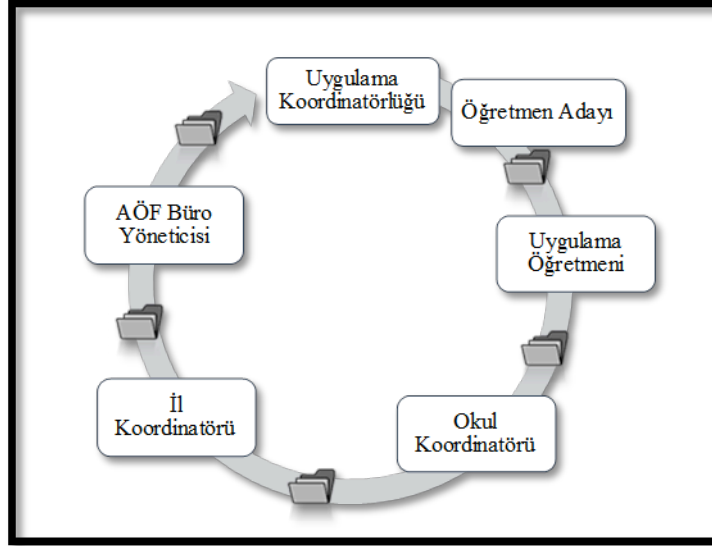
İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı Uygulama Dersleri	Öğretim Yılı	Öğrenci Sayısı	Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı				Anadolu Üniversitesi Öğretim Elemanı
			III Uygulama Koordinatörü	Uygulama Okul Müdürü	Uygulama Okul Koordinatörü	Uygulama Öğretmeni / Rehber Öğretmen	
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2003-2004	199	46	121	121	86	69
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2004-2005	1023	66	92	92	273	106
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2005-2006	2348	75	140	140	440	176
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2006-2007	2465	74	112	112	429	127
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2007-2008	1570	75	103	103	301	129
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2008-2009	1322	72	130	130	364	127
Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I-II	2008-2009	1468	70	-	229	436	18
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2009-2010	914	65	104	104	259	122
Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I-II	2009-2010	898	64	-	159	206	10
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2010-2011	705	65	91	91	210	104
Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I-II	2010-2011	682	64	-	125	194	10
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2011-2012	577	63	81	81	188	73
Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I-II	2011-2012	1312	73	-	204	398	10
Okul Deneyimi & Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	2012-2013	530	69	85	85	178	86
Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I-II	2012-2013	547	62	-	116	196	15
Toplam:		16560	1003	1059	1892	4158	1182

Şekil 5: İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı Yıllar İtibariyle Sayısal Veriler

Türkiye genelinde toplam 81 ilde Programın kurulduğu günden bugüne Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları I-II derslerini 4.907 öğrenci alırken, 11.653 öğrenci ise Okul Deneyimi ve Öğretmenlik Uygulaması derslerine katılmışlardır. Adı geçen uygulama derslerinde günümüze kadar görev alan Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı idareci ve öğretmenliği ile Anadolu Üniversitesi öğretim elemanlarının toplam sayısı ise 9.294'tür.

UYGULAMA DERSLERİNİN GELENEKSEL SİSTEMLE YÖNETİMİ

İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı'nda 2008-2009 öğretim yılında e-portfolio sistemine geçilmeden önce uygulama dosyası değerlendirme süreci geleneksel olarak yürütülmüştür. Bu dönemde öğrenciler aldıkları her uygulama dersi için öğretim yılı sonunda o derse ait uygulama dosyasını hazırlamışlardır. Geleneksel sistemde öğrenciler dönem sonunda uygulama dosyasını sorumlu olduğu uygulama öğretmenine teslim etmekte, uygulama öğretmeni de dosyayı inceleyip not verdikten sonra görevli olduğu okulun koordinatörüne teslim etmekteydi. Uygulama dosyaları, daha sonra sırasıyla o ildeki Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nde görevli il uygulama koordinatörü ve AÖF Büro Yöneticiliği aracılığıyla kargo ile Uygulama Merkez Koordinatörlüğüne iletilmekteydi. Gelen uygulama dosyaları Koordinasyon Merkezince Anadolu Üniversitesi öğretim elemanlarından oluşturulan komisyonlar tarafından tekrar değerlendirilmekte ve öğrencinin uygulama dersinden aldığı not ikinci değerlendirmeden sonra belirlenerek, öğrenciye ilan edilmek üzere Bilgisayar Araştırma Uygulama Eğitim Merkezi'ne iletilmekteydi.



Şekil 6: Geleneksel Sistemde Uygulama Dosyası Okuma Süreci

Dosya okuma sürecinde geleneksel sistem bazı yönetsel ve örgütler sorunları da beraber getirmiştir. Bunları;

- Uygulama dosyalarının iletiminde oluşabilecek fiziksel yıpranma, kayıp ve olası mağduriyetler,
- Otokontrol olmaması, denetimin güçlüğü,
- Zaman ve emek kaybı,
- Denetim alanının büyüklüğünden dolayı iş takibinin güçlüğü,
- Bilgiye erişimde ve güncellemedeki zorluklar,
- Kırtasiyeciliğin ve bürokratik işlemlerin çokluğu,
- Portfolyoların saklanmasıyla ilgili güçlüğü,
- Uygulama dosyalarının koordinatörlüğe iletilmesindeki yüksek maliyetler,
- Görevlilere ilişkin bilgilerin güncellenmesinde yaşanan aksaklıklar ve
- İşlem adımlarının uzunluğu şeklinde özetlenebilir.

UYGULAMA DERSLERİNİN E-PORTFOLYO SİSTEMİYLE YÖNETİMİ

Uygulama derslerinin geleneksel sistemde değerlendirilmesi sürecinde yaşanan sorunların ortadan kaldırılması amacı ile İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı'nda 2008-2009 öğretim yılı ile birlikte e-portfolio sistemine geçilmiştir.

E-Portfolio Uygulaması ve Öğretmen Eğitimi

Teknoloji alanındaki gelişmeler ve internet, ölçme-değerlendirme konusunda yeni seçenekler yaratmış, ürün dosyalarının elektronik ortamlarda oluşturulmasına ve sunulmasına olanak sağlamıştır. Bütün bu gelişmeler e-portfolio uygulamasını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Öğrenciler tarafından oluşturulan özgün ürünlerin, elektronik ortamda dijital olarak bir araya getirilerek, kaydedilip saklanması “Elektronik Ürün Dosyası” (e-portfolio) olarak adlandırılmaktadır. Diğer bir ifade ile e-portfolio, bireysel ürünlerin web tabanlı koleksiyonudur. E-portfolio, öğrencilerin kazanımlara ulaşma düzeyinin değerlendirilmesi, dönüt verilmesi ve öğrencilerin geleceğe dönük çalışmalarında yönlendirilmesi gibi farklı amaçlarla kullanılabilir. (Gülbahar ve Köse 2006, s.75-93)

Öğrenmenin ölçülmesinde ve değerlendirilmesinde süreç değerlendirmenin önem kazanması, geleneksel değerlendirme yöntemlerini destekleyecek ya da geleneksel yöntemlere alternatif olabilecek farklı değerlendirme yaklaşımlarını gündeme getirmiştir. Bu alternatif değerlendirme yöntemleri arasında yer alan portfolyolar teknolojiye gelişmelerden de etkilenmiş, hayatımızın ve günlük yaşantımızın pek çok alanında olduğu gibi kişisel ürün dosyaları da elektronik ortama taşınmıştır. Böylece kişisel ürün koleksiyonlarının yaratılması ve sunulması amacıyla ortaya çıkan portfolyolara istenilen zaman ve mekândan erişilmesi de mümkün olmuştur. E-portfolio uygulama alanlarının yaygınlaşması, kişisel çalışmalarını elektronik ortamda bir araya getirebilme becerilerinin de önem kazanmasına neden olmaktadır. Web tabanlı uygulamaları mesleki gelişim sağlamak amacıyla kullanan bireyler kişisel gelişimlerini de bu şekilde destekleme olanağı bulmakta ve çağın gereklerine uyum sağlama açısından da avantaj sağlamaktadır.

Eğitim alanında giderek yaygınlaşan e-portfolio uygulamalarının etkili bir şekilde kullanılması, eğitim-öğretim sürecinin kilit noktası olan öğretmenlerin bu konuda bilgilendirilmeleri ile mümkündür. Bu bağlamda öğretmenlerin özellikle hizmet öncesi eğitimleri kapsamında e-portfolio vb. alternatif değerlendirme yöntemlerini kullanmaları teşvik edilmektedir. (Kaya, 2013 s.62)

Uygulama Dersleri E-Portfolio Sistemi

Eğitimin her kademesinde teknolojinin sağladığı imkânlardan, özellikle bilgisayar ve internet teknolojilerinden yararlanılarak İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı uygulama dersleri için e-portfolio sistemine geçilmiştir.

İÖLP’de uygulama dersleri için e-portfolio sistemine geçilme nedenlerini;

- Uygulama dersine yönelik olarak öğrenciler tarafından hazırlanan dosyaların iletilmesi, saklanması, değerlendirilmesi süreçlerinde yaşanan güçlükler,
- Öğrencilerin hazırladıkları ders planlarına sadece uygulama okulundaki rehber öğretmenlerin dönüt vermesi,
- Üniversite öğretim elemanlarının sürece sadece dosya değerlendirme aşamasında katılması, dönem ya da öğretim yılı içerisinde öğrencilere dönüt verememesi,
- Öğrenci ya da uygulama rehber öğretmenlerin olası hatalarına dönüt verilememesi nedeni ile yapılan hatalarda düzeltme olmaması, hataların dönem sonuna kadar devam ettirilmesi,
- Geleneksel sistemde etkin ve sağlıklı bir uygulama yapılmasının güçleşmesi ve
- Geleneksel sistemde dosya değerlendirme sürecinin çok uzun olması nedeniyle değerlendirme notlarının öğrencilere geç bildirilmesi

şeklinde sıralayabiliriz.

İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans programı E-Portfolio Sisteminin İşleyişi

Anadolu Üniversitesi Açıköğretim Fakültesi, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı Web Tabanlı E-portfolio Sisteminin oluşturulmasında, karşılıklı belge paylaşımına olanak tanıyan Windows SharePoint Services 3.0 ve Asp.Net 2.0 temelleri üzerine kurulu SharePoint yazılımı kullanılmıştır.

SharePoint Portal Server uygulamasının temel taşları;

- Bilgi Paylaşımı,
- Belge Yönetimi,
- Geliştirilmiş Arama Özellikleri,
- Form Destekleri,
- Hesap Tablosu Destekleri ve
- Kurum Veri Kataloğu (BDC-Business Data Catalog) olarak sıralanabilir.

Bunlara ek olarak kurum içi tüm bilgilerin, son kullanıcı için kullanımı basit arama motorları ve kategorileştirilmiş görünümle yardımcıyla kolayca ulaşılabilir hale getirmesi Microsoft Office SharePoint Server’ın sağladığı yararlar arasında sayılabilir.

E-portfolio sisteminin işleyiş aşamaları şu şekildedir;

Hazırlık Aşaması

- Tahmini öğrenci sayılarının, veri tabanındaki bilgiler ve istatistiki yöntemler yardımı ile belirlenmesi

- Uygulama dersleri için Türkiye genelinde ihtiyaç duyulacak uygulama okulu, okul müdürü, okul koordinatörü ve uygulama rehber öğretmen sayılarının belirlenmesi,
- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı İl Müdürlükleri ile yapılan (genellikle online) yazışmalar ile uygulama okulu ve görevlilerin belirlenmesi,
- Belirlenen görevliler için görevlendirme yazışmalarının yapılması,
- E-portfolio sisteminin yeni dönem için hazırlanması.

Uygulama Dönemi

- Ders dönemi başında derslere kayıt yaptıran öğrencilerin bilgilerinin veri tabanından alınması,
- Öğrencilerin uygulama dersini yapacakları okul ve uygulama rehber öğretmenlerin belirlenmesi,
- Öğrencilere uygulama dersi yapacakları okulların sistem üzerinden duyurulması,
- Uygulama okul müdürü, okul koordinatörü, uygulama rehber öğretmen ve akademik danışmanlara sorumlu oldukları öğrencilerin sistem üzerinden duyurulması,
- Uygulama okul müdürü, okul koordinatörü, uygulama rehber öğretmen, akademik danışman ve öğrenciler için sistem giriş şifrelerinin oluşturulması,
- Sistem giriş şifrelerinin ilgililere e-posta yolu ile iletilmesi,
- Öğrencilerin haftalık olarak yaptıkları çalışmalarını e-portfolio sistemine yüklemeleri,
- Uygulama rehber öğretmenlerin çalışmalarını dönüt vererek değerlendirmesi,
- Akademik danışmanların çalışmalarını dönüt vererek değerlendirmesi,
- Öğrencilerin dönütler üzerine düzeltme kayıtlarını girmeleri,
- Öğrenci devamının izlenmesi,
- Dönem içerisinde oluşabilecek hata ve düzeltmelerin koordinatörlük personeline giderilmesi.

Dönem Sonu İşlemleri

- Öğrencilerin uygulama rehber öğretmenlerce verilen notların kontrolü, eksik ya da hatalı değerlendirmelerin koordinatörlük tarafından ilgililerce düzeltilmesinin sağlanması,
- Öğrenci portfolyo dosyalarının akademik danışmanlarca ikinci kontrolünün sağlanması,
- Koordinatörlük tarafından her iki değerlendirme sonucunun ağırlıklandırılarak puanlandırılması,
- Öğrenci dönem sonu notlarının ECTS sistemine göre harf notlarına dönüştürülmesi,
- Öğrenci dönem sonu notları ve harf notlarının sistem üzerinden ilan edilmesi,



Şekil 7: İÖLP Uygulama Dersleri e-Portfolio Sistemi ve Okul Deneyimi e-Portfolio Sitesi

E-Portfolio Sisteminin Faydaları

Türkiye genelinde 81 ilde 2008-2009 öğretim yılından itibaren İÖLP uygulama derslerinin e-portfolio sistemi ile yürütülmesiyle yönetsel ve örgütsel sorunların çoğu ortadan kaldırılmıştır. Sistemin kullanım kolaylığı ile uygulama dersi dosyalarının hazırlanması ve değerlendirilmesi süreçlerinde gerek öğrencilerin gerekse uygulama öğretmenleri ile danışmanlarının (üniversite öğretim elemanları) yaşadıkları birçok sorun ortadan kalkmıştır. Bunlardan bazıları şöyle sıralayabiliriz.

- E-portfolio platformunda güvenle saklanan portfolyolara kullanıcılar her zaman ulaşabilirler ve kaybolma gibi tehlikelerle karşılaşmazlar.
- Uygulama dersi dosyalarını çevrimiçi olarak oluşturan öğrenciler internetin olduğu her ortamda hesaplarına şifreleri ile girerek portfolyolarını sürekli olarak geliştirebilirler.

- Sistemde oluşturulan portfolyolar, öğretmen ve danışmanlar tarafından incelenerek öğrencilerinin performansı belli ölçütlerle değerlendirebilmekte ve öğrenciye iletilebilmektedir. Böylece öğrencilerin portfolyolarını bu dönütlere göre düzeltmeleri ya da değiştirmeleri sağlanmaktadır.
- Sistemin öğrenciler açısından getirdiği en önemli fayda, uygulama dersi ile ilgili hazırladıkları *ders planları* konusunda ders anlatımı öncesinde online olarak öğretmenleri ve danışmanlarından olumlu ya da olumsuz dönüt alabilmeleridir. Böylece *ders anlatım* süreçlerini daha etkin ve verimli gerçekleştirebilmektedirler.

SONUÇ ve ÖNERİLER

Öğrenmenin ölçülmesi ve değerlendirilmesinde süreç değerlendirmenin önem kazanması, geleneksel değerlendirme yöntemlerine destek ya da alternatif olabilecek değerlendirme yaklaşımlarını gündeme getirmiştir. Bu değerlendirme yöntemleri arasında yer alan portfolyolar teknolojik gelişmelerden etkilenecek, elektronik ortama taşınmıştır. Böylece kişisel ürün koleksiyonlarının oluşturularak, sunulması amacıyla ortaya çıkan portfolyolara istenilen yer ve zamanda erişilmesi de mümkün olmuştur.

Eğitim alanında giderek yaygınlaşan e-portfolyo uygulamalarının etkili bir şekilde kullanılması, eğitim-öğretim sürecinin kilit noktası olan öğretmenlerin bu konuda bilgilendirilmeleri ile mümkündür. Bu bağlamda öğretmenlerin özellikle hizmet öncesi eğitimleri kapsamında e-portfolyo vb. alternatif değerlendirme yöntemlerini kullanmaları teşvik edilmektedir.

Öğrenci portfolyolarının oluşturulmasında geleneksel sistemin yarattığı iletim sıkıntıları ve olası kayıplar, zaman ve emek kaybı, iş takibinin güçlüğü, erişim ve güncelleme sorunları, kırtasiyeciliğin ve bürokratik işlemlerin çokluğu ve saklama sorunları e-portfolyo uygulaması ile giderilmiştir. Özellikle Türkiye genelinde uygulama yürüten İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı gibi organizasyonlarda ortaya çıkan yüksek iletim maliyetleri, bilgi güncellemede ortaya çıkan sorunlar ve işlem adımlarının uzunluğu gibi aksaklıklar yine e-portfolyo sistemi ile aşılmıştır.

Bunlara ek olarak e-portfolyo uygulamasının güvenli saklama olanağı sağlaması, kullanıcıların her zaman portfolyolarına ulaşabilmeleri, portfolyolarını sürekli olarak geliştirebilmeleri, uygulama öğretmeni ve danışmanlar tarafından öğrencilerinin performansının kolaylıkla değerlendirilerek öğrenciye iletilebilmesi, öğrencilerin portfolyolarını bu dönütlere göre düzeltmeleri ya da değiştirmeleri e-portfolyo sisteminin artıları olmaktadır.

E-portfolyo kullanımının öğrenciler açısından sağladığı en önemli yarar ise, dersin aktarımı öncesinde uygulama dersleri ile ilgili hazırladıkları *ders planları* konusunda çevrimiçi olarak öğretmenleri ve danışmanlarından olumlu ya da olumsuz dönüt alabilmeleridir. Böylece *ders anlatım* süreçleri daha etkin ve verimli gerçekleştirebilmektedir.

Sistemde öğrencilerin yer aldıkları guruplarda yer alan diğer öğrencilerle paylaşım yapabilmeleri, diğer öğrencilerin hazırladıkları çalışmalarını inceleyebilmeleri, öğretimin etkili ve verimli olmasına yol açmaktadır. Ders sırasında çekilen videoların paylaşılması uygulaması verimliliği daha da arttırmıştır.

Windows SharePoint Services 3.0 ve Asp.Net 2.0 ile oluşturulan "*sistem ara yüz*"ünün gelecekte "*uygulama dersleri yönetim sitesi*" ile entegre edilmesinin, veri tabanının etkin yönetimini sağlayacağı ve minimum düzeye inen iletişim ve organizasyon sorunlarının çözümüne katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

Buna ek olarak kullanıcı şifrelerinin koordinatörlük tarafından oluşturularak, kullanıcılara e-posta ile iletilmesi yerine, kullanıcılar tarafından oluşturulması uygulamasına geçişin, koordinatörlük iş yükünü azaltarak verimi arttıracığı düşünülmektedir.

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Transformation of Teacher Education in the 21ST Century: Enhancing Physics Teacher Quality for National Development in Nigeria

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Abstract

Transformation of teacher education in any Nation is achievable if education is given its rightful place in the scheme of things. Transformation of teacher education in Nigeria can be realised if the teachers are equipped with the needed knowledge, attitude, behaviours and skills with good policies and well designed procedures. No system of education can rise above the quality of its teachers. Therefore, this paper looked at the present physics education curriculum, physics education graduates in Nigeria and the way forward in developing physics teacher quality by repositioning physics Teacher education programmes for the 21st century. Among the recommendations was that B.Sc physics education should be reviewed to increase the capacity of the physics education graduates.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

To bring about radical change (transformation) in teacher education in the 21st century globally is a herculean task that requires determination and adequate teacher preparation. Teacher education refers to the policies and procedures designed to impact prospective teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviour and skills that they require to perform their tasks effectively in the class room, school and in their community. Teacher Education is a tool for national transformation since it is the teachers who produce members of the teaching profession and the quality human resources for national economy. The current state of Nigerian nation and the present standing of education graduates can only be squarely addressed if teacher preparation strategies are given the seriousness it deserves.

The Federal Government of Nigeria under President Goodluck Ebere Jonathan is currently pursuing “Transformation Agenda” in all the sectors of the national economy but nothing seems to be working. Though Nigeria is in the 4th position in terms of oil wealth worldwide; 70% of Nigerians live on less than \$1 per day; Nigeria is considered as one of the poorest countries of the world; about 9million primary aged children are not in school (Nwabudike, 2011). Many youths have no access to quality education and many who went to school are unemployed. Insecurity, kidnapping, robbery, unsteady power supply, lack of infrastructure, and discipline and corruption have helped to cripple the economy.

The questions one may ask include:

- a) What serious planning and practical orientation are we putting in place to achieve first and foremost vision 20:2020?
- b) How will Nigeria achieve the change needed in teacher education when our educational institutions are constantly interrupted with warning strikes or total strike?

Transformation of teacher education is achievable in Nigeria if we can critically reflect on the current state of the Nigerian nation and then analyze the trust of teacher education provision capable of bringing the desired change. In fact, no system of education can rise above the quality of its teachers. It is the teachers who produce the members of the teaching profession and other professions. Physics Teachers Education is an integral part of the teacher education and physics as a subject is regarded as the most fundamental of the natural sciences. Today, physics is taught in Nigeria in other to expose students to knowledge mastery for the purposes of passing examination without adequate skill acquisition that will make the graduates employable. For a realistic change, Physics teacher education should be driven with good policies and curriculum implementation through adequate training, induction, entrepreneurship and Continuing Professional Development (CPD) or Teacher Development.

To translate teacher education *visa – vise*, Physics teacher education in the 21st century, all aspects of physics education must be revisited.

Present Physics Education Curriculum

The current failure of students in physics (Idore, 2011) at the West Africa School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) and National Examination Council (NECO) suggests that teachers do not know how to impact learning experiences to the learners. Similarly the rate of Physics graduate unemployment (Idialu and Okereke 2010) calls to question the quality of Physics education graduate from tertiary institution in Nigeria. The educational system has not been able to produce Physics teachers who should possess the skills and ability to manipulate the resources of the land to generate wealth for economic growth and development. The inability of Physics Teachers to produce those who can exploit our Natural resources for development is an indicator that the curriculum is not adequately implemented. How can one implement the curriculum when it is overloaded and the school time table overcrowded? All that the teachers do is to rush the syllabus and get students certificated. Whether the products of the curriculum have the skills for competence is not their concern. More questions that one needs to ask are:

Is Physics curriculum knowledge based?

Does it prepare students for global competitive world?

Is the curriculum theory oriented?

Is acquisition of entrepreneurial workforce skills stressed?

Can the graduates function effectively in the fast changing scientific and technologically globalized world.

Of course if the curriculum is functional, the graduates of Physics education will not be among the unemployed.

Nigeria as a Nation has great potentials and Nigerians are ready for change. The way forward is quality education. Quality education broadens people's outlook; it contributes maximally to economic, political, scientific and technological growth of any nation. If the teacher education is transformed, the nation in turn will be transformed. It is not a surprise that the National Policy on Education (FRN, 2004) stated that, no educational system can rise above the quality of the teacher. Competent qualified professional Teachers (quality teachers) is an indices of transformation. Therefore, the Physics education curriculum should be restructured and its implementation properly monitored to ensure quality physics teachers production since the quality of civil servants, politicians, Medical doctors, Lawyers, Professionals in other sectors depends generally on the quality of the teachers.

Physics Education Graduates in Nigeria Today

A recent national survey by Okebukola (2012) on teacher quality revealed the following weakness in the education graduates in Nigeria. They include:

Shallow or poor knowledge of subject matter;

Inadequate exposure to teaching practices;

Poor classroom management and control;

Poor computer literacy skills;

Inability to communicate effectively in English;

Lack of professionalism;

Lack of self-reliance and entrepreneurial skills; and

Poor attitude to work.

According to Obama's (2009) declaration, America's future depends on its teachers. I see this statement to mean the quality of teachers. Hence Nigeria as a nation must strive to achieve transformation of her teacher education. If good preparation strategies are put in place to address the above shortcomings quality physics teachers can emerge to remedy the present standard of education graduates in the country.

Developing Physics Teacher Quality for the 21st Century

Transformation of teacher education in the 21st century requires general overhaul of the teacher education and Physics teacher education in particular if the desired physics teacher quality can be achieved. Quality teachers come from quality curriculum and quality professional development. A quality physics teacher is a globally competitive worker with saleable knowledge and skills for gainful employment by government or to be self employed. The era of teaching for knowledge mastering just to passing examination without adequate skills

acquisition is obsolete (Makwuegbe, 2012). A shift from one-way to two-way process of communication between the teacher/lecturer and learner/student involving three channels of communications: information, behaviour and feedback should be explored. Physics being the most fundamental of the natural sciences should be able to expose perspective teachers to excellent, analytical, quantitative and problem solving skills so that no physics education students remains unemployed after graduation. The teacher of the 21st century needs knowledge, professional skills and personal qualities (www.unicef.org/teacherteacher.html). The use of creative and inspirational method of teaching is paramount for this century (www.school-teacher-students-motivationresources-courses.com/goodteachers.html). This view points to the use of modern teaching strategies like concept making, constructivist approach, scaffolding, process based teaching and learning. The use of materials in our environment to produce materials similar to the imported ones brings learning closer to the learner. Training given to physics education students in education institutions should be improved by giving quality supervision to the teaching practice. Staff exchange programmes with foreign Universities to ensure conformity with international standards and development should be encouraged with teacher education institutions, collaboration research between teacher institutions should also be encouraged.

To ensure transformation of teacher education visa-vise, Physics teacher education and enhance physics teacher quality, the following areas among others were discussed in this paper.

Physics education curriculum for the 21st century

Functional physics teacher preparation programme

Information and Communication Technology

The essence of Entrepreneurial education

Repositioning Physics teacher education programme

- Admission process
- Qualities of candidates admitted for physics education programme
- Qualities of educators and support staff
- Finance and funding
- Motivation, monitoring and evaluation
- Recommendation

Physics Education Curriculum for the 21st Century

The present Physics education curriculum needs to be restructured to meet the requirement of the 21st century. The curriculum should make students active participants, practical oriented, self-reliant and self-employed. According to Okobia (2010) and Omuegbele (2011), the Teacher science curricula in Nigeria should be redesigned to enable students graduate in scientific career options. Physics students should graduate in maintenance services, production of simple machines, Energy production, solar panels, Transistors, optical fibers, optical mirrors and lenses, microscopes and simple telescopes, Thermometers, Hydrometer, Capacitors, Resistors, Meter Rule, Transformers e.t.c. It then means that more emphasis should be geared towards practical processes in these areas in the curriculum. The teaching and learning in physics education programmes should equip students with entrepreneurial skills so as to make them more relevant in the 21st century.

Functional Physics Teacher Preparation Programmes

The 21st century requires more than a single organ or commission coordinating the activities of the teacher education at any given level. One of the ways to enhance the quality of Physics teacher in Nigeria is by ensuring that the National University Commission (NUC), National Commission of Colleges of Education (NCCE) and the National Business and Technical Education Board (NABTEB) Jointly organize workshops to which the department of curriculum, Assessment, Teacher preparation, ICT, private sector industries and businesses, parents and community groups, professional organization and unions, NGOs, Donors, Universal Basic Education Council(UBEC) and the National Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) are invited to brainstorm and identify areas of growth and development in the national economy – manufacturing, Construction, Technology, engineering e.t.c. These should be developed and incorporated into the existing courses and taught to Physics education students in teacher preparation institution in the country who on graduation will teach same to their students in the primary and secondary schools. Indeed one of the indicators of quality Education in any nation is the proportion of the country's graduates who are employed in various fields (Gbenedio, 2011).

Information and Communication Technology (ICT)

The world is changing globally from industrial society to information and communication technology (ICT). It is ICT that has transformed the world into a global village. Therefore transformation of the teacher education in the 21st century would require ICT skills for the teachers own development, for administrative purposes, for their daily use in the classroom settings. ICT should become as important component of teacher professional development curricula so as to create opportunities for them to participate in the global knowledge based economy. Today the nation of Estonia ties teacher promotion to ICT skills while Chile, England, and France, among other nations, now link ICT competencies to teacher licensing requirements. (Silvermail, 2009). Nigeria must not be left out of implementing this trend, therefore, the teachers/lecturers implementing the physics education curriculum should be able to use ICT to impact knowledge. In this respect, all physics students and physics lecturers in teacher preparation institution should have their own laptops provided by government; and computer training should be a mandatory course for student's teachers. Therefore, physics education curriculum should focus on creativity, innovation, research, acquisition of ICT skills and production of new wave of entrepreneurs.

The Essence of Entrepreneurial Education

Being employed as a physics education graduate is good but being an employee only is not good enough. Furthermore, one cannot create wealth as an employee only. Thus, entrepreneurship offers a stronger base for wealth creation and for solving unemployment and poverty problem. Implementing teacher education inclusive of entrepreneurial education will be a major innovation for the transformation. The longitudinal study by Izedonmi (2011:121), summarized 100 employees aged 20 -25years who worked for 40years when many of them had retired at the age of 65years as follows: 54% of them ended up broke and depending on people for livelihood; 30% died before the retirement age of 65years; 10% were looking for livelihood through contracts; 5% were comfortable to eat well; only 1% was rich in the sense of it. This findings gives a picture of education without provision for entrepreneurship. Izedonmi (2011) seems to have informed the decision of the Federal Government of Nigeria to the effect that all Universities, polytechnics and colleges of Education in the country were mandated to run entrepreneurial education with effect from 2007/2008 session. One may want to know the number of institutions that has complied to this directives. Out of 73 Federal and State Universities, 63 Federal and States Colleges of Education and 59 Federal and State Polytechnics, only three Universities, two Colleges of Education and three polytechnics have entrepreneurial education in their programmes. Okebuola (2012) has queried the inability of most institution to comply with the directive. In fact, the relevance of this provision to physics teacher education, being the fundamental natural science cannot be over emphasized. Entrepreneurial education certainly:

- Will equip physics teacher with the capacity needed to produce goods, render services and add to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) with a significant index of a country's economic standing;
- Has the potential for lowering poverty level and raising living standard of physics education graduates and Nigerians by promoting self employment and self reliance, thereby raising the family income;
- Provide for job creation which will lower crime rate ("419", cyber crime 'yahoo – yahoo' business, kidnapping, human trafficking) as young men and women will be gainfully employed.
- Will help to keep unemployed young graduates economically sustained, even in old age
- Improve the relevance and public responsibility of our educational institutions, as overtime physics education graduates will be out of gainful employment.
- Develops the small and medium scale enterprises (SME) sector. In USA, SME sector provides 84%, Federal and state government providing 6%, big corporations providing 8% of the total employment in the country. Nigeria as a nation can reach this level in the 21st century if entrepreneurial education is properly implemented in her teacher education programmes.

Repositioning Physics Teacher Education

To guarantee the best from Physics teacher preparation programmes in Nigeria, the following guidelines should be considered so as to improve on the quality of the physics teacher graduates

Admission Process

The students admitted into Physics education programme should have the aptitude, attitude and interest in physics education (Nwanbudike, 2010). Low intellectual ability who will find physics academic tasks difficult

should not be admitted into the programme. Like other profession courses, physics education programme should be increased to 5years. That is, 5years B.A/B.Sc. Education. This is to enable the students embark on six months internship in teaching practice and six months entrepreneurial training. The teaching practice and entrepreneurial training should be structured for effective supervision and monitoring. Any student that fails the teaching practice and the entrepreneurial training should not be registered with the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN)

Quality of Candidates Admitted for the Physics Education Programme

The University admission Policy gave entry requirement for the following courses to be the same: Medicine, Pharmacy, Sciences, Engineering and Education. But individual Universities have different cut off points with higher cut off points for other courses except Education Courses (Nwanbudike, 2011). This means that, brilliant students opt for other courses leaving education courses with less cut off point. Therefore, less intelligent students find their way into Education courses at the Universities or Colleges of Education. The point being stressed here is that those that enter into physics education are those who cannot cope with other courses or those who could not gain admission into those so called “superior courses”. Consequently, the trained physics teachers are of lower quality without interest, positive attitude and disposition expected of a quality physics teacher (Idialu and Okereke, 2009).

The admission process and the quality of candidates admitted for physics education programme and teacher education generally in Nigeria should be improved upon to reflect the 21st century teacher education. To ensure enhanced quality of teachers (Physics teachers) education graduates, high selection criteria should be applied:

5 credits at a sitting in WAEC or NECO Senior School Certificate Examination. (6 credits at two sittings should be abolished)

Reliable written examination and interview should be introduced.

The same cut off point should be applicable for all the courses irrespective of the University so that admission into education courses will no longer be a matter of shopping exercises.

Quality of Academic Personnel and Support Staff

The academic personnel and the support staff in most educational institutions lack commitment in the discharge of their duty (Omuegbele, 2010). Poor remuneration makes it difficult to retain top quality academic personnel needed to produce quality physics graduate teachers. Consequently, incompetent physics teachers who cannot impart meaningful knowledge to students or gainfully employed are all over. Many of those in the class room setting:

- cannot prepare good lesson plan
- are unable to manage the class room
- have no good knowledge of the subject matter
- cannot employ good teaching methods
- have ineffective use of the language
- cannot improvise materials
- cannot match theory with practice (Omuegbele, 2010)

Finance and Funding

The quality and quantity of Physics teachers/graduates depend largely on the financial resources available to the educational institutions (the producers). Underfunding has in no small measure contributed to the decline in the quality of physics graduates because most of our educational institutions lack well equipped laboratories, facilities, equipment and other relevant tools (Okoba, 2010). Therefore, the students are not adequately exposed to skills and competences needed to teach the subject or to be self employed. The problem expressed here is that, the funding of educational institutions in Nigeria is not commensurate with the level of expansion in the educational sector. To cope with the demand of teacher education in the 21st century in Nigeria, the budgetary allocation of 26% or above in the National Annual Budget should be released to education sector as recommended by UNESCO. This calls for increased funding to cater for the provision of in service training, especially on ICT to serving teachers, equipping physics education laboratories with materials and facilities, infrastructural facilities that can boost the quality of the teachers.

Motivation, Monitoring and Evaluation

In order to realistically cause a change in teacher education in the 21st century, the physics education teachers/lecturers and the prospective teachers must be lifted up. Their condition of service has a great impact on the productivity. So, adequate remuneration is needed to make them give quality service. Institution based

management committee as recommended by Omebe's (2010) should be applied to monitor and evaluate the physics curriculum implementation, staff development, instructional facilities, learning environment, teaching and learning, research and government intervention. The report of this committee is vital to the productive and responsible products that can compete with other nations and demonstrate high quality competence. Omebe (2010) research finding of regular monitoring, motivation and evaluation should be utilized to enhance quality teaching.

CONCLUSION

Transformation of Teacher Education (Physics Teacher Education) is achievable in Nigeria in the 21st century if teacher preparation programme is focused on the acquisition of cross domain 21st century skills such as creativity, critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration, entrepreneurial education and ICT literacy. Quality teacher are products of well implemented quality curriculum and quality professional development. The present Physics Education Curriculum if restructured, it will make physics education students active participants, practical oriented, self reliant and self – employed. In addition, overhauling, the admission process, quality of the academic personnel, funding, motivation of academic personnel, supervision and other preparation and teaching strategies will bring about the desired reformed teacher education for national development in the 21st century.

Recommendation

The following recommendations if implemented will assist to bring about the needed change in the teacher education in Nigeria and subsequently lead to the production of competent quality physics graduates in the 21st century.

- The teacher education (physics teacher education) curriculum should be reviewed jointly by all the organs or commissions co-ordinating teacher education activities at all levels. All stake holders, interest groups and professional bodies should be invited to the review workshops.
- To key into the growing global economy, teacher preparation programmes should focus on the acquisition of the cross domain “21st century skills, such as creativity, critical thinking, problem solving, ICT literacy and collaboration.
- High selection criteria of 5 credits at a sitting in WAEC or NECO Senior School Certificate Examination should be introduced and used for selection of education candidates for admission in all education institutions across the country. (6 credits at two sittings should be abolished).
- Teacher Education institutions should give quality supervision to teaching practice through regular and effective monitoring and evaluation.
- Staff exchange programmes with foreign Universities should be enforced to ensure conformity with international standards and academic staff development.
- Teacher Education should be well funded. The Federal and State Governments should release the 26% budgetary allocation as recommended by UNESCO to educational sector from their annual budgets.
- To retain and boost the morale of physics education personnel, adequate remuneration should be provided by the government (Federal and State)
- ICT training should be made compulsory for all physics education teachers/personnel; both serving and those on training. Recruitment of teachers should be tied to ICT skills and competence.
- Education Institutions should be provided with well equipped workshops or multipurpose science workshops where production of materials can be made for commercial gain.
- B.Sc Physics Education Programmes in all Education Institutions should be increased to five years like other professional courses and only quality candidates should be admitted for the programme
- Physics Education related factories like Cable Manufacturing Companies, Electrical Appliance Companies, Scientific and Laboratory Equipment Companies e.t.c. should fund researches and partner with Education Institutions in the training of students.
- The use of locally available resources and improvised materials in teaching of physics education students should be emphasized and encouraged.
- Researches by physics education students and lecturers should be funded by the various levels of government and NGOs to tackle the problems in teaching and learning at the education institutions
- Two-way process of communication between the teachers/lecturers and students/learners involving three channels of communications: information, behaviour and feedback should be used in teacher education programmes.

- Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) should be the only body to register and determine the eligibility of teachers in education institution and the TRCN should review teachers licenses every five years with written examination and interview
- Teacher education should be inclusive of entrepreneurial education to provide for wealth creation and solve unemployment and poverty problem for physics education graduates in Nigeria.

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Quality Assurance in Secondary Education: Implications of Teaching Strategies and Students' Attitude on Academic Achievement in Basic Technology

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Abstract

Quality Assurance and Quality Control are both important in the application of management procedures to ensure qualitative education to the satisfaction of the stakeholders. This paper investigated the effect of teaching strategies and students' attitude on academic achievement in Basic Technology as a quality assurance process for the teaching and learning of the subject. Teaching strategies investigated were the interactive, independent and dependent teaching strategies.. Three null hypotheses were tested at $P < 0.05$ using two instruments; Basic Technology Achievement Test (BTAT) and Students' Attitude Questionnaire (SAQ). The data were analyzed using ANCOVA. Results showed that teaching strategies and students' attitude have significant effect on students' achievement; the joint effect of teaching strategies and students' attitude was significant on students' achievement. The interactive teaching strategy was recommended for teaching the subject and the students should be exposed to practical, computer e.t.c. to stimulate interest, attitude, and curiosity to enhanced quality.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

In Nigeria, there is growing dissatisfaction over students' academic achievement in many of the school subjects especially in the sciences and Basic Technology subjects. These subjects are the foundation on which further learning are built, hence it has become necessary to investigate some critical variables which enhances teaching learning processes in Basic Education (UBE). There is need therefore to put in place Quality Assurance to guide the educational delivery and bring it in line with national goals, global expectation and changes in science and technology. Basic Education in Nigeria is 6years primary school (Lower Basic Education) and 3years junior secondary school JSS 1 – 3 (Upper Basic Education).

Quality assurance focuses on all aspects of the education process namely, teacher factor, students factor, and environmental or organizational factor. This is with a view to determining the level or quality of input necessary to achieve the desired output. Obamanu (2001) has identified factors which affect students academic achievement in school subjects to include students factor, teacher factor, societal factors, efforts have not been made to investigate the potency of these factors on students' academic achievement in each of the subjects. Idialu (2013) and Uwameiye (2011) have equally identified gender factor, students' factor and environmental factor on students' academic achievement. These should form a basis of quality assurance in the teaching and learning of each subject. With the absence of appropriate teaching and learning variables put together, the results have been ineffective teaching, poor students' academic achievement and in the case of basic technology, poor students' attitude and lack of students' interest in the subject. Quality assurance in education seeks to achieve the most cost effective variables put together for the attainment of the stated educational objectives. It looks at different teacher – student factors, how they affect quality individually and their combined effect on educations. This study investigated the teaching strategies and students' academic achievement in basic technology as a means of quality assurance in Univerasal Basic Education (UBE). Basic Technology (BT) is a preliminary phase of Technology. Basic Technology according to the National Policy on Education (FRN, 2004) involves the academic and practical study of materials, sources of energy and natural phenomena with ultimate intention of applying these to the services of man.

Basic Technology is a part of the general education for all students in the JSS 1 – 3 irrespective of their future career desire. The teaching and learning of basic technology like other subjects require knowledge, skills and appreciation. The objectives of BT as a subject in UBE is to enable the student have orientation and exploration of the world of work through appreciation of technology in the use of tools and materials. It is one of the pre-vocational subjects intended to develop the skills and knowledge necessary for employment, self reliance and opportunity for admission for further studies in tertiary institutions (FRN, 2004). Needless to say that these objectives have not be met and that students dislike the subject and develop negative attitude towards it (Idialu,

2013). So far, there is no serious effort by Nigerian Government and researchers towards using quality assurance to guide the teaching and learning of the subject. Thus, no findings to suggest ways of improving the teaching and learning of the subject.

Quality Assurance

The concept of quality assurance has its origin in manufacturing. It is a system of procedures, checks, audits and corrective actions to ensure that all design environmental monitoring, research sampling and technical reporting activities are of the highest achievable quantity (Wikipedia, 2007). According to the commonwealth of learning cited by Okebukola and Shabani (2001), quality assurance is an approach to organizing works that:

- Ensure the institution's mission and aims are clear and known to all;
- Ensure the systems through which work will be done are well thought, full proof and communicated to everyone;
- Ensures everyone's responsibility are clearly understood;
- Define and document the institution's sense of quality;
- Set in place system to check that everything is working according to plan; and
- When things go wrong, there are good ways of putting them right (pg. 24)

Quality assurance focuses on the process while quality controls is concerned with the product. In Upper Basic Education (JSS 1- 3), the definition above also apply; that means, the application of management procedures to ensure qualitative education to the satisfaction of the stakeholders. The pre – vocational subjects (Basic Technology, Business studies, Agricultural Science and Home Economics) are key components of the curriculum of Upper Basic Education.

In the case of Basic Technology, quality assurance should be a procedure, checks or audits, which will ensure that the subject is effectively taught and learned. It is a procedure aimed at realizing the objectives of the subject, which include exposure of students to career awareness by their exploration of useable options in the world of work, and stimulation of their curiosity and creativity in industrial and technological concepts. It is a means of ensuring that students develop positive attitude to things of technology by using tools and equipment to make simple products, which they can use. Quality assurance ensures customer satisfaction, since it leads to a product that fits the purpose, and making of the product according to pre-determined standards (Dashen and Jacob, 2002). The question now is whether or not the objectives of Basic technology are met as pre-determined in the National Policy on Education (FRN, 2004), whether the “customers” (Stakeholders) are satisfied with the teaching and learning of the subject.

Statement of the Problem

In spite of governments “huge budgetary to education” the public is generally not satisfied with students academic achievement as evident in massive failure and unemployment of school leavers and their inability to secure admission for further studies in the tertiary institutions. Accordingly, there has been persistent calls on teachers by parents to have another look at their teaching approaches with a view to evolving strategies and methods that will stimulate student's interest, attitude and curiosity, which are characteristics capable of improving academic achievement. The problem of poor academic achievement of students is even more serious with Basic Technology. This is so because since the introduction of basic technology curriculum in the Nation's secondary education, it has not been accepted by all because many see it as education for the “dropouts” or for “low achievers” (Beal, 2000 and Akpan, 2002). This has lead to students' negative and lack of interest in the subject, coupled with other fundamental management problems. It is the view of this paper that these problems can be addressed by instituting quality assurance parameters and standards/benchmarks on teachers' competence, teaching strategies, instructional resources (tools, machines and materials), infrastructural facilities and evaluation.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of teaching strategies (dependent teaching strategy (DTS), independent teaching strategy (ITD) and interactive teaching strategy (INTS) and students' attitude on students' academic achievement in basic technology. Specifically, the objectives were to:

- Determine the effect of teaching strategies (DTS, ITS and INTS) on students' academic achievement in

basic technology;

- Assess the effect of students' attitude on their academic achievement in basic technology
- Determine the joint effect of teaching strategies (DTS, ITS and INTS) and students' attitude on their academic achievement in basic technology

Research Question

This study was aimed at investigating the effect of teaching strategies (DTS, ITS and INTS) and students attitude on students' academic achievement in basic technology.

- To what extent does students' academic achievement in basic technology differ when they are exposed to DTS, ITS and INTS teaching strategies?
- To what extent does students' academic achievement in basic technology differ with respect to their attitude to the subject?
- To what extent does the joint effect of teaching strategies and students' attitude affect students' academic achievement in basic technology.

Hypotheses

Three hypotheses formulated and tested at 0.05 level of probability guided the study.

- Ho₁ : There is no significant difference in academic achievement of students taught with INTS on basic technology and those taught with DTS and ITS teaching strategies
- Ho₂: There is no significant difference in academic achievement of students with positive attitudes and those with negative attitudes towards basic technology
- Ho₃: there is no significant joint effect of teaching strategies (INTS, ITS and DTS) and students' attitudes on academic achievement of students' in Basic Technology.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teaching Strategy and Students' Achievement

With several studies (Udofot, 2000 and Mbaba, 2006), have shown a relationship between teachers' teaching strategy and students' achievement in many school subjects. According to Mbaba (2006) teaching Strategies which involves the students directly in the learning process are more beneficial than the traditional modes of instruction used in colleges. Ibe – Bassey (2000) identified four teaching strategies as dependent strategy, independent teaching strategy, interactive teaching strategy and initiatory teaching strategy. Ibe – Bassey (2000) further stressed that the dependent teaching strategy is used when the students greatly depend on the teacher for guidance – a sort of teacher – dominated classroom, while the independent strategy is used when the students tend to work on their own with little or no guidance from the teacher. The initiatory strategy is one in which the Student or teacher formulates or initiates communication concerning instruction which is sent across either by the student or teacher, there is no serious feedback in this strategy. The interactive strategy however, is one in which the students and teachers communicate reciprocally such that there is interactive behaviour in support of the instructional situation. Ugwuanyi (2005) showed that students who were taught by discovery performed significantly better than students taught by expository method, and female students performed better than their male counterparts. This is in line with Anderson and Block (2000), who suggested the learners – centered instructions that enable students to take a major share of responsibilities from their learning and participate actively in it. They indicated that when students are involved physically and mentally in the learning experiences, their level of learning and achievement are significantly higher. However, Effiong (2004) did not see any relationship between teaching strategies and the pupils style. According to Akinsola (2009), the instructional strategy employed by the teacher appeared overbearing because it is most easily manipulated.

Students' Attitude and Academic Achievement.

According to Adekunle (2001), the wide spread low level achievement and negative attitude towards basic technology in schools have largely been ascribed to teaching problems. In support of this position, Mbaba (2006) asserted that, occupational skills development depends greatly upon one's personal ability, interest, ideal, appreciation, attitude and orientation. Idialu (2013), reported that gender, age, parent's procession and

technological climate at home correlated with students' attitude and concept of technology. According to Kpangban (2004), attitude is a readiness of the individual to react towards or against a psychological object to a particular degree. Bolaji (2003) had shown a strong relationship between students' attitude and their academic achievement in various subjects. However, Uwiamieye (2004) have shown little or no relationship between students' academic achievement and their attitude in Basic Technology.

METHODOLOGY

Design of the Study

The study was a quasi – experimental study as three intact classes in three secondary schools were used. The design was the randomized pre – test, post – test control group with two experimental and one control group.

Population for the Study

The study has implications for all the secondary schools offering basic technology. However the 14 secondary schools in Ika Land of Ika South Local Government Area of Delta State with a JSS 3 student population of 9,441 were used for the study.

Sample and Sampling Technique

One hundred and twenty JSS 3 students from three intact classes in three different schools were used for the study. Though there were more than 40 students in each intact class who were allowed to participate in the study, 40 students' papers were randomly selected per class and graded for the study amounting to 120 students.

Instrument for Data Collection

Two instruments were used for the collection of data for the study. They were:

- Basic Technology Achievement Test (BTAT) and
- Students Attitude Questionnaire (SAQ)

The BTAT consisted of 60 questions which were covered during the six weeks of the instruction using the three teaching strategies, the BTAT was administered as pre – test before the study commenced. The SAQ consisted of 20 items which sought to determine students' attitude to the subject. Students were requested to indicate their response on a four point scale of Strongly Agree (SA = 4), Agree (A = 3), Disagree (D = 2) and Strongly Disagree (SD = 1). Scores from 1 – 49 were considered negative while 50 – 80 were considered as constituting positive attitude for the total items.

Validity and Reliability of Instrument

Both instruments were subjected to face and content validation by experts. The BTAT was validated by two secondary BT teachers and two lecturers at the department of Educational Foundation in the Faculty of Education while the SAQ was validated by four lecturers from the department of Educational foundation (Measurement and Evaluation). Their comments and suggestions helped to modify the instrument in terms of ambiguous questions, excessive wordiness, number of items, difficult vocabulary, e.t.c. The reliability of the BTAT was established using Kuder – Richardson 20 (KR – 20) because the BTAT was a multi – choice test that was scored dichotomously (correct or wrong). The reliability of the SAQ was established using Cronbach Alpha formula. Cronbach Alpha is a useful means of estimating reliability when items are not scored dichotomously (when items are not scored as right or wrong). The SAQ was trial – tested using 40 students that were not used for this study but with similar characteristics with the subjects used for study. The coefficient reliability was calculated and it yielded 0.96.

PROCEDURE

Three intact JSS 3 classes in Ika land of Ika south Local Government Area in Delta State were used for the study. First, the SAQ was administered to the three groups namely: Experimental group 1, Experimental group 2 and control group simultaneously using basic technology teachers and research assistants. Secondly, the BTAT was administered as pre – test to all the three classes. Thirdly, the INTS was used in the experimental group 1

for six weeks (2 periods per week of 40 minutes a period), the ITS was used in experimental group 2 for same six weeks while DTS was used for the control group for the same period simultaneously. Fourthly, the BTAT was administered as post – test to all the three classes simultaneously and data collected were analyzed.

Procedure for Interactive Teaching Strategy (INTS). It involves:

- a) Introducing the lesson topic
- b) Brief review of previous but related knowledge
- c) Stating the objectives of the new lesson
- d) The teacher presents the new task
- e) Students (in group) discuss the task among themselves highlighting possible solutions and areas of weaknesses
- f) The teacher review major ideas with students by referring to specific instructional materials to be used
- g) Students help one another over aspects of specific learning tasks which appear difficult and over testable materials
- h) Provision of progress evaluation/test until students reach the mastering standard set.
- i) Students are given feedback on the test by the teacher.
- j) Students' individual scores are pooled and average, the average score represents the score of each student in a group.

Procedure for the Independent Teaching Strategy (ITS). This involves:

- a) Introducing the lesson topic
- b) Brief review of previous but related knowledge of the topic
- c) Stating the objectives of the new lesson
- d) Students are shown different tools equipment components and process connected to the topic, to explain what, how where and why things are done the way they are done.
- e) A few demonstration are first done by the teacher
- f) Students are not guided but allowed to work by themselves to master and discover facts, theories methods and practices
- g) Progress evaluation

Procedure for the Dependent Teaching Strategy (DTS). This involves:

- a) Introducing the lesson topic
- b) Brief review of previous knowledge
- c) Stating the objective of the new lesson through direct teacher interaction with students
- d) Some use of questioning is made
- e) Class exercises decided by the teacher
- f) Progress evaluation.

RESULTS

Research Question 1

To what extent does students academic Achievement in basic technology differ when they are exposed to INTS, ITS and DST teaching Strategies.

Table 1: Students' Pre – test and Post – test Scores of INTS, ITS & DTS taught Students

TS		Pre –Test	Post –Test	Mean Gain
INTS	X	20.90	38.97	18.07
	N	40	40	
	S	5.47	7.39	
ITS	X	17.20	22.40	5.20
	N	40	40	
	S	3.38	5.39	
DTS	X	19.35	26.07	6.72
	N	40	40	
	S	5.33	6.11	

	X	19.15	29.15	10.00
TOTAL	N	120	120	
	S	5.02	9.52	

Table 1 shows the mean achievement of INTS students in the Pre – test as 20.90 and 38.97 for the Post – test with a mean gain of 18.07. It shows the mean of the ITS students as 17.20 and 22.40 for the pre – test and post – test respectively, with a mean gain of 5.20. It further shows the mean of DTS students as 19.35 and 26.07 for the pre-test and post – test respectively, with a mean gain of 6.72. The results clearly shows some difference in the mean achievement of students taught with the three strategies with an order of facilities of INTS > DTS > ITS

Research Question 2

To what extent does students academic achievement in basic technology differ with respect to their attitude to the subject when exposed to INTS, ITS, and DTS?

Table 2: Student's Pre – test and Post – test Scores with respect to SAQ

TS		Pre – Test	Post – Test	Mean Gain
Negative	X	17.74	25.98	8.24
	N	50	50	
	S	4.89	7.69	
Positive	X	20.15	31.41	11.26
	N	70	70	
	S	4.89	10.09	
Total	X	19.15	29.15	10.00
	N	120	120	
	S	5.02	9.52	

Table 2 shows that 50 students with negative attitude to the subject had mean achievement of 17.74 and 25.98 in the pre – test and post – test respectively with mean gain of 8.24, while the 70 students with positive attitude had 20.15 and 31.41 on the pre – test and post – test respectively and a gain of 11.26. This means that students' academic achievement in BT increases as their attitude to the subject tends towards positive.

Testing of Hypotheses

Ho₁: Hypothesis one stated that there is no significant difference in academic achievement of students taught with INTS in BT and those taught with DTS and ITS

Table 3: Analysis of Co – Variance (ANCOVA) of Students Academic Achievement (BTAT) taught with INTS, DTS & ITS

Sources of Variance	Df	SS	Ms	f	sig. of F
Covariates(Prestest)	1	727.65	727.65	21.11	.00
TS	2	4540.42	2270.21	65.87*	.00
Error	116	3998.69	34.46		
Total	120	112754.00			

*Significant at P = .05

The analysis on Table 3 shows an F_{cal.} of 65.87 being significant at an alpha level of .05. This means that students' academic achievements are significantly different in the three teaching Strategies.

Ho₂: hypothesis two states that there is no significant difference in academic achievement of students with positive attitudes and those with negative attitudes towards basic Technology.

Table 4: ANCOVA of Students' Academic Achievement (BTAT) with respect to their positive and attitude to BT

Sources of Variance	Df	SS	Ms	f	sig. of F
Pretest	1	133.04	133.04	27.74	.00
SAQ	1	345.20	345.20	4.93*	.00
Error	117	8192.91	70.02		
Total	120	112754.00			

*Significant at P = .05

The analysis of Co – variance in Table 4 indicates a significant F – ratio (4.93) at an alpha of .05. The implication is that students’ attitude significantly affects their academic achievement in the subject

Ho₃: There is no significant joint effect of teaching strategies (INTS, ITS and DTS) and students’ attitudes on academic achievement of students in basic technology.

Table 5: A 3 x 2 ANCOVA of Students’ Academic Achievement by TS and SAQ Variables

Sources of Variance	Df	SS	Ms	f	sig. of F
Pretest	1	486.84	486.84	16.13	.00
SAQ	1	363.67	363.67	12.05*	.00
TS	2	3964.25	1982.12	65.68*	.00
SAQ = TS	2	235.15	117.57	3.89*	.02
Error	113	3409.86	30.17		
Total	120	112754.00			

*Significant at P = .05

R squared = .684

Table 5 shows a significant joint effect (F = 3.89) of TS and SAQ on students’ achievement leading to a rejection of the null hypotheses.

Discussion of Findings

Results of the study show that teaching strategies significantly affects students’ academic achievement in BT. Teaching strategy having effect on academic achievement is in line with Mbaba (2006) and Ugwuanyi (2005). The implication here is that BT teachers have to select and use appropriate teaching strategies if they want to have high students’ achievements. The fact that instructional strategies will also dictate instructional resources such as machines, tools and other equipment cannot be over emphasized. In this study the interactive teaching strategy (INTS) performed best followed by the dependent teaching strategy (DTS) and independent teaching strategy (ITS). The INTS has some element of students’ interaction with one another and with the teacher coupled with the feedback mechanism which allows students to know their progress. Students’ attitude has also been seen in this study to affect their achievement significantly (F = 4.93, P = .05). This supports the findings of Bolaji (2003). However, this result is contrary to Uwameiye (2004), who argued that students’ attitude makes little or difference in their academic achievement.

The study further showed a significant joint effect (F = 3.89) of teaching strategies and students’ academic achievement. This is in line with Anderson and Block (2000) and the implication is that if effective teaching strategies are combined with positive students’ attitude, their academic achievement could be extensively improved.

Conclusion

Quality assurance in BT is a procedure for meeting the curriculum objectives and giving satisfaction to the stakeholders. The procedure requires instituting benchmarks/standards on the teaching and learning parameters such as teaching strategies, students’ attitude, funding, equipment, evaluation and instructional resources. This study has shown, that teaching strategies and students’ attitudes have significant effect on students’ academic achievement in basic technology. Therefore there is urgent need to put in place quality assurance process by manipulating teaching strategies and students’ attitude for effective learning of the subject and as a measure of stimulating students’ interest which has already dwindled towards BT. Teaching strategies, methods, teaching aids, educational media as some of the quality assurance parameters, should enhance teachers’ and students’ full participation if high academic achievement is to be expected. The starting point in the quality assurance process for the study of BT is a conducive learning environment (which include tools, machines, books etc) and qualified teachers that understand the philosophy and psychology of basic technology principles and who are capable of stimulating students’ attitude toward the subject.

Recommendation

- The interactive teaching strategy and technology friendly activities should be employed by BT teachers in the teaching and learning of the subjects to enhance students' attitudes towards the subject.
- Quality assurance in the teaching and learning of BT should properly align Students' attitudes, effective administration, evaluation and supervision, teacher's factors e.t.c.
- Activities aimed at stimulating students' interest and curiosity should be generated by the BT teacher since this will give the students the opportunity to be fully involved in the learning process.
- Government should provide the needed tools, machines, textbooks, materials and other laboratory facilities as part of a conducive environment to enhance quality teaching and learning
- Learning activities should include hands – on – experience, visits for technology oriented organizations, quiz on science and technology, exhibitions on BT products and application of computer for the solution of problems in BT.

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Preparing Initial Teacher Education Students for a Culturally Diverse World: Case Study

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Abstract

Globally, experienced and novice teachers struggle to handle learners from diverse cultural backgrounds. South African teachers also deal with learners who differ based on factors such as race, socio-economic status, religion and culture. Hence, it is necessary to equip student teachers with knowledge of cultural diversity. While this might be happening on the ground, there is dearth of research investigating incorporation of cultural diversity in teacher education curriculum. Yet, during teaching practice and when they become certified, students are expected to function effectively and to put cultural diversity into practice in multicultural schools. This qualitative case study investigated the incorporation of cultural diversity in a teacher education curriculum, using interviews with teacher educators and students. Diversity pedagogy theory informed this study. Results revealed that although implementation presented challenges, teacher educators incorporated theory of cultural diversity. The study recommends that teaching of cultural diversity should become a global teacher-education imperative.

Keywords. Incorporation, cultural diversity, student teachers, contexts, curriculum

INTRODUCTION

In both developed and developing worlds, teachers who serve diverse communities during the 21st century face a plethora of cultural-diversity related challenges that create social and professional demands on them (Clandinin, Downey & Huber, 2009). South African teachers are not immune to this situation. Like their global counterparts, they also grapple with issues such as gender disparities, as well as racial and socio-economic inequalities in education left by the legacy of the apartheid system. In addition, they deal with learners infected or affected by the HIV and AIDS pandemic and orphaned learners who have become caregivers or heads of households (Department of Education (DoE), 2000; United Nations (UN), 2011). These social ills represent shifting responsibilities, which require them to have skills of dealing with cultural diversity. Consequently, there is a need to explore the manner in which teacher education curricula incorporate cultural diversity; so that student teachers (or students, as referred to in this article) could be able to deal with these challenges effectively during teaching practice and after they become certified. Yet, existing research illustrates that the extent to which South African teacher education curriculum incorporates cultural diversity has not been adequately investigated.

This study investigated, from the perspective of teacher educators and students, the manner in which cultural diversity was incorporated in the curriculum of a selected teacher education programme (TEP). The TEP was located in a higher education institution (HEI) within a Faculty of Education. It consisted of Black, White, Coloured (mixed-race) and Indian students. The study objectives were (i) to establish the extent to which the TEP equipped students with skills of functioning effectively in classrooms with learners from diverse contexts, and (ii) to uncover the ways in which this was done and the impact this had on the students. In this study it is argued that children are brought up in culturally diverse environments and thus bring different value systems, norms, beliefs and attitudes into the classrooms. So too are their teachers. Hence, for learners' maximal cognitive development to occur, cultures within which their cognition develops should take precedence in the classrooms. It is further argued that the best possible way of enhancing the cognitive development of learners from diverse backgrounds is by incorporating situational knowledge that deals with contexts, diversity, and needs of diverse learners (Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), 2011; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Morrow, 2007; Shulman, 1987) in teacher education curriculums.

Hopefully, this study will influence teacher educators and policy makers nationally and globally to prioritise cultural diversity in the area of teacher education. It will also add new knowledge to the less chattered territory

of cultural diversity in teacher education curriculums, especially in the context of South Africa where these terms are relatively new.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual definitions of culture and cultural diversity

A discussion of cultural diversity inextricably links with an explanation of culture. Culture denotes the people's way of living. According to Pretorius and le Roux (2009, p.104) culture refers to,

The universal, distinguishing characteristics, products, values, traditional customs, symbols and acquired aspects of a specific human society. Material culture includes objects, technology and the arts, while non-material culture refers to language and other symbols, knowledge, skills, values, beliefs and customs.

Teerikangas and Hawk (2002) define culture as the worldview of a group and a means of communication and behaviour patterns shared by the members of that group. According to Handwerker (2002), culture consists mainly of the knowledge used by a group of people to live their lives and the way in which they do so. While these definitions portray culture as having common or homogeneous elements that are shared by groups of people, the other view depicts culture as having intracultural and intercultural variations (Handwerker, 2002). In short, cultures are heterogeneous and differences exist within and between them. Intracultural variations imply cultural differences among people who use the same social identity and cultural equivalence, while intercultural variations manifest themselves among people who use different social identities. Common elements and differences manifest themselves in, for example, styles of negotiation, communication, expectations and structure (Teerikangas & Hawk, 2002). Bandura (2002) distinguishes between individualistic and collective cultures or a mixture of both.

The cultural variations discussed above are what constitute cultural diversity. Mazur (2010, pp. 5-6) posits that:

Diversity is a subjective phenomenon, created by group members themselves who, on the basis of their different social identities, categorise others as similar or dissimilar.

To frame the context of cultural diversity in South Africa, the DoE (2000, np.) states that:

The economic and social challenges facing our nation – characterised most importantly by rich cultural and linguistic diversity, deep inequities, high levels of poverty and unemployment, and slow economic growth – largely frame the education challenge within South Africa.

Diversity is multifaceted and has many dimensions. Mazur (2010) cites Loden and Rosener (1991), who define diversity as factors that distinguish people along primary and secondary dimensions. Loden and Rosener (*ibid*) claim that primary diversity dimensions exert primary influences on people's identities and shape their self-image and fundamental worldviews. Primary dimensions include factors such as gender, ethnicity, race, sexual orientation, age and mental or physical abilities and characteristics. Secondary dimensions are described as less visible and impact people's self-esteem and self-definition. They include educational background, geographic location, religion, first language, family status, work style, work experience, military experience, organizational role and level, income and communication style. Rijamampinina and Carmichael (2005, cited in Mazur, 2010) add the tertiary dimension, which they claim is the core of individual identity.

Cultural diversity implies that cultures in which learners grow up are heterogeneous. Children grow up in socio-cultural environments that differ in terms of values, norms, mores, beliefs and attitudes. Cultural diversity is borne out of this multiplicity of cultures, and, as was highlighted earlier, it is from this multiplicity that human cognitive development occurs. Teachers' cultures, like their learners', are equally heterogeneous. So too are school cultures in which learners learn and teachers teach. Consequently, the learners' family cultures (including those of parents, grandparents, siblings) may or may not match those of the school and teachers' cultures. The result may be a dissonance between teachers and learners as well as family and school. Hence, it is vital that teachers and student teachers be thoroughly prepared for dealing with learners' diverse cultures. That is why this study investigated whether this was happening in a teacher education curriculum.

Cultural diversity in the context of teacher preparation

The importance of exposing students to cultural diversity is raised in international literature (Athanasé & Martin, 2006; DHET, 2011; Downey & Cobbs, 2007; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; and others). The idea behind this exposure is preparation of students to meet the ever-changing social demands of the teaching profession. In South Africa, the new policy framework on the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications

(MRTEQ) (DHET 2011, p. 15) stipulates that institutions offering teacher education programmes should create environments that enable students to acquire “concrete experiences of the varied and contrasting contexts of schooling in South Africa”, thereby equipping them with the knowledge and skills to function in diverse school contexts. The stipulations of this framework are in line with the principles of social justice. Similarly, the Council on Higher Education (CHE) (2006) emphasises the need for student teachers to develop professional competence of the diverse range of authentic South African school experiences. Feiman-Nemser (2001) advocates an understanding of learners, human development and diversity as vital in assisting beginner teachers to question their taken-for-granted assumptions and stereotypes about their learners. What could be deduced from these statements is that teaching practice sites are the most convenient contexts for students to learn to practise cultural diversity. It is important for students to acquire the skills of handling cultural diversity at an early stage as, although they may wish for this, there is no guarantee that when they become certified, they will be placed in schools environments with which they are familiar. Situations vary and students may find themselves having to adapt to teaching in school contexts that are completely alien to them. That is why it becomes vital for them to acquire these skills. Robinson and Zinn (2007) point out that in South Africa, White students generally resist teaching-practice placements in black schools. Ronfeldt (2010, p. 4), reiterating the same view, highlights the benefits of immersing students in different cultural school contexts thus,

[N]ew teachers, who are typically white and often from non-urban backgrounds, will benefit from guided immersion experiences with students from different backgrounds during professional preparation, especially since many of these teachers will eventually work in urban schools and with diverse student populations.

Nevertheless, views on the impact of teaching-practice placements in these school contexts vary. For instance, some studies report that students immersed in culturally diverse school contexts develop a positive attitude (Athanasé & Martin 2006; Downey & Cobbs 2007). Hollins and Guzman (2005, p. 512) support this view, arguing that students placed in schools with diverse students “acquire more complex understandings and awareness of cultural and experiential differences than do their peers placed in suburban settings”, a fact further supported by Gurin (2002). On the contrary, other studies illustrate that placements of students in these schools can present challenges for them to learn to teach (Buehler, Ruggles-Gere, Dallavis & Shaw-Haviland, 2009). Goodlad (1990, p. 61) appears to disagree with the latter view, pointing out that “fieldwork in clinical sites where family backgrounds and educational resources almost ensure success are programs that disadvantage future teachers and short change society”, as they do not match the realities of diverse school contexts. Hence, like Ronfeldt, Goodlad calls for the placement of students in both affluent and impoverished school contexts so that they can be exposed to both contexts and learn to deal with learners from diverse contexts. I argue that the source of the students’ problems with functioning effectively in these school environments may be rooted in their lack of theoretical knowledge of cultural diversity. Practice without theory is futile. So, without the theoretical knowledge and understanding of cultural diversity, students might find it difficult to put it into practice.

In his work, Morrow (2007) distinguishes between material and formal elements of teaching. Formal elements are skills that help teachers to organise learning systematically, such as programme design, assessment and other functions. Material elements of teaching involve contexts, facilities, resources, conditions and so forth. Morrow (2007, p. 100) criticises teacher education programmes for “repeatedly defin[ing] the work of teachers in terms of its material elements” that are context-bound. He argues that material elements limit students to specific contexts and preclude them from functioning in contexts that do not comply with what they were taught. So, while material elements of teaching are emphasised in teacher education literature, as shown earlier, teacher educators should guard against overly emphasising them at the expense of the formal elements of teaching.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study is grounded in diversity pedagogy theory (Sheets, 2009). Sheets (2009, p. 1) describes diversity pedagogy theory as “a set of principles that point out the natural and inseparable connections between culture and cognition”. This theory stresses that teachers need to traverse certain steps in order to acquire cultural competence, and that success to do so relies on (a) one’s capacity to perceive diversity as a norm, and to view it as fundamental to all aspects of the teaching-learning process, and (b) one’s willingness to gain knowledge about the diverse cultures represented in one’s classroom. This knowledge sets the stage for the teacher’s practice, that is, how she or he will handle or impart knowledge, how he or she will deal with learners from diverse cultures, his or her expectations of the learners, as well as the attitudes he or she will exhibit in classes with learners from diverse backgrounds.

According to Sheets (2009), the diversity pedagogy theory connects culture, cognition and schooling in a single unit. She states as follows:

[Diversity pedagogy theory] unites classroom practice with a deep understanding of the role culture plays in the social and cognitive development of children. Diversity pedagogy theory views the natural connectedness of culture and cognition as key to incorporating multiple factors of diversity in the teaching-learning process. It acknowledges the indissoluble, joint-role of culture and cognition in the human development process (p. 11).

Eight two-paired, side-by-side dimensions of the diversity pedagogy theory that guide teacher and student behaviours can be distinguished (Sheets, 2009). In this theory, an assumption is held that the teachers' behaviours on the left hand side of the table can influence the learners' behaviours on the right hand side of the table. The dimensions are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Dimensions of the Diversity Pedagogy Theory. Source: Sheets (2009, p. 13)

	Teacher Pedagogical Behaviours	Student Cultural Displays
#1	Diversity	Consciousness of Difference
#2	Identity	Ethnic Identity Development
#3	Social Interaction	Interpersonal Relationships
#4	Culturally Safe Classroom Context	Self-Regulated learning
#5	Language	Language Learning
#6	Culturally Inclusive Content	Knowledge Acquisition
#7	Instruction	Reasoning Skills
#8	Assessment	Self-Evaluation

The current study situates cultural diversity as an important element in the discourse of teacher education curriculum. Theoretical knowledge is inextricably linked to the social contexts in which it has to be applied. In short, theory cannot be implemented in a vacuum but in the social context of those who are being taught. The diversity pedagogy theory is relevant for this study as it acknowledges the role that the teacher's knowledge of learners' cultures influences cognitive development and the teacher's teaching practice.

METHODOLOGY

The design was a qualitative case study of a single teacher education program (TEP). Information was sought from seven of the nine teacher educators who taught pedagogical teacher knowledge (or subject didactics) and professional studies, as well as from 34 racially diverse students. Participants were selected purposely as they were considered capable of providing information that the researcher sought on the inclusion of cultural diversity in teacher education curriculum. Students constituted four focus groups, each of which consisted of seven to ten students from first to fourth year levels of study. The sample of participants was considered representative of the small population in the respective TEP. Although factors of race, culture and gender were considered in the selection of the participants so as to obtain diverse perspectives, analysed data were not categorised according to these factors.

Each of the individual and focus-group interviews lasted for approximately 40 minutes. During the interviews, probing was done in order to clarify any misconceptions. Interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed *verbatim*. Data were triangulated with open-ended questionnaires that were sent to three different students from each of the four levels and two subject didactics educators, all of who were not participants in the study. After the data were analysed, these students and educators were requested to validate the truthfulness of the data presented by the participants. Data were transcribed and analysed using the highlighting approach (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000) in order to uncover the thematic aspects. Phrases or sentences that stood out in the text were colour-coded and classified into themes that were further organised into sub-headings.

Participants were informed about the confidentiality of information gathered and the voluntary nature of their participation. Ethical clearance was obtained from the institutional ethics review board of the Faculty of Education from which the research participants were drawn. Pseudonyms were used in order to maintain the anonymity of the participants.

RESULTS

Activities promoting incorporation of cultural diversity in teacher education

Data from teacher educators and students indicated that miscellaneous activities and strategies were employed to equip students with theoretical and practical knowledge and skills of dealing with cultural diversity in class. Dr Pampallis, a subject didactics educator, cited assignments as one strategy he used to expand his students' repertoire of theoretical and practical knowledge of cultural diversity. He gave the following example to illustrate how he challenged his students to incorporate cultural diversity in their classrooms, using theoretical knowledge acquired from his subject:

After teaching them about Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory, I give my students an assignment to plan, develop and teach a lesson using scaffolding in their respective areas of specialisation. The main criterion of the assignment is the extent to which it addresses learners' cultural diversity. This is good as we find that learners don't learn the same way, so differentiation should occur and the teacher should understand how to handle slow learners and those who may come from disadvantaged backgrounds.

Ms Peers reported that she approached cultural diversity differently by incorporating it as a module in her subject. She explained that the module prepared students to teach diverse South African learners in a variety of learning contexts, as stipulated in the various TEP policies. She further mentioned that students' evaluations of her module demonstrated that they had undergone perspective transformation and that they were well-prepared to face diversity-related challenges in schools. Nevertheless, she acknowledged the criticism that she said some of her critics levelled against this module, that teaching it to final-year students was too little too late.

Teacher educators were not the only ones to comment on the efforts made to equip students with knowledge and skills in this area. Students echoed their educators, explaining that they studied inclusive education from which they learnt about dealing with different disabilities in class. They further explained that the practical component that helped them to link theory and practice, included placements in inclusive classroom contexts in which were learners with disabilities. These placements are similar to the one reported by Doody and Connor (2012) in their study in which a student reflected on his experiences of being placed in a school of learners with intellectual disabilities. In this study, the student teacher reported to have found the experience "worthwhile, enlightening, rewarding and educational" (p. 117), as well as "rewarding and beneficial" (p. 116) to his growth, development, and attitudes towards teaching learners with disabilities. Similarly, Melanie, one of the participants in the current study, described her experiences of being placed in a school of learners with disabilities as having:

... helped me to deal effectively with disability in the school classrooms. Even when I do teaching practice with 'ordinary' learners I can handle those few with disabilities such as ADHD and slow learners well.

The approach to cultural diversity employed by Prof. van Jaarsveldt, a mathematics educator, appeared to be relevant to the context of South Africa in which some teachers in impoverished schools are either unqualified or under-qualified. He described his approach thus:

Before students go out to teach to schools, I highlight the plight of disadvantaged schools, such as impoverished schools and those with unqualified or underqualified teachers. It is important for lecturers to equip student teachers with the knowledge and skills of dealing with teaching and learning in these environments. I also explain the classroom realities of disadvantaged schools to the student teachers, such as poor mathematics content knowledge among teachers, lack of resources in these classroom contexts and rote learning, which is a common phenomenon in disadvantaged mathematics classrooms.

As can be seen above, teacher educators made efforts to incorporate cultural diversity in the teacher education curriculum in question. Nonetheless, concerted efforts appear not to exist in the teacher educators' approach to this subject. Based on the contentions raised earlier about White student's resistance towards being placed in Black schools for teaching practice, I contend that teaching practice should be used as the main vehicle for strengthening incorporation of cultural diversity in teacher education curriculums.

Barriers to incorporation of cultural diversity

Internationally, placements of students in schools are hailed as an integral component in initial teacher education; as it is in teaching practice that students get an opportunity to link the theory they learnt in university with practical experiences in real classroom contexts. However, as stated earlier, before students can be in a position to put theories into practice, they must have a sound theoretical background. The analysis above has focused on what happens in university classrooms in terms of incorporating cultural diversity in the teacher

education curriculum. What transpired from both teacher educators and students' accounts was that cultural diversity was incorporated in the teacher education curriculum. Nevertheless, in the analysis presented in this section, it became clear from some students' utterances that there was a disjuncture between the theoretical and practical knowledge taught in the teacher education curriculum. Factors such as culture, language, socio-economic status and race appeared to act as barriers to the practical implementation of cultural diversity in real classroom situations. Most of the students' challenges with implementing cultural diversity seemed to be rooted in ineffective inclusion of cultural diversity in the teacher education curriculum.

As with other studies on teaching-practice placements of students in culturally diverse contexts mentioned earlier, some students in this study sounded apprehensive about being placed in these schools. Some of the experiences reported in this study echo those found in Sosibo's (forthcoming) study, in which some Black first-year students found placements in culturally diverse schools challenging. In this study, Mazwai described the source of their problem as emanating from the fact that,

We [Black students] are thrown in the deep end in these schools because, although we study theories of teaching and learning, there is no theory that teaches us to operate in White or Coloured schools where they teach through English or Afrikaans and where the culture is different. We should first be prepared for this experience before we are sent out for teaching practice.

Ayanda expressed the same sentiment, arguing that the theory she had acquired from the teacher education curriculum had not prepared her to deal with the negative attitudes and stereotypes exhibited by learners, as well as alienation and discrimination by teachers in the White school in which she had been placed. She criticised the university theory for not being contextualised to suit racially different school contexts.

Besides linguistic and cultural disharmonies expressed above, structural and situational barriers appeared to adversely affect effective incorporation of cultural diversity in the teacher education curriculum. For instance, Sello observed that university theory failed to emphasise situational learning that taught them about inequalities among different cultural and racial communities. Yet, as he stated, he felt that classroom context was key to a student's growth and development as a teacher. Like Ayanda, he suggested that teacher educators should contextualise the theories rather than teach them one-size-fits-all. He concluded by stating that,

At university the way we are taught is as if we are all going to teach in better equipped schools, yet some of us have to go and teach where there are not enough learning facilities for learners. Most of the classrooms in these schools are overcrowded. One-size-fits-all approach has a tremendous negative effect on us when we get into poor schools.

Tyra reiterated the same point, stressing that when students encountered a situation in which computers were dysfunctional in impoverished schools, the theory acquired in university went out the window, leaving them disoriented and embarrassed. She called for theories that were relevant to diverse school contexts, to which Morrow (2007) refers as formal elements of teaching, as they prepare students to function in any context regardless of school conditions.

The students' accounts made it evident that issues of race, racial identity and cultural diversity were not addressed sufficiently in the teacher education curriculum. They claimed that this situation left them wondering about their future careers as teachers in the new democratic South Africa. Beverley expressed her sentiment as follows:

It's as if we [White students] in the new South Africa are going to remain in our White schools and Black students in their Black schools. What will happen if the only available job for me is in a Black township school? I won't have the vaguest idea of how to teach there because I have never been taught how to function effectively in those schools.

Mahmoed had a somewhat similar view, citing the university classroom as not representative of cultural diversity and as failing to set a tone for cultural diversity. His view was that:

In our [university] classrooms we barely ever practice diversity. We don't mingle but we sit in groups according to our races. Even when we do group work we stick to our own. Lecturers don't care to integrate us and those who try find it difficult to split us. When we go to schools with diverse learners we encounter the same problems but we can't do anything about it because we were never taught how to handle them in the first place.

The first section of the results showed effective incorporation of cultural diversity in the teacher education curriculum. However, this section has highlighted tensions and disjuncture between what happens in teacher education classrooms and teaching-practice contexts, which could be an indication that theory taught in teacher education curriculum is not in sync with phenomena in school classrooms. This might point to the need for lecturers to contextualise cultural diversity. It also shows that students should be equipped with theoretical knowledge of cultural diversity before they are plunged to swim or sink in school contexts with learners from diverse cultural backgrounds. Placements of students in culturally diverse contexts cannot and should not happen in a vacuum where theoretical knowledge has not been taught.

DISCUSSION

This study investigated the incorporation of cultural diversity in a teacher education curriculum. Evidence from the participants' accounts attested to the fact that teacher educators made efforts to link these aspects. However, the analysis showed that the efforts made are incoherent, additive and lacking comprehensiveness. There was no evidence of a theoretical basis that informs the processes that are followed in incorporating cultural diversity in a comprehensive manner that will enhance students' theoretical understandings and practical implementation of this aspect. The findings revealed the fragmented nature of the approach used in the teacher education curriculum under study. They also highlighted a symptomatic neglect of situational teacher knowledge in the teacher education curriculum, a fact highlighted by Sosibo (2012) in her study on the privileged teacher knowledge domains in teacher education programmes. Similarly, issues raised by students on the perpetual disregard of cultural diversity and transformation in teaching practice placements appear to confirm Sosibo and Kwendas' (2013) findings on their study of the views of culturally diverse students on teaching-practice placements. These issues may be an indication of a need to develop a theoretical framework that will serve as a basis for incorporation of cultural diversity.

The literature revealed that differences exist among learners and learners, and learners and teachers as they all bring with them varying cultures, traditions, beliefs and so forth into the teaching-learning situation. Therefore, it is important for students to be equipped with theoretical knowledge and practical skills of handling cultural diversity in the classroom. As was shown in the literature, since learners' cultures are a vehicle for cognitive growth and development, it stands to reason that students should be equipped with skills of handling learning environments with cultural diverse learners. The eight dimensions of the diversity pedagogy theory (Sheets, 2009) are critical as they demonstrate that a teacher's pedagogical behaviour influences a certain cultural display by a learner. This statement is critical as it might imply that if a teacher behaves in a manner that disrespects or disregards a learner's culture, the learner might be influenced to display reactions that the teacher may consider culturally inappropriate, unaware that she or he is the cause of that learner's cultural reaction. Without theoretical knowledge of these issues, students may commit flaws in implementing cultural diversity. Students are teachers-in-the-making who are being prepared to become socialising agents of learners who bring diversity into the classrooms. Without thorough preparation, they might find it difficult to develop the cognition of those learners who come from backgrounds that are different from theirs, and to implement the teaching and learning approaches that would enhance those learners' cognitive development. Therefore, for student teachers, acquiring the skills of putting cultural diversity into practice should be made an educational imperative.

In his progressive education, John Dewey (1939) argued that for learners to understand democracy, they must live it. The same applies to cultural diversity. For students in this study to understand cultural diversity, they must live it in their everyday teaching and learning encounters and in every aspect of their teacher education curriculum. In other words, it must be integrated in the whole curriculum and in all the classroom phenomena. This includes seating arrangements, group activities and assignments, which in this study were reported to reinforce separation rather than integration among students from different cultural backgrounds. If these divisions continue to happen, student teachers might experience difficulty with understanding cultural diversity fully, let alone practising it.

CONCLUSION

In this study it became evident that teacher educators made strides in ensuring that student teachers were equipped with this knowledge using a variety of strategies. Nonetheless, it was disconcerting to note that although this aspect is incorporated, it is done in a fragmented manner that does not help students to effectively apply it in contexts with learners from different cultural and racial backgrounds. In South Africa and globally, it might help if teacher education policy makers establish partnerships with teacher educators in order to ensure

that cultural diversity is fully and effectively incorporated in teacher education curriculum. Cultural diversity is the norm in the South African education arena. Therefore, it should be strengthened and made a national imperative in teacher education. This could be done by teaching cultural diversity across teacher education curriculum or as a stand-alone module. It is also important to not assume that teacher educators are equipped with skills of imparting this knowledge. Retraining them on cultural diversity is vital and might empower them with the knowledge and skills of equipping their students with theory and practice of cultural diversity. More studies need to be conducted in the area of teacher education and cultural diversity.

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Wave Motion Leadership for Private Schools in the Philippines

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Abstract

This dissertation ushered researcher to the concept of wave motion in the context of educational leadership in a private school setting. The concept was drawn from the use of mixed research method from the three fundamental elements of empowerment – structural empowerment (SE), psychological empowerment (PE) and participation to decision making (PDM). From the numerical data drawn from cross sectional survey (Owen, 2003) to arbitrary grounding using the 3C (Glasier and Strauss, 1977); four empowerment structures were drawn – milieu, ecological, cultural and social system. The interplay of these system grounds the wave motion concept, which was patterned after that naturalistic hypothesis of ocean motion that will propel leadership in school.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Although the word empowerment lacks universal definition (Grieves, 2003); it is a driving force, which does not only attempt to extend the argument of excellence movement but seeks to solve problems of alienation. Empowerment is the determinants of continuous organization improvement and job satisfaction of the manpower in which, when these conditions are strategically built-in an organization, will construct an organization climate of excellence. In an educational setting, teachers are the working force towards achieving educational aims. They are prime movers of the school's vision and align actions to its mission. If their actions are built on poorly structural foundation, then the school's expectations will always be in its unrealizable status. This dissertation grounds a concept that will propel people in an educational setting to move towards its strategic direction of success.

Theoretical Framework

This dissertation rests on the following theories, which become the foundation in probing the structure of empowerment based on the school's organizational climate and will turn out to be the basis in grounding the wave motion leadership in the context of Space-Change-Time. The structure of empowerment is conscripted from the organizational climate concepts of Owens (1995). These dimensions are the ecology, milieu, social system and culture.

Ecology refers to the physical and material factors in the organization. In this study, architectural size, building conditions and designs, and available facilities comprise the architectural cluster of this dimension while technology utilized in the school complete its ecological dimension. Milieu refers to the social dimension in the organization. This includes virtually everything relating to people in the organization. Social System refers to the organizational and administrative structure while culture refers to the values, belief systems, norms and ways of thinking that are characteristics of the people in the organization. These dimensions are the backbone of the empowerment structure under study. To outline the empowerment structure from these four dimensions, pertinent information was drawn from the two models of empowerment --- **Structural and Psychological Empowerment**.

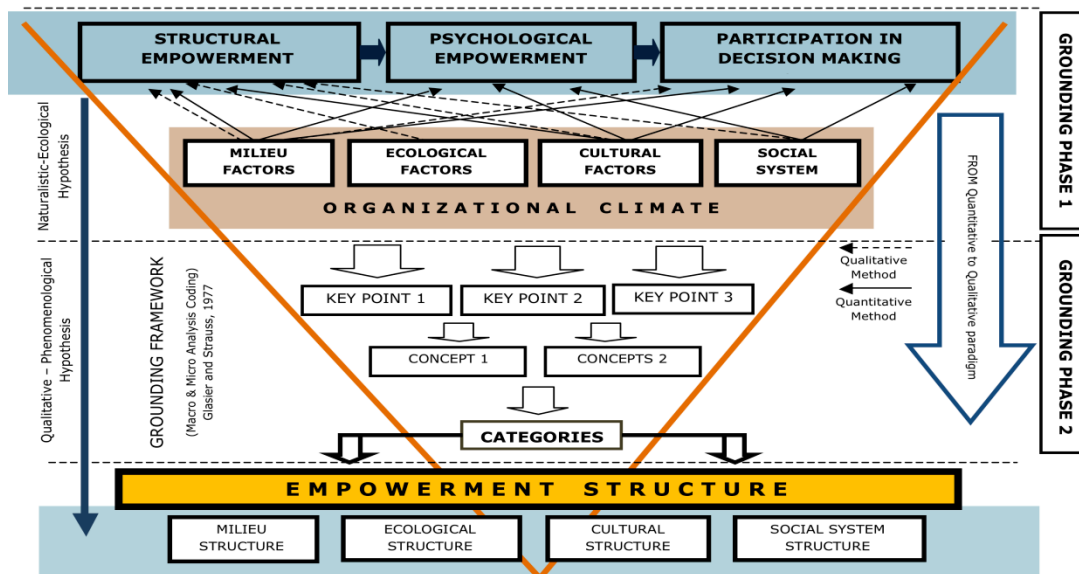
Structural Model of Empowerment (SE). According to Kanter (1977; 1993), employees' work behavior and attitudes are shaped by different social/organizational structures. She proposes three structural determinants: (1) power, (2) opportunities and (3) proportions. These three concepts have the potential to explain a majority of employee's responses to organization. However, in this dissertation, only **opportunity and power** were studied.

Opportunity represented the potential for advancement (Kanter, 1977, 1993). It could be determined by the promotion rate. According to Kanter (1993), high promotion rate from some certain positions did not come with the career paths automatically but come with the exposure, visibility and connections associated with that position. Power as defined by Kanter (1977, 1993) as “the ability to get things done, to mobilized resources, to get and use whatever it is that a person needs for the goals he or she is attempting to meet” (p.166). For Kanter (1977), power was closer to mastery or autonomy. There are three important lines of power: the access to information, support and resources (Kanter, 1977). According to Laschinger, Sabiston, and Kutzcher (1997), lines of information are related to the formal or informal possession of early information about organizational decisions and policy. Lines of support are associated with the ability to bring in materials, money, rewards or other needed resources. Lines of support are related to having allowance for innovative activities without going through a multilayered approval process.

Psychological Model of Empowerment (PE). From the socio-psychological perspective, empowerment is mainly viewed as the result of an employee’s perception of her/his personal state or interpersonal interaction (Chiles & Zorn, 1995). According to Spreitzer (1995), there are four cognitive dimensions of psychological empowerment: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. *Meaning* refers to the value of a work goal judged in terms of an individual’s own values, beliefs and standards. *Competence* is an individual’s capacity and ability required for his/her work. *Self-determination* is an individual’s ability to initiate a work-related action or behavior. *Impact* is the extent to which an individual can have influence on work outcome. Since psychological empowerment is influenced by employees’ work environment, it can be seen as a logical outcome of SEP (Laschinger et al., 2001b) and as an important mediator between the SEP and empowering behavior (Laschinger et al., 2001b; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Empowerment Element Theory. According to Matthes (1986), there are three elements that are considered indispensable to effective schools. These elements are the status, knowledge and decision making. Status, vis-a-vis with the idea of resources by Kishor (2000), refers to the conditions under which empowerment likely to occur. They are the potentially critical inputs to foster an empowerment processes, rather than as part of the empowerment per se. Knowledge element is likewise refers to resources that provides staff or personnel of any institutions the ability to formulate strategic choices and to control resources that will affect expected outcomes (G, Senm, 1993; Mehra, 1997). Decision-making element refers to the access of the teachers or staff to institution’s decision making. Their involvement to this process shapes a kind of leadership, which is essential in building high levels of satisfaction to work place (Taylor and Tashakkori, 1997). Anderson (2002) cited in that high levels of satisfaction leads towards high level of student achievements. It was also cited in clearly by Maeroff (1988) that these aforementioned elements should manifest change over time to ensure the enhancement of the levels of empowerments implemented in the institution.

Figure 1: Conceptual and Research Framework



METHODS AND PROCEDURE

Mixed method was used to expand the scope of the study and empirically ground the empowerment structure, which is crucial in grounding the wave motion concept. Specifically, concurrent strategy was utilized to collect both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time during the study to provide a comprehensive analysis. The quantitative component of the study includes the use of Cross-sectional survey correlation research while qualitative uses primarily the grounded theory whose procedure for grounding was based on the proposed coding and categorizing model of Glacier and Strauss (1967). Data analysis includes use of mean, standard deviation, kurtosis, paired t-test, Pearson-r moment of correlation and multi-regression analysis using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).

RESULTS

The researcher's profound exploration of the thoughts and actions of empowerment structure flavored by his savory intercourse with structural, psychological, participation to decision making and cultural dimensions in an organizational climate in the light of his academic discourse of Time-Space-Change has finally ushered him into the concept of wave motion; thus, his leadership model is born: Wave Motion Leadership for Private Schools in the Philippines.

Specific Findings. Such dissertation on wave motion leadership has been the brainchild of the following specific findings:

1. The moderate structural and psychological empowerment of the basic education teachers has been shaped by its existing organizational climate.
2. Primarily, the actual level of participation to decision making (PDM) is administration propelling leaving little or no space for teachers to participate.

Table 1: Actual and Preferred Level of Participation to Decision Making

Variables	Actual Mean	SD	Description	Preferred Mean	SD	Description
Unit Staffing	1.44	0.57	Administration only	2.16	0.80	Primarily Administration – some teachers input
Quality of Professional Practice	2.03	0.53	Primarily Administration – some teachers input	2.51	0.30	Equally shared by administration and teachers
Professional Recruitment	1.32	0.20	Administration only	1.69	0.32	Primarily Administration – some teachers input
Area Governance and Leadership	1.26	0.25	Administration only	2.03	0.88	Primarily Administration – some teachers input
Collaboration Activity	1.44	0.30	Administration only	2.37	0.74	Primarily Administration – some teachers input
Total	1.49	0.37	Administration only	2.15	0.61	Primarily Administration – some teachers input

3. An administration-propelled decision-making has yielded significant influence on teachers' decision making, but such significance may have spelled out negative, more than positive effect on empowerment.

Table 2: Table of Significant Difference Between Two types of PDM

Variables	Mean Actual	Mean Preferred	Mean Difference	t	P (2-tailed)	Decision	Interpretation
Unit Staffing	1.44	2.16	0.64	3.93	0.001	Reject Ho	Significant
Quality of Professional Practice	2.03	2.51	0.48	4.41	0.000	Reject Ho	Significant
Professional Recruitment	1.32	1.69	0.37	4.14	0.000	Reject Ho	Significant
Area Governance and Leadership	1.26	2.03	0.77	4.63	0.000	Reject Ho	Significant

Collaboration Activity	1.44	2.37	0.93	5.46	0.000	Reject Ho	Significant
Total	1.498	2.152	0.382	4.51	0.000	Reject Ho	Significant

4. There is evidence of the presence of intimacy and disengagement cultural dimensions but spirit dimension is at uncertain level.
5. The ecological structures of the organization support the needs of the basic education teachers.
6. Using in the inter-correlation matrix, SEP negligibly related with background factors; however, it showed strong positive correlation between formal and informal power; on the other hand, background factors have negligible relationship with the participation to decision making as well as power factors with participation to decision making. Lastly, SEP has negligible relationship with PE while SEP and PE have negligible relationship with the PDM.

Table 3: Inter-Correlation Matrix Among Variables

	Age	Years	Gender	Status	SEP	PE	DIS	Culture	Salary	TP	WL	FP	IP
Age	1.00	0.84**	0.006	0.461*	0.160	0.274	0.083	-0.029	0.818**	0.333	-0.360	0.193	0.178
Years	0.84**	1.00	-0.066	0.089	0.122	0.245	-0.023	-0.136	0.836**	0.314	-0.325	0.142	0.146
Gender	0.01	-0.07	1.000	0.189	-0.221	0.017	-0.227	0.192	-0.043	-0.154	-0.110	-0.072	-0.159
Status	0.46*	0.09	0.189	1.000	-0.011	0.102	0.112	0.149	0.316	-0.108	-0.160	0.036	0.091
SEP	0.16	0.12	-0.221	-0.011	1.000	0.074	0.043	0.670**	0.160	0.574**	-0.190	0.739**	0.775**
PE	0.27	0.25	0.017	0.102	0.074	1.000	-0.039	-0.183	0.198	0.173	0.087	0.052	0.412*
DIS	0.08	-0.02	-0.227	0.112	0.043	-0.04	1.000	0.012	-0.006	0.113	-0.025	0.088	-0.152
Culture	-0.03	-0.14	0.192	0.149	0.67**	-0.18	0.012	1.000	-0.054	0.265	0.004	0.401*	0.450*
Salary	0.82**	0.84**	-0.043	0.316	0.16	0.198	-0.006	-0.054	1.000	0.262	-0.285	0.053	0.228
TP	0.33	0.31	-0.154	-0.108	0.57**	0.173	0.113	0.265	0.262	1.000	-0.180	0.387*	0.453*
WL	-0.36	-0.33	-0.110	-0.160	-0.190	0.087	-0.025	0.004	-0.285	-0.180	1.000	-0.436*	-0.162
FP	0.19	0.14	-0.072	0.036	0.74**	0.052	0.088	0.401*	0.053	0.387*	-0.436*	1.000	0.548**
IP	0.18	0.15	-0.159	0.091	0.775**	0.41*	-0.152	0.450*	0.228	0.453*	-0.162	0.548**	1.000

7. The study revealed that 40% of the change of SEP is accounted for the change of PE, PDM and Value System Factor Scale.

Table 3: Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Regressions of Influence of SEP, PDM and Value System Factor

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
					R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	0.074a	0.006	-0.031	0.41119	0.006	0.150	0.702	
2	0.087b	0.008	-0.069	0.41857	0.002	0.055	0.816	1.801
3	0.701c	0.491	0.430	0.30560	0.484	23.777	0.000	

8. The communication structure is from top to bottom and down to top structure while the administrative structure is a combination of functional and divisional organizational set up.
9. The empowerment structure consists of adequate levels of milieu, social and cultural dimension and high levels of ecological component. These four provided the needed structural and power levels, effective feed-back system to relay information, functional organizational set-up that provided full understanding of the roles played by each member of the organization and adequate space and enough technologies that supports effective teaching and learning performance of the basic education teachers.

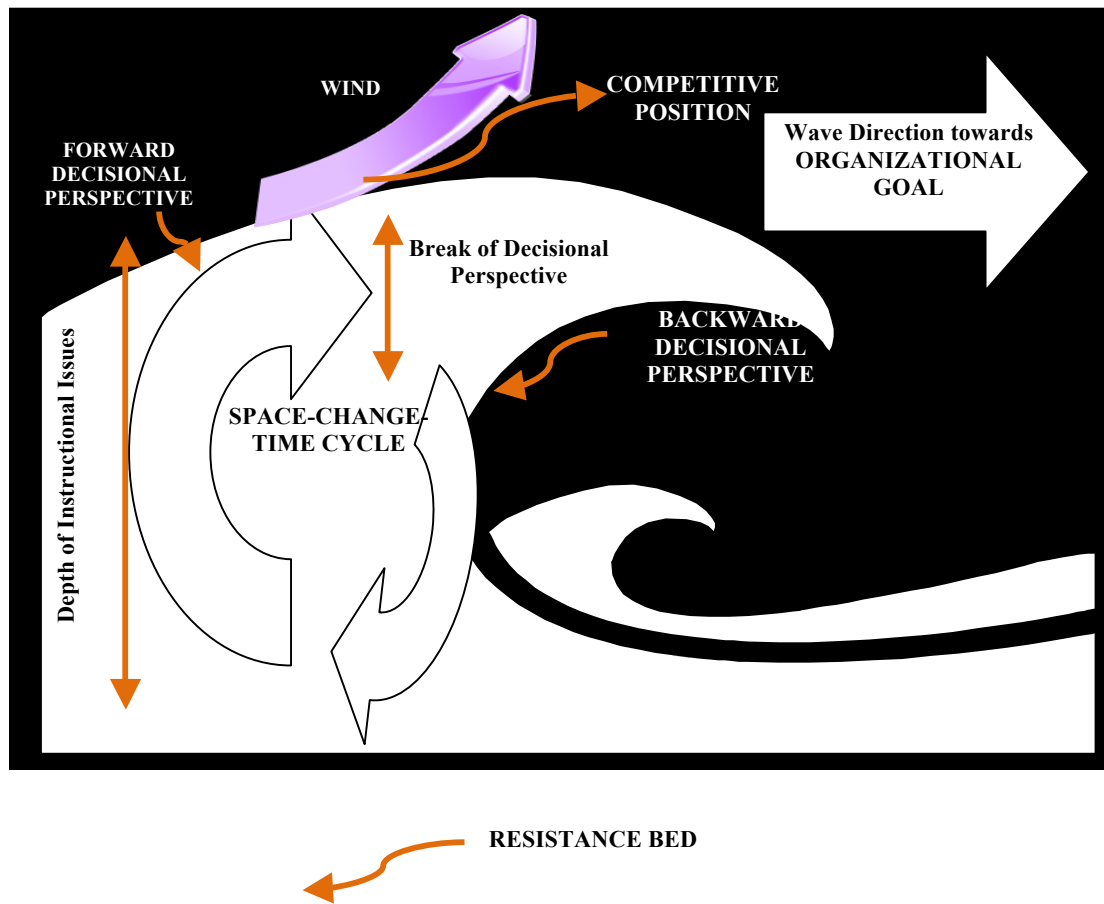
General Findings. From the preceding specific findings come the general findings. From one setting, the empowerment concept of the organization is characterized by the interplay of milieu, ecological, cultural and social system structures. Generally, these structures have led to the birth of external commitment where internal commitment has likewise emerged. Although the changes taking place has slowed down as noted in the previous years, its gradual progressive movement has continuously been observed. The changed program has brought inner contradictions, which fail to foster the behavior that is meant to inspire, but the steps to surface these contradictions have correspondingly inhibited the destructive force of unacknowledged and unaddressed concerns that are expected to sap the organization's efficiency.

Though the school management controls and regulates empowerment for people to unleash internal rather than external commitment, teaching performance has become a factor in quantifying performance as the penultimate of morale that propels inner self to strive to bring forth the entire school organization into heights. To direct people towards instructional change, concept of space-change-time cycle has the potency to unravel for deep understanding of the theory of ocean wave production. By practice, this wave motion principle has the potency to bring about the entire organization to cascade a wave with ripple effect under the control of the less backward but more forward perspectives. Ultimately, such wave motion catapults an organization in a forward linear direction of wave movement towards the shore of educational success – the new phenomenon of change.

CONCLUSION

The new phenomenon in educational leadership has emanated from the lattice of three elements: Space, Change and Time. Space refers to the organizational setting where the change takes place; change refers to the issues of reality – instructional practices that require change to further meet organizational direction while time refers to the sequence of moments in a linear order (Brubacher, 1978) where change happens. This is a step to inquiry seeking to understand organizational life and to create a spirit on inquiry that invites others to collaboratively do the same. Below is the concept of wave motion pattern drawn from the facts of this research.

Figure 2: Wave Pattern for Concept of Space-Change-Time



The concept of Time-Space-Change is grounded model draws its force, mechanisms and shape from the nature’s production of ocean wave. Nature propels the production of wave, which is initiated by the friction of the wind that passes over the water surface, which eventually forces the water to ripple. The strength of the wind, the distance of the wind blows (fetch) and the length of the gust (duration) determine how big the ripples will become. With enough friction, the water would cause to ripple to take effect, which move the water towards the shore. In relation to the ocean wave motion theory, school leadership may propel its organization towards its organizational goal if it has the desired structures necessary to bring about success in the context of time-space-change. These structures include the adequate levels of milieu, social, cultural and ecological dimensions

(Structural and Psychological Empowerment), which make up the space required to move the organization to its desired direction. The people must be equipped with adequate level of power (Structural and Psychological Empowerment) and participation to decision-making that will provide the friction within a the adequate range of competitive distance (fetch) that will create change in the space. The interplay of these structures both structural and psychological will create a circular motion brought by the interaction between the forward and backward motion (the cultural context vs. the school's strategic direction). These interactions should happen in a gradual sequential moment (gust) to absorb both its forward and backward movement allowing forward movement to overcome the backward system. This will propel the organization to move towards its strategic direction in a more productive way. The school's ability to assess its competitive position is critical to weigh the driving forces, pressures and anticipated move of resistance to maintain the extent of ripple effect adequate to move the organization towards its desired outcome.

RECOMMENDATIONS

As the school organization has restructured through downsizing, faculty have been increasingly required to work in teams. As a result, they need to develop new skills such as decision-making, problem solving and personal skills which include listening, resolving conflict, negotiating and leadership. Team and manpower effectiveness have therefore become a critical issue for the development of the organization (Grieves, 2003). For this reason, the school is required to develop critical instructional leadership skills.

There are different ways to strengthen the empowerment structure of the basic education teachers based on existing organizational climate. Different considerations must be noted in the construct most especially in the level of understanding the demographic determinants and the work performance of the faculty. These are the fundamental ingredients for work as need analysis phase for constructing suitable programs to enhance empowerment. The proposed empowerment strategies are enumerated below:

- (a) Developing functional and operational faculty development program that includes enhancing intellectual, social, cultural and spiritual dimensions. Stakeholders should require the participation of all the stakeholders either full participation or sectorized representation to voice out the majority's needs and aspirations vis-à-vis with the school's philosophy vision and mission. This program should develop functional instructional leaders that will transform school organization through personal and management development.
- (b) The activities of the faculty and staff development program should be planned out carefully through annual action plans. These action plans must be operational and functional which includes internal and external strategies for effective implementation. The executional strategies must be identified and planned out well by the assigned committee.
- (c) The action plans must be formatively and annually assessed to gauge the success rates of each activity. The evaluation should include not only the activities but also the manpower that implements and supports the activities. Feedback has, therefore, become a necessary condition of organizational learning. Being at the center stage, the students (clientele) have increased demands on employees to become acquainted with the concepts of quality, benchmarking and continuous improvement.
- (d) Conduct regular in-service and off-campus training to improve professional competence of the faculty not only in the pre-instructional level but also in the instructional and post-instructional level. Updating them with political, environmental and multi-cultural educational issues increases their horizons necessary to improve the nature of work and decisional power.
- (e) Improve the internal commitment using external commitment practices as a spring board. Engaging them to activities that allow them to trust themselves as well as the people around them to build confidence will eventually lead to shared responsibilities.
- (f) Improve communication feedbacks by increasing information dissemination strategies through memos, daily announcements, updating bulletin boards regularly, and accept instances for open discourses about issues and situations concerning them.
- (g) Utilize leadership that complements their followership style, and provide equal opportunity to lead organization.
- (h) Provide frequent supervisory conferences with teachers helping them meet expected instructional standards within the context of professionalism.
- (i) Provide teachers access to resources to identify and solve problems related to the classroom in order to ensure they can help all students to learn.

- (j) Create opportunities for teachers, both formal and informal to influence, design, create and implement school policies and procedure.
- (k) Encourage teachers to attend and complete graduate programs by supporting them financially especially those that manifest greater enthusiasm for career improvements and require teachers to earn graduate degree as a way to strengthen their career horizons.
- (l) Impose participation of the faculty to intellectual discourses and repartee concerning educational issues or teacher's competencies during faculty and staff meeting or assembly. This step will force them to prepare for the required undertaking but will inevitably acquire learning.
- (m) Promote a culture of research in the institution and provide avenues of research congress among teachers. This increases the productivity and their participation to solve issues or problems concerning the school.
- (n) Provide teachers time to reflect and prepare professionally through appropriate loading schedules.

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Exploring Parents and Teachers Perceptions on Causes and Effects of Drug Abuse on Academic Pursuit of Students in Selected Secondary Schools in Nigeria

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Abstract

In view of the need to address all problems bedeviling youth in Nigeria and beyond, this study was conducted on causes and effects of Drug abuse on the academic pursuit of students in selected Secondary Schools in Nigeria. The study had six specific objectives, and, as a guide, six null hypotheses were raised. Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. The researchers targeted 3879 parents and teachers that attended Parents, Teachers Association (PTA) meetings in selected five secondary schools in Nasarawa state, which is one of the 36 states in Nigeria. The sample size of the respondents was 776 (20% of the target), which comprises 622 parents and 154 teachers. Data were generated through four rating structured questionnaire. SPSS was used to analyze the data collected using regression analysis to test null hypotheses one, two and three, while t-test was used to test null hypotheses four, five and six. All the null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. The study reveals, among other findings, that 88% of the deviance in academic pursuit of secondary school students in Nigeria is attributed to drug abuse. Among the recommendations provided to address the situation are that: (i) parents should monitor the activities of their children while in school (through constant visits and appointment of trusted guardians among staff in the school) and (ii) parents should guide the type of friends their children move with (in and outside the school system). These would help to protect the students from undue influence of friends/peers on their attitude towards the use/abuse of unauthorized drugs.

Keywords. Parental Perceptions, Drug Abuse, Academic Pursuit, Secondary School students, Unauthorized Drugs

INTRODUCTION

The misuse and abuse of drugs by adolescent school children is a global issue, and Nigeria is not exempted. The rapid increase in the prevalence of this behaviour among school age children has remained a prominent concern in the country. Most of school age children first try drugs out of curiosity, to have a good time or ease another problem, such as stress, anxiety, or depression. This was affirmed by Nevadomsky (1985) who reported that students take stimulants to remain alert while studying and for reducing tension during examinations. The implication of this is that many of the students use drugs without knowing the consequences of the attitude on their school attendance, academic performance and other suspicious behaviours.

In Nigeria, medical doctors and scholars have recognized that drug and alcohol use/abuse have negative effects on schooling and educational achievements of students (Nevadomsky, 1985; Ifabumuyi, 2007; Atoyebi and Atoyebi, 2013). In fact, Atoyebi and Atoyebi (2013) reported that most of inappropriate classroom behavior, such as aggression and impulsivity; academic failure are attributed to drug abuse. This is also in line with Mayo (2013) who argued that drug abuse lead to low self-esteem or poor social coping skills and academic failure among the youth. As a result of this ugly incidence, the federal and state agencies in Nigeria have responded to problems of substance abuse by introducing health tips and guidance services in the curriculum of secondary schools. It, therefore, follows that schools have become the major focus of drug and alcohol abuse education and prevention activities of youth in Nigeria.

Despite the interference of drug abuse on students' ability to think clearly, exercise good judgment, and academic pursuit, misuse of drugs has become a common thing among students. In Nigeria, drug abuse among students is at increasing rate, shifts in the pattern and types of drugs abused among school age children have

been reported and increasing female involvement and multiple drug use pattern have also been noticed (Ifabumuyi, 2007). As a result, these interdisciplinary researchers investigated the causes and effects of Drug abuse on academic pursuit of students, using some secondary schools in Nasarawa State of Nigeria. Based on this the researchers aimed at determining the:- (i) influence of peer groups on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria; (ii) influence of parental behaviour on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria; (iii) Effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria; (iv) difference between male and female parents on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria; and (v) difference between male and female teachers on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria; and (vi) difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria.

To achieve the above set objectives, the following null hypotheses were raised and tested:

HO₁ Peer groups have no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

HO₂ Parental behaviour has no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

HO₃ Teachers behavior has no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

HO₄ There is no significant difference between male and female parents' influence on the academic pursuit of Nigerian secondary school students and their involvement in drug abuse

HO₅ There is no significant difference between male and female teachers' influence on the academic pursuit of Nigerian secondary school students and their involvement in drug abuse

HO₆ There is no significant difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of Nigerian secondary school students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study is hinged on two theories: the Classic Theory of Festinger (1954) and Social Psychology Theory of Bruce, Aria, Denise and Keith (1990). The Classic theory, the older, argued that peer groups conspire to move individuals to perceive their world as the groups do, to adopt peer group attitudes. Such factors include friendship affiliation needs and social comparison processes and pressures toward peer group conformity (Asch, 1951), and the formation and acquisition of reference group norms (Newcomb, 1943; Sherif, 1936; Newcomb & Wilson, 1966; 1972). The social psychology theory views that problem behaviors are contagious youth culture of academic negativism and misconduct can thwart learning and disrupt the school routine. The theory believed that most school age children conceived drug abuse as the means of easing the transition and improve their social and academic life in schools. This belief leads to increases in prevalence of drug abuse occurrences among both males and females students in all socioeconomic groups (Dryfoos, 1990; Johnston et al., 1994).

This, therefore, means that students who drink or use drugs are much more likely to have problems in their schools than those who do not use substances. Supporting this theory, East (2006) maintains that there is association between drug use deviant behaviour among adolescent students. Based on this philosophy, it then follows that if drug abuse causes misbehavior among students, then policies designed to reduce it may succeed to promote the interest and academic pursuit of school age children. In Nigeria, this theory was supported by Atoyebi and Atoyebi (2013) who opined that the use of drug among students would lead to memory and learning, distorted perception, trouble with thinking and problem solving and loss of motor coordination.

Ekpenyong (2012) conducted an empirical study on drug abuse in Nigerian schools, selecting secondary schools in Bayelsa state, Nigeria, as samples. The respondents to the research questionnaire were drawn from four public secondary schools: Southern Ijaw Secondary School (Oporoma), Community Secondary School (Eniwari), Government Secondary School (Amassoma), and Community Secondary School (Angiama), all in southern Ijaw Local Government Area of Bayelsa State, Nigeria. Data were collected through a structured questionnaire administered on the students and interview conducted on the teacher-counselors in the selected schools. The data collected were organized, tabulated and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Frequencies and percentages tables were used and the presentation of data was done through summary graphs. Gender differences on perceptions of drug abuse were analyzed with the t-test at the 0.05 level of significance. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 16 for Windows assisted in the data analysis. The data from the interview schedule for teacher-counselors were also analyzed using descriptive statistics. The

study established, among others, that Nigerian secondary school students have a positive perception of drug use/abuse. It was recommended, among others, that behaviour modification techniques should be employed by secondary school authorities or the secondary school owners (the state governments) to rehabilitate students found to have been involved in drug abuse.

Moses and Oriahi (2012) conducted a study on Causes and Effects of Drug Abuse among Secondary School Adolescents in Esan West Local Government Area of Edo State, Nigeria. Cross-sectional descriptive survey design among senior secondary school adolescents in public schools was employed for the study. The population of that study comprised of 2500 students, sample size was achieved using the simple random sampling technique from 5 public secondary schools choosing 30 students from each of the selected schools, giving a sample size of 150. Responses were elicited using a structured self-administered questionnaire on knowledge, causes and effects of drug abuse. Data collected were analyzed using the chi-square(X^2) method ($p < 0.05$). The outcome of the study was that adolescent students are influenced by peer group on the use/abuse of drugs (51.3%) and are influenced on use of drugs by parents (48.6%). The researchers recommend that, since majority of drug use/abuse among youths start in schools, the school environment is the best place for early detection and prevention of the attitude of drug abuse and, so, the administrators of the school system should not fail the youth and the economy, as a whole, in this regard.

James and Omoaregba (2013) conducted a research on Nigerian Medical Students' Opinions about Individuals who Use and Abuse Psychoactive Substances. The population of the study was 210 students and 200 (95% of them were used in the study. A structured Likert scale questionnaire was used for data collection. Data collected were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 16 (IBM SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data and the summaries were presented in tables. The study reveals, among others, that drug use/abuse among youth was associated with family history and attitude. The researchers recommend, among others, that the family of an individual school child should be involved in addressing the identified problem of drug abuse in a child.

The current research effort focuses on causes and effects of drug abuse on psychological characteristics of students and the academic implications. This is an area where research is still limited particularly in Nigeria and other developing African economies. The study specifically addresses issues bordering on the effects of drug abuse on the academic pursuit of secondary school drug abusers in Nigeria.

METHODOLOGY

This section describes the sampling procedure and method of data collection for the study. To investigate the Teachers and Parental Perceptions on effect of Drug abuse on Academic pursuit of students, descriptive survey research design was used. The population of the study was 3879, comprised of 3112 parents and 767 teachers in the five selected secondary schools from Nasarawa State of Nigeria. 20% of the population was taken out as sample of the study. The sample size was, therefore, 776, comprising of 622 parents and 154 teachers.

Four rating structured questionnaire titled "Effect of drug abuse on students" (EDAS) was used to generate data from the respondents. Validation of the instrument was done through consultations with professors in the faculty of education and faculty of medicine of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. A pilot test was carried out with 40 respondents that attended Parents teachers Association (PTA) meeting at Government Girls Secondary School, Abaji, Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja.. The reliability co-efficient of the instrument was 0.73. This shows that the questionnaire verified is adequate and appropriate for this study.

Two groups of respondents were targeted during Parents Teachers Association (PTA) meetings held in the selected 5 secondary schools. A teacher is selected from each of the selected secondary schools that assisted the researchers in data administration. 542 copies of the questionnaire administered were retrieved and used in the study. Data collected were coded using SPSS and subjected to statistical analysis using Logistic Regression (LR) to test null hypotheses one, two and three, while t-test was used to test null hypotheses four, five and six. All the null hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance. In the test of the null hypotheses, if the calculated value is less or equal to the critical value, the null hypothesis is retained. On the other hand, if the calculated value is greater than the critical value the null hypothesis is not retained.

FINDINGS

Test of null hypotheses

HO₁ Peer groups have no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

Result of analysis regarding null hypothesis two is as presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Influence of Peer groups on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

Model	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	R-crit	R-cal	R-cal ²	Adjusted R ²
Drug Abuse	3.011	2.232	1.349	.122				
Peer groups	0.029	.014	2.071	.164	0.088	0.91	0.83	0.041

Analysis of data used to determine the influence of peer groups on students' involvement in drug abuse shows the Beta (constant) value of 3.011. R calculated value was 0.091 > 0.088 R-critical value of 0.088. The R² value is 0.83, indicating that 83% of the Nigerian secondary school students' attitude towards drug abuse was influenced by peer groups. The null hypothesis was not retained, as it was proved wrong.

HO₂ Parental behaviour has no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

Result of analysis regarding null hypothesis two is as presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Influence of Parental behaviour on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

Model	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	R-crit	R-cal	R-cal ²	Adjusted R ²
Drug Abuse	3.011	2.362	1.275	.122				
Parental Behaviour	0.028	.021	1.333	.172	0.088	0.89	0.79	0.032

The summary of regression analysis used to test null hypothesis two showed R calculated value of 0.089 which is greater than the R-critical value of 0.088. The calculated R-value (.089) is significant. The value of Beta (constant) is 3.011. The R² value is 0.79, indicating that 79% of the Nigerian secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse is determined by parental behavior and influence on the students. Hence, the null hypothesis is not retained, as it was tested wrong.

HO₃ Teachers behavior has no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

Result of test of null hypothesis three is as presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Influence of Teachers behaviour on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

Model	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	R-crit	R-cal	R-cal ²	Adjusted R ²
Drug Abuse	3.011	2.362	1.275	.122				
Academic Pursuit	0.23	0.16	1.438	.188	0.088	0.94	0.88	0.48

The result in Table 3 revealed that the value of Beta (constant) is 3.011. The calculated R value is 0.94, which is greater than R critical value of 0.088. The R² value is 0.88 indicating that 88% of the Nigerian secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse is determined by teachers behavior and influence on the students. Hence, the null hypothesis is not retained, as it was tested wrong. The calculated R-value (0.94) is significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not retained, as it is tested wrong.

HO₄ There is no significant difference between male and female parents' influence on the academic pursuit of Nigerian secondary school students and their involvement in drug abuse

The result of test of null hypothesis 3 is presented in Table 3

Table 4: Test difference between male and female parents on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

Status	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-cal	t-crit	P
Male parents	384	2.99	1.01				
Female parents	194	3.05	1.06	576	1.77	1.96	0.53

T-test analysis was used to test null hypothesis four. Table 4 shows mean score of 2.99 and 3.05 for male and female parents. Their standard deviation were 1.01 and 1.06, respectively. n score of those in private schools is 3.15, with standard deviation of 0.78. The t-cal is 1.77, less than t-critical value of 1.96. Thus the null hypothesis is retained. Therefore, both male and female parents agreed that drug abuse significantly affects academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria. The null hypothesis is retained.

HO₅ There is no significant difference between male and female teachers' influence on the academic pursuit of Nigerian secondary school students and their involvement in drug abuse

Analysis of t-test used to test null hypothesis five is as presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Differences between male and female teachers on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

Status	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-cal	t-crit	P
Male teachers	89	3.08	1.03				
Female teachers	54	3.03	1.01	141	1.83	1.96	0.04

Table 5 presents the analysis of data relating hypothesis five. The result showed a mean score of 3.08 and standard deviation of 1.03 for male teachers. Female teachers had mean score of 3.03 and standard deviation of 1.01. The t-calculated value was $1.83 < 1.96$ critical value. The hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between male and female teachers' influence on the academic pursuit of Nigerian secondary school students and their involvement in drug abuse is retained.

HO₆ There is no significant difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of Nigerian secondary school students.

The result of test of difference in null hypothesis six is as presented in Table 6

Table 6: Test of difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria

Status	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-cal	t-crit	P
Parents	578	3.02	1.04				
Teachers	143	3.06	1.02	719	1.72	1.96	0.00

Analysis of respondents' opinion used to test null hypothesis six shows mean score of 3.02 and standard deviation of 1.04 for parents. Teachers had mean score of 3.06 and standard deviation of 1.02. The calculate t was 1.72, less than t-critical value of 1.96. Thus the null hypothesis is retained. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of Nigerian secondary school students is retained.

Discussion of the Findings

The research work reveals, among others, that peer groups and parental behaviour have significant influence on students' involvement in drug abuse in Nigeria. The result is line with that of U.S. Department of Education,

(1986) and Towers, (1987) who shows that peer pressure plays the largest role in causing children to begin using drugs. Acceptance by peers becomes especially important when children leave elementary schools and begin junior high school level. In Nigeria, this study, as earlier noted by a study conducted by the Daily Times Newspaper (2001), has established that genetic and innate factors, as well as learned and acquired habits could be mentioned as creators of dependence on psychotropic drugs among secondary school students. Faupel (1996) opined that most young drug users/abusers were first turned on by close experienced users. Affirming this view, Omokhodion and Pemedede (2005) reported that adolescent often try their first drug at the urging of their friends. Moses and Oriahi (2012) further confirmed that majority of adolescent students were influenced by peer group (51.3%) on the use of drugs and (48.6%) were influenced by parents. Lonnie, Lukoye, David and Paula (2012) further reported that the strength of the addiction to drugs, the dual role that peers and family play in substance use, and how the social, cultural, and economic context influence or impede cessation are issues that need stringent actions from those in position of authority.

The result of the current study further reveals that 88% of the deviance in academic pursuit of secondary schools students is attributed to drug abuse. Thus drug abuse has significant effect on academic pursuit of drug abusers. Wagner (1984) earlier reported that drug users skip school or arrive late to class. U.S. Department of Education (1986) reported that drugs abuses distort memory, perceptions, sensation and caused brain damage. The study by Towers (1987) reveals that regular drug users/abusers are twice as likely as their classmates to receive low grades. Hawkins, Catalano and Miller (1992) report that persistent substance abuse among school age children leads to declining grades, absenteeism from school and other activities, increased potential for dropping out, and other school-related problems. Both parents and teachers regardless of their gender had the same opinion that drug abuse has negative effect on academic pursuit of secondary school students in Nigeria and beyond.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

Based on the outcome of the study, the following conclusions were reached:

- That the type of friends secondary school children associate and relate with could lead then to partake in drug abuse. Hence peer is one of the most influential factors causing drug abuse among the school children.
- That parent serves as role model to their children. Hence their attitudes, behaviours and actions have significant influence on their children's behaviour.
- That students tend to use drugs to keep them alert while they are studying, however the reaction of such drugs distort memory, perceptions, sensation and causes brain damage of the users.

Recommendations

To address the situation, the researchers hereby recommend that:

- The stakeholders (school authorities, government and PTA) should introduce the use/abuse of drugs as a general course in the curriculum of secondary schools in Nigeria.
- Nigerian Federal and state government should organize public enlightenment programme on use/abuse of drugs in the best interest of school age children. This would assist in orientating the school age children and the general public on the dangers of drug abuse in the society.
- Parents should be exemplary to their children by avoiding any behaviours or action that will influence their children attitudes and actions towards drug abuse.
- Parents should monitor the activities of their children and guide the type of friends they move with. This will help to protect them from undue influence of friends on their attitude towards the use of unauthorized drugs.

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Open Access, Open Opportunity: Using Universal Course Design to Help International Students Succeed in the American College Classroom

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Abstract

It can be Mission Impossible - Meeting the needs of ALL students, including those facing challenges in language and new cultures. This case study uses qualitative and quantitative research methods, including interviews, assessment data, and discourse analysis, to analyze pedagogical frameworks and dialogues between U.S. English instructors and international students in a Washington community college. Under the Universal Course Design (UCD) framework, instructors can engage with a variety of student learning styles, such as auditory, visual, and kinesthetic. UCD is an effective, flexible blueprint based on neuroscience in terms of differences in how we learn; that is, because learners differ in the ways they see and understand information that is presented to them, students with language and/or cultural differences especially need different ways of approaching content. Student success depends on increasingly sophisticated teaching and learning skills and UCD creates decentralized practices, resulting in new contexts and styles of instruction.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

As international students are recruited to in institutions around the world, many instructors face challenges in teaching from multiple perspectives of culture, language, and learning styles. This study explores how “best practices” is being shaped with tools to reach multiple learning styles, including the Universal Course Design framework that creates syllabi, instructional strategies, and assessments toward equity and excellence in higher education. Given the huge variety of interests, skills, and needs that international students bring into classrooms, we are especially interested in exploring UCD as a flexible blueprint that is based on neuroscience in terms as differences in how we learn; that is, because learners differ in the ways the see and understand information that is presented to them, students with language or cultural difference often need different ways of approaching content.

This case study uses qualitative and quantitative research methods, including interviews, assessment data, and discourse analysis, to analyze pedagogical frameworks and classroom dialogues between U.S. English instructors and new international college students coming to a Washington community college.

According to CAST (2014) and other research projects, UCD is based on three primary brain networks from three different brain areas:



RECOGNITION NETWORKS, the “what” of learning. This part of the brain involves fact-gathering and how we group what we hear, see, and read. To reach learners with multiple means of representation, instructors must present information and content in different ways in recognition tasks, such as identifying letters and words. Guidelines: Provide options for perception, language/expressions/symbols, and comprehension. Examples: Offer ways to customize the display of information, alternatives for auditory information, and alternatives for visual information.



STRATEGIC NETWORKS, the “how” of learning. This part of the brain involves how we organize and express our ideas, including the planning and performing of tasks. To reach learners with multiple means of action and expression, instructors must differentiate the ways that students can express what they know. Guidelines: Providing options for physical action,

expression and communication, and executive functions. Examples: Offer assistive technologies, different ways to tell stories, and scaffolded lower and higher level skills.



AFFECTIVE NETWORKS, the “why” of learning. This part of the brain involves how learners get engaged and stays motivated, including affection dimensions of how they are excited, challenged, or interested. To reach learners multiple means of engagement, instructors must stimulate student interest and motivation for learning. Guidelines: Provide options for recruiting interest, sustaining persistence and effort, and options for self-regulation. Examples: Include ways that reflect the important individual differences between learners, building self-regulation and motivation skills.

In the United States college classroom, this is especially relevant because instructors must not create barriers for any students (complying with federal mandates) and also creates accessible, level learning spaces. Our research question: Using the seven principles of Universal Course Design, does increased attention to general and blended instruction and delivery provide a unique opportunity to address the needs of diverse student populations? Specifically, as the UCD principles are applied to education, do instructors see a shift in equity, flexibility, simplicity, and tolerance to the learning process for all students?

METHODS and PROCEDURES

Using multiple research methods, the researchers applied the principles of Universal Course Design (and resulting four assumptions about teaching and learning responsibilities) to the refashioned classroom of international students. While UCD proponents note that the factors were created to follow accessible principles found in architecture and other fields for people of varying abilities and interests, we wanted to test the framework within the educational institution setting to see how it fits within various formats (online, hybrid, and traditional classroom spaces). The following list is of the seven principles.

- 1) **Equitable Use:** This principle focuses on instruction designed for the usability by a broad range of learners. When every student is provided the same means of use, including online platforms with accessible and clear design features, all users have a more level learning environment (Scott, Loewen, Funckes, & Kroeger, 2003).
- 2) **Flexibility in Use:** The design accommodates a wide range of individual preferences and abilities.
- 3) **Simple and Intuitive Use:** Use of the design is easy to understand, regardless of the user's experience, knowledge, language skills, or current concentration level.
- 4) **Perceptible Information:** The design communicates necessary information effectively to the user, regardless of ambient conditions or the user's sensory abilities.
- 5) **Tolerance for Error:** The design minimizes hazards and the adverse consequences of accidental or unintended actions.
- 6) **Low Physical Effort:** The design can be used efficiently and comfortably and with a minimum of fatigue.
- 7) **Size and Space for Approach and Use:** Appropriate size and space is provided for approach, reach, manipulation, and use regardless of user's body size, posture, or mobility. (Universal Course Design, 2013)

While the above seven principles are applicable to a myriad of uses, the application to education, particularly education focused on helping international students succeed in the American college classroom, brings “equity, flexibility, simplicity, and tolerance to the learning process for all students” (Center for Applied Special Technology, 2013).

About the Object of Study: International Students at Bellevue College

Located in Bellevue, Washington, Bellevue College (www.bellevuecollege.edu) is the third largest institution of higher learning in Washington State, serving more than 37,000 students each year. Bellevue College is best known for its innovation in areas of information technology and for expanding its degree programs to include four Bachelor of Applied Sciences degrees and a Bachelor of Science degree in Nursing. The college operates on the quarter system, with a 10-week instruction period and students who are not enrolled in the 4-year degree programs generally complete their transfer or certificate studies within two years.

Annually, the college enrolls an estimated 1,800 international students, representing more than 70 countries. Typically, international students arrive on the Bellevue College campus one week before the instructional quarter begins, to participate in college-sponsored orientation activities. The most critical of these activities is

the Computer-Adaptive College Placement (COMPASS) assessment, for which all new students at Bellevue College must sit, both domestic and international. The COMPASS is an entry level placement test designed by the American College Test program, and offers untimed computer-adaptive exams in reading, writing skills, mathematics, and ESL. The COMPASS has two purposes: 1) to determine whether students have the skills to succeed in college-level courses; 2) to place students in courses they are ready for, either college-level courses or courses to prepare them for college-level courses. Every community college in Washington state administers an assessment to entering students, including international students. The majority of the state's community and technical colleges use the COMPASS, including Bellevue College.

At Bellevue College, as at many colleges, the English reading and writing strand is a traditional ladder model, in which students work their way "up", depending upon their starting point, and students, based on their COMPASS results, can place into any given part of the strand: ESL – basic skills – developmental education – college-level writing, known as English 101, a requirement for all students for graduation from any community college in Washington. When sitting for the COMPASS, Bellevue College students, including international students, strive to place into English 101 for three practical reasons: 1) to avoid what is known as getting "stuck in the pipeline" of the English strand (which can take up to two years to complete, if a student is persistent in his/her studies, totaling an average of 4 years to degree completion at this primarily two-year college), 2) to complete their English requirement before moving to their degree-specific courses or to courses at the college for which English 101 is a pre-requisite, and 3) to graduate from Bellevue College within a two-year timeframe, from start to completion.

More and more, colleges (and universities) in Washington state are enrolling record numbers of international students for the financial and cultural benefit these students bring to an American campus. At Bellevue College, specifically, international student enrollment – which has increased dramatically at the college in the past decade – has sparked a continuing debate at the campus about how to best serve these students, many of whom are under the age of 20 and away from their home country for the first time – from both a student services and instructional lens. A particular emphasis in this debate – same as the emphasis in this paper – is placed on reading, writing, and communicating in English, fundamental skill-sets necessary to succeed in the American college classroom.

Often, international students arrive at the Bellevue College campus with what can best be described as a "tourist's knowledge" of English; that is, the students know enough to get to and from the campus, to navigate the campus itself, and to ask for help. Combine this language barrier with the inherent difficulties that international students face (homesickness, culture shock, and problems integrating with the campus as well as local community culture, to name a few) and the task of helping these students succeed at Bellevue College, and, particularly, to succeed in their critical English courses, broadens in scope – and urgency.

About the Researchers and Partnering Organization: American College Writing

American College Writing (ACW) was borne in the fall of 2012 from the notion that an external entity could successfully partner with faculty in higher education – specifically in English 101 classroom – to develop and deliver dynamic writing support for international students. This support is designed to improve students' immediate and long-term writing skills and ensures their success in the American college classroom. In order to support student achievement, instructors and their partners must be fully committed to collaborating on the development of curriculum that is result-oriented, student-centered, with writing support that builds efficacy, and which is pedagogically rooted in the principles of Universal Course Design, as outlined at the start of this paper, and which alternately subscribes to adult learning theory, which holds that adult learners:

- Are internally motivated and self-directed
- Bring life experience and knowledge to learning experiences
- Are goal oriented
- Are relevancy-oriented
- Are practical
- Like to be respected

To facilitate learning for international students, it's important to understand what motivates them to learn, and how their barriers to learning have occurred. International students have their own life stories, their own educational values, and their own perceptions of success in the classroom. For instance, while international

students may appear to lack domestic students' self-confidence in the classroom, our experience bears out that these students are often excited and willing to participate and desire to be successful in the classroom, to achieve passing grades and English language proficiency.

American College Writing approaches educating the international student this way: English 101 is a critical gateway (or complete barrier) course to the full American college experience. It is a formal pre-requisite for many other courses, and an essential foundation for students to succeed in any course requiring writing or a research assignment. Students cannot move forward in their academic career without successfully completing English 101. International students face unique challenges in meeting this critical requirement, but it is not – and shouldn't be – an insurmountable barrier. After all, international students are no different than any other student: their most pressing concern is communicating effectively, in their writing and in their speaking. They want to earn the grades that will allow them to persist in their studies, transfer to a 4-year university, or find employment.

But international students are drowning in the English 101 classroom. Experience with international students tells us that these students want to comprehend and work within the rigorous American curriculum (designed for English-speaking students); they want to understand what faculty are saying, what it means, and to respond intelligently, particularly in front of a classroom of their peers; and students want convey their learning in their assigned work, as a mark of comprehension and achievement. Yet, consider the difficulties international students have at the most base level: understanding lectures while simultaneously adjusting to American culture, American English (its idioms and nuances) and the American college classroom, where the culture of learning – the give and take between instructor and student – can be starkly different from their own personal educational experience – and creates barrier to education, what American College Writing defines as three research statements.

- 1) Test placement is critical to international student success. ACW addresses the most significant of student skills: college-level writing. English 101 is a critical gateway course to the full American college experience. The course is a formal pre-requisite for many other college-level courses and an essential course for students to succeed in any class requiring writing or a research assignment. ACW helps students place into English 101 at the start of their college experience and supports them once they are placed in the course.
- 2) Instruction meets student skill-development need. ACW recognizes that students must have access to the instruction model that best suits their individualized needs. We offer several different instruction tracks for students, and while each is different in format and time, the material remains comprehensive and is developed to address several goals important to international student success:
 - ✓ Improve English reading and writing skills for success in the U.S. classroom through a competency-based curriculum that blends Universal Course Design concepts with college-level reading and writing competencies, applies a multiple entry and exit point structure; students get the help they need at the time they need it, and provides for frequent, on-going assessments and feedback to identify student progress and build on student strengths.
 - ✓ Receive interactive instruction with activities that simulate U.S. college classroom and workplace environments:
 - ✓ Infuses collaborative activities throughout to increase vocabulary base and foster conversational and interpersonal skills.
 - ✓ Develops skills in problem-solving, critical thinking, teambuilding, and negotiations with others in the context of the American workplace and college experiences.
 - ✓ Requires student participation: asking questions in class about material without prompting, responding to instructor questions, contributing to classroom discussions without prompting, student self-assessments of progress.
 - ✓ Relies on student collaboration: active in and engaging in small group work.
- 3) Contextualized instruction works. The ACW difference is instruction with a focus on skill-building and acquisition of competencies. ACW instructors help students with the skill-building necessary to score high on the COMPASS (grammar, sentence structure and clarity, paragraph development, reading comprehension, and analysis of information) and to earn the grades they desire from their English 101 course. Additionally, ACW instructors work with students to diagnose problems areas and provide specialized resources and tutoring so students master the information necessary to earn not only the grades

they want but also – importantly – the competencies they need to persist in their studies and complete their degree programs.

Working with Bellevue College English faculty in winter 2013, ACW’s approach was to assist international students throughout their English 101 gateway experience, from COMPASS test preparation to initial course enrollment to course completion. Our goal was to provide international students with a support system unavailable to them at the college. Issues of capacity, training, and lack of funding often prevented the college from assisting its international students beyond systems already in place on campus, such as the Academic Support Center. To match the college’s accreditation standards, ACW instructors are credentialed experts in ESL instruction, and therefore are able to respond to all student inquiries and help students address the concerns they may have about the elements of successful English 101 writing (punctuation, parts of speech, verb agreement, parts of a sentence, sentence structure and clarity, and paragraph development, citing sources, and integration of others’ ideas with their own) – much like their classroom instructors. American College Writing tutors are ESL trained and certified. All tutors teach in their field of expertise. Because tutors are also working faculty, they do not paper fix; they diagnose problem areas in writing and tutor international students with a focus on skill-building and mastery in English 101. American College Writing tutors also do not replace English faculty on the college campus. Tutors neither intervene on the students’ behalf with campus faculty nor do they confuse ‘teaching’ with ‘tutoring’, defined as providing additional, remedial support. American College Writing tutors simply provide extra learning support for the student during his/her English 101 experience. Further, ACW instructors committed to work with students to diagnose problems areas in their writing and to provide specialized resources and support strategies so international students master English 101 competencies. We approached international students and the English 101 classroom at Bellevue College from entry (COMPASS) to persistence (the College Success Academy and the Tutoring Support Program).

Literature Review Sampling

The research literature supplies much evidence for effectiveness of strategies to build on prior knowledge, with direct instruction on background knowledge improving relevant reading comprehension (North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, 2014). For instance, “Students learn more effectively when they already know something about a content area and when concepts in that area mean something to them and to their particular background or culture (Moses, 1990). We found such strategies especially relevant in the context of international students, such as the Queensland Government’s New Basics Project that links learning outcomes with identities, world knowledge, and experience (Queensland, 2002). Connecting to prior knowledge also includes text prediction strategies, which is especially helpful in reading comprehension strategies (Intervention Central, 2014; Lewin, 2003).

In addition to such existing scholarship, much has also been written about curriculum planning and delivery. One recognized process includes four steps as illustrated in the figure below, which substitutes UDL (Universal Design for Learning) that is basically the same as Universal Course Design:



Set Goals: Establish context and align to standards. This sets the stage for instruction as driven by state standards and goal design.

Analyze Status: Identify methods, materials and assessment identify barriers. Studying current procedures acknowledges potential learning barriers.

Apply Universal Course Design: Identify UCD materials and methods, write plan, collect and organize materials. This course creation grounds learning goals with assessments and materials in a cohesive collection.

Teach Lesson: After instruction, evaluate success and revise lesson/unit. Student assessments can help instructors improve the lesson to assure student success and access.

Figure 1. Strangman et al, 2004.

FINDINGS: EXPERIENCES, EXAMPLES, AND REFLECTIONS

One author and researcher of this study, Danielle Newton, began work as an English instructor at Bellevue College in the fall of 2012. That quarter, she was assigned three English 101 courses and one English 271 course, an advanced English course with a focus on writing to inform. In each of the English 101 courses, the ratio of international student enrollment far exceeded that of domestic student enrollment, while she had zero international students enrolled in her English 271 course. It's important to note that the English 101 courses at Bellevue College are capped at 26 students, maximum. In each course that fall, her international student enrollment was in the double digits. And, while English 101 is a course in basic composition, she designs curriculum to mirror professional settings, in order that students might achieve college *and* workplace readiness. That is, beyond the core competencies necessary to complete and submit assignments, this instructor expected students to work and think independently, to be prepared for peer and instructor inquiry, and – when necessary – to collaborate on writing projects. These are all elements of workplace preparedness. According to other studies, experience is that many international students are interested in finding work in the United States, in an effort to integrate into their communities, to earn extra cash, or to simply meet new friends and have new experiences.

That fall, she quickly realized that the COMPASS - about which she had only passing knowledge at the time – is not a diagnostic test in any sense. While it assesses student competencies, at the moment the student is taking the COMPASS, it does not indicate areas of student struggle(s) with the writing process. In fact, when she visited the Testing Center on campus and sat for the assessment herself (to better understand what international students were talking about when they said they could ‘game’ the test), she was surprised to learn that the COMPASS assessment at Bellevue College focused entirely on reading comprehension and did not include a student-writing component. Not surprisingly, a majority of international students were taken aback to learn that English 101 is a writing course – not a reading course – focused on the fundamentals of basic composition.

To that end, such an assessment, one that does not gauge a student's complete reading and writing skill-set, can be disconcerting. For instance, some international students who, in preparation for the American classroom, have studied English in their home country, may need only a brush-up writing skills module to succeed in English 101; others may need more intensive support while in English 101 (that was more often the case than not); others still may need to begin at the start of the English strand, in ESL classes. In short, too often, international students assess into English 101 without the foundational skills needed to succeed. And the college has an expectation that faculty are prepared for, trained for, and ready to provide that support. It's not always the case.

Prior to teaching at Bellevue College, Newton had never taught international students and was not trained to teach ESL learners. Her professional and educational background is focused on workplace writing and communications and her MA degree in English and MFA in writing includes academic theory and creative writing. When she accepted a teaching job at Bellevue College, she envisioned what perhaps many people envision when they prepare to teach college-level English: that the classroom will have a focus on the humanities, the great works of literature, with a side of college-readiness writing. But classrooms of so many types of students were the opposite. If students were going to succeed – if the instructor was going to succeed – she had to put uncertainties about “qualifications” aside, trust her instincts, and be nimble. The fact is, this instructor saw so much opportunity (and room) for creative thinking that first quarter: international students cannot instantly or effortlessly transition from one academic culture to another.

For instance, students acclimatized to highly ordered, deferential classrooms may pushback against asking even those questions for which they desperately need answers, about the material. And, because of an instructor's own cultural assumptions (one person's frame of reference *must be* everyone's frame of reference), it didn't take long for her to realize that international students had no idea what she was talking about in terms of the culturally-specific background material she would often include in her lectures. American football? Curious stares. Local news stories? More curious stares. American television? Curious stares. From this, she found it helpful to give a brief overview of particularly relevant culturally-infused material, and by assigning some introductory readings to international students to help them come in with a basic understanding of American culture. This helped domestic students too. Further, recording and posting a PowerPoint lecture not only preserved classroom time for the more important material, but also gave international students a chance to hear an authoritarian voice within a different cultural context and to listen for inflection, sound, and vocabulary. And again, this helped domestic students as well; however, these small, but important steps weren't enough to ensure success for international students.

For example, a consistent piece of feedback received regularly from international students, particularly Chinese students, was that her own speech was rapid, that she used phrasing unfamiliar to them (for example, ‘memorandum’ or ‘peer review’), and that she moved around the classroom while talking, which both confused students and caused them to lose focus on the material at hand. Also of student concern was that she asked students to independently participate in class, without raising their hands; that is, to speak when they wanted to speak and to collaborate freely in groups. As outlined in best practices, including international students in class discussion is vital to keeping them engaged and understanding material – they may simply not know this as an instructor might. Students may simply need more time and different kinds of encouragement from faculty and classmates to participate. There are many proven ways to draw participation from international students without coercing or embarrassing them.

In particular, she found that paired-student and small-group discussions that are reported out to the class as a whole is one way of doing this. Calling on students unexpectedly is not. Nor is correcting grammar or pronunciation in a lecture setting. Do that, just once, and the faculty has lost the most valuable class resource: the student voice. What she didn’t know that first quarter at Bellevue College was that Chinese education, deferential at its core, positions the instructor at the head of the classroom as the first and final authority. This conceptualization is vastly different from the Western classroom, which can be interactive, relies on student participation for its dynamic structure, and requires the student to think and work independently, of both peers and instructors. Because of her own knowledge gap regarding cultural differences, she underestimated what international students needed to succeed in the classroom.

It was difficult to draw them out in classroom discussions, and their fear of “not knowing” English and the customs of the American classroom only exacerbated the divide. Not surprisingly, international students wanted to talk after class, away from their domestic peers, to ask clarifying questions about the material, and to ask to review their writing before they submitted it for a grade. Their uncertainty about coursework and their understanding of it was palpable – and genuine. All of this created questions how they were doing in their other classes. After all, lecturing clearly in understandable English does help international students, but it’s simply not enough. It was equally important to keep in mind that international students had to work all that much harder at their courses to get to the same results as domestic students, because of linguistic and cultural barriers. Finally, it was critical to the learning environment to not assume that non-native English speaking international students are somehow less intelligent for being that. But how to help them, once they are in the American college system?

Under the framework of Universal Course Design, we designed all efforts with a variety of pedagogy strategies within a menu of services. First, we built a variety of workshop/institute formats to mirror the American classroom setting that were focused on specific learning goals. As noted below, the Boot Camp helps students prepare for placement tests, while the College Success Academy offers ongoing support for students enrolled in English 101. In addition, we found students greatly benefited from more unique instruction delivery forms such as:

- Supplemental Instruction: Guided Tutoring
- Supplemental instruction strategies are determined by instructor’s assessment of student progress through the unit. Strategies are personalized to student need and instructors present supplemental instruction materials, face to face, as needed.
- Instructional Podcast (Website-based)
- Students receive a unique code to the ACW website, which gives them access to a robust library of resources. For instance, an instructional podcast reviews the daily lesson, highlighting critical information, so that students have 24/7 access to the instructional material for review and self-guided practice.
- Instructional Tip Sheets (Website-based)
- One-page, content-specific ‘tip sheets’ are available for students for the purpose of further practice on the information presented in daily lesson. Tip sheets are accompanied by weekly Q & A FORUMS, designed so the instructor answers the most commonly asked student questions.

The following list of ACW services is a sampling of services designed to help international students pass placement tests and succeed in the U.S. classroom.

Before the Classroom Service: Boot Camp for Placement Test Preparation

Designed to complement the college’s Orientation Week activities, this ‘boot camp’ is derived from instructional material used in an English 101 course at Bellevue College and is mandatory for all new, incoming

international students, prior to sitting for the COMPASS. Boot Camp instructional units are delivered in a 50-minute, 5-day format, with integrated formative self-assessment and summative assessment components as units progressed. Units focus on the fundamental elements of college-level writing and reading comprehension, and each integrates content from preceding units, with the goal of skill-building and mastery of material. A brief overview of the COMPASS instruction components includes this summary of learning modules, the design of the unit, and example of curriculum:

UNIT 1: Basic English Grammar

- Parts of Speech: Words placed into categories based on function
- Parts of a sentence: Words that make up the two main parts of a sentence: subject and predicate
- Agreement: Verbs
- Punctuation and Mechanics: Using correct punctuation and mechanics to clarify the meaning of a sentence
- COMPASS sample assessment (Unit 1)

UNIT 2: Reading Strategies and Keyword Identification

- Word Choice Mastery: Identification of specific words over general words
- Categorizing Phrases: Headings, Introductions, Conclusions, Summaries
- Make predictions: View pictures, table of contents, chapter headings, maps, diagrams, and visual features, and determine meaning
- Active Reading: Emphasizing necessary information
- Search Strategy: Scan contents for keywords and visuals
- COMPASS sample assessment (Unit 1 and Unit 2)

UNIT 3: Topic Sentence and Support Sentence Development and Meaning

- Controlling idea or claim: Main topic identification
- Organization of information: Building one idea to the next
- Sentence Structure and Clarity: Complete and clear thoughts
- Transitions: Keyword identification for connecting ideas
- Signposts: Keyword identification for reading comprehension
- COMPASS sample assessment (Unit 1, Unit 2, Unit 3)

UNIT 4: Paragraph Development: Key Identification (2 weeks)

- Describe the topic: Starting with what you know
- Analyze the topic: Interpretation of topic parts
- Examples and Illustrations: Specifics support the general narrative
- Verbal Bridges: Keywords, synonyms, transition words
- Key Data: facts, statistics, evidence, details
- Compare and contrast: Similarities and differences
- Cause and Effect: Why things happen (causes) and what happens as a result (effects)
- Chronology of event: time segments
- COMPASS sample assessment (Units 1 – 4)

UNIT 5: COMPASS sample placement test

- Students will sit for a complete COMPASS assessment that scores their reading comprehension and writing skill knowledge

While the above daily schedule illustrates the scaffolded learning of this boot camp model, it is also helpful to see how each unit is designed and the time allotted for a sample unit. The table below is an example of classroom structure followed by instructors to help international students learn and practice elements of Basic English grammar, such as punctuation and parts of speech.

How a COMPASS Prep Unit is Designed: Sample Basic English Grammar Schedule

LENGTH: MINUTES	INSTRUCTION DETAILS – Punctuation and Grammar
30	'Define and use' instruction: overview of common punctuation used in standard English writing: periods, question marks, commas, apostrophes
15	Skill-Drill: correctly punctuate an instructor-prepared paragraph

COMPASS Prep Instruction Example: Parts of Speech (Identifying and using NOUNS correctly)

For a deeper dive into the curriculum overview and schedule, here is an example of how an instructor approaches teaching about the parts of speech, which is a critical piece of international student comprehension. Each instructional unit offers a variety of teaching and learning strategies, as outlined earlier in the Universal Course Design definition.

- Students are able to define the role and use of a noun (lecture/discussion)
- Students are able to identify the nouns in a sentence (student activity)
- Students are able to create a list of nouns on their own (student activity and self-reflection)

The teaching demonstration focuses on three key learning elements:

1. The definition and role of a noun as used in the English language: The noun is a most basic ingredient in the English language. Every complete, grammatically correct sentence in the English language must include a noun.
2. How to use nouns correctly in the English language
3. How to identify nouns in the English language

Instruction is delivered in a lecture/discussion/competency format, with in-class student activities to assess basic understanding of the role of nouns in the English language. Printed materials and a series of graphics during the teaching demonstration help guide students in their learning.

Expected outcomes include:

- Students are able to define the role and use of a noun (lecture/discussion)
- Students are able to identify the nouns in a sentence (student activity)
- Students are able to create a list of nouns on their own (student activity and self-reflection)

Enrolled Student Service: College Success Academy for Success in the English 101 Classroom

While the Boot Camp focuses on helping students score higher on placement tests that determine which English class matches their skill level, the College Success Academy is designed for students who test high enough to be placed into English 101 but need supplemental instruction for classroom success.

During the spring and summer 2013 quarters at Bellevue College, American College Writing hosted its first 10-week College Success Academy in an English 101 classroom. The College Success Academy for international students is a competency-based academic enhancement initiative scaled to help international students advance their grammar, basic writing, and conversational skills at an accelerated pace. The Academy mirrors the English 101 classroom in curriculum but differs from regular classroom programming with coaching that helps international students acclimate to the interactive U.S. college classroom experience. This coaching is comprised of a series of collaborative, hands-on methodologies that reinforce academic learning for international students while simultaneously developing their interpersonal skills (essentials for workplace and U.S. college success). The Academy's learning standards are mapped to college-level English 101, instruction relies on the concepts of Universal Course Design, and master's-qualified instructors teach all coursework. The program's philosophy is: "What a student learns at the College Success Academy one day, that student should be able to apply to his or her work or college life the next day." (American College Writing, 2014)

College Success Academy Program Goals and Learning Outcomes

To mirror the goals, objectives, and accreditation standards of the host institution, ACW established these goals for international students enrolled in the spring and summer 2013 College Success Academy:

Improved English reading and writing skills for success in the U.S. classroom through a competency-based curriculum:

- ACW blended Universal Course Design concepts with college-level reading and writing competencies.
- ACW applied a multiple entry and exit point structure; students got the help they need at the time they need it.

- ACW provided frequent, on-going assessments and feedback to identify student progress and build on student strengths.

Received interactive instruction with activities that simulate U.S. college classroom and workplace environments:

- Instruction Infused collaborative activities throughout to increase vocabulary base and foster conversational and interpersonal skills.
- Students developed skills in problem-solving, critical thinking, teambuilding, and negotiations with others in the context of the American workplace and college experiences.
- The Academy required student participation: asking questions in class about material without prompting, responding to instructor questions, contributing to classroom discussions without prompting, student self-assessments of progress.

Finally, the overall success of the Academy relied on student collaboration, especially being active in and engaging in small group work.

In terms of learning outcomes, college pedagogy recognizes outcomes as identifying what students know, are able to do, or demonstrate when they have completed the College Success Academy. These outcomes were expressed in the English 101 classroom as measurable gains in knowledge and skills and the successful integration of values and attitudes into the educational experience and aligned with those used by Bellevue College's Intensive English program. For this case study, sample learning outcomes included:

- Read with Understanding
 - ✓ Recognize unfamiliar and some specialized words using word analysis or inference.
 - ✓ Scan newspapers and periodicals for current events articles to share during class.
 - ✓ Comprehend texts at an appropriate pace to independently accomplish structured reading activities.
 - ✓ Use word analysis or inference to recognize unfamiliar and some specialized words.
 - ✓ Understand and use the concepts of reading strategies to further language acquisition.
- Convey Ideas in Writing
 - ✓ Use note-taking skills to comprehend and retain material in lectures and presentations.
 - ✓ Be able to compose a message and provide ideas and information suitable to the topic, purpose, and audience.
 - ✓ Write well-constructed, complete sentences easily and with few errors to independently accomplish well developed, clear writing that meets the standards of English 101.
 - ✓ Write well-constructed paragraphs easily and with few errors to independently accomplish organized, clear, and effective writing that meets the standards of English 101.
- Solve Problems and Communicate Effectively
 - ✓ Read, write and interpret a variety of common information, including print articles, websites, and texts.
 - ✓ Communicate the solution to a problem orally or in writing.
 - ✓ Use written, oral, and electronic methods for effective communication.
- Speak So Others Can Understand
 - ✓ Recall and use a range of vocabulary including words related to a student's degree program.
 - ✓ Determine the purpose for and value in communicating in both class discussion and class presentation contexts.
 - ✓ Be able to organize and relay information to effectively serve the purpose, context, and listener during class discussions and class presentations.
 - ✓ Be able to recall and use a range of vocabulary including words related to the English 101 classroom, the student's degree program, communication between student and instructor, and interpersonal relationships to promote a collaborative college and workplace environment.
- Active Listening
 - ✓ Be able to listen in order to comprehend information, critique and evaluate a message, show empathy for the feelings expressed by others, and/or appreciate a presentation.
 - ✓ Be able to repeat, paraphrase, clarify, and summarize what is heard in the classroom and the workplace.
 - ✓ Ability to be self-reflective in the written and oral communication process.

Enrolled Student Service: Tutoring Support Program as a Safety Net

During the spring/summer partnership between ACW and international students at Bellevue College, students benefited from more individualized tutoring efforts. While this produced mixed results largely due to time management issues, it was an effective assessment of learning progress and also highlighted core differences between previous student success in their home countries as opposed to the different styles and expectations of the U.S. college classroom.

First, students were paired with the instructor. ACW tutors and international students worked together to set up weekly contact times, negotiated based on the students' schedules. Students were given tutor contact information before the start of their English 101 course. Alternately, ACW personnel collected student emails and Skype addresses so that ACW tutors could contact their students prior to the start of the English 101 course to introduce themselves and discuss with the students reciprocal expectations for the quarter.

Interaction between the student and instructor followed a consistent schedule. For of each week of the quarter, tutors contacted students once per week, conducting a 'check-in': inquiring about current essays and upcoming writing assignments, inquiring about any difficulties focused on the elements of English 101 writing, and establishing a friendly, trust-based rapport with students.

Once the tutor and student 'met' over email, the tutor sent the student a 'get started questionnaire', asking the student to provide a brief writing sample focused on what the student believed were his or her strengths and weaknesses when writing, and the student's goals for their writing. This writing sample served as first assessment for the tutor. From this, the tutor and student outlined a plan of action for the quarter to meet the student's goals and address problem areas. The plan was in writing and submitted to the ACW administrator. As the quarter moved forward, the plan was updated as needed and used to assess student progress at the 5th week mark.

By week 2, students were expected to have worked with their tutor on at least one piece of writing from their English 101 course. This ensured tutors actually annotated and diagnosed a student's work early in the quarter to assess it for problem areas, to work on continuing difficulties in skill-building, and to use this first piece of writing as an assessment tool for progress benchmarks.

Instructional Sessions

Students received 45 minutes per week of focused time with their tutor, to work on issues identified for that week. Students and tutors negotiated how writing support sessions occur. Options included: email; Skype; phone contact. As an example, an ideal student/tutor contact looked like this:

- Prior to as scheduled Skype session, a tutor reviewed a student's essay and prepared his/her comments on diagnosed areas of improvement (for example, identifying and repairing run-on sentences).
- Based on session diagnostics, a tutor prescribed ACW specialized support resources for the student, such as written practice modules and video vignettes that focus on problem areas and remedies. When ACW tutors reported that many students are struggling with the same problem area(s), ACW provided brief instructional webinars for student groups to access at the convenience of their schedules.
- The student then contacted the tutor again, to discuss progress and remaining questions.

Before, During, and After Each Program: Summative and Formative Assessment

AWC created a standardized Writing Feedback Form that allowed tutors to streamline their work with students to diagnose problems areas in writing. The directive form identifies areas of student strengths (e.g., comma usage) and areas needing improvement (e.g., articles usage). These forms accompanied all annotated drafts returned to students, and American College Writing administrators also received the feedback forms.

All students enrolled in the College Success Academy and the Tutoring Support Program participated in a 5th Week progress assessment, using a standardized rubric designed by American College Writing to gauge students' responses to instruction and tutoring. This rubric is pedagogically sound, and designed to be a summative assessment of student progress. American College Writing also implements an end-of-quarter program evaluation, to gather student and tutor feedback for program improvement.

Additionally, Benchmark Assessments comprise the formative assessment of the student experience. Three benchmark dates are intended to monitor student progress as it is made. The benchmark dates are scheduled throughout the quarter, during which student work is assessed by ACW program administrators and tutors to identify strengths and weaknesses in writing at the English 101 level and to target continued problem areas.

For example, the following three benchmarks indicate a rubric to gauge student success in meeting the learning goal about conveying ideas in writing. This sequence follows a traditional pre/post test methodology but also includes a mid-point assessment and uses a common rubric throughout the assessment process.

Benchmark 1 (WEEK 3): Student submits a brief writing sample (one paragraph), from a diagnostic-based prompt given by the tutor. For test preparation instruction, this prompt echoes common themes and patterns from previous tests and is a consistent measurement of student progress throughout the program.

Benchmark 2 (WEEK 6): Student submits a brief writing sample (two paragraphs), from a diagnostic-based prompt given by the tutor. Using a similar prompt, the student expands the writing sample to two paragraphs and displays a wider range of skills learned during the previous sessions.

Benchmark 3 (WEEK 9): Student submits a brief writing sample focused on identifying his/her writing strengths and areas of improvements as the quarter closes. This self-reflection proved to be instrumental in not only student assessment but also feedback about the program's design and instructor effectiveness.

In addition, we incorporated student evaluations of instruction including factors embedded in the IAS System, a course evaluation standard created by the University of Washington and used at many other institutions to measure the impact of courses, instruction, and the student experience (IASystem, 2014). . Student feedback forms included scoring factors such as: Course content; instructor's contribution and effectiveness; organization; clarity of instructor's voice; instructor's ability to present alternative explanations when needed; quality of questions raised by instructor; encouragement given students to express themselves; availability of extra help when needed; use of time; instructor's interest in whether students learned; relevance and usefulness of content; effectiveness of evaluative techniques; reasonableness of work; and clarity of student responsibilities and requirements.

Overall, this project indicated a comprehensive 30% gain in student skills relating to the learning outcomes of reading with understanding, conveying ideas in writing, problem-solving and effective communication, speaking so others can understand, and active listening. By embedding Universal Course Design guidelines within the programs, we provided:

- Guideline 1, Recognition Networks, such as multiple mean of information, such as key information through different modalities, adjustable formats, and other accessible formats to accommodate international student effort.
- Guideline 2: Options for language and symbols, such as clarifying vocabulary, syntax and structure, understanding across languages, and illustrate through multiple media.
- Guideline 3: Options for comprehension, such as supplying background knowledge, highlighting patterns and relationships, guiding information processing and visualization, and maximizing transfer and generalization.

OPEN ACCESS, OPEN OPPORTUNITY: CONCLUSION

These findings suggest that UCD frameworks helps meet the common assumption While this case study is focused on international students taking English courses at one community college, we believe that the principles of UCD could successfully be adopted across learning environments to reach all of our students. Although it is often tempting to rely on more traditional frameworks, UCD allowed international students to

access information with easier access (including executive functions), and also build internal skills including self-regulation and motivation.

Compared to other frameworks for curriculum design, including the many ESL guidelines that include TOEFEL and other placement test requirements, we found Universal Course Design practices to be consistent, well-researched, and approved by multiple national centers, state education departments, and school districts. While this case study reports on a pilot project, we anticipate that outside organizations such as ACW could help strengthen school networks in systemic change about meeting student challenges. For instance, early involvement with families of students considering colleges abroad would strengthen inclusive educational environments. In discussions with international student directors and other college administrators, there is agreement that short informational presentations that highlight how UCD within U.S. classrooms would help faculty, families, and other communities in understanding components and features.

Future scholarship should consider building on existing research and development efforts by CAST and other initiatives; for instance, the U.S. Department of Education often funds special education and other grants for instructors “to provide all students, regardless of ability, with a high-quality education (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). While such opportunities often designate goals relating to improving results for students with disabilities, we found that many UCD accessibility guidelines fit the needs of international students. Considering factors such as accessible textbooks, response-to-instruction, and other approaches to assisting students can help reach every student, regardless of language or cultural context.

Finally, our study is limited in that analysis of a small sampling of international students at a U.S. college cannot show if the adoption of UCD principles becomes important only in times of transition to classrooms or if such efforts might be magnified with initiatives before students leave their homes. This kind of renewal, especially with faculties facing increasing numbers of diverse learners, keeps student focus as a powerful subtext that open up education to more successful performances of all students.

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Advantages and Disadvantages of Bilingual Education

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Abstract

We examine various typologies of bilingualism and propose that, depending on its features, it may have positive or negative consequences on the psycholinguistic development of students.

In coordinate bilingualism, the user develops two independent language systems, while the two systems are fused in compound bilingualism. In complete bilingualism, the bilingual masters the two languages, whereas in incomplete bilingualism, he has reinforced only one of them. In egalitarian bilingualism, the two languages share the same status, while in unequal bilingualism, the status of a given language is subordinated to that of the other language. Additive bilingualism occurs when bilingualism is considered as a cultural enrichment, and subtractive bilingualism, when it is seen as a risk of loss of identity.

The coordinate, complete, additive and egalitarian bilingualism is the one recommended by psychologists and psycholinguists, since it is the one that allows a complete psycholinguistic development of the bilingual.

Supported by a theoretical and linguistic analysis, this participation allows to understand the development of bilingual competence, as well as to reflect on the best way to manage it in the education classroom.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Bilingualism—which, according to Jakobson (1963, p. 35), is the fundamental problem of linguistics—is a topic that has recently gained interest in the fields of psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, sociolinguistics, education, and language planning. It is a topic of utmost importance since bilingualism affects the development of the whole human being. As proposed by Vygotsky (2000, p. 348), not only his intellectual development, but also the formation of his character, emotions, and personality as a whole depend directly on speech. Speech development in connection with bilingualism or monolingualism will thus have to be revealed in one degree or another.

It is the responsibility of researchers, educators, and language and education planners to reflect on bilingualism and know the most recent theoretical approaches of it, in order to offer the best possible conditions for the development of a good bilingualism in the classroom.

DEFINITION OF BILINGUALISM

In order to define the types of bilingualism, we will focus on typologies based on linguistic, neurolinguistic and psychosocial variables. Each of these propositions is explained in depth below.

COORDINATE vs. COMPOUND BILINGUALISM

In 1953, the linguist U. Weinreich postulated the existence of, among others, two types of bilingualism: *coordinate* and *compound* bilingualism. This typology remains valid in the 21st century (De Groot, 2011). As shown in the following table, in coordinate bilingualism the person develops two parallel language systems: for any one word, he or she has two signifiers and two signifieds. This type of bilingualism is that of an individual who speaks each of the two languages as well as a person for whom it is the sole mother tongue, and this at all levels of the linguistic structure, without any interference or mixing (Paradis, 1987, p. 433).

L1	L2
Organization of L1 semantic units	Organization of L2 semantic units
Organization of the sentence according to L1 syntax	Organization of the sentence according to L2 syntax

Organization of the words according to L1 morphology	Organization of the words according to L2 morphology
Organization of the syllables according to L1 phonology	Organization of the syllables according to L2 phonology
Organization of the phonemes according to L1 phonetics	Organization of the phonemes according to L2 phonetics

Table 1. Coordinate bilingualism (modified from Paradis, 1987, p. 435)

Alternatively, compound bilingualism develops in an environment where the two languages are mixed, where "two languages are spoken interchangeably by the same people and in the same situations" (De Groot, 2011, p. 131). As a result of this linguistic environment, the bilingual mixes the two languages and interlingual interferences occur, from and toward each language. He or she is thus not able to detect the important conceptual differences between the two languages, and needs to use both linguistic systems for thinking and communicating.

As shown in Table 2, the lexicon of a compound bilingual includes, for each linguistic level, a store for the native language (L1), a store for the foreign language (L2), and a mixed store.

L1	COMPOUND BILINGUALISM L1 + L2	L2
Organization of L1 semantic units	Organization of L1 + L2 semantic units	Organization of L2 semantic units
Organization of the sentence according to L1 syntax	Organization of the sentence according to L1 + L2 syntax	Organization of the sentence according to L2 syntax
Organization of the words according to L1 morphology	Organization of the words according to L1 + L2 morphology	Organization of the words according to L2 morphology
Organization of the syllables according to L1 phonology	Organization of the syllables according to L1 + L2 phonology	Organization of the syllables according to L2 phonology
Organization of the phonemes according to L1 phonetics	Organization of the phonemes according to L1 + L2 phonetics	Organization of the phonemes according to L2 phonetics

Table 2. Compound bilingualism (based on Paradis, 1987, p. 438)

Here are some examples of compound bilingualism:

- Organization of L1 + L2 semantic units: **J'ai mal à mon ojo* instead of "oeil", in French-L2 from Spanish-L1. The user avoids the diphthong [oe + j] and uses the L1 term.
- Organization of the sentence according to L1 + L2 syntax: **Étudie français* instead of "J'étudie le français", in French-L2 from Spanish-L1. The user omits the personal pronoun and the article of L2 syntax.
- Organization of the words according to L1 + L2 morphology: **la troca* instead of "truck", in English-L2 from Spanish-L1. The user uses the root word in English-L2 (*truck*) and the morphology of the feminine of Spanish-L1 (-a).
- Organization of the syllables according to L1 + L2 phonology: **torabajo* instead of "trabajo", in Spanish-L2 from Japanese-L1. The user inserts vowels in the syllables of Spanish-L2 that combine two consonants (tra/tre/tri/tro/tru).
- Organization of the phonemes according to L1 + L2 phonetics: **la troca* instead of "truck", in English-L2 from Spanish-L1. The user uses the phoneme /o/ of Spanish-L1 instead of the phoneme /ə/ of English-L2.¹

Ronjat (1913) stated that coordinate bilingualism will be achieved provided that the "one person-one language" scheme is followed in the user's environment. In this way, the bilingual develops two clearly distinct systems and skillfully manages them. With such an organized practice, he or she becomes a true bilingual with double communicative competence (Hymes, 1975) as well as a good translator who clearly distinguishes between the two systems (Ervin & Osgood, 1954).

Relevant studies in the field of neurology confirm the existence of these two types of bilingualism. The Canadian psychoneurologist Michel Paradis (1981, 2004) reports, indeed, two types of cerebral storage systems. The first system is large and "extended", and contains the components of both languages. Thus, both linguistic systems function based on the same neuronal mechanisms and, in case of aphasia, both are affected. This type of storage supports the hypothesis of compound bilingualism. On the other hand, Paradis describes an independent and "dual" storage system in which both languages are located in the same language area of the brain, but each language has mechanisms of its own. In this case, aphasia affects only one language. This type of storage would correspond to coordinate bilingualism.

COMPLETE vs. INCOMPLETE BILINGUALISM

The proficiency level of each language is also a criterion for classifying bilingualism. In this sense, Weinreich (1953) describes a *subordinate* bilingualism which indicates an imbalance in the development of the two

languages: while the mother tongue has been reinforced, the second language is still developing. Bilingualism is thus incomplete. As can be seen in the following table, the subordinate bilingual "views the world" from his mother tongue, as does a monolingual person.

L1	L2
Organization of L1 semantic units	Organization of L2 semantic units
Organization of the sentence according to L1 syntax	Organization of the sentence according to L2 syntax
Organization of the words according to L1 morphology	Organization of the words according to L2 morphology
Organization of the syllables according to L1 phonology	Organization of the syllables according to L2 phonology
Organization of the phonemes according to L1 phonetics	Organization of the phonemes according to L2 phonetics

Table 3. Subordinate bilingualism (based on Paradis, 1987, p. 436)

As can be seen in the examples below, subordinate bilingualism exhibits unidirectional transfers from L1 (Spanish) to L2 (English or French):

- Transfer of the semantic content of the word in Spanish-L1 *discusión* [argument] to the word in English-L2 "discussion", using the latter with a negative connotation it does not have in English, in which it simply means "exchange of ideas".
- Omission of the auxiliary verb in interrogative sentences, like in Spanish-L1: *¿Vives aquí?* or *¿En dónde vives?*, resulting in English-L2 in *"You live here?" or *"Where you live?" instead of "Do you live here?" or "Where do you live?".
- Use of the morphology of the masculine in the article **le voiture*, from Spanish-L1 *el coche*, instead of the morphology of the feminine in French-L2 *la voiture*.
- Omission of the production of rising vs. falling intonations in tag questions: "You work in Mexico, don't YOU?" (rising final intonation, expresses doubt) vs. "You work in Mexico, DON'T you?" (falling final intonation, expresses certainty).
- Omission of the production of different sounds nonexistent in Spanish-L1, like /t/ (as in "tree") vs. /θ/ (as in "three").

As shown below, Weinreich's proposition can prove to be more complex than a three-way classification of bilingualism: in some individuals, each linguistic level can be organized according to the logics of a particular type of bilingualism—coordinate, compound, or subordinate. According to Paradis (1987, p. 433), it is indeed theoretically possible for a speaker to have a coordinate system at the levels of syntax and semantics, while having a subordinate phonology. A bilingual can also be coordinate when it comes to decoding, and subordinate when it comes to coding.

L1	L2
Organization of L1 semantic units	Organization of L2 semantic units
Organization of the sentence according to L1 syntax	Organization of the sentence according to L2 syntax
Organization of the words according to L1 morphology	Organization of the words according to L2 morphology
Organization of the syllables according to L1 phonology	Organization of the syllables according to L2 phonology
Organization of the phonemes according to L1 phonetics	Organization of the phonemes according to L2 phonetics

Table 4. Variability in the types of bilingualism at the different linguistic levels (based on Paradis, 1987, p. 436)

We should then think of bilingualism as organized among the various linguistic levels into different degrees of a continuum that includes, at one end, the pole of coordinate bilingualism, and at the other end, that of compound bilingualism. Such a structure is dynamic and changes over time, as the individual acquires new experiences.

EGALITARIAN AND ADDITIVE BILINGUALISM vs. UNEQUAL AND SUBTRACTIVE BILINGUALISM

Some 20th-century typologies based on psychosocial factors continue to serve as a basis for research in this century. It is the case of Hagège's proposition (1996). This typology distinguishes between *egalitarian* and *unequal* bilingualism, depending on the social status of each language in the symbolic representations of a particular society. The relation between both languages can thereby be one of equality or subordination, depending on the social and geopolitical circumstances prevailing at a certain point in time in the two cultures associated with those languages.

Lambert's typology (1974), for its part, makes a distinction between *additive* and *subtractive* bilingualism (De Groot, 2011). The first occurs when in the speaker's social environment, bilingualism is considered as a cultural enrichment, and the second, in the opposite case: when the surrounding society sees bilingualism as a risk of loss of identity.

Hagège considers that for bilingualism to develop in an ideal way, there should be no conflict in the user's mind: bilingualism should be egalitarian and additive. For a student to be willing to make the laborious, long-term cognitive effort necessary to acquire both languages, it is important that the two linguistic systems be presented as a capital of interesting and valuable concepts and references.

The coordinate, complete, additive and egalitarian bilingualism is the one recommended by psychologists and psycholinguists, since it is the one that allows a suitable development of the bilingual's cognition and metacognition.

IMPACT OF THE TYPES OF BILINGUALISM ON THE HUMAN BEING

What cognitive processes and mechanisms can be affected by bilingualism? What have been the theoretical and empirical contributions of psycholinguistics and cognitive psychology to understanding the link between bilingualism and cognition, and what models and controversies have they generated? Since the beginning of the 20th century, contributions have alternated between studies questioning and criticizing bilingualism, and those highlighting its benefits for the human being's cognitive development. This latter perspective has been reinforced since the 1960s (De Groot, 2011).

One of the first psycholinguistic studies of bilingualism, now a classic, was conducted by the above-mentioned Ronjat (1913). The author comes to the conclusion that bilingualism, and the contact with different languages, promotes cognitive and linguistic development. Bilingualism even favors the development of the mother tongue. Ronjat's observations are based on empirical research on his own son, who was raised in a bilingual French-German family under the "one person-one language" scheme. The author mentions that the child thus simultaneously developed two phonetically, grammatically and stylistically independent linguistic systems, that is, a *coordinate* bilingualism. He reports that there was no confusion or interference between the two languages, and no slowing down of his linguistic development. In addition, the child developed a very early linguistic awareness: he was conscious of his bilingualism. Ronjat noted, however, that he achieved fluency at a slightly older age than monolingual children.

Contrary to the view of Ronjat on bilingualism at an early age is that of Epshtein, cited by Vygotsky ([1935], 2000). By its logic and early place in the chronology of this discussion, Vygotsky considers this research to be important for psycholinguistics. Epshtein's study is based on surveys, personal observations, and some experiments related to the teaching of several languages in Switzerland. For this author, the psychic basis of language is a process of associative relationship that is established between a phonetic complex and its corresponding signified (the object or idea), the name of which is precisely "phonetic complex" (in Vygotsky, 2000, p. 341). Bilingualism thus consists in establishing this system of relationships twice.

In experimental psychology, various associative links generated from a single point can inhibit each other. When an idea simultaneously relates to two phonic designations, the tendency of both words is to emerge to our consciousness *after* that idea. The two associative tendencies compete with each other and, as a result, the strongest and more usual associative nexus prevails. But this fight goes hand in hand with a slowing down and alteration of the associative process (in Vygotsky, 2000, p. 341). It should be noted, however, that Epshtein's description corresponds to what was referred to in the above section as *compound* bilingualism.

According to Epshtein, even when no nexus are established between the two languages in the child's psycholinguistic structure, they inhibit each other through an antagonistic relationship. Besides associative inhibition, the bilingual experiences interference between the two languages: he or she mixes the two languages

and sees both his or her mother tongue and second language become impoverished. Mixing the two languages leads to difficulties of expression, insecurity, stylistic errors, and confusion.

The same author suggests that bilingualism also affects thinking. Each language has its own syntactic, phonetic and semantic cutting planes. These differences complicate the multilingual's thinking, giving rise to a conflict of ideas, and inhibition and confusion of the connections between them. In the extreme, bilingualism can cause language pathologies.

Epshtein thus considers that the use of a single language—a monoglottism of expression—combined with the passive use of the others, based on receptive abilities—a polyglotism of impression—is the least damaging multilingualism. The damage caused by polyglotism also depends on the person's age: he or she would be more vulnerable in early childhood, when the nexus between thinking and language are not yet consolidated.

Many studies conducted before the 1960s call the linguistic and cognitive benefits of bilingualism into question. However, it should be pointed out that most pre-1960s authors studied bilingual subjects in an immigration context, under conditions unfavorable to the development of an optimal bilingualism. Due to the related social, economical and psychological factors, indeed, the bilingualism dealt with was usually compound, incomplete, subtractive, and unequal. In addition, rigour of the research design is often questioned in these studies because of the lack of control of a range of variables, such as socio-cultural group (Romaine, 1995).

It is essentially since the 1960s, with a paper entitled "The Relation of Bilingualism to Intelligence" (Peal & Lambert, 1962), that the positive perspective on bilingualism has been reinforced. Numerous authors currently highlight its benefits (De Groot, 2011; Cook & Bassetti, 2011). It is worth noting that the research context of these studies is not that of immigration, but rather a middle-class one where the two languages and related cultures are not in conflict. This context more easily allows a coordinate, complete, additive and egalitarian bilingualism to develop. Such a bilingualism has a positive impact on verbal and non-verbal intelligence, thinking (decentering, mental and symbolic flexibility, divergent and creative thinking, imagination), and linguistic development (concept formation; semantic development; awareness of language as an object and an abstract system, of the **arbitrariness** of the linguistic sign, and of how it interacts; word identification).

Lambert & Tucker (1972) believe that learning two languages from childhood leads the bilingual to practice a form of "incipient contrastive linguistics". Indeed, being bilingual involves awareness of the existence of languages in general, and of two systems in particular, and also involves making the effort to distinguish them and to avoid interference. According to Pinto (1993, p. 128), the attention given to avoid transfers between languages makes the bilingual twice as careful with its lexical, syntactic, phonetic, and pragmatic choices, which explains his or her sharper intuition for the principles governing each language, and language in general.

Authors such as Pinto (1993) and Tummer & Myhill (1984) consider that a balanced proficiency in the two languages has a positive and decisive effect on linguistic awareness and cognition. The latter authors argue that "fully fluent bilingualism results in increased metacognitive/metalinguistic abilities which, in turn, facilitate reading acquisition which, in turn, leads to higher levels of academic achievement" (1984, p. 176). In the same line, Bassetti & Cook (2011, p. 163–164) report that bilingualism accelerates the child's development of syllable awareness and of distinction between word and referent. It also accelerates the development of logical-mathematical intelligence and the acquisition of a theory of mind.

Numerous 20th and 21st-century authors have thus concluded that bilingualism generates benefits for the individual's intellectual, cognitive, and psycholinguistic development (Cook & Bassetti, 2011; De Groot, 2011).

CONCLUSION

It is the responsibility of the education sector to reflect on the type of bilingualism susceptible to be developed at school since, from the teacher's point of view based on educational practices, features of the two perspectives described above—some beneficial to cognition, and others detrimental to it—could be found in class. It would also be relevant to ask ourselves how to help develop an ideal bilingualism in the curriculum and the classroom.

A suggestion could be to conceive bilingual programs that apply Ronjat's "one person-one language" approach and promote the ideal **coordinate** and **complete** bilingualism—"equilingualism" or balanced bilingualism—recommended by psychologists and psycholinguists. As pointed out by Deprez (1994, p. 23), the equilingual individual speaks both languages just as well, has no preference for one language over the other, and never mixes them up. This bilingualism, in turn, favors a well-organized cognitive structure. A teaching program could be conceived where the two languages coexist and are vehicles of cultural, scientific and academic information, highlighting national language and identity.

The teacher in the classroom can organize his or her teaching around an immersion system to help achieve **coordinate** bilingualism; he or she can refer to level C1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages to help attain **complete** bilingualism; he or she can work with appealing, varied texts that reflect a diverse, pluralistic culture of the second language to develop **additive** bilingualism; and he or she can create a culturally contrastive teaching approach where both the native and second language have the same status, thereby achieving **egalitarian** bilingualism

It is relevant and urgent to study and reflect on bilingualism since it has become the norm for the majority of mankind and, and such, is currently a factor promoting social and professional mobility. Bilingualism can also be a driving factor for pluralism and tolerance in the world. Learning, grasping and understanding "the other's" symbolic system is actually a good start to respecting it. Bilingualism can help spread a culture of peace and the spirit of "otherness" (Hagège, 1996). According to Siguan (2001, p. 357), bilinguals, because they are familiar with several languages, are precisely those who can rise above conflicts among those who speak them, opening pathways of mutual understanding. It will thus be up to bilingual or multilingual teachers, thinkers and rulers to build a world of tolerance and solidarity.

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I am grateful to Dr Rosa Esther Delgadillo Macías, Alma Luz Rodríguez Lázaro, and Viviana Oropeza Gracia for providing the linguistic examples in Spanish and English.

Intuitive Leadership and Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Divisions of Negros Occidental

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine the extent manifestation of intuitive leadership of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as it relates to principals' effectiveness as perceived by themselves and as perceived by their teachers. This study made use of descriptive correlational method with fishbowl technique for its sampling procedure. To explore possible correlations on the intuitive leadership and principal effectiveness the following variables were used: age, gender, type of school, educational qualification, and tenure. A research instrument was formulated to gather information on the profile of the respondents using the selected variables. Questionnaire adapted from Jerry W. Valentine and Michael Bowman was used by the secondary school teachers in intuitive leadership skills. The data were then analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Software (SPSS), specifically Mean, One Way ANOVA, Pearson Product Moment of Correlations, and t-test for independent means. Findings revealed that the principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental are intuitive as perceived by themselves and by their teachers when grouped as to selected variables. However, there was a significant differences in the level of intuitive leadership as perceived by themselves when grouped as to age but there was no significant relationship in the level of intuitive leadership as perceived by themselves and by their teachers when grouped as to selected variables. In conclusion, principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental are intuitive and effective leaders as perceived by themselves and by their teachers when they are grouped according to selected variable.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Highly intuitive leaders see themselves as open to new opportunities, innovations, and creative approaches which are essential for future school progress. Agor (1998:22) cited that educational leaders are making difficult decisions amidst challenging time, thus, intuition is very effective because it enables one to see the "big picture" and to consider the possibilities beyond those offered by traditional decision-making styles. According to Harper (1988:33) intuition helps executives come up with answers before anyone else knows the question. As a leader of an educational organization, an executive must possess certain qualities in order to promote a cohesive organization to improve the quality of education. A Principal's decision plays a vital role in improving the quality of life. He facilitates the identification of educational mission, help in the formulation of broad policies and supervises their implementation. (Rossow, 1990:18) Holder, (1992:16) believed that "strong leaders create strong schools". Both research and common sense suggest that administrators can do a great deal to advance school reform" Their behavior influence the teachers and student-clientele through their leadership. They can have effective schools which would lead to exemplary performance in the attainment of educational goals. Leaders of the educational world must possess certain qualities in order to promote a cohesive organization able to improve the quality of education. Thus principals' decision play a vital role in improving the quality of life. They facilitate educational mission, help in the formulation of broad policies and supervise their implementation. Managers should combine intuitive and analytical-based judgment even if they come from the same person. Evidence suggests that intuition is commonly employed and can be quite accurate. The most reliable guidance comes from one's inner voice, not from books or experts. Bradshaw (1998) stated that intuition is an important aspect of effective control, We would be better off and truer to our nature if we tried to identify what triggered our external alarm. Thus, principals use intuition and rely on it and even enhance their intuitive skills in their management styles.

A successful organization must be managed by a principal who possesses the abilities and traits of a good leader who is responsible in achieving the goals of the institution. The principal is the most influential individual

in the life of the students and teachers in school for the quality of their inputs are affected to a great extent by how much attention he gives them. potential leadership of the principal as well as his skills have a great influence on his subordinates towards the attainment of a school's specified goal or goals (Paez 2003). Secretary Armin A. Luistro entrusts to the school principal the responsibility of providing the instructional support system. EDCOM also stressed that the school principal is the key variable in the unending search for quality education in the basic educational system. The principal's leadership potential creates the condition that helps teachers find satisfaction in their work, confront challenges, and enable them to have self-fulfillment and accomplishment of their tasks (Andres 1992). The researcher having been assigned as head in Education Department that supervises teacher in the Center for Teaching and Learning of PNU which deals with the principals wonders if indeed the intuition of principals in the different schools affects their effectiveness. It is in this context that the researcher intends to assess the intuitive ability of secondary school principals, specifically, the relationship between their intuitive ability and principal effectiveness in the attainment of educational goals.

Statement Of The Problem

The main purpose of the study is to determine the extent of manifestation of intuitive leadership of secondary school principals in the thirteen cities of Negros Occidental as it relates to principal effectiveness.

Specifically this study aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What is the extent manifestation of intuitive leadership of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as perceived by themselves when they are taken altogether and when grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure
2. Is there a significant difference in the extent of manifestation of intuitive leadership among secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as perceived by themselves when they are grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure
3. Is there a significant relationship in the extent of intuitive leadership among secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as perceived by themselves when they are grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure. Age
4. What is the extent of manifestation of intuitive leadership of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as perceived by their teachers when they are taken altogether and when they are grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure. Age
5. Is there a significant difference in the extent of manifestation of intuitive leadership of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as perceived by their teachers when they are grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure Age, Gender Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure
6. Is there a significant relationship in the extent of manifestation of intuitive leadership of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions Negros Occidental as perceived by their teachers when they are grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure
7. What is the level of effectiveness of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as perceived by themselves when they are taken altogether and when grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure
8. Is there a significant difference in the level of effectiveness of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions Negros Occidental as perceived by themselves when they are grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure
9. Is there a significant relationship in the level of effectiveness of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions Negros Occidental as perceived by themselves when they are group according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure
10. What is the level of effectiveness of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as perceived by their teachers when they are taken altogether and when grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure
11. Is there a significant difference in the level of effectiveness of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as perceived by their teachers when they are taken altogether and when grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure. Age
12. Is there a significant relationship in the level of effectiveness of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental as perceived by their teachers when they are taken altogether and when grouped according to: Age, Gender, Type of School, Educational Qualification, Tenure

a.3. Is there a significant relationship in the extent of manifestation of intuitive leadership of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental and their level of effectiveness as perceived by teachers.

14. Is there a significant difference in the perception of teachers and principals on principal's Intuitive leadership.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The present study utilized the descriptive method of research. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) define the descriptive research as a given state of affairs that summarize the characteristics of individual as groups or physical environment.

The Subjects/Respondents

Principals

TABLE 1. Table of Distribution of Subjects Principals

DIVISION	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	TOTAL	%
Bacolod City	15	14	29	41%
Bago City	5	1	6	8%
Cadiz City	6	2	8	12%
Kabankalan City	5	4	9	12%
La Carlota City	1	1	2	3%
Sagay City	5	1	6	8%
San Carlos City	3	4	7	10%
Silay City	3	1	4	6%
TOTAL	43	28	71	100%

Table 1 The total of 71 principals- respondents were used in this study : 43 from public secondary schools and 28 from private secondary schools .

Teacher

TABLE 2. Table of Distribution of Teachers Population Per Division

DIVISION	PUBLIC	SAMPLE	PRIVATE	SAMPLE	TOTAL POP	TOTAL SAMPLE
Bacolod City	920	112	415	52	1335	164
Bago City	219	27	20	3	239	30
Cadiz City	239	30	36	4	275	34
Kabankalan City	131	16	88	11	219	27
La Carlota City	47	6	24	3	71	9
Sagay City	207	26	32	4	239	30
San Carlos City	146	18	96	12	242	30
Silay City	180	22	40	5	220	27
TOTAL	2089	257	751	94	2840	351

Table 2 The total respondents of 351 teachers were used in this study. 257 from public secondary schools and 94 from private secondary schools of the eight cities divisions of Negros Occidental for school year 2010-2011 were the respondents of the study

TABLE 3. Distribution of Subjects Principal Group as to Variables

Variables	N	Percentage %
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Age			
	Young (33-46)	33	46
	Old (47-64)	38	54
Gender			
	Male	16	23
	Female	55	77
Type of Schools			
	Public	43	61
	Private	28	39
Educational Qualification			
	Bachelor's Degree	28	40
	Master's Degree	35	49
	Doctorate Degree	8	11
Tenure			
	Shorter	37	52
	Longer	34	48
	Total	71	100%

Table 3 shows the grouping of the respondents according to age, the median was used. The ages of the principal - respondents spanned from 33 years old to 64 years old. For gender male were 16 and female were 55. The type of school of the principal - respondents from public secondary schools are 43 and from private secondary schools are 28. For educational qualification Bachelors degree 28, with Masters' degree 35 and with doctorate degree 8. Respondents' tenure as leaders ranged from 2 years to 6 years for shorter tenure and 7 years to 30 years for longer tenure.

TABLE 4. Distribution of Teacher-Respondents Group as to Variables

	Variables	N	Percentage %
Age			
	Young (21-40)	171	49
	Old (41-63)	180	51
Gender			
	Male	87	25
	Female	264	75
Type of Schools			
	Public	258	74
	Private	93	26
Educational Qualification			
	Bachelor's Degree	284	81
	Master's Degree	63	18
	Doctorate Degree	4	1
Tenure			
	Shorter	178	51
	Longer	173	49
	Total	351	100%

In grouping the teacher-respondents according to age, the median was used. The ages of the spanned from 21 years old to 63 years old . For gender male were 87 and female were 264. For the type of school from public secondary schools are 258 and from private secondary schools are 93 . For educational qualification Bachelors degree 284, with Masters' degree 65 and with doctorate degree 4 . Teacher respondents tenures ranged from 1 year to 12 years for shorter tenure and 13 years to 38 years for longer tenure. Respondents' tenure 178 for shorter tenure and 173 for longer tenure.

Research Instrument

Part I of the research instrument was formulated for the purpose of gathering information pertaining to the profile of the respondents. Which includes the respondents age, gender, educational qualification, educational qualification, and type of schools. Part II was the principal's effectiveness questionnaire by Jerry W. Valentine and Michael Bowman to be used by the secondary school teachers in evaluating their principals effectiveness. Part III was the researcher made instrument based from Agor Intuitive Management Survey to be used in evaluating the intuitive leadership skills of secondary school principals in the thirteen cities of Negros Occidental. Using the five - point scale technique , the respondents answered the items using the following alternative responses: "Very Effective" (VE), "Effective" (E) , " Moderately Effective" (ME) , "Least Effective" (LE) , "Not Effective" (NE).

Data Analysis and Statistical Technique

The data analysis conducted to answer the research questions was performed using Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences Software (SPSS). A combination of descriptive and inferential statistics were used for this purpose. The following statistical techniques were utilized to address the research problems: Frequency and percentage were used to identify the number of participants of the study. Frequency distribution is defined as the arrangement of the gathered data by categories, plus the corresponding frequencies. In quantitative research, the scores were summarized with tallies to indicate the characteristics of the respondents which describe their personal, professional and demographic background. These characteristics include the following: For Problems 1,4,7,10. the gathered data will be analyzed with the use of the mean. For problems 2, 5, 8, 11 and 14 Levene's t-Test for Equality of Means was employed to test the significance of the difference and One Way ANOVA. For problems 3, 6, 9, 12 and 13 Pearson Product Moment of Correlations was used. The coefficient of correlation of the Intuitive leadership is based at 0.01 alpha.

RESULTS

Table 5. The Extent of Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight Cities of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

	Variables	N	Mean	VI
Age				
	Young	33	1.58	Intuitive
	Old	38	1.70	Intuitive
	Total	71	1.63	Intuitive
Gender				
	Male	16	1.68	Intuitive
	Female	55	1.63	Intuitive
	Total	71	1.65	Intuitive
Type of Schools				
	Public	43	1.65	Intuitive
	Private	28	1.62	Intuitive
	Total	71	1.64	Intuitive
Educational Qualification				
	Bachelor's Degree	28	1.63	Intuitive
	Master's Degree	35	1.65	Intuitive
	Doctorate Degree	8	1.61	Intuitive
	Total	71	1.63	Intuitive
Tenure				
	Shorter	37	1.65	Intuitive
	Longer	34	1.63	Intuitive
	Total	71	1.64	Intuitive

Table 5 shows the Extent of Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight Cities of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables is intuitive.

Table 6. Result of t-test of Independent Means Indicating the Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	N	Mean	Mean Diff	SED	t-ratio	P value	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Age								
Younger	33	1.58	0.12	0.04	3.00	0.65	p>0.05	Accepted
Older	38	1.70						
Gender								
Male	16	1.68	0.05	0.06	0.83	0.56	p>0.05	Accepted
Female	55	1.63						
Type of School								
Public	43	1.65	0.03	0.03	1.00	0.32	p>0.05	Accepted
Private	28	1.62						
Tenure								
Shorter	37	1.65	0.02	0.03	0.67	0.13	p>0.05	Accepted
Longer	34	1.63						

Table 6 shows significant the Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables is accepted.

Table 7. Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental As Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to their Educational Qualification

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	P value	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Between Groups	0.015	2	0.007				
Within Groups	2.955	69	0.043				
Total	2.970	71		0.169	0.845	p>0.05	Accepted

Table 7 shows significant the Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According Educational Qualification is accepted.

Table 8. Result of PPM Indicating the Relationship Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	r	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Age	0.327**	p>0.05	Accepted
Gender	-0.113	p>0.05	Accepted
Type of School	-0.072	p>0.05	Accepted
Educational Qualification	0.034	p<0.05	Rejected
Tenure	0.014	p<0.05	Rejected

Table 8 shows significant the Relationships Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to Age , gender and Type of school is accepted while Educational Qualification and tenure is rejected.

Table 9. The Extent of Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight Cities of Negros Occidental As Perceived by Teachers When Grouped According

Variables	N	Mean	VI
Age			
Young	171	1.59	Intuitive
Old	180	1.60	Intuitive
Total	351	1.60	Intuitive
Gender			
Male	87	1.60	Intuitive
Female	264	1.59	Intuitive
Total	351	1.60	Intuitive
Type of Schools			
Public	258	1.60	Intuitive
Private	93	1.60	Intuitive
Total	351	1.60	Intuitive
Educational Qualification			
Bachelor's Degree	284	1.60	Intuitive
Master's Degree	63	1.58	Intuitive
Doctorate Degree	4	1.58	Intuitive
Total	351	1.60	Intuitive
Tenure			
Shorter	178	1.62	Intuitive
Longer	173	1.57	Intuitive
Total	351	1.60	Intuitive

Table 9 show The Extent of Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight Cities of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Teachers When Grouped According is intuitive.

Table 10. Result of t-test of Independent Means Indicating the Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	N	Mean	Mean Diff	SED	t-ratio	P value	Signifi-cance	Status of the H ₀
Age								
Younger	171	1.59	0.01	0.01	1.00	0.15	p>0.05	Accepted
Older	180	1.650						
Gender								

Male	87	1.60	0.01	0.02	0.50	0.65	p>0.05	Accepted
Female	264	1.59						
Type of School								
Public	257	1.60	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.64	p>0.05	Accepted
Private	94	1.60						
Tenure								
Shorter	178	1.62	0.05	0.01	5.00	0.06	p>0.05	Accepted
Longer	173	1.63						

Table 10 shows the significant Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to the Selected Variables is accepted.

Table 11. Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to their Educational Attainment

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F-ratio	P value	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Between Groups	0.015	2	0.018				
Within Groups	2.955	349	0.023				
Total	2.970	351		0.772	0.463	p>0.05	Accepted

Table 11 shows the significant Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to Educational Attainment is accepted.

Table 12. Relationship Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Teachers When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	r	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Age	0.032	p>0.05	Accepted
Gender	-0.015	P>0.05	Rejected
Type of School	0.003	P>0.05	Rejected
Educational Qualification	-0.065	p>0.05	Accepted
Tenure	-0.060	p>0.05	Accepted

Table 12 shows the significant Relationship Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to Age , Educational Qualification and tenure is accepted and for gender and Type of School is rejected.

Table 13. The Level of Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight Cities of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	N	Mean	VI
Age			
Young	33	4.43	Very Effective
Old	38	4.51	Very Effective
Total	71	4.47	Very Effective
Gender			
Male	16	4.25	Very Effective
Female	55	4.54	Very Effective
Total	71	4.40	Very Effective
Type of Schools			
Public	43	4.45	Very Effective
Private	28	4.50	Very Effective
Total	71	4.48	Very Effective
Educational Qualification			
Bachelor's Degree	28	4.34	Very Effective
Master's Degree	35	4.58	Very Effective
Doctorate Degree	8	4.46	Very Effective
Total	71	4.46	Very Effective
Tenure			
Shorter	37	4.46	Very Effective
Longer	34	4.48	Very Effective
Total	71	4.47	Very Effective

Table 13 shows the Level of Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight Cities of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables is very effective.

Table 14. Result of t-test of Independent Means Indicating the Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	N	Mean	Mean Diff	SED	t-ratio	P value	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Age								
Younger	33	1.58	0.08	0.07	1.14	0.91	p>0.05	Accepted
Older	38	1.70						
Gender								
Male	16	1.68	0.31	0.10	3.10	0.39	p>0.05	Accepted
Female	55	1.63						
Type of School								
Public	43	1.65	0.05	0.06	0.83	0.37	p>0.05	Accepted
Private	28	1.62						
Tenure								
Shorter	37	1.65	0.02	0.05	0.40	0.10	p>0.05	Accepted
Longer	34	1.63						

Table 14 shows the significant Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables is accepted.

Table 15. Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to their Educational Qualification

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F-ratio	P value	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Between Groups	0.854	2	0.427	3.259	0.045	p<0.05	Rejected
Within Groups	8.912	69	0.131				
Total	9.767	71					

Table 15 shows the significant Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to Educational Qualification is rejected.

Table 16. Result of PPM Indicating Correlations Between the Level of Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	r	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Age	0.168	p>0.05	Accepted
Gender	0.321	p>0.05	Accepted
Type of School	0.058	p>0.05	Accepted
Educational Qualification	0.049	p>0.05	Rejected
Tenure	-0.122	p>0.05	Accepted

Table 16 shows the significant correlations Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Themselves When Grouped According to Age, Gender, Type of School and Tenure is accepted while in Educational Qualification is rejected.

Table 17. The Level of Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight Cities of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Teachers When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	N	Mean	VI
Age			
Young	171	4.17	Very Effective
Old	180	4.30	Very Effective
Total	351	4.24	Very Effective
Gender			
Male	87	4.25	Very Effective
Female	264	4.23	Very Effective
Total	351	4.24	Very Effective
Type of Schools			
Public	258	4.21	Very Effective
Private	93	4.31	Very Effective
Total	351	4.26	Very Effective
Educational Qualification			
Bachelor's Degree	284	4.22	Very Effective
Master's Degree	63	4.34	Very Effective
Doctorate Degree	4	3.97	Very Effective
Total	351	4.18	Very Effective
Tenure			
Shorter	178	4.16	Very Effective
Longer	173	4.32	Very Effective
Total	351	4.24	Very Effective

Table 17 shows The Level of Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight Cities of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Teachers When Grouped According to the Age, Gender, Type of School, and Tenure is very effective while in Educational Qualification is effective.

Table 18. The Result of t-test of Independent Means Indicating the Difference Between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	N	Mean	Mean Diff	SED	t-ratio	P value	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Age								
Younger	171	4.17	0.13	0.05	2.60	0.14	p>0.05	Accepted
Older	180	4.30						
Gender								
Male	87	4.25	0.02	0.06	0.33	0.72	p>0.05	Accepted
Female	264	4.23						
Type of School								
Public	258	4.21	0.10	0.04	2.50	0.36	p>0.05	Accepted
Private	93	4.31						
Tenure								
Shorter	178	4.16	0.16	0.05	3.20	0.09	p>0.05	Accepted
Longer	173	4.32						

Table 18 shows the significant Difference between the Extent of the Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to the Selected Variables is accepted.

Table 19. Difference Between the Level of Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental As Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to their Educational Qualification

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	P value	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Between Groups	1.062	2	0.531				
Within Groups	116.870	349	0.336				
Total	117.932	351		1.581	.207	p>0.05	Accepted

Table 19 shows the significant Difference Between the Level of Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental As Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to their Educational Qualification is accepted.

Table 20. Relationship Between the Level of Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental as Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to the Selected Variables

Variables	r	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Age	0.091	p>0.05	Accepted
Gender	-0.015	P<0.05	Rejected
Type of School	0.071	p>0.05	Accepted
Educational Qualification	0.049	p< 0.05	Rejected
Tenure	0.102	p>0.05	Accepted

Table 20 shows the significant Relationship Between the Level of Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Division of Negros Occidental As Perceived by Their Teachers When Grouped According to Age, Type of School and Tenure is accepted. While Gender and Educational Attainment is Rejected.

Table 21. Relationship in the Extent of Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Divisions of Negros Occidental and Their Level of Effectiveness as Perceived by both Principals and Teacher

Variables	N	r	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Intuitive Leadership	422	0.117*	p<0.05	Accepted
Principals Effectiveness	422	0.117*	p>0.05	Accepted

Table 21 shows the Relationship in the Extent of Manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the Eight City Divisions of Negros Occidental and Their Level of Effectiveness as Perceived by both Principals and Teacher is accepted.

Table 22. Difference in the Perception of Teachers and Principals on Principal's Intuitive Leadership

Variables	N	Mean	Mean Diff	SED	t-ratio	P value	Significance	Status of the H ₀
Intuitive Leadership								

Teachers	351	1.63	0.13	0.00	0.261	0.070	p>0.05	Accepted
Secondary School Principals	71	1.59						

Table 22 shows Difference in the Perception of Teachers and Principals on Principal's Intuitive Leadership is accepted.

CONCLUSIONS

From the Findings of the Study the following Conclusions are drawn:

- Generally, the principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental manifest an intuitive leadership. Remarkably, principals are intuitive regardless of age, gender type of school educational qualification, and tenure.
- There is no significant difference in the extent of manifestation of Intuitive Leadership of Secondary School Principals in the eight city division of Negros Occidental as perceived by the principals and teachers when grouped according to age, gender, type of school, educational qualification, and tenure.
- All principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental are very effective leaders when applying intuition in the school they manage.
- There is a correlation between the intuitive leadership and principals effectiveness of secondary school principals in the eight city divisions of Negros Occidental.
- There is a correlation in the perception of teachers and principals in the intuitive leadership of secondary school principals when grouped according to age, gender, type of school, educational qualification, and tenure.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following are the recommendations drawn from the findings and conclusions of this study.

- Data findings from this study indicates that secondary school principals are intuitive leaders.
- It is recommended that periodic evaluation on the effectiveness of secondary principals by their teachers in the areas explored in this study. This will help enhance the intuitive leadership skills and effectiveness in the performance of educational services.
- It is recommended that not only teachers and principals but superintendents and higher officials in the field of education as well should coordinate in order to arrive at a fair evaluation for secondary school principals. After all best secondary school principals help a lot in establishing effective schools.
- That intuitive leadership skills seminar will be conducted to teachers, principals and administrators to enhance intuitive leadership skills.
- That education sector should encourage the use of intuition to help enhance the effectiveness of educational leaders.
- That school principals should strive to decide intuitively in the service to meet the challenges of the new millennium.
- Further researches on a wider scope and involving subjects, respondents, and variables not covered in the present study are recommended.

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How Do Students Learn History? The Problem With Teaching History as Part of an Integrated or Interdisciplinary Cross Curricular Pedagogical Approach

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Abstract

Interdisciplinary/cross-curricular teaching involves a conscious effort to apply knowledge, principles, and/or values to more than one academic discipline simultaneously. The disciplines may be related through a central theme, issue, problem, process, topic, or experience (Jacobs, 1989). This approach is often seen as a panacea to various problems facing education today; from opening up more space and time on overcrowded school timetables to cutting down fragmentation and giving a more holistic, relevant and modern education. Unfortunately while undoubtedly having various positive aspects, like most cures, an interdisciplinary approach does not come without a number of negative side-effects.

This paper will attempt to show how at times effective history teaching does not sit comfortably with interdisciplinary approaches; indeed, in some instances they are incompatible.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Interdisciplinary/cross-curricular teaching sometimes also called an integrated approach involves a deliberate attempt to apply knowledge and principles to more than one academic discipline concurrently. This approach is also linked to project work, topic or thematic teaching which incorporate the integration of different curricular areas around a particular topic, a central theme, issue, problem, process, or experience. This teaching approach is highly favoured in many Primary schools (5 to 11 years-olds) in Europe and to a lesser extent in Secondary schools too. In the Secondary sector (11 to 16 year-olds) it is more difficult to infiltrate as a method because it is harder to remove the subject barriers, however because of the attractiveness of cross curricular advantages, attempts occur here too. Thus in the case of humanities such 'umbrella' titles as Citizenship Education, Social Studies and Environmental Studies may replace separate academic subjects such as Geography, Sociology, Home Economics, Physical and Social Education, Religious Studies and History. These are now often taught as one subject.

This approach is seen as a panacea to various problems facing education today; from opening up more space and time on overcrowded school timetables to cutting down fragmentation and giving a more holistic, relevant and modern education. Unfortunately while undoubtedly having various positive aspects, like most cures, an interdisciplinary approach which mixes history with civics or with any other subject does not come without a number of serious negative side-effects. There are three particular challenges presented by an interdisciplinary/cross-curricular approach to history teaching and learning which I feel need to be addressed. These are less history teaching and learning time, loss of independence for history as a school subject and the nature of history as an academic subject and its pedagogy may not be reconcilable with citizenship education and interdisciplinary approaches.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHING HISTORY WITHIN AN INTERDISCIPLINARY/CROSS-CURRICULAR APPROACH

Less history teaching and learning time

First of all interdisciplinary/cross-curricular approaches compound the already existing problem of very little history time on school timetables, as Van der Leeuw-Roord (2001) found "the time allocated to history in

schools is under pressure everywhere in Europe with a tendency to further decrease” (p.22) The situation of the dwindling history lesson is made worse because within an interdisciplinary/cross-curricular approach history stops being the focus and has to merge with all the other subject areas.

Loss of independence for history as a school subject

This leads to the second difficulty that is, that history ceases to exist in its own right. This was already a worry in 1992 when the top concern of most western European History Teachers’ Associations was a possible loss of the independent position of history in the curriculum Van der Leeuw-Roord (2006). By 2001 a considerable change in European school history curricula was noted by Stradling (2001) and according to Van der Leeuw-Roord (2001) referring to Stradling’s work “There is now far more emphasis on recent and contemporary history, and a growing focus on strengthening European consciousness, human rights and civil society through the teaching of history and civics.”(p.22).

The nature of history as an academic subject and its pedagogy may not be reconcilable with citizenship education and interdisciplinary approaches.

Citizenship education has become very popular in the last 15 years and many interdisciplinary curriculums are now tailored to include history and other humanities within the citizenship umbrella, and this leads me to the third and to me the most worrying aspect of an interdisciplinary/cross-curriculum. A concern that by far transcends both the two previous concerns, that is, the decrease in the time allotted to proper history teaching and that history stops being a separate subject on the school timetable. It is important to point out that in the case of history there is the added problem that history and citizenship do not always sit comfortably together; indeed, in some instances they are incompatible. Whereas, citizenship is concerned with developing certain attitudes and values which currently prevail in a society, history is about questioning evidence. Citizenship is essentially an initiation process while history is not designed for this.

History teachers know that there are various problems when it comes to historical explanation. One does not need to be a postmodernist to realize that ‘truths’ uncovered by history are imperfect. The questions historians ask are determined by the questions of their society, reflecting the same apprehensions or optimism of the time rather than the historical period the historian is studying and all this casts serious doubt on the objectivity of history.

All our historical knowledge comes to us in an indirect way. This is true both for evidence coming from primary historical sources and for evidence coming from secondary historical sources. When working with primary sources we are dealing with what survives; other material which did not survive might have produced an entirely different picture. There will always be the possibility of sources being forged and the information they are giving is entirely false. This can also happen through mistakes occurring while the historian is working with the sources, for example mistakes during translations or while deciphering calligraphy. But even if one were to give allowance to these human errors, there exist even more serious problems when dealing with historical material. A truly untouched authentic piece of evidence cannot be said to exist. What we have, all comes to us second hand, even documents, which are often regarded as sacrosanct where facts are concerned, were written by fallible human beings; even if they were actual eyewitnesses of the events they are reporting, their memory can be faulty. The account is influenced by the eyewitness’s prejudices and biases, which may cause him or her, even if perhaps unconsciously, to exaggerate or modify certain things.

Furthermore even when correct facts can be established, they only start to have meaning once the historian has gone to work on them. Facts are only the raw material, history is a continual process of interaction between the historian and his or her facts. To illustrate this point Carr (1964) states that: “To praise a historian for his accuracy is like praising an architect for using well-seasoned timber or properly mixed concrete in his building.” (p.10) It is a necessary function but not the main *raison d’être* of a historian. Ultimately the job of a good historian is to rigorously check, compare and question all known facts and information about the topic he or she is researching. Then the evaluation process starts, which includes interpreting evidence, explaining, attributing causes, criticism, tracing results and using the imagination. And it leads not to truth – historians can come to different conclusions – but rather to a valid interpretation.

However, this means that with secondary sources there are now even more concerns since besides the bias to be found in the original source of information there is also the writer’s bias to contend with. History teachers

know that facts become facts when historians decide to make them so, even when not expressing any judgements or opinions historians are being selective by the very choice of the subject they have picked to work on. As Tosh (1984) says:

“The facts are not given, they are selected. Despite appearances they are never left to speak for themselves. However detailed a historical narrative may be, and however committed its author to the re-creation of the past, it never springs from the sources ready-made; many events are omitted as trivial, and those which do find a place in the narrative tend to be seen through the eyes of one particular participant or a small group.” (p.113)

For a long time historians thought the history of kings, nobles and great men only was important and therefore our history only dealt with such topics, leaving out whole chunks of the population who because of their race, class or sex did not fit this paradigm. This is especially obvious when it comes to women’s history. Women have been for a long time to coin Sheila Rowbotham’s (1973) famous phrase ‘hidden from history.’ With the advent of more and more women historians, women’s history began to be written and our perspectives on whole historical periods have since changed.

It is also the historians who decide in what order and context to place the facts and as any good journalist knows to influence opinion in one direction you merely have to select and arrange the appropriate facts. Historians are products of their own culture and the society and subject to their own prejudices and values.

History teachers today are aware of the very real difference between ‘the past’ and ‘history’ which are often taken to mean by non- specialists as one and the same thing, when in fact they are not. It is important to accept that history is merely a discourse about the past but not the past itself and to a certain extent what Jenkins (1991) says is correct:

“History as discourse is thus in a different category to that which it discourses about, that is, the past and history are different things. Additionally, the past and history are not stitched into each other such that only one historical reading of the past is absolutely necessary. The past and history float free of each other, they are ages and miles apart” (p.5)

For the past 40 years history pedagogy has been developing and today it is dramatically different from the traditional history teaching of fifty years ago. The main objective in history teaching is today the teaching of history thinking skills and concepts within a historical context rather than mere memorisation of facts, and pupils are made aware of the main characteristics of the discipline. It is important to teach in history not just the factual knowledge, but what Bruner (1966) called the ‘structure’ of the subject. Historical method involves historical thinking and it is the analyses of sources in particular, that provide the practice for a mode of thinking similar to what the historian goes through. This approach in history teaching is in fact based on constructivist teaching methods.

Historical thinking is best described as a form of speculation, highly investigative in nature so many of the learning theories are not immediately satisfactory approaches to history teaching. For example Dewey’s problem-solving model perhaps so useful in subjects like science and mathematics might be inadequate for as Watts (1972) says “...because the material of history is uncertain and debatable, it is difficult, if not literally impossible, to solve problems in history...history is much more concerned with problem-raising than problem-solving” (p.33)

Lee, Dickinson and Ashby showed that children’s thinking in history is far more sophisticated than previously imagined. After analysing children’s ideas on testing explanations in history, Lee, Dickinson and Ashby (1996) said that:

“From the point of view of day-to-day classroom history teaching, our analysis so far suggests that we need to recognise that quite young children can begin to make sophisticated distinctions and develop powerful intellectual tools. We may need both to match such ideas with greater precision in our teaching objectives, and to increase our awareness of assumptions which hold some children back.” (p.19)

One of the best descriptions of what constitutes good history teaching today is given by Christine Counsell (2004 a) and her characteristics of what make good history teachers are summed up below:

1. They consider learning as highly structured and very risky – (children need all kinds of structures to think at high level – text one minute, picture the next, activity one minute –teachers need time to learn to teach)
 2. They consider variety – (by using many resources to compare sources and interpretations, to access the past and to construct history in different ways)
 3. They value knowledge – (critical thinking and reflection do not mean forgetting the importance of knowledge. We have to connect knowledge and skills)
 4. They establishing a critical, informed and open discipline of history – (by its practises, its processes, its values. This to practice casual reasoning and to construct casual explanation.)
 5. They select the right stuff – (by supplying a framework of thinking about the kinds of questions we ask about the past and the kinds of historical enquiry)
 6. They put emphasis on evidence and interpretation – ((the processes of the discipline) this to establish and examine the truth claims that historians make)
 7. They give joy - (by historical enquiry which establishes curiosity amongst students)
 8. They make possible various encounters to learn all the time – (such as to encounter the other, otherness, the strange and the familiar)
- (p. 18 – 56)

This is a very rewarding, effective but difficult kind of pedagogy of history. A pedagogy that can be very successful when delivered by excellent experienced history teachers but if it is to occur, it has to happen in a subject-centred curriculum and not in an interdisciplinary cross-curriculum one, where the possibility of untrained non- specialist teachers is very high.

As can be seen the debate regarding the nature of history and on the best approach to teach it, is quite complex, so considering how volatile history is, how can this be used to pass across the accepted values of a society? Citizenship is concerned with educating pupils on how to become citizens. But what does that mean? Definitely learning values but whose values? In one society citizenship might mean passing across particular dominant religious values, in another it might be ethnic or cultural values and often the top priority of citizenship is to accept the underlying political values of the time. Pushing forward any one set of values no matter how noble they might be is the antithesis of history education.

I accept what Cajani (2007) said that “on the methodological level, the comparison of controversial interpretations and the analysis of documents, fundamental in history teaching, provide students with essential skills for the exercise of citizenship”(p.7) and indeed I have at times used history teaching to target citizenship (Vella, 2006; Vella, 2013). But one has to be very careful, history pedagogy researchers such as Rosalyn Ashby and Peter Lee never claimed history skills necessarily change a person’s point of view. For example when discussing their findings on children’s understanding and the skill of historic empathy Ashby and Lee (1987) advise against making “simple-minded and grandiose claims – that prejudice against cultures or ethnic groups will be dispelled by empathy exercises in history at school. People’s views are in large part based on material interests, fear, and their social relations with others: the presentation of rational alternatives in education is often almost powerless against all this.” (p.65) I would like to think that Ashby and Lee are not totally correct and there is truth in Cajani’s statement and I personally definitely believe that history teaching can indeed create people that think on a higher level. With the right history teaching one can get pupils to query the source of their information and its reliability, a trait which is very useful for citizens of a democracy however the objective of history can never be, as it is in citizenship, to uphold any one system of government even if that system of government is democracy.

CRITICISM OF THE ‘BENEFITS’ OF AN INTERDISCIPLINARY/CROSS-CURRICULUM APPROACH

History teaching is hard work and requires the right type of pedagogy which is focused and in depth, unfortunately it is very difficult if not impossible to practice this within an interdisciplinary framework which puts pressure on the very elements that make this possible. But perhaps the benefits of an interdisciplinary approach are worth the effort. So what are these benefits?

Morris (1970) as cited in Ingram (1979) argues that integration is an administrative device, a way of organising the timetable to cope with the expansion of knowledge. But should we abandon good practice for logistical reasons?

A stronger argument in favour is that given by Ranke (1968) who said it is child centred and by Kelly (1982) who explained that “demands that the curriculum be made relevant, meaningful and so on have been the most potent factor in the development of the idea of the curriculum integration”(Kelly, p.60). These studies point out that thematic interdisciplinary approaches help pupils to understand day to day life and place learning in a context and they do not compartmentalise a child’s life.

There is a huge assumption behind these arguments that subject-centred curriculum resembles one which is authoritarian and where the teacher is the giver of knowledge and the pupils mere recipients, a method which would fall under an Essentialist philosophy, and one which does not take into consideration the child’s needs and interests. But this is a false assumption, a history teacher can use a constructivist, child centred method in a subject- centred curriculum as exemplified by such brilliant history pedagogy as advocated by the work of numerous history teaching researchers (Nichols, J & Fines.J., 1997; Counsell, C., 2000, 2003, 2004a, 2004b, 2008, 2011; Dickinson, A. 1978, 1984; Lee, P. 1996; Shemilt, D., 1987; Blyth, J. 1995; Phillips, R., 2002) while respected peer reviewed journals on history pedagogy such as *Teaching History* and the *International Journal of Historical Learning, Teaching and Research* continually showcase good practice in history teaching within a subject-centred curriculum.

This assumption that better learning occurs in an interdisciplinary curriculum than in a single-subject one is a very strong one, however there does not seem to be any solid empirical evidence which backs the theory. The only research study on the effectiveness of cross-curricular teaching versus subject teaching I managed to find is a study conducted almost 20 years ago by Yorks and Folio (1993). This study states that students learn better from thematic, interdisciplinary instruction than from a traditional, single-subject curriculum. This conclusion is drawn from testing the engagement rates of 254 students learning social studies, reading and math in a mixed age classroom of 3rd and 4th graders. By observing these rates, it was demonstrated that there was a higher engagement rate during thematic tuition rather than during single-subject lessons. This may be correct, higher engagement may be occurring more in cross curricular activities but this does not necessarily translate in better understanding and learning on the parts of the students. What kind of engagement is really happening?

Is interdisciplinary teaching improving quality of history teaching? It is difficult to say when empirical evidence is missing, however one source of information is the British Education Department, for Britain is one place where integrated approaches have long been advocated and practiced in classrooms. As early as 1967 the Plowden report was praising this method. “Integration is not only a question of allowing time for interests which do not fit under subject headings; it is as much a matter of seeing the different dimensions of subject work and of using the forms of observation and communication which are most suitable to a given sequence of learning” (Plowden Report, p.199).

In Education it takes time before one can see whether a method is producing good results or not, and it was in fact by 1980 that quite unsavoury comments against interdisciplinary teaching methods began surfacing in various reports by school inspectors. One strong criticism was that there was often no organisation of subject matter and teaching was being done in a random way, thoughtful planning in advance was not occurring. The report of the Scottish Education Department (1980) was very unfavourable. It states that less than half the projects seen were of any real significance where learning was concerned and in an article in the Times Educational Supplement ‘projects’ which had become synonymous with integrated thematic teaching were highly criticised. J.Eggleston (1980) argued that topic teaching lacks learning objectives, individual pupil needs are not met and reduces practice to very basic skills. Eight years later T.Yendoll described thematic approaches as “confused thinking, discontinuity, a lack of coherence and progression, suspect classroom organisation, mismatch and weaknesses in assessment and evaluation” (Yendell, 1988 p.39)

More recently Annual Reports of HM Senior Chief Inspectors of Schools reported even more alarming results of ‘hybrid’ integrated courses. In seven of the ten schools visited between 2008 and 2010 in which curriculum changes had been made towards integrated approaches, history, with other foundation subjects, had greatly suffered. For example, as stated in one *Ofsted Report* “a series of themes was created and history teachers were required to make artificial links to them...so the history curriculum lacked coherence and undermined progression”

“schemes of work and lessons were created in which subject specialists had limited or even no input; the result was superficial and simplistic teaching and learning; feedback to students was of limited value because it lacked subject-specific comments about how they might improve”

“the work set was not as challenging as when students were specifically taught history in discrete lessons...with students saying the work was too easy” Ofsted Report (2011)

Worrying reports indeed and ones which shouldn't be ignored if the effective history teaching methods achieved in the last 20 years are not to be lost.

CONCLUSION

Some 14 years ago I was supportive of incorporating history within an interdisciplinary integrated approach (Vella 2000) but the gap between the rhetoric and the practice has long since made me rethink the validity of this method and I advised great caution when it was recommended that history in Malta's New National Curriculum became one of five subjects that make up one subject, that is, Citizenship Education (Vella 2009).

Undoubtedly one of the foremost pioneers and advocates of interdisciplinary approaches is Heidi Hayes Jacobs, an American educational consultant on interdisciplinary methods since the early 1980s, it is interesting that even she detects that there can be a problem. She said “Without a commitment to *when* a skill will be taught, there is no commitment. Furthermore, skills are not taught in a vacuum. They are addressed in application to content, and they are evidenced in a product or performance by the learner” (Hayes Jacobs, 1997, p.4) In explaining the procedures for curriculum mapping Jacobs makes it clear that to be successful a interdisciplinary/cross-curricular method needs to combine content, skills and performance assessment. She gives detailed and complex case studies that build up learning activities step by step in a developmental fashion. But does this happen in our European schools? All experts agree that when implementing such an approaches teaching staff need a lot of support if interdisciplinary approaches are to be successful, unfortunately in many cases there is no guarantee that such support is available. Therefore in the case of history one should proceed with extreme caution when implementing an interdisciplinary cross-curriculum approach, rather than gaining the much hoped for benefits it might in fact prove to be the complete destruction of effective history pedagogy.

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Günümüz Klasik Türk Musikisi Öğretiminde Meşk Yöntemi: Samsun İli Örneği

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Özet

Türk musikisinde meşk sistemi, hoca ve talebesinin, usta-çırak ilişkisi içerisinde birlikte çalışmalarını suretiyle sözlü ve sazlı eserler repertuarının asırlar boyu nesillere intikalini sağlamış bir eğitim ve öğretim metodudur. Bir eserin, çalgının ve musiki icra tekniğinin, hocanın tarz ve üslubu ile öğrenilmesiyle o hocanın “tavır”ının devam etmesini sağlayan meşk yönteminde iki ana unsur bulunmaktadır. Bunlardan birisi defalarca tekrar ettirilmek yoluyla eseri hafızaya naksetmek, diğeri ise usul vurmaktır. 19. asrın ilk çeyreğine kadar Türk musikisi öğretimi bu sisteme dayalı olarak uygulanmış, daha sonraları bazı sakıncalar içerdiği gerekçesiyle nota ile öğretime geçilmiştir. Ancak geleneksel Türk musikisinin nüansları, üslup özellikleri notada gösterilemediğinden meşk usulü tamamen terk edilememiştir. Belli ölçüde tekrar, taklit ve bilhassa usul vurma günümüze değin kullanılagelmiştir. İşte bu şekilde nota destekli meşk yöntemini uygulayan meşkhanelerden biri Samsun’da musikişinas Dr. Turgut Tokaç’ın muayenehanesidir. Bu çalışmada da Samsun örneği üzerinden bu meseleler hakkında bilgi verilecektir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Meşk, Türk musikisi, nota, meşkhane, Samsun

Bundan takriben bir buçuk asır öncesine kadar Klasik Türk musikisi, tarihi seyri itibarıyla sözlü gelenekle kendini üreten, gelişerek varlığını devam ettiren bir sanat olarak var olmuştur (Behar, 2012, s.15). Geleneksel Osmanlı kültürünün temel ayırt edici vasıflarından biri olan “sözlü aktarım/şifahilik”, musiki sanatında *meşk* denilen yöntemi geliştirmiş bulunmaktadır (Güntekin, 2002).

“Yazı örneği”, “yazı alıştırması” anlamında Arapça bir kelime olan meşk; hüsn-i hat sanatında, bir hocanın, talebesine taklit ederek öğrenmesi için verdiği ders ve örnekler hakkında kullanılmıştır (Behar, 2012, s.15; Serin, 2004, s.372). Ancak usta-çırak ilişkisi içerisinde yürütülmesi, taklit ve tekrar üzerine kurulu olması ve uzun bir eğitim sürecini gerektirmesi gibi hat sanatının öğretimine ait önemli özellikleri aynıyla ihtiva ettiği için musiki sanatının eğitim-öğretim metodu olarak da meşk terimi kullanılır olmuştur. Beş yüzyıllık Osmanlı/Türk musikisi öğretim geleneğinde meşk, bir yandan ses ve çalgı öğretimini ve icra tavırlarını şekillendirirken diğeryandan sözlü ve sazlı eserler repertuarının nesiller boyu intikalini ve zamanla yenilenip değişmesini de sağlamıştır (Behar, 2012, s.12).

Musikide bir sözlü eserin meşki şu şekilde yürütülür: Önce geçilecek eserin güftesi talebeye yazdırılır, doğru telaffuzu ve manasının anlaşılması sağlanır. Eserin usulü bellidir ve bu usul birkaç kez vurulur. Öğrenci bu usulü sağ ve sol eliyle dizlerini kudüm farz ederek vurur. Sonra eser usul vurularak hoca tarafından kısım kısım ve bir bütün olarak öğrencinin hafızasına iyice ve eksiksiz yerleşinceye kadar defalarca okunur ve okutturulur. Bu ilk meşkten sonra gelecek derse kadar öğrenciye eseri tekrar etmemesi tembih edilir ki, kendi başına ilave yapıp besteyi bozmasını önlemek için bu uyarı gereklidir. İkinci derste –varsa şayet- yanlışlar ve tereddütler giderilinceye kadar eser tekrar ettirilir ve meşk tamamlanır (Özcan, 2004, s.374).

Bu öğretim tarzında dikkat edilmesi gereken mühim noktalardan biri; *hafızanın*, *ezbere almanın* sisteme egemenliği ve sözlü eserlerin güfte metinleri hariç tutulmak suretiyle meşk süresince yararlanılabilecek hiçbir yazının bulunmayışıdır. Musikimizde beş asır boyunca eserler ancak ve ancak hafıza yoluyla kuşaktan kuşağa aktarılmıştır. Öyle ki bir müzisyenin, sistem içerisinde yeteneğini göstermek zorunda olduğu ilk alan, hafızasındaki eserlerin çokluğu nispetinde meşk ve aktarım zincirlerinde yer alabilmesi olmuştur. Bu yapı içerisinde müzisyenin bestelerinin çokluğu ya da yorum yeteneği ise sonra gelmektedir (Behar, 1987, s.40). Günümüzde bile artık yazının/notanın kullanılmasına rağmen ezberden yapılan bir musiki icrası daha muteber görülür. Zira eserin hafızadan çalınması, besteye uygun yorum ve tavır zenginliğinin de iştirakini mümkün kılmaktadır. Haddizatında yalnız musikide değil, Osmanlı/İslami geleneğe dini ilimleri bir üstdan, onun dizi dibinde hıfz ederek almak önemli ve gereklidir.

Müzik eserlerinin meşkinde meşk edilen eserlerin hafızaya yerleşmesini kolaylaştıran en önemli unsur *usûl vurma*dır. Çünkü her melodi parçası veya sessizlik (es), usûl kalıbının bir yahut birkaç darbına tekabül eder. Usûl vurulduğu zaman ise usûlün düşey dengi olan melodinin hatırlanması ve icrası kolaylaşır (Behar, 2012, ss.20-21). Ayrıca her bir eserin kendine özgü olan usûlü, o eserin adeta organik bir parçası olmaktadır. Eserin melodik yapısının başlangıç ve bitişine, duraklamalarına anlam kazandıran, güftenin arasına noktalama işareti gibi girip ona derinlik katan usûl, meşk için teknik kolaylık sağlamanın yanında icraya da estetiklik kazandırmış olmaktadır (Behar, 2012, s.25).

Bu şekilde yürütülen sözlü eser meşkinde talip bir öğrenci için gerek güfte metni gerekse usûl vurma gibi hafızaya yardımcı unsurlar öğrenime hayli kolaylık sağlamaktadır. Fakat aynı durum enstrüman öğrencisi için geçerli değildir. Bir kere enstrüman öğrencisi, ciddi olarak eser meşk edip kendine hem ses hem de saz eserleri edinmeden evvel enstrümanın yapısından kaynaklanan teknik güçlüklerin asgarisinin üstesinden gelmek, “sazını yenmek” zorundadır. Sonrasında, eser meşkinde hoca tarafından tercih edilen bir saz eseri ile başlayan talebenin, eseri hafızasına almak için başvuracağı yardımcı bir vasıta da yoktur. Takip edebileceği bir nota yazısını zaten meşk sistemi kabul etmezken, melodiye taksim edilen güfte hecelerinin hatırlatıcı işlevinden de sözlü eser olmaması sebebiyle yoksun kalmaktadır. Ayrıca enstrüman talebesinin icra esnasında usûl vurma ise imkansız olmasa bile çok zordur. Dolayısıyla bir saz eseri meşki sözlü eser meşkinden daha uzun, daha zor ve meşakkatli olmaktadır ki bu sebepten 19. yy. sonlarına doğru porteli notanın kullanımının yaygınlaşmasıyla birlikte onu icraya yardımcı olarak ilk kullananlar ses sanatçıları değil saz sanatçıları olmuştur (Behar, 2012, ss.40-43).

Klasik Türk musikisinde meşk sistemi işte bu şekilde, yazısız bir anayasa olarak 19. yüzyıla kadar belirleyici bir disiplin biçiminde varlığını sürdürmüştür. Ancak musiki repertuarımızın nesiller boyu intikali sırasında aktif bir şekilde yazı/nota kullanılmamış olunması kimilerince büyük bir eksiklik olarak görülmüştür. Bu fikrin temel hareket noktasını ise tarih içinde “unutularak kaybedilen eserler” ve sözlü olarak aktarılırken eserlerin orijinalinin sürekli değişikliğe uğrayarak “farklı versiyonların türemesi” meselesi oluşturmaktadır (Güntekin, 2002).

Nota kullanılmamasına yönelik söz konusu eleştirileri meşkten yana taraf olan görüşler bir dönem bertaraf etmişlerdir. Notalı musiki eğitiminin uygulandığı günümüzde de bazı müzisyenler meşkin notasızlığını sistemin kendi karakterinden kaynaklanan bir doğallık olarak görmektedirler. Bu müzisyenlere göre; asırlar boyunca sistematik bir biçimde intikal fonksiyonunu yerine getirmiş, genel kabul görmüş bir meşk kurumu yaşamışsa, sistemin kendisi zaten, eserlerin zamandaki yolculuğunun “değişerek” gerçekleşmesini öngörmüş demektir. Bir başka ifadeyle bu sistem, eserlerin, kuşaklar arasında devredilirken üretilen farklı versiyonlarını peşinen meşru kabul etmiştir (Güntekin, 2002). Aslında bu durumu gelenek açısından olumsuz bir şey gibi değil, hayatiyet ve dinamizm belirtisi olarak görmek gerekir. Kaldı ki çeşitli süslemelerle anlık icra yorumlarına özgürlük hakkı tanınmışsa da eserin iskeleti denebileceği makamı, usûlü, uzunluğu vb. nitelikleri asla değişmediği için orijinal bestenin melodik çizgisi korunmuş olmaktadır (Behar, 2012, s.93).

Öte yandan, şifahi bir kültürde her eser kaybı aynı zamanda bir eser seçimi, eleme ve yenilenme anlamına gelmektedir. Eserin meşk edileceği birisinin bulunamaması, eserin uzun yahut zor olmasından ötürü çok sayıda talebeye meşk edilememesi veya üstadın kişisel seçimi, beğenisi sonucu bir eseri meşk vermektan kaçınması gibi birçok sebepten bazı eserler zamanla unutularak repertuardan çıkmış olabilir (Behar, 2012, s.162). Fakat zaten Osmanlı/Türk musikisi repertuarı zamana karşı en sağlam durabilmiş, klasikleşmiş eserler istisna edildiğinde, sabit bir depo değil, kayıpları kadar yeni eserlerin de sürekli dahil olduğu dinamik bir arşivdir (Behar, 2012, s.169).

Şunu da belirtmek gerekir ki, musikimizde yazıya dökme teşebbüsleri hiç olmamış değildir. Farklı dönemlerde olmak üzere birkaç nota yazısı icad edilmiştir. Hatta Hamparsum denilen bir nota çeşidi uzun bir müddet kullanılmıştır (Behar, 1987, s.25). Buna rağmen musikide ekseriyetle ümmî kalmak tercih edilmiş, notaya da fenn-i musiki düşmanı olarak bakılmıştır (Behar, 1987, s.20). Çünkü özelde nota diyebileceğimiz yazının kullanılacak olması bazı kaygılara yol açmıştır: Her şeyden önce nota, öğrenciyi tembelliğe sevk ederek meşk geleneğinin başlıca unsuru hafızayı köreltecektir. Ayrıca musikimiz, usta-çırak ilişkisi yoluyla repertuar aktarımı boyunca yenilenen zengin üslup zincirlerine, çeşitli musiki icra tekniklerine sahip olmakta iken, öğretim sistemine nota dahil edilip ona bağımlı kalındığında, hoca-öğrenci ya da usta-çırak bağı eskisi kadar kuvvetli olamayacağı gibi eserler icra esnasında nesnelleşecektir (Behar, 2012, s.188). Böylece bir musiki icrasında yapılabilecek yorumlar sınırlanmış olacak ve üslup zenginliği kaybolacaktır. Oysa eseri bir fem-i muhsinden defalarca dinleyerek hocanın icra üslubunu, tavrını kapmak ve zamanla, o eser üzerinde dönemin sanatsal zevkleriyle uyumlu, kendi ruh dünyasını da yansıtacak yeni bir tavır geliştirmek meşk sisteminin önemli özelliklerinden biridir (Gerçek, 2008).

Notaya karşı bu geleneksel direnişe rağmen, 19. yy. sonlarına doğru meşk sistemine yönelik eleştirel sesler giderek yükselmiş, musiki öğretiminde notanın sağlayacağı faydalardan artık mahrum kalınmaması gerektiğine dair kanaat baskın gelmiştir. O dönemdeki yaygın Batılılaşma hareketinin de tesiriyle Avrupa’nın porteli nota

düzeni benimseyerek meşk sistemi içerisine kaynaştırılmıştır. İfadeden anlaşılacağı üzere meşk usûlü tamamen ortadan kaldırılmadan, nota yalnızca takviye edilmiştir. Zira sistemi eleştirenlerin kendileri dahi temelde bu usûlün devam etmesi gerektiğini kabul etmekte ve istemektedirler (Behar, 2012, s.182). Çünkü musiki, tabiatı icabı bir kulak işidir, nağmeleri bütün nüanslarıyla işitmek, dinlemek lazımdır. Nota yazısı ise eserin tüm inceliklerini barındıramayacağı için yalnızca yardımcı bir unsur olabilir. Fakat asla eserin kendisi değildir (Behar, 2012, ss.118-119). İşte bu anlayıştan hareketle bazı musiki ustaları, notadan faydalanmaya başlamakla birlikte günümüze kadar meşk sistemini kısmen de olsa öğretimde uygulaya gelmişlerdir (Özcan, 2004, s.374). Bu üstadlardan biri de çalışmamda konu edindiğim Dr. Turgut Tokaç'tır (d. 24 Nisan 1942, Çakmak, Ünye). Dr. Turgut Tokaç, musiki öğretiminde geleneksel meşk ile notalı yeni öğretim yöntemi arasında orta yolu benimsemiş bir müzisyendir.

Emekli albay hekim olan Turgut Tokaç, Samsun şehrinin tanınmış Klasik Türk musikisi hocası, neyzen ve bestekârdır. Dr. Tokaç, İstanbul'daki eğitim hayatı esnasında emekli yarbay, eczacı ve İstanbul Yüksek İslam Enstitüsü dini musiki hocası, neyzen, bestekâr, Halil Can başta olmak üzere, dönemin önde gelen müzisyenleri ile tanışmış, özellikle hocası Halil Can'dan ney ve musiki nazariyatı konusunda çokça faydalanmıştır. Kendisi de, fakülteden mezuniyetinden sonra doktor olarak Anadolu'yu dolaşmaya başlayınca, her gittiği yerde yüzlerce musikiye bağlı kişiler yetiştirmiştir. Yine görevi icabı gittiği Samsun'da ise uzun süre kalıp yerleşen Dr. Tokaç, bu şehri Türkiye çapında Klasik Türk musikisi alanında önemli merkezlerden biri konumuna getirmede çok önemli katkılarda bulunmuştur.

Dr. Tokaç, Samsun'da hem Belediye Konservatuarı'nda hem de kendi özel muayenehanesinde özellikle ney meşklerini 1977'den beri sürdürmüştür. Ayrıca 1985-1995 yılları arasında on yıl süreyle Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi'nde, rektörlüğün isteği ve valiliğin tasvibiyle din musikisi eğitimi vermek üzere öğretim görevlisi olarak çalışmıştır (SD Dergi, 2009). Ancak bu resmî eğitim kurumları haricinde kesintisiz olarak musiki eğitim ve öğretimini uyguladığı tek mekan, onun özel muayenehanesidir. Bu sebeple muayenehanesinin bir bölümünü tamamen musikiye hasrederek bir meşkhane şeklinde düzenlemiştir. Meşkhanesinde, Türk musikisine dair çok sayıda dergi, kitap, ses kayıtları, nota arşivi, çoğu kendi yapımı neyler, usûl/ritm aletleri (kudüm, bendir, daire, zil gibi), başka klasik Türk musikisi sazları ve diğer birçok şey bulunmaktadır. Dr. Tokaç, bu muayenehanede hastası geldiğinde ayrı bir muayene odasında onun tedavisiyle ilgilenmekte, diğer zamanlarda ise musikiyle meşgul olup, öğrencilerine meşk vermektedir. Bu şekilde bir muayenehanenin ya da herhangi bir mekanın aynı zamanda meşk için de kullanılması, Osmanlı dönemindeki uygulamada da mevcuttur. O dönemde musiki öğretimi saray, ev, konak, cami, tekke, kahvehane gibi mekanlarda yapılmaktadır. Bu mekanlar haricinde musiki meşkine ait hususi mekanların olmaması ise şöyle açıklanabilir: Osmanlı kentlerinde musikişinasların büyük çoğunluğu, musiki konusunda bir meslek erbabı değil, bir uzman niteliği taşımışlardır. Asıl meslekleri ya da geçim kaynakları başka olmuştur. Mesela bir musikişinas aslında bir hekim, şeyhülislam veya tarikat ehli, taşçı, çömlekçi yahut bir padişahdır. Bugünkü gibi konservatuarlar, korolar vb. kurumlar olmadığından sadece musikiyle uğraşıp geçimini musikiyle sağlayan icracı, hoca ve besteciler ise azınlık olarak kalmıştır (Behar, 2012, ss.66-67). Böyle olunca da bir musiki meşki için kullanılan mekan, neyzen Dr. Tokaç'ın muayenehanesi örneğinde olduğu gibi hocanın mesleğine göre cami, tekke, ev, saray vb. yerler olmuştur.

Bu duruma paralel olarak dönemin musikişinası, geçim sıkıntısı gibi istisnaî haller dışında, musiki meşki için hiçbir maddî ücret de kabul etmemiştir. Zira meşk vermek sanatın zekatından sayılmıştır. Hatta bazı çalgıların – bilhassa ney'in- meşkinde maddî çıkar beklentisi özellikle ayıp ve edebe aykırı görülmüştür (Behar, 2012, ss.69-71). Bu anlayışa neyzenler arasında bugün dahi rastlamak mümkündür ki Dr. Tokaç bu neyzenlerden bir tanesidir. Kendisi de bu âdet ve gelenek üzere musiki eğitimi almış olan neyzen Dr. Tokaç, muayenehanesine gelen hiçbir öğrenciden ücret kabul etmemektedir. Onun öğrencilerden tek beklentisi, emeklerin zayi olmaması adına sabırla, gayretle istikrarlı bir çalışmadır. Zira musiki yetenekle ilgili olsa bile devamlı çaba göstermeyi de gerektiren bir sanattır. Hele ki enstrüman öğrencisi için daha fazla ilgi ve alaka söz konusudur. Çünkü daha önce de bahsedildiği gibi herhangi bir sözlü ya da sazlı esere başlayabilmesi için öğrencinin, enstrümanını belli oranda çalabilmesi gerekir. Bu kıvama da ancak onunla sürekli meşgul olarak gelebilir. Özellikle enstrümanın tekniğini kavrama döneminde gereken ihtimam ve özen gösterilmeyip, çalışmaya uzun aralar verildiğinde ise, genellikle musiki hocalarının tabiriyle *sazın küsmesi* durumuyla karşılaşılır. Bu da enstrümanda/sazda ulaşılan aşamayı kaybetmek, gerilemek ve dolayısıyla ilerleme yönünde gereksiz zaman kaybı demektir.

Meşk usûlünde hocalar meşke kabul edecekleri öğrencilerde musiki kabiliyeti yanında, sabır, istek, istikrar, saygı, tevazu, sadakat vb. nitelikler de aramışlardır. Usta-çırak ilişkisi içerisinde ilerleyecek olan zorlu, uzun bir meşk süreci için bu özellikleri taşıyor olmak önemlidir. Mesela bazı eserleri geçmek bazen haftalar hatta aylar alabilecektir ve bu esnada öğrencinin, hocasının sözünden çıkmadan derslere devam edebilmesi beklenmektedir. Geçmişte bazı hocaların uzun uğraşlara rağmen musiki kabiliyeti veya bu gibi niteliklerin eksikliğinden ötürü pek fazla ilerleme kaydedemeyen öğrencilerin meşkine son verdikleri bilinmektedir (Behar, 2012, ss.58-59).

Dr. Tokaç üstadın bu husustaki tavrı ise şöyledir: Kendisine daha çok ney yahut ud çalmayı öğrenmek için gelen talebelerin ne işle meşgul olduklarını sorarak musikiye gerekli vakti ayırıp ayıramayacaklarını tahmin eder. Söz gelimi talep eden kişi üniversiteye hazırlık gibi Türkiye’de hayli önem arz eden bir dönemde ise, bu yoğun dönemi atlattıktan sonra gelmesinin daha iyi olacağını, çünkü bu eğitimin anlık heves değil ciddi gayret ve zaman istediğini belirtir. Sonrasında öğrenmek istediği enstrümanı tanıtır; ney ve udun, geçici olup sanatsal değer taşımayan pop, arabesk vb. müzik türlerinin değil, ancak klasik yahut klasik olabilecek nitelikte bestelenen eserleri ihtiva eden Türk musikisinin enstrümanı olduğunu, bunun haricinde kullanılmaması gerektiğini anlatır. Böylelikle istekli görünen kişinin, kendi içinde gerçekten isteyip istemediğine dair muhasebe yapmasını sağlar. Talebe eğer başlamaya karar verirse, haftanın belirli bir gününde, ilerlemiş olan öğrencilerle birlikte toplu olarak yapılan fasla yaklaşık bir ay kadar yalnızca dinleyici olarak katılmasını ister ve hoca için aslında o andan itibaren ders başlamaktadır. Bu ilk dersle de öğrencinin ne kadar istekli olduğunu, sabrını ölçmektedir. Nihai olarak Tokaç Hoca, işin başında önemli açıklama ve uyarıları yaptıktan sonra gerekli musiki kabiliyeti ve başta bahsedilen vasıfların eksikliği nedeniyle öğrenciye ders vermeyi reddetme gereği duymamaktadır, çünkü bu tip zayıf öğrencilerin, bir zaman sonra işin zorluğunu, zahmetini anladıklarında kendi istekleriyle dersi bırakacaklarının farkındadır.

Neyzen Dr. Tokaç’ın, ney enstrümanını öğrenmek için gelen öğrencileri çoğunlukta olmakla birlikte ud için gelen talebeleri de hayli fazladır. Hoca, öğrencisine evvela enstrümanı çalma tekniğini öğretmektedir. Öğrenci enstrümanına gerekli ölçüde alışıp düzgün ve pürüzsüz sesler çıkartana kadar herhangi bir esere başlatmaz. Ancak kısa nota alıştırmaları yaptırarak hem nota okuyabilmesini yani solfeji hem de enstrümanda notaların yerlerini göstermektedir. Belli bir mertebeye gelebildiğinde ise basit düzeyde olan bir saz eserinin notasını öğrencinin önüne getirir ve o nota kağıdında bulunan yazı ve işaretlerin ne anlama geldiğini açıklar. Her Türk musikisi notasında eserin çeşitli usüller arasından hangisiyle çalınacağı belirtilmiştir. Daha önce de ifade ettiğimiz gibi melodiler, nağmeler bu usul darplarının üzerine giydirilmektedir ve bir Türk musikisi eseri bu şekilde bestelenmektedir. Hoca evvela iki tokmaklı bir usul aleti olan kudümde esere ait usulün vuruluşunu gösterir. Öğrencisine de elleriyle dizlerine vurmak suretiyle aynısını taklit ettirir. Öğrenci defalarca şaşırmadan vurmaya alıştıktan sonra bu kez, eserin notasının bir kısmını okuyarak usulün vuruluşunu gösterir ve doğru düzgün okuyabilinceye kadar tekrar ettirir. (Sözlü bir eser olduğunda ise, buna ilaveten, yine usul vurulmak suretiyle eserin güftesini okur ve okutturur). Bu şekilde eserin okunan kısmı öğrencinin kulağına iyice yerleştikten sonra artık enstrümana (ney/ud) geçiş yapılır. Eserin çalışılan kısmını hoca kendisi çaldıktan sonra aynı şekilde öğrencinin de taklit etmesini ister. Bu şekilde kısım kısım eserin bütünü öğrenciye çaldırır ve bir dahaki derste öğrenciden bu eserin usulünü vurarak solfej yapmasını ve enstrümanı çalmasını bekler. Öğrencinin bu eseri kavradığına kanaat getirilmeden de ikinci bir esere asla geçiş yaptırmaz.

Bu musiki meşkinin neticesinde öğrenciye herhangi bir sertifika verilmemektedir. Geleneksel meşkte de olduğu gibi musiki eğitiminin sonu yoktur haddizatında. Öğrenci beklenen bir seviyeye geldiğinde Tokaç Hoca bunu ifade etmekte ve bir nevi asistanı gibi beraberinde musiki icra etmek üzere bazı programlara götürmektedir. Yani sertifika denilen şey, Tokaç Hoca’nın öğrencisinden memnuniyetini ifadesidir bir nevi.

Görüldüğü gibi Tokaç Hoca, geleneksel meşkin ve tabii musikimizin önemli bir unsuru olan *usul vurmaya* aynı şekilde devam ettirmektedir. Ancak bunun yanında yazıyı/notayı da aktif bir şekilde kullanmakta ve öğretmektedir. Notaya oldukça önem veren Tokaç Hoca, kendi notalarına, o notaların ait oldukları eserlerin geçildiği tarihi atar ve öğrencilerine de bunu alışkanlık haline getirmelerini öğütler. Böylelikle kendisi, notayı, musiki sanatının olmazsa olmazı niteliğindeki yazılı bir belge olarak gören müzisyenlerden olmakla birlikte içinde bulunduğu dönem de, nota hakkında olumsuz kanaatlerin geride bırakıldığı, daha çok faydaları üzerinde yoğunlaşıldığı bir zaman dilimidir. Artık nota, musiki eğitim ve öğretimini eski sisteme nazaran kolaylaştırdığı gibi unutmaya ya da şaşırma gibi durumlarda imdada yetişip eserin doğru çalınabilmesini garantilemektedir. Ayrıca günümüzün kalabalıklaşmış saz heyetinin, icra esnasında noktası virgülüne aynı şeyi çalmasını disipline ederek, bir nevi koordinasyon işlevi görmektedir (Behar, 2012, ss.182-183).

Tokaç Hoca’nın uyguladığı bu öğretim yöntemi sayesinde nota kullanımından kaynaklanabilecek evvelce bahsedilmiş bazı olumsuzluklar nispeten giderilmiş olmaktadır. Şöyle ki; her ne kadar nota, musiki derslerinin vazgeçilmezi olsa da, usul ve adabıyla meşk edilip iyice hazmedilmeden öğrenilmiş bir eserin icrasının hatalı, yetersiz, ruhsuz olacağı inancı yine temelde yer almaktadır. Birçok müzisyenin tartışmasız kabul ettiği, ezberden icranın, notaya bağımlı kalarak yapılan icradan üstünlüğü yargısını Dr. Tokaç Hoca derslerinde yeri geldikçe vurgulamaktadır. Dolayısıyla Hoca’nın öğrencileri geçtikleri eserlerin önemli bir kısmını ezberden icra edebilecek seviyeye gelebilmektedir.

Ayrıca daha önce de bahsi geçtiği gibi musiki bir kulak meselesidir ve notalardaki işaretler musiki nağmelerini gerçek anlamıyla göstermeye yetmez. Bu sebeple nota bilinse dahi daima bir fem-i muhsinden dinleyerek musikimizin inceliklerinin elde edilebilmesi gerekir. Bu bilinç üzerine yürütülen bir musiki öğretim faaliyetinde ise hoca ile öğrenci arasındaki bağ zannedilenin aksine zayıflamayacaktır. İşte neyzen Dr. Tokaç

Hoca'nın derslerinde de bu özellik fark edilebilmektedir. Zira onun öğrencileri haftada en az bir kez derse gelmelidir ki üslup, icra tavrı gibi yetenekler gelişebilsin. Kaldı ki Dr. Turgut Hoca'nın muayenehanesine düzenli devam eden öğrenciler, yalnızca musiki dersleri değil, kitaplarda kolayca bulunamayacak olan kendisine ait önemli tecrübeleri, geçilen eser güftelerinin manalarını, bestekarlarına dair hikayeleri de bizzat Hoca'dan dinleme fırsatı bulabilmektedirler. Derslerin genellikle böyle sohbet havasında geçmesi ise öğrencilerin ilgisini daha çok çektiği için onları, neredeyse her gün muayenehaneye gitmeye sevk etmektedir.

Böylelikle genel hatlarıyla bilgi vermeye çalıştığımız Dr. Tokaç'ın musiki eğitim ve öğretim metodu, nota ile meşkin sentezlenmiş bir biçimdir. Nota okuma yani solfejle birlikte geleneksel meşkin ana unsurlarında bahsettiğimiz, her eseri hafızaya alarak ilerleme bu methoda uzun olmayan eserler için geçerli olabilmektedir. Usûl vurma ise aynı şekilde devam etmektedir. Diğer benzer yönler de göz önünde bulundurulduğunda neyzen Dr. Tokaç sayesinde günümüzde meşkin hala bir ölçüde canlı tutulduğu açıkça görülmektedir.

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Using Technology and Media Education to Enhance Learning and Teaching in KS2

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^a

Abstract

The aim of my research is to use technology and Media Education to enhance learning and teaching in KS2 and this work is part of a post graduated course in Education, at Bishop Grosseteste University, Lincoln, UK.

My study aims to answer three questions: Media-Education: what does it mean? Why technology resources and media should be used in school? Teaching and learning: with media or through media? In order to answer these three questions, I have researched various authors related to this topic.

To develop my work I had also visited some schools in the UK to observe how they dealt with technology and media and had compared with my practice as a teacher in an international school in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Nowadays the use of technology should be part of the curriculum and it must be used in schools as an important way not only to increase the quality of teaching and learning process but also to develop children's independence.

As a result, I tried to provide a critical evaluation of my observations in order to discuss and relate it to my research and to my school practice. Finally, I proposed proactive ways forward in my school practice, implementing the use of a blog in an year three class, to try to enhance learning and teaching in KS2 in the school I work in Brazil.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

We are living in a world where technology is present in everyday life. From withdrawing money in a bank to watch the news on TV, we are facing the changes and impacts that it brings to our lives. The school could not stay out of these changes and many classrooms had been transformed, from privileged spaces for the reading of literary texts, to multimedia spaces, where the use of information and communication technology had achieved great importance.

But, according to some authors, why technology resources and Media should be used in school?

This question takes place because in our time the young people are gleaning even more information from media than from books, and we need to discuss it and encourage schools to use media on a daily basis.

The dizzying revolution that is occurring in the so-called information and communication technologies (ICTs) in the last century and beginning of this has changed society. To absorb, follow and enjoy these revolutions, people have started to organise, produce and entertain themselves in different ways. There have been changes in all levels, including social, economic, cultural...

This technological revolution had also altered the level of communication around the world. Nowadays, it is almost possible to know what happens in the world in near real time and to talk and even to see people who are very distant from us. The physical boundaries have been easily transposed with the advent of the internet, of the webcams and of programs such as Skype, for example.

Particularly regarding media and its messages, the idea that every child is entitled to an education on Media has already spread. The UNO Convention on the Rights of Children and Youth, (1989: article 13) gives the child the right of freedom expression, including the freedom to seek, receive and impart information of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either, oral, written or printed. Furthermore, research, conferences and seminars that involve media and Education have contributed to this idea that an oriented Media Education is necessary and urgent nowadays.

With so many changes, the school must revise its role. As a social institution responsible for the formal education of individuals, this space has also changed over time, or at least should be changing. The teaching and

learning are different from other times, with a particular concern regarding the formation of a new type of individual and worker required by this new information and communication society. Today, it is expected that the school form individuals endowed with different technical skills, able to work in a cooperative, flexible and adaptable to a wide range of situations, and especially capable of learning to learn.

The school as a place where individuals spend much of their time and as the responsible for the formation of identities and subjectivities cannot leave out of their practice an education for information and communication. Beyond that, we are talking about culture and the school is, par excellence, the place of social transmission of this legacy.

The school is characterised to transmit the written culture and to appreciate the book as a major means of communication and cultural transmission. However, with the booming advancement of technology and its entry in people's lives, the idea that the school works with these different ways of communication became essential. The communication and messaging no longer has its main source in the books, it started to involve a visual language more than a verbal one. With this, we do not want to say that the school should abandon the books and act only on practices that use new technologies, but it should open their doors to something that is already part of students' lives outside the educational environment. As Buckingham says (2003:35) "Literacy today, it is argued, is inevitably and necessarily, **multimedia** Literacy ..." (emphasis added by the author)

In this work I hope to answer, after all the research and observations, two more questions:

- 1) Media-Education: what does it mean?
- 2) Teaching and learning: with media or through media?

Besides that, I will discuss the use of a blog in KS2 and how it could promote learning.

MEDIA EDUCATION: WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

I believe that discussing the concept of Media Education is really important, so the reader could have a glimpse of its meaning and importance nowadays. I decided to use the media-education proposal defended by David Buckingham, who is a known English author and researcher in the area, as an important statement and guide for my research. According to Buckingham "Media education is a concept of education for critical and reflective aspects of media, including not only their analysis and interpretation, but its production." (2003:10).

The term Media Education comes from the researchers who are in the field of intersection between the areas of communication and education, in an attempt to better define its subject and its field. World organizations like UNO and UNESCO tried to disclose the term Media Education through official documents (UNO Convention on the Rights of Child and Youth, 1989 and UNESCO, 1984) and meetings with experts in the field, which not only spread the concept, but also concrete experiences that were being held in different countries.

Media Education would then be the process of teaching and learning from/through media, which should never be confused by teaching with media. The difference in the use of the words may seem subtle at first, but looking at it more carefully, we realize how important this idea is. In regards to the studied authors, teaching with media is related to practices using media as technological tools, or even just using them to illustrate certain content, which is very different from a media educational practice. Media Education should never be confused with educational technology. It includes these features, but it exceeds them, to the extent that it aims the development of something else, which would be in this case production and processing.

Regarding Media Education, we have to be focused in working with the students in a way they can use it for express themselves in an independent and critical way. They should be able to use the media language as a way to express ideas and feelings as well as to "read" and "write" it. These would bring major benefits for teaching and learning because the study would be more interesting and creative, rich in details and images, and also closer to the culture of the students, besides enabling them living with the technologies of communication and information, key issue in our contemporary world.

Buckingham specifically tells us about "Media Literacy" (2003:4) and defines its characteristics, as the necessary ones to involve the essential skills and abilities to any process of Literacy - reading and writing.

Since reading involves understanding of what is read and a critical judgment about it, and writing involves an effective production of something, the students involved in a Media Educational practice should be held to "read and write" media, in order to understand in a critical way what is seen, heard or read, as well as actively participate in its production. It's a dual path, where those who can consume, should also produce. This aspect has sometimes been neglected by people who restrict themselves to the process of "reading" media, leaving the "writing" aside. Importantly, it is not only to provide skills and competencies to use technically certain medias, but the knowledge to interpret them, including analysis, evaluation and critical reflection.

Therefore, Media Education could be a rich resource to promote student's independence and students who will develop the ability for enquiry and critical evaluation. Essentially in using Media Education as a way to

promote independence, teachers could encourage and enable students to become self directing in their own learning experiences and to have more autonomy and control over their learning.

TEACHING AND LEARNING: WITH MEDIA OR THROUGH MEDIA?

I have decided for this question because I believe it is important to explain to the readers how technology and media have been used in schools. According to Belloni (2001), we would basically have two aspects in regards to the accomplished work with media and technology in schools: the first one – with media - linked with the proposal of educational technology, where students would use the equipment such as electronic tools. The second one – from/through media - linked with an education focused on the communicative aspects of the media, beyond the possibilities of assigning meanings and new sensitivities generated by them, the so called Media Education.

With respect to the first usage mode, the technological resources would be used within schools only as a pedagogical tool, as a teaching material. This use of Media and technology in schools has been part of the educational process for a longtime and it is very common all over the world.

With respect to the second mode of use, the Italian researcher Pier Cesare Rivoltella (2004) indicates in his Studies, in the field of Media Education, three action points:

- 1) An education for Media, that would be an attempt to develop critical analysis of the contents found in the Media with the students;
- 2) An education with Media, which would represent the use of Media as a pedagogical tool, as a teaching material;
- 3) An education from/through Media, that would be a proposal based on mastery of languages and codes present in the Media processes, enabling the students to communicate through Media, playing an active role in this process.

Therefore, nowadays, it would be important that technology and Media were regarded and used within the school Media Educational perspective, aiming to a social transformation. Thereby, the objectives of working with this proposal would be: the formation of critical and creative users that more than just viewers could use different technologies as means of expression; democratization, education for citizenship, and the expansion of languages, enabling the resumption of the school as a center of knowledge.

USING A BLOG TO PROMOTE LEARNING, TEACHING AND INDEPENDENCE

In order to establish good strategies in using technology and a blog to encourage student's independence in KS2, I decided to focus on finding out more about how to use a blog and how technology could promote independence as a starting point. It is important to mention that the use of blogs has always intrigued me, but I never got around to actually having one, until this project.

Basically, a "blog" is a website where an individual writes entries in a chronological order, which are displayed in reverse chronological order. The term "blog" can also be used as a verb, meaning to add content to a blog. Blogs have a variety of uses and objectives. They can provide commentary on a specific subject or serve as a personal, online journal. Most blogs combine text, images, and links to other blogs, websites, and related media. Moreover, blogs provide their readers with the capacity to leave comments and remarks.

First of all I tried to create a classroom atmosphere in which children feel comfortable and secure. As my school does not have any tradition in using blogs in KS2 this may be the child's first experience of using it in school. The idea is to have a place where they can express themselves in a fun and dynamic way, using an appropriate language for them.

Besides that, being responsible for their entries and comments in the blog could show them that they should act with responsibility in other areas as well, helping to promote an independent and confident environment.

After observing my year group for more than one month, I decided to implement the use of the blog with my 21 students – 10 boys and 11 girls. Based on my study visit in England and also in my literature review I got some interesting ideas, which I believe would help me to achieve my objectives implementing the use of the blog in my classroom.

I took about three lessons, of 50 minutes each, to explain the students how the blog would work. We discussed about some possible topics, about the possibility of its use by home and about the participation of other students and of people from outside the school. It was decided that only students from the school and parents would be able to comment in the blog and that I would moderate every comment. It was also decided

that at least once a week we would go to the ICT lab to post comments in the blog, but every time the children wanted to they could use it (during playtime, from home or using the laptops when they were available in class).

As part of the school vision and philosophy, the head of section informed the parents about the blog, by a note sent home, and asked for their authorization regarding the children participating in the project. All the parents had agreed.

To encourage children in this new experience, I suggested as a first target, that the initial topic of the blog should be a self-presentation, where they should write about them and about their preferences. With this first step I could notice which children were more familiar with the use of technology and how they behave and work in a different environment from the classroom.

The children asked many questions and were really excited with the possibility of having a blog. Some of them were very familiar with the use of computers and others needed help. This first activity showed me how children can be supportive with their friends and how some of the students feel more comfortable and confident when working in pairs.

According to Race (1994), regarding motivation, it is important to say that if students have sufficient motivation (want) to learn they will take on responsibility for learning independently.

Independent learning also depends on learning by doing. Students need to do things with the materials to get their learning under way and ensure them the sort of practice that will help their learning to be successful.

It is also important to value feedback. It means that students need to know how their learning is going, so they can improve even more their knowledge or choose a different way to follow.

The use of the blog as well as other activities using technology, such as the use of the smart board, and the use of the laptops, revealed how students can take active part of their learning process as well as participate lively in the activities proposed. According to Mouza (2008), technologic tools help teachers to create authentic learning environments, which are meaningful to students. Project-based learning activities engage students in complex tasks rather than recitation or drill. He found students using laptops acquired a sense of pride and empowerment. They displayed increased intrinsic motivation and persistence in completing schoolwork and often went beyond the requirements of assignments, therefore improving the quality of the finished product they turned in. I had the opportunity to use laptops in my classroom, which, for me, was really useful because they allow students and teachers to be most free than when using an ICT lab. The laptops give us an excellent opportunity to start something, stop, discuss, and restart it with new ideas. Moreover, it promotes independence and respects each child's pace. As the laptops were available in the classroom, every time a child had finished a task, he/she could get the laptop and blog. The use of the laptop also contributes to everybody starts from where they had previous stopped.

Another aspect that has to be mentioned is the writing of the children. Technology has proven to be an efficient tool not only to raise the children's interest and motivation but also to enhance children's writing and to promote writing opportunities through the use of fun activities. However, it is important to say that a good result depends not only of the use of technology but on a carefully planned lesson that combines a well-structured writing session with this use. Bennett (2004:42) suggests in his book some ICT-based activities that offer considerable potential for the development of children's writing abilities. Some of these ideas include:

- Using drill and practice programs to enhance specific writing skills and knowledge, such as punctuation and spelling;
- Using specific programs to reinforce correct letter formation;
- Communicating electronically with others via e-mail, web-chat etc.
- Using ICT tools to assist with the writing process.

In England, I could see teachers using technology very wisely through the use of films, animation, internet and different softwares combined with a well-planned writing lesson.

With the blog experience it was evident for me that the children were much more careful about their writing and trying to improve it, as it would not only be shown to their teacher but to their parents and friends. Aspects as spelling, use of capital letters and punctuation were taken into consideration by them and improved a lot.

It became clear to me that with the use of technology together with a well-structured writing lesson, a teacher can not only enhance the quality of writing, but also engage every single child in the proposed activities. Finally, I could say that it was visible for me the motivation and engagement of all pupils in class activities. The use of technology and media educational practices could then be a powerful tool for developing learning and promoting independence.

FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

I could see it is really important to show consistency working with children. The routines and teacher actions as models support children to act independently and reinforce responsibility. By analyzing the difference of culture associated with the way technology and media is used, I had a better understanding after visiting some schools in the UK and comparing my work in Brazil. The cultural difference affects the way we act, we behave, we think and the manner in which we expect things.

In my opinion, not only the use of the blog but the use of smart boards, laptops and any other kind of technology could show me how different resources can be used to encourage independence and motivate children to enhance their learning and take active part on it. This is a very important issue that came out during my practice throughout this year: children need to be part of the planning process. As stated by Collette Drifte, the children need to:

- Understand the importance of information;
- express their feelings;
- participate in discussions;
- indicate their choices.

During my experience using the blog, these issues above sustained my practice and provide me that even young kids have appropriate and significant information about themselves and their vision of their situation. I gave them the information and support needed, I offered a supportive environment. I listened to them.

Once again I see I could promote an environment where children could work independently, feeling that they have some control over their learning. Besides that, it is vital to say that, motivated, children enhance their learning especially regarding their writing skills.

I can conclude that the use of the blog and the good practices I saw in England, regarding the use of technology in the classrooms, are able to enhance teaching and learning.

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Okul Öncesi Öğretmen Adaylarının Mesleki Kaygıları

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Özet

Son yıllarda bütün sektörlerdeki değişim ve gelişimler, eğitimle ilgili konularda da zorunlu dönüşümlere neden olmuştur. Bu dönüşümler öğretmen adaylarını da etkilemiş, baş döndürücü ilerlemelere uyum sağlama konusunda onları çeşitli mesleki kaygılara itmiştir. Bu kaygıların meslek öncesinde tespit edilmesi ve Eğitim Fakültelerindeki öğrenme-öğretme sürecinin bu kaygılar dikkate alınarak şekillenmesi, eğitim sistemine daha donanımlı ve kaliteli öğretmenlerin girmesini sağlayacaktır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalında eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) öğretmen adayları oluşturmuştur. Araştırmanın verileri öğretmen adaylarıyla yapılan görüşme formu ile elde edilmiştir. Görüşme formunda öğretmen adaylarına 5 açık uçlu soru, ayrıca bazı demografik bilgileri (sınıf, cinsiyet, mezun olduğu lise, not ortalaması, öğretmenlik mesleğini ve branşını isteyerek seçip seçmediği, vb.) sorulmuştur. Araştırma nitel bir araştırma olup 269 öğretmen adayının sorulara verdikleri cevaplar betimsel analiz yöntemiyle analiz edilip yorumlanmıştır. Araştırmanın analizi sonucunda; öğretmen adaylarının % 49.8'inin sınıf yönetimi; % 46.1'inin veli iletişimi; % 26.8'inin çocuklarla iletişim; % 61'inin çocukların okula oryantasyonu ve % 43.9'unun çocukların bakımları konularında kaygılarının olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Okul Öncesi Eğitim, Öğretmen Eğitimi, Mesleki Kaygı

GİRİŞ

Araştırmalar öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine dair çeşitli kaygıları olduğunu göstermektedir. Son yıllarda bütün sektörlerdeki değişim ve gelişimler, eğitimle ilgili konularda da zorunlu dönüşümlere neden olmuştur. Bu dönüşümler öğretmen adaylarını da etkilemiş, bu ilerlemelere uyum sağlama konusunda onları çeşitli mesleki kaygılara itmiştir. Öğretmen adayları mesleğe başladıklarında verecekleri eğitimin daha sağlıklı olabilmesi için bu kaygıların meslek öncesinde tespit edilmesi önemlidir. Ayrıca Eğitim Fakültelerindeki öğrenme-öğretme sürecinin bu kaygılar dikkate alınarak şekillenmesi, eğitim sistemine daha donanımlı ve kaliteli öğretmenlerin girmesini sağlayacaktır.

Hızlı gelişim ve değişimin yaşandığı günümüzde tüm ulusların en büyük çabası, bu değişim sürecine ayak uydurabilecek yeterlilikte donatılmış, nitelikli bireyler yetiştirmektir. Bu amacı gerçekleştirmede en etkili araç eğitimidir ve öğretmenler bu etkili aracın önemli bir ögesini oluşturur. Öğretmenlik mesleğini yapan kişilerin kendilerinden beklenen sorumlulukları istenilen düzeyde yerine getirebilmeleri ve başarılı olabilmeleri, önemli ölçüde öğretmenlerin sahip oldukları niteliklere bağlıdır. Öğretmen olacak kişilerinde nitelik ve yeterlilikleri kişisel özellikleri ile ilgili olduğu kadar öğretmen adaylarına sunulan eğitim programları ve eğitim ortamları ile de ilişkili olabilir. (Aydın ve Tekneci. 2013: 2)

Okul öncesi eğitim; çocuğun doğduğu günden temel eğitime başladığı güne kadar geçen 0-6 yaş arasındaki dönemi kapsar. Çocukların daha sonraki yaşamlarında çok önemli bir yeri olan; bedensel, motor, sosyal-duygusal, zihinsel ve dil gelişimlerinin büyük ölçüde tamamlandığı, bu doğrultuda kişiliğin şekillendiği gelişim ve eğitim süreci olarak tanımlanabilir. (MEB, 2013)

Çocukların keşfetmek ve öğrenmek için doğal bir eğilimleri vardır. Öğrenme çok erken yaşlarda başlar ve hayat boyu devam eder. Çocuklar dünyaya geldikleri ilk andan itibaren, daha okula başlamadan çok önce öğrenmek ve keşfetmek için büyük bir heves duyarlar. Etkin bir şekilde çevrelerini keşfederler, iletişim kurmayı öğrenirler ve çevrelerinde gördükleri şeylere dair fikirler oluşturmaya başlarlar. (MEB, 2013)

Okul öncesi eğitim süresince çocuklar ilköğretime hazırlanırken, paylaşmayı, dayanışmayı, sosyalleşmeyi ve birlikte çalışmayı öğrenirler. Bu dönemde uygun fiziksel ve sosyal çevre koşullarında ve sağlıklı etkileşim ortamında yetişen çocuklar, daha hızlı ve başarılı bir gelişim gösterirler. Bu ortamların oluşabilmesinde aileden sonra en önemli kişiler okulöncesi öğretmenleridir. Okul öncesi eğitimin amacı çocuklarda öğrenmeye ilgi uyandırmak ve çocuğun var olan yeteneklerini daha üst seviyeye çıkarmaktır. Bunun için de okulöncesi öğretmenlerine büyük bir görev düşmektedir. (MEB, 2013)

Sağlıklı ve istenilen davranışlara sahip çocuklar yetiştirmek, onların gelişim özelliklerini ve bu özellikler doğrultusunda gereksinimlerinin neler olduğunu bilmeye bağlıdır. Erken çocukluk dönemindeki gelişmelerle, okul öncesi eğitim artık anne babanın yalnız başına başarabileceği bir konu olmaktan çıkmış durumdadır. Eğitim, öğretmen-ebeveyn işbirliği gerektirir. Bu işbirliği ne kadar bilinçli ve sağlıklı olursa, çocuklarımızda o oranda sağlam bir kişilik kazanırlar. (MEB, 2013)

Eğitim, toplumun varoluşundan günümüze dek oluşan kültürel değerlerin yeni kuşaklara aktarılmasını sağlarken; araç gereç, programlar gibi alt yapının yanında; öğretmenin niteliği de en önemli unsur olarak görülmektedir. Öğretmenlik ise bir meslek olarak, devletin eğitim ve öğretim ile ilgili görevlerini üzerine alan özel bir uzmanlık mesleği olarak tanımlanmaktadır. (Dursun ve Karagün, 2012: 94)

Sosyal, ekonomik ve bilimsel gelişmeler ile dünya sürekli değişmektedir. Ulusların bir taraftan bu değişime ayak uydurabilmelerinin bir taraftan da bazı zamanlar bu değişimin öncülüğünü yaparak modernleşmede ön sıralarda yer alabilmelerinin, eğitim sistemine diğer bir deyişle insanlarına yaptıkları yatırımla doğru orantılı şekilde gerçekleşebileceği düşünülebilir. Saracaloğlu'na (1991) göre, değişimin öncülerini eğitim sistemi yetiştirecektir. Söz konusu bireylerin yetiştirilmesinde ise, öğretmenlere ve öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlara büyük sorumluluklar düşmektedir. Özellikle öğretmenin öğrenci ve eğitim programlarını etkileme gücü diğerlerine göre daha fazladır. Bu nedenle eğitim hedefleri, eğitim programları, derslerin içeriği vb. ne denli iyi hazırlanırsa hazırlansın, bu programların uygulayıcısı olan öğretmenler iyi yetiştirilmezse, yapılan çalışmalar ve çabalar amacına ulaşamayacağı açıktır. (Saracaloğlu, Kumral ve Kanmaz, 2009:39)

Türkiye'nin gelişmiş ülkeler arasında yer alabilmesi için iyi yetişmiş, nitelikli insan kaynağına sahip olması gerekmektedir. Kuşkusuz nitelikli insan yetiştirebilmek ülkenin eğitim sistemi ile yakından ilişkilidir. Günümüzde bilimsel ve teknolojik ilerlemeler eğitim gören bireylere öğrenmeyi kolaylaştıran birçok imkân sunmasına rağmen, öğretmen eğitim-öğretim ekseninde yeri doldurulamayan temel öğe olma özelliğini her zaman korumaktadır. Öğretmenler her zaman eğitim sisteminin odak noktası olmuşlardır. Çağımızın eğitim-öğretim alanına sunduğu bütün olanaklar ancak nitelikli öğretmenler ve nitelikli öğretmen adayları sayesinde yararlı ve başarılı olabilir. Bu durumda öğretmenin kişiliği, mesleki yeterliliği ve öğrencilere yönelik tutumu büyük önem taşımaktadır. (Atmaca, 2013: 68)

Bazı eğitimciler, öğretmenlerin sınıf içinde davranış yansımalarının, ruh sağlığı ve kişilik yapısının; öğretim tekniği ve öğretmen bilgisinden daha önemli olduğunu ifade etmişlerdir. Yine gelecek kuşakları yetiştirecek olan öğretmenlerin ayakları üzerine sağlam basarak mesleklerine başlamalarının büyük oranda mesleklerine karşı hissettikleri mesleki kaygılarından arınmış olmalarına bağlı olduğu ifade edilmiştir. (Dursun ve Karagün, 2012: 94)

Kaygı düzeyinin yüksek olması, bireyin daha katı, daha basit davranışlara gerilemesine, endişeli olmasına ve memnun etmeye aşırı odaklanmasına neden olmaktadır. Bununla birlikte orta düzeydeki kaygının organizmayı uyarıcı, koruyucu ve motive edici özelliği vardır. Kaygı iyi yönetildiğinde, bireyin başarılı olmak için daha fazla çalışmasına, yaşanacak olumsuzluklara karşı önlem almasına yardımcı olmaktadır. Bu bağlamda, öğretmen adayları için yaşanan kaygının mesleğe yönelik olumlu tutum geliştirici, motive edici, harekete geçirici bir uyarıcı olarak kullanılmasına dikkat edilmelidir. (Doğan ve Çoban, 2009: 160).

Işık (1996) kaygıyı tehdit edici bir durum karşısında birey tarafından hissedilen huzursuzluk ve endişe durumu olarak tanımlamıştır. Kaygının sözlük anlamları ise; “üzüntü, endişe duyulan düşünce, tasa”, “bireylerin, toplumsal kümelerin herhangi bir güçlü istek ya da güdülerinin gerçekleşmemesi olasılığı karşısında duydukları tedirginlik”, “güçlü bir istek ya da dürtünün amacına ulaşamayacak gibi gözüküğü durumlarda beliren tedirgin edici bir duygu” (TDK, 2009: 1115) olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

Öğretmen adaylarının mesleğe ilişkin kaygıları belirli zamanlarda belirli noktalarda yoğunlaşır. Fuller'e (1969) göre, bu kaygıları ben-merkezli kaygılar, görev-merkezli kaygılar ve öğrenci-merkezli kaygılar olmak üzere üç grup altında toplamak mümkündür:

Ben-merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını, bireyin kendisi oluşturur. Ben-merkezli kaygıları taşıyan bir öğretmen adayı, öğretmenlik mesleğini başarı ile sürdürüp sürdüremeyeceği endişesini taşır ve bu nedenle de sürekli olarak yoğun bir stres altındadır. Görev-merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını, bireyin öğreticilik görevi oluşturur. Görev-merkezli kaygıları taşıyan bir öğretmen adayı, iyi bir öğretici olabilme kaygısı içindedir ve bu nedenle de alanında kullanabileceği yeni öğretim yöntemlerini, materyallerini ve araç-gereçlerini araştırmaya

başlar. Öğrenci-merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını ise, öğrenciler oluşturur. Öğrenci-merkezli kaygıları taşıyan bir öğretmen adayı, öğretim ile ilgili düşüncelerinde ve tasarımlarında daha çok öğrenci merkezlidir. Böyle bir öğretmen adayı her öğrencinin zihinsel, duygusal ve sosyal ihtiyaçlarını en iyi nasıl karşılayabileceğini merak etmeye ve araştırmaya başlar. (Cabı ve Yalçınalp, 2013: 86)

Öğretmenlik mesleği kapsamında ele alındığında, ben – merkezli kaygıların odağında yer alan bireyin öğretmenlik mesleğindeki başarı durumuna ilişkin kaygıları daha çok şu sorularda odaklanmaktadır: “ 1) Acaba öğretmenlik bana göre bir meslek mi?, 2) Acaba öğretmenlik mesleğini her gün nasıl yapacağım?, 3) Acaba sınıfımda gürültü olduğunda okul müdürü ve okuldaki diğer öğretmenler hakkımda ne düşünecek? Yine aynı kapsamda görev – merkezli kaygılara ilişkin olarak da birey; 1) Acaba farklı sınıf ortamlarında eğitim ve öğretim nasıl olmalıdır?, 2) Acaba öğretim konusunda alanımdaki yeni materyalleri, teknikleri ve fikirleri nasıl elde edebilirim?, 3) Acaba öğretmenlik görevimde başarılı olabilmem için bana en iyi kim yardım edebilir? Sorularının yanıtını aramaktadır. Öğrenci – merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını oluşturan öğrencilere ilişkin kaygıları bakımından da birey (öğretmen adayı – öğretmen) daha çok; 1) Acaba her öğrenciye nasıl yardım edebilirim ki onun için öğrenmek mümkün, kolay ve çabuk olsun?, 2) Acaba her öğrenciye nasıl yardım edebilirim ki onun için hayat boyu öğrenmek önemli ve vazgeçilmez olsun?, 3) Acaba özel öğretime muhtaç veya yüksek düzeyde potansiyelli öğrencilere nasıl yardım edebilirim ki bu çocuklar öğrenmelerini okul dışında da başarı ile sürdürebilsinler sorularını kendine sorabilmektedir. (Köse, 2006: 82)

Öğretmenlerin ve öğretmen adaylarının mesleğe yönelik yeterlik algılarının yanında yine mesleğe yönelik kaygılarının da ortaya çıkarılması önemli olacaktır. Kaygı, nedeni bilinmeyen bir korku durumudur. İnsan her an belirsiz bir tehlike ya da bir felaket ile karşılaşacağını düşünüp kendini tedirgin, gergin, sıkıntılı bir bekleme içine sokmasıyla oluşmaktadır. Davranışçı ekole göre kaygı; koşullanma ve genellemeler sonucu oluşurken, bilişsel ekole göre bilişsel faktörlerin bir sonucudur. Kişi durumu ne kadar kontrolü dışında ve kapasitesi üstünde algılıyorsa, o kadar kaygı yaşamaktadır. (Saracaloğlu, Kumral ve Kanmaz, 2009:40)

Öğretmen adayları yeterliliklerin önemli bir kısmını lisans dönemlerinde edinirler. Bu dönemde öğretmen adayları alan bilgisinin yanında meslekle ilgili değer ve tutumlar kazanırlar. (Lasek ve Wiesenbergova, 2007). Öğretim programlarının içeriklerinin yanı sıra, öğretmenin derse, öğretmenlik mesleğine, alana ve okula karşı farklı tutum ve davranışları; öğretmen adayının başarısı, derse ilgisi, motivasyonu ve tutumunu etkilemektedir (Işık, Yaman ve Soran, 2005:110-116). Başka bir deyişle öğretmenler sadece alanlarındaki bilgileri öğrenmiş kişiler olarak görülmemektedir. Bu nedenle, öğretmen adaylarının nitelikli bir hizmet öncesi eğitim programından geçirilmeleri meslekteki başarıları için gereklidir. (Aydın ve Tekneci. 2013: 2)

Bu araştırmada okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğine dair kaygılarının olup olmadığı ana problemi kapsamında aşağıdaki alt problemlere cevap aranmıştır:

- Öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusunda kaygıları nelerdir?
- Öğretmen adaylarının veli iletişimi konusundaki kaygıları nelerdir?
- Öğretmen adaylarının çocuklarla iletişim konusundaki kaygıları nelerdir?
- Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula oryantasyonu ile ilgili kaygıları nelerdir?
- Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların öz bakımı konusundaki kaygıları nelerdir?

METOD

Bu bölümde araştırmada yer alan çalışma grubu, araştırmanın veri toplama araçları, verilerin toplanma süreci ve analizi yer almaktadır.

Çalışma Grubu

Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Ana bilim dalında eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) öğretmen adayları oluşturmuştur. Çalışma grubu ile ilgili ayrıntılı bilgiler Tablo 1’de gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 1. Öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgilerinin dağılımı

		f	%
Sınıf	Sınıf	91	33.8
	Sınıf	106	39.4
	Sınıf	48	17.8
	Sınıf	24	8,9
	Toplam	269	100.0
Cinsiyet	Bayan	236	87.7
	Erkek	33	12.3
	Toplam	269	100.0

	0-2.25	16	5.9
	2.26-2.50	27	10.0
	2.51-2.75	72	26.8
Not ortalaması	2.76-3.00	80	29.7
	3.01-3.25	46	17.1
	3.26-4.00	28	10.4
	Toplam	269	100.0
	Genel (Düz) Lise	68	25.3
Mezun olduğu lise	Anadolu öğretmen lisesi	27	10.0
	Anadolu Lisesi	83	30.9
	Meslek lisesi/Teknik lise	91	33.8
	Toplam	269	100.0
Meslek seçimi	İsteyerek	238	88.5
	İstemeyerek	31	11.5
Bölüm seçimi	Toplam	269	100.0
	İsteyerek	234	87.0
Bölüm seçimi	İstemeyerek	35	13.0
	Toplam	269	100.0

Veri Toplama Aracı

Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak görüşme formu kullanılmıştır. Görüşme formu iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde katılımcıların demografik bilgileri ile ilgili sorular, ikinci bölümde ise öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile ilgili 5 açık uçlu soru bulunmaktadır. Görüşme formunun birinci bölümünde katılımcıların sınıf düzeyi, cinsiyeti, mezun oldukları lise türü, not ortalaması, öğretmen mesleğini ve branşını isteyerek seçip seçmedikleri soruları yer almaktadır. İkinci bölümde öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi, velilerle iletişim, çocuklarla iletişim, çocukların okula uyumları ve çocukların bakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması konusundaki mesleki kaygıları ile ilgili açık uçlu sorular yer almaktadır.

Görüşme formu geliştirilmeden önce öğretmen adaylarıyla ön görüşmeler yapılmış ve bu görüşmeler sonucunda veri toplama aracındaki sorular şekillendirilmiştir. Geliştirilen görüşme formunun geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması için alan uzmanı ve eğitim bilimci öğretim elemanlarının görüşü alınmış, uzmanlardan gelen dönütler sonucunda bazı maddeler çıkarılmış bazı maddelerde ise düzenlemeler yapılmıştır.

Verilerin Toplanması

Araştırmacılar, geliştirdikleri görüşme formunu 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Ana bilim dalında eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) 269 öğretmen adayına uygulamışlardır.

Verilerin Analizi

Araştırma nitel bir araştırma olup 269 öğretmen adayının sorulara verdikleri cevaplar önce betimsel analiz yöntemiyle ortaya çıkarılmış, daha sonra bu betimsel analizler SPSS programına aktarılıp yüzdelerle frekans tabloları çıkarılarak analiz edilmiştir.

BULGULAR

Sınıf Yönetimi ve Kaygı

Yapılan araştırmada öğretmen adaylarına sınıf yönetimi ile kendilerini yeterli hissedip hissetmedikleri sorulmuş ve toplam 269 öğretmen adayının % 50.2'si bu soruya evet cevabını vermiştir. Geri kalan % 49.8'i ise sınıf yönetimi ile ilgili kendilerini yeterli hissetmediklerini ifade etmişlerdir.

Öğretmen adaylarının bu soruya yönelik verdikleri cevaplar tablo 2'de gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 2. Öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusundaki kaygıları

		Frekans	Yüzde (%)
Evet	Yeterli deneyim	23	8.6
	Yeterli bilgi	10	3.7
	Yüksek öz yeterlik	105	39.0
Toplam		135	50.2
Hayır	Yetersiz deneyim	49	18.2
	Yetersiz bilgi	28	10.4
	Düşük öz yeterlik	46	17.1

	Staj uygulamalarının yanlış ve yetersiz olması	8	3.0
Toplam		134	49.8
Toplam		269	100.0

Yukarıdaki tablo incelendiğinde sınıf yönetimi ile ilgili kendilerini yeterli hissettiklerini söyleyen öğretmen adaylarının büyük bir çoğunluğunun (% 39.0) kendilerini yeterli hissetmelerinin sebebinin yüksek öz yeterlik olduğu görülmektedir. Örneğin 89 numaralı öğretmen adayı sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendisini yeterli hissetmesinin sebebini, çocukları ikna etme ve sınıf düzenini sağlayabilme konusundaki yeteneğine bağlamıştır:

“Yeterli hissediyorum. Dediğimi yapmak istemeyen bir çocuğu ikna edebileceğimi ve sınıf düzenine uyumunu sağlayabileceğime inanıyorum.”

Benzer şekilde 98 numaralı öğretmen adayı sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendisini yeterli hissetmesinin sebebini çocukların istemediği bir etkinlikte bile onları ikna edebileceği şeklinde açıklamıştır:

“Evet. Çocuklar bir etkinliği yapmak istemediği anlarda bile onlara çekici hale getirebilirim.”

Katılımcı öğretmen adaylarından 23 kişi yeterli deneyim sahibi olduklarını düşündüklerinden dolayı sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendini yeterli hissetmektedir. Örneğin 99 Numaralı öğretmen adayı sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendisini yeterli hissetme sebebini meslek lisesinde staj yaptığı için deneyim sahibi olduğu şekilde açıklamışlardır:

“Evet. Meslek lisesi mezunu olduğum için bu konuda deneyimim var.”

Sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini yeterli hissettiklerini söyleyen öğretmen adaylarının küçük bir kısmı (% 3.7) cevaplarını yeterli bilgi sahibi olmalarına dayandırmışlardır. Örneğin 134 Numaralı öğretmen adayı sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendisini yeterli hissetme sebebini bu konu ile ilgili olan derste yeterli bilgi sahibi olduğu şeklinde açıklamıştır:

“Aldığımız sınıf yönetimi dersi teorik olarak yeterince bilgi sahibi etti. Aynı dönem yaptığımız staj da bunu pekiştirdi...”

Buna karşılık toplam 269 öğretmen adayının 134’ü (% 49.8) sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini yeterli hissetmediklerini söylemişlerdir.

Sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini yeterli hissetmediklerini söyleyen öğretmen adaylarının büyük bir çoğunluğunun kendilerini yetersiz hissetme nedenleri yetersiz deneyim (% 18.2) ve düşük öz yeterlikten (% 17.1) kaynaklandığı tespit edilmiştir. 28 öğretmen adayı ise bu durumun yetersiz bilgiden kaynaklandığını ifade etmişlerdir. Bunlarla ilgili öğretmen adayı ifadeleri sırasıyla şu şekildedir:

“Çok yeterli hissetmiyorum. Çünkü henüz bir sataj deneyimim ya da çalışma hayatım olmadı. Fakat bir senelik bir deneyim sonucu kendimi bu konuda geliştireceğime inanıyorum. (101 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Kendimi yeterli hissetmiyorum. Çocuklarla iletişim kurmayı beceremiyorum.” (188 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Bu konuda yeterli bulmuyorum. Henüz bilgili değilim. Sınıfı nasıl idare edebilirim, çocukların yönetimini nasıl sağlarım bilemiyorum. Daha bunun eğitimini almadık tabi ki. Ama yine de yeterli olabileceğimi düşünmüyorum.” (21 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Öğretmen adaylarının çok küçük bir kısmı (% 3.0) ise kendilerini yetersiz hissetmelerinin nedenini lisans eğitimindeki staj uygulamalarının yanlış ve yetersiz olmasına bağlamışlardır. Örneğin 108 numaralı öğretmen adayı sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendisini yeterli hissetmemesinin sebebini lisans eğitimi boyunca stajların az ve geç olması şeklinde açıklamışlardır:

“Hayır hissetmiyorum. Şu ana kadar sadece teorik dersler gördük. Ama hiç okulöncesi öğrencileri ile vakit geçirmedi. Üçüncü sınıfta staj var ancak çok geç bence.”

Veli İletişimi ve Kaygı

Yapılan araştırmada öğretmen adaylarına mesleğe başladıklarında velilerle iletişim konusunda herhangi bir kaygı taşıyıp taşımadıkları sorulmuş ve toplam 269 öğretmen adayının % 46.1'i bu soruya evet cevabını vermiştir. Geri kalan % 53.9'u ise bu konuda herhangi bir kaygı taşımadıklarını ifade etmişlerdir.

Öğretmen adaylarının bu soruya yönelik verdikleri cevaplar aşağıdaki tabloda gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 3. Öğretmen adaylarının veli iletişimi konusundaki kaygıları

		Frekans	Yüzde (%)
Evet	Düşük öz yeterlik	53	19.7
	Eleştirilme kaygısı	10	3.7
	Yanlış anlaşılma kaygısı	22	8.2
	Aile katılımı kaygısı	11	4.1
	Ailelerin sosyo-kültürel yapısı	15	5.6
	Ailelerin çocuk yetiştirme tutumu	9	3.3
	Ailelerin erkek öğretmene karşı tutumu	2	0.7
Toplam		124	46.1
Hayır	Yüksek öz yeterlik	85	31.6
	Güçlü iletişim becerisi	58	21.6
	Velilerin olumlu tutumu	4	1.5
Toplam		145	53.9
Toplam		269	100.0

Yukarıdaki tablo incelendiğinde veli ile iletişim konusunda kaygı taşıdığını söyleyen öğretmen adaylarının büyük bir çoğunluğunun (% 19.7) bu kaygılarının nedeninin düşük öz yeterlikten kaynaklandığı görülmüştür. Örneğin 171 Numaralı öğretmen adayı veli ile iletişim konusunda taşıdığı kaygının sebebini kalabalık karşısında konuşma becerisinin eksik oluşu şeklinde açıklamıştır:

“Biraz tereddüt yaşıyorum. Çünkü kalabalık önünde konuşmak beni kaygılandırıyor.”

Araştırmaya katılan öğretmen adaylarının % 8.2'si veliler tarafından yanlış anlaşılma kaygısı taşıdıklarını ifade etmişlerdir. Örneğin 13 numaralı öğretmen adayı velilerle iletişim konusunda yaşadığı kaygının sebebini velilerin çocukları konusundaki hassasiyetlerinden dolayı onu yanlış anlayabilecekleri şeklinde açıklamışlardır:

“Veliler çocukları hakkında olumsuz şeyler söylenmesinden pek hoşlanmıyorlar. Çocukları ile ilgili olumsuz bir durum olduğunda beni anlayıp anlayamayacakları konusunda kaygılanıyorum...” (13 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Öğretmen adaylarının % 5.6'sı veli ile iletişim konusunda taşıdıkları kaygının ailelerin sosyo-kültürel yapılarıyla; % 4.1'i aile katılımıyla; % 3.7'si eleştiri kaygısı ile; % 3.3'si ise ailelerin çocuk yetiştirme tutumuyla ilgili olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Örneğin; 72,89, 201, 7 numaralı öğretmen adayları bu kaygıların sebebini aşağıdaki şekilde açıklamıştır:

“Evet, bir kaygı taşıyorum. Çünkü çalışacağım okulun bulunduğu çevrenin sosyo-ekonomik durumu, aile yapısı ve çocuğa verdikleri değer, benim velilerden talep ettiğim şeylere verecekleri tepki veya tepkisizlik durumu bende kaygı yaratıyor.” (72 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Evet, öyle bir kaygım var. Çünkü ailelerin bilinçli olup olmaması, bazı etkinliklere katılıp katılmamasıhakkında endişelerim var.”(89 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Kaygı yaşıyorum. Çünkü veliler tarafından mesleğe yeni başlayan bir öğretmen deneyimsiz görülür. İşime karışmaya çalışmalarını düşüncesi beni korkutuyor...” (201 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Bazı ailelerin aşırı korumacı olduğunu çevremde gördükçe aynı şekilde korumacı ailelerle karşılaşmaktan korkuyorum...” (7 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Katılımcı öğretmen adaylarının küçük bir kısmı da (% 0.7) veli ile iletişim konusunda yaşadıkları kaygıyı erkek okulöncesi öğretmene karşı tutuma bağlamıştır. Örneğin 24 numaralı öğretmen adayı velilerle iletişim konusunda yaşadığı kaygıyı velilerin erkek öğretmene karşı ön yargılı olabileceği şeklinde açıklamışlardır:

“Küçük bir kaygım var. Bu da erkek olduğum için velilerimin bunu nasıl karşılayacağını kestiremediğim için.” (24 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Öğretmen adaylarının % 53.9'u veli ile iletişim konusunda herhangi bir kaygılarının olmadığını belirtmişlerdir. Kaygı taşımayan öğretmen adaylarının 85'inin bu tutumunun yüksek öz yeterlilikten kaynaklandığı belirlenmiştir. Örneğin 182 numaralı öğretmen adayları velilerle iletişim konusunda kaygı taşımadıklarının sebebini tüm velilerle ayrı ayrı iletişime geçebileceği şeklinde açıklamışlardır:

“Hayır. Her öğrencinin velisi ile tek tek iletişime geçmek için elimden geleni yaparım.” (182 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Araştırmaya katılan öğretmen adaylarının 58'i ise veli iletişimi konusunda kaygı taşıyama nedenleri olarak güçlü iletişim becerilerine bağlamışlardır. Örneğin 169, 193 numaralı öğretmen adayları iletişim becerilerine güvendikleri için herhangi bir kaygı taşımadıkları şeklinde açıklamışlardır:

“Hayır. Veli iletişimi konusunda kendime güveniyorum.” (169 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Hayır, taşıyorum. Ben onlara karşı saygımı koruyup, iletişimimi doğru tuttuğum sürece aramızda bir problem olacağını düşünmüyorum.” (193 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Katılımcı öğretmen adaylarının küçük bir kısmı ise (% 1.5) veli iletişimi kaygısı taşıyama nedenlerini velilerin olumlu tutumu olarak açıklamışlardır. Örneğin 174 numaralı öğretmen adayı bu durumu şu şekilde açıklamıştır:

“Veliler artık çok bilinçli oldukları için böyle bir kaygı taşıyorum.”

Çocuklarla İletişim ve Kaygı

Yapılan araştırmada öğretmen adaylarına mesleğe başladıklarında çocuklarla ilişkileri hakkında bir kaygı taşıyıp taşımadıkları sorulmuş ve toplam 269 öğretmen adayının % 26.8'i bu soruya evet cevabını vermiş; geri kalan % 73.2'si ise bu konuda herhangi bir kaygı taşımadıklarını ifade etmişlerdir.

Öğretmen adaylarının bu soruya yönelik verdikleri cevaplar aşağıdaki tabloda gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 4. Öğretmen adaylarının çocuklarla iletişim konusundaki kaygıları

		Frekans	Yüzde (%)
Evet	Düşük öz yeterlik	44	16.4
	Yetersiz deneyim	13	4.8
	Yetersiz hoşgörü	6	2.2
	Bireysel farklılıklar	10	3.7
Toplam		72	26.8
Hayır	Yüksek öz yeterlik	60	22.3
	Güçlü iletişim becerisi	93	34.6
	Çocukları sevme	36	13.4
	Yeterli deneyim	7	2.6
Toplam		197	73.2
Toplam		269	100.0

Yukarıdaki tablo incelendiğinde çocuklarla ilişkiler konusunda kaygı taşıdığını söyleyen öğretmen adaylarının 44'ünün bu kaygılarının nedeninin düşük öz yeterlilikten kaynaklandığı görülmüştür. Örneğin 111 numaralı öğretmen adayı çocuklarla ilişkiler konusunda taşıdığı kaygının sebebini çeşitli ek çalışmalar yapsa da kendini bu konuda yetersiz hissedeceği olarak göstermiştir:

“Bu konuda kendimi geliştirmek için kitap okuyor, konferansları dinliyorum ama yine de yetersiz kalacakmışım gibi hissediyorum.”

Çocuklarla ilişkiler konusunda kaygı taşıdığını ifade eden öğretmen adaylarının geri kalanının % 4.8'i bu durumun yetersiz deneyimden; % 3.7'si çocuklardaki bireysel farklılıklardan; % 2.2'si ise yetersiz hoşgörüden dolayı olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Örneğin; 126,174, 26 numaralı öğretmen adayları bu kaygıların sebebini sırasıyla şu şekilde açıklamıştır:

“Biraz taşıyorum çünkü bir sınıfta çocuklarla hiç iletişim tecrübem olmadı. Nasıl iletişim kuracağımı pek bilmiyorum.” (126 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Bazı çocuklar çok özel özelliklere sahip olabiliyor. Hepsiyile aynı anda, aynı iletişim bağı kurabilir miyim diye düşünüyorum...” (174 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Evet taşıyorum. Çünkü sabır yönünden pek dirençli değilim. Bu yüzden çocuklarla gerektiği gibi ilişki kuramayabilirim.” (26 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Çocuklarla ilişkiler konusunda herhangi bir kaygısı olmadığını belirten öğretmen adaylarının 93’ü bu durumu güçlü iletişim becerilerine bağlamışlardır. Örneğin; 88, 193 numaralı öğretmen adayları çocuklarla iletişim konusunda şu ana kadar bir problem yaşamadıkları ve kendilerine bu konuda güvendikleri için herhangi bir kaygı taşımadıklarını ifade etmişlerdir:

“Hayır, çocuklarla iyi anlaşırım, uyum sorunu çekmem. Çocukların doğru konuda, doğru zamanda ilgisini çekmek onlarla iletişimi kolaylaştıracağına inanıyorum.” (88 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Taşıyorum. Çok çocukla ilgilendim ama bir ilişki kuramama problemi yaşamadım. Onlara nasıl yaklaşacağımı bilirim.” (193 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Kaygı taşımayan öğretmen adaylarının 60’ı bu tutumunun yüksek öz yeterlilikten kaynaklandığı belirlenmiştir. Örneğin 119 numaralı öğretmen adayı çocuklarla ilişkiler konusunda herhangi bir kaygısının olmadığını şu şekilde açıklamıştır:

“Bu konuda herhangi bir kaygı taşıyorum. Çünkü mezun olunca bilgim tam olacak. Bu da çocuklarla olan ilişkiyi olumlu yönde etkileyecek.” (119 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Öğretmen adaylarının 36’sı çocuklarla ilişkiler hakkında kaygı taşımamalarını çocukları sevmelerine bağlamışlardır. Örneğin 149, 9 numaralı öğretmen adayı çocuklara olan sevgilerinden dolayı bu konuda bir kaygı yaşamadıkları şeklinde açıklamışlardır:

“Taşıyorum. Çocuklara eşit davranacağımı düşünüyorum. Çocukları sevdiğim için aramızda iyi bir iletişim olacağını düşünüyorum.” (149 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Taşıyorum. Çocukları hep severim, onlarla oynamayı, koşmayı, ilgilenmeyi severim. Bu yüzden çocuklarla ilişkilerimin iyi olacağına inanıyorum.” (9 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Kaygı taşımadığını belirten öğretmen adaylarının geri kalan küçük bir kısmı ise (% 2.7) bunun nedeni olarak yeterli deneyimlerinin olduğunu göstermişlerdir. Örneğin 130 numaralı öğretmen adayı çocuklarla ilişkiler konusunda bir kaygısının olmayışını daha önce yapmış olduğu staj deneyimine bağlayarak aşağıdaki şekilde açıklamıştır:

“Staj deneyimime dayanarak, çocuklarla ilişkilerim hakkında bir kaygı taşıyorum.”

Çocukların Okula Oryantasyonu ve Kaygı

Yapılan araştırmada öğretmen adaylarına mesleğe başladıklarında sınıflarında bulunan çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili bir kaygı taşıyıp taşımadıkları sorulmuş ve toplam 269 öğretmen adayının % 61’i bu soruya evet cevabını vermiş; geri kalan % 39’u ise bu konuda herhangi bir kaygı taşımadıklarını ifade etmişlerdir.

Öğretmen adaylarının bu soruya yönelik verdikleri cevaplar aşağıdaki tabloda gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 5. Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula uyumları konusundaki kaygıları

		Frekans	Yüzde (%)
Evet	Çocukların aileden ilk kez ayrılmaları	34	12.6
	Bireysel farklılıklar	39	14.5
	Düşük öz yeterlik	77	28.6
	Ailenin çocuk yetiştirme tutumu	8	3.0
	Kaynaştırma öğrencileri	1	0.4
	Yetersiz hoşgörü	4	1.5
Toplam		164	61.0
Hayır	Yüksek öz yeterlik	89	33.1
	Güçlü iletişim becerisi	11	4.1
	Yeterli hoşgörü	6	2.2
Toplam		105	39.0
Toplam		269	100.0

Yukarıdaki tablo incelendiğinde çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygı taşıdığını söyleyen öğretmen adaylarının 77’sinin bu kaygısının düşük öz yeterlilikten kaynaklandığı görülmüştür. Örneğin 107 numaralı

öğretmen adayı bu konuda taşıdığı kaygının öğretmenlerin tutum ve davranışlarının çocuk üzerindeki etkisinden dolayı çocukları olumsuz etkilemekten kaynaklandığını ifade etmiştir:

“Benim yanlış bir tutumum yüzünden öğrenciyi okuldan uzaklaştırmaktan kaygı duyuyorum.”

Benzer şekilde 120 Numaralı öğretmen adayı bu konuda taşıdığı kaygıyı çocukların aileden ilk kez ayrılıyor olmaları nedeniyle zorlanabileceği şekilde açıklamıştır:

“Evet, taşıyorum. Çünkü ailesinden yeni ayrılan çocuklar okul ortamına alışmakta güçlük çekecekler ve bunları aşmalarını sağlamak büyük sorumluluk istiyor. Bunu yaparken zorlanacağımı düşünüyorum.”

Katılımcı öğretmen adaylarının 39’u bu kaygının çocuklardaki bireysel farklılıktan; 34’ü ise çocukların aileden ilk kez ayrılıyor olmalarından kaynaklandığını belirtmişlerdir. Örneğin 5, 101,44, 112 numaralı öğretmen adayları bu konuda taşıdıkları kaygının sebeplerini sırasıyla aşağıdaki şekilde açıklamışlardır:

“Her çocuğun birbirinden farklı olması nedeniyle evet. Hangisine nasıl yaklaşacağımızı en başından kestirmek ve hepsine olan ilgiyi eşit tutmak durumundayız. Bu da çok kolay olmasa gerek...” (5 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Evet, çünkü her çocuk farklı olacak ve iletişim her biriyle farklı olacak.”(101 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Evet, taşıyorum. Çünkü çocuk ilk kez evinden ayrılmış olacak ve okuldan korkacağı için byle bir kaygı taşıyorum.” (44 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Çok fazla. Sonuçta hepsi ailesinden ayrılıp gelecek ve bu durum onların üzerine stres, ağlama, bağırma şeklinde olacak...” (112 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygı taşıdıklarını ifade eden öğretmen adaylarının % 3’ü ailenin çocuk yetiştirme tutumundan; % 1.5’i yetersiz hoşgöründen; % 0.4’ü ise kaynaştırma öğrencilerinin bu süreci zorlaştıracağından dolayı bu kaygıyı taşıdıklarını söylemişlerdir. Örneğin 14, 98, 172, 41 numaralı öğretmen adayları bu konuda taşıdıkları kaygının sebeplerini açıklarken şu ifadeleri kullanmışlardır:

“Çocukların yetiştiği ortamı, aile düzenini tam anlamıyla bilemediğimiz için nasıl yetiştirildiğini, nasıl davranılması gerektiğini bilemediğimiz için endişeliyim.” (14 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Evet, çünkü çoğu çocuk korumacı bir aile tarafından ya da fazla serbest bir aile tarafından yetiştiriliyor.” (98 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Taşıyorum. Sınıf kuralları, tuvalet eğitimi, etkinliğe katılım esnasında isteksizlik gibi konularda kaygı taşıyorum.” (172 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Eğer sınıfta engelli bir çocuk olursa kaygılanabilirim. Çünkü bu konu hakkında yeterli bilgiye sahip değilim.”(41 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Çocukların okula uyumları konusunda bir kaygı taşımadıklarını belirten öğretmen adayı oranı ise % 39 olarak belirlenmiştir. Bu konuda kaygısı olmayan öğretmen adaylarının 89’unun bu görüşünün yüksek öz yeterlikten kaynaklandığı saptanmıştır. Örneğin 166 numaralı öğretmen adayı kaygı taşımama nedenini gerekli desteğin sağlanması halinde uyum problemi yaşamayacağı şeklinde açıklamışlardır:

“Hayır, ilk zamanlarda yeterli oryantasyon sağlarsa çocuğun okula karşı olumlu tutum geliştirmesi desteklenirse böyle bir problem yaşanmaz.” (166 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Geri kalan öğretmen adaylarının % 4.1’ bu durumu güçlü iletişim becerisine bağlarken; % 2.2’si de yeterli hoşgörüyü sağlamıştır. Örneğin 135 ve 179 numaralı öğretmen adayları kaygı taşımama nedenlerini sırasıyla şöyle açıklamışlardır:

“... ilk haftalar drama, oyun, serbest zaman etkinlikleri ile etkileyici bir tanışma yaparsam bir sorun çıkmayacağını düşünüyorum.”(135 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Çocukların bazıları mutlaka uyumda sorun yaşayacaktır. Ama onlara zamanla ve sıcakkanlılıkla alışmasını öğretebilirim.” (179 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Çocukların Bakımı ve Kaygı

Yapılan araştırmada öğretmen adaylarına mesleğe başladıklarında çocukların bakım durumu (tuvalet, yemek yeme vb.) ile ilgili bir kaygı taşıyıp taşımadıkları sorulmuş ve toplam 269 öğretmen adayının % 43.9’u bu soruya evet cevabını vermiş; geri kalan % 56.1’i ise bu konuda herhangi bir kaygı taşımadıklarını ifade etmişlerdir.

Öğretmen adaylarının bu soruya yönelik verdikleri cevaplar aşağıdaki tabloda gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 6. Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların bakımı konusundaki kaygıları

		Frekans	Yüzde (%)
Evet	Yetersiz deneyim	10	3.7
	Düşük öz yeterlik	72	26.8
	Yardımcı personelin olmaması	16	5.9
	Yetersiz bilgi	13	4.8
	Yetersiz hoşgörü	4	1.5
	Ailelerin erkek öğretmene karşı tutumları	2	0.7
Toplam		118	43.9
Hayır	Çocukları sevmeye	8	3.0
	Yüksek öz yeterlik	119	44.2
	Çocukların öz bakım becerilerini kazanmış olmaları	6	2.2
	Çocuk bakımı ve sağlığına önem verme	3	1.1
	Yeterli deneyim	10	3.7
	Yeterli hoşgörü	6	2.2
Toplam		151	56.1
Toplam		269	100.0

Yukarıdaki tablo incelendiğinde çocukların bakım durumu ile ilgili kaygı taşıdığını söyleyen öğretmen adaylarının büyük bir çoğunluğunun (% 26.8) bu kaygısının düşük öz yeterlikten kaynaklandığı görülmüştür. Örneğin 130 Numaralı öğretmen adayı bu konuda taşıdığı kaygının sebebini sağlık konusunda kendini yeterli hissetmemesi şeklinde açıklamıştır:

“Çocukların sağlıklarıyla başa çıkma ile ilgili ciddi kaygılarım var. Soğukkanlı bir insan değilim. En büyük sıkıntım bu.”

Öğretmen adaylarından çocukların bakımı konusunda kaygılanma nedenini yardımcı personel olmayışına bağlayanların oranı % 5.9’dur. Örneğin 5 Numaralı öğretmen adayı bu konudaki kaygısını yardımcı personel olmadığı durumlarda birçok çocukla aynı anda ilgilenmenin zor olabileceği şeklinde açıklamıştır:

“En büyük korkularımdan biri bu aslında. Yardımcısı olmayan anaokullarında ilk mezun olan birisi için 20-25 çocuğu idare etmek zor...”

Benzer şekilde 165 Numaralı öğretmen adayı bu konuda taşıdığı kaygının sebebini kalabalık sınıflarda yardımcı personel olmazsa çocukların bakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılamakta güçlük çekeceği şeklinde açıklamıştır:

“... Yardımcım olmadığında çocuk sayısı çok olduğunda diğer çocukların sınıfta karışıklık çıkarması biraz kaygılandırıyor.”

Çocukların bakımı konusunda kaygı taşıyan öğretmen adaylarının % 4.8’i bu konuda yeterli bilgi sahibi olmadıklarından; % 0.7’si ise ailelerin erkek öğretmene karşı olan tutumlarından dolayı kaygı taşıdıklarını ifade etmişlerdir. Örneğin 39 ve 24 numaralı öğretmen adayları kaygı taşıma nedenlerini sırasıyla şu şekilde açıklamıştır:

“Tuvalet eğitimi almamış olmalarından ve yaralanmalarından korkuyorum. Çünkü bize henüz ilk yardım dersi verilmedi...” (39 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Sadece kaygım kız öğrencilerimin tuvalet alışkanlığını kazanmamış olmasıdır. Ben görevim olduğu için en iyi şekilde yapmaya çalışırım ama velilerin düşünceleri bakımından kaygım var.” (24 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Öğretmen adaylarının % 1.5'inin kaygı taşımalarına bu konuya karşı yeterli hoşgörülerinin olmamasının neden olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Çocukların bakımı konusunda kaygı taşımayan öğretmen adaylarının 119'unun kaygı taşımama nedenlerinin yüksek öz yeterlikten kaynaklandığı görülmüştür. Örneğin 162 numaralı öğretmen adayı bu konuda kaygı taşımama nedenini şu şekilde açıklamıştır:

“Her düzeyde kendimi yeterli sayıyorum. Bütün sorunlarla başa çıkabileceğimi düşünüyorum.”

Benzer şekilde 166 Numaralı öğretmen adayı bu konuda kaygı taşımama nedeni olarak her konuda çocuklara yardım edebileceği şeklinde açıklamıştır:

“Hayır, bu konuda onlara istedikleri kadar yardımcı olabileceğimi düşünüyorum.”

10 öğretmen adayı çocukların bakımı konusunda kaygı taşımama nedenlerinin yeterli deneyim; 8 öğretmen adayı ise çocukları sevmek olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Örneğin 98, 119 numaralı öğretmen adayları bu konuda kaygı taşımama nedenlerini daha önceki staj tecrübeleri ve çocukları seviyor olmaları şeklinde açıklamıştır:

“Hayır. Lisede staj gördüğüm zaman tecrübe kazandım.” (98 nolu öğretmen adayı)

“Hayır, çünkü onların bana ihtiyacı olduğu düşüncesi ve onlara olan sevgim onlarla ilgilenmeyi ve başa çıkmayı zor olarak göstermiyor.” (119 nolu öğretmen adayı)

Katılımcı öğretmen adaylarının geri kalan kısmı kaygı taşımama nedenlerini çocukların öz bakım becerilerini kazanmış olmaları(% 2.2); yeterli hoşgörü (% 2.2); çocuk bakımı ve sağlığına önem verme (% 1.1) olarak sıralamışlardır.

SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

Bu araştırmada 2012-2013 eğitim-öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okulöncesi Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalında eğitimine devam eden (1, 2, 3 ve 4. Sınıf) öğretmen adayları yer almıştır. Araştırma nitel bir çalışma olup 269 öğretmen adayı ile görüşme gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu görüşmeler çerçevesinde genel olarak aşağıdaki sonuçlar ortaya çıkmıştır:

- Öğretmen adaylarının % 39'unun sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini yeterli hissettikleri görülmüştür. Öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini yeterli hissetme nedenleri ise yeterli deneyim (% 8.6), yeterli bilgi (% 3.7) ve yüksek öz yeterliğe (% 39) bağlı olduğu belirlenmiştir. Buna karşılık sınıf yönetiminde kendini yeterli hissetmeyen öğretmen adaylarının oranı ise % 49.8'dir. Öğretmen adaylarının kendilerini sınıf yönetimi konusunda yetersiz hissetme nedenleri ise yetersiz deneyim (% 18.2), yetersiz bilgi (% 10.4), düşük öz yeterlik ve staj uygulamalarının yanlış ve yetersiz olmasına bağlanmıştır.
- Öğretmen adaylarının % 46.1'i veli ile iletişim konusunda kaygılarının olduğunu belirtmiştir. Bu kaygıların sebebinin ise düşük öz yeterlik (% 19.7), eleştirilme kaygısı (% 3.7), yanlış anlaşılma kaygısı (% 8.2), aile katılımı kaygısı (% 4.1), ailelerin sosyo-kültürel yapısı (% 5.6), ailelerin çocuk yetiştirme tutumu(% 3.3) ve ailelerin erkek öğretmene karşı tutumu(% 0.7) olduğu görülmüştür. Veli iletişiminde kaygısının olmadığını belirten öğretmen adayları ise çalışma grubunun % 53.9'unu oluşturmaktadır. Bu öğretmen adayları kaygı taşımama nedeni olarak da yüksek öz yeterlik (% 31.6), güçlü iletişim becerisi (% 31.6) ve velilerin olumlu tutumu (% 1.5)'nu göstermişlerdir.
- Öğretmen adaylarının % 26.8'inin çocuklarla iletişim konusunda kaygı taşıdıkları ve bunun sebeplerinin ise düşük öz yeterlik (% 16.4), yetersiz deneyim (% 4.8), yetersiz hoşgörü (% 2.2) ve bireysel farklılıklar (% 3.7) olduğu belirlenmiştir. Geri kalan öğretmen adaylarının ise (% 73.2) bu konuda bir kaygı taşımadıkları bunun sebeplerinin ise yüksek öz yeterlik (% 22.3), güçlü iletişim becerisi (% 34.6), çocukları sevmeye (% 13.4) ve yeterli deneyim (% 2.6) olduğu belirlenmiştir.
- Öğretmen adaylarının % 61'inin çocukların okula uyumları konusunda kaygı taşıdıkları bunun nedenlerinin ise çocukların aileden ilk kez ayrılıyor olmaları (% 12.6), bireysel farklılıklar (% 14.5), düşük öz yeterlik (% 28.6), ailelerin çocuk yetiştirme tutumları (% 3.0), kaynaştırma öğrencileri (% 0.4) ve yetersiz hoşgörü (% 1.5) olduğu belirlenmiştir. Buna karşılık öğretmen adaylarının % 39'unun bu konuda herhangi bir kaygı taşımadıkları belirlenmiştir. Bunun nedenlerinin ise yüksek öz yeterlik (% 33.1), güçlü iletişim becerisi (% 4.1) ve yeterli hoşgörü (% 2.2) olduğu görülmüştür.
- Çalışma grubundaki öğretmen adaylarının % 43.9'unun çocukların bakımları konusunda kaygı taşıdıkları

belirlenmiştir. Buna neden olarak ise yetersiz deneyim (% 3.7), düşük öz yeterlik (% 26.8), yardımcı personel olmaması (% 5.9), yetersiz bilgi (% 4.8), yetersiz hoşgörü (% 1.5) ve ailelerin erkek öğretmene karşı tutumları (% 0.7) gösterilmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarının % 56.1'inin ise bu konuda kaygı taşımadıkları bunun nedenlerinin ise çocukları sevme (% 3.0), yüksek öz yeterlik (% 44.2), çocukların öz bakım becerilerini kazanmış olmaları (% 2.2), çocuk bakımı ve sağlığına önem verme (% 1.1), yeterli deneyim (% 3.7) ve yeterli hoşgörü (% 2.2) olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Araştırma sonuçları dikkate alınarak aşağıdaki öneriler getirilebilir:

- Öğretmen adaylarının büyük bir kısmı deneyim yetersizliklerinin onlarda çeşitli kaygılara neden olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bu yüzden okul öncesi öğretmenliği programında yer alan sınıf yönetimi, anne baba eğitimi gibi doğrudan uygulamaya referans veren derslerin profesyonelce yürütülmesi, öğretmen adaylarının bu derslerde uygulama yapmalarına fırsat veren yöntemlerin tercih edilmesi gerekmektedir.
- Türkiye'de eğitim fakültelerindeki öğretmen adaylarının staj ve okul uygulamaları ana sınıfları ve anaokullarının açılmasından sonra gerçekleştiği için öğretmen adayları özellikle okulla ilk defa tanışan çocukların bu uyum sürecini gözlemleyememektedir. Halbuki bir çok öğretmen adayı çocukların oryantasyon dönemine ilişkin kaygılarını belirtmişlerdir. Bu yüzden staj ve okul deneyimleri eğitim fakülteleri tarafından bu durum dikkate alınarak planlanmalıdır.
- Bazı okul öncesi erkek öğretmen adaylarına karşı velilerin tepkilerinin önüne geçilmesi için toplumun okulöncesi erkek öğretmenlere karşı bakışı konusunda bilinçlendirme çalışmaları yapılmalıdır.
- Eğitim fakültelerinde öğretmenlik uygulaması ve okul deneyimi derslerinin saatleri artırılmalı, öğrencilerin çocuklarla daha fazla uygulama ve deneyim yapmalarına fırsat verilmelidir.

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University of Costa Rica: Relevance, Quality and Equity of Higher Education

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Abstract

The University of Costa Rica is one of the five public universities of Costa Rica. This university opened its doors in 1942 with the objective to form and develop professionals in all areas with a focus on quality, equity and relevance, specially providing personal and social development to the different populations served: indigenous groups, young people who have a disability, older people, women and men who want to improve their professional skills.

Keywords.

The University of Costa Rica provides a comprehensive education covering six main areas: Ethical, Social, Cultural, Scientific, Technological and Economic Development. This educational center works on the basis of academic excellence: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be. Management is focused on the development and learning application of new knowledge and human resources. Strengthen research and its links with national and international society, designs and implements social action projects, according to the needs identified in the Costa Rican population and global. Its goal is the development of students. It has been recognized with international quality standards. The University of Costa Rica's curriculum has been internationalized and organized to provide response to the training needs worldwide.

Global Objectives

From political and economic system, the State shall promote:

- 1 - Education as a human right: from primary to higher education. (Social Action).
- 2 - The relevance of higher education as a dynamic concept that varies across contexts and populations with economic vulnerability, social, health, education, personal skills and emerging educational demands. The relevance can only be the result of dialogue between national education authorities and minority groups and with greater social and economic disadvantage.
- 3 - Higher Education Quality considered a multidimensional concept of multi-level dynamic that relates to the contextual elements of an educational model, with the mission and institutional goals and specific standards within a system, institution, program or discipline determined. Also with highest international standards that provide response to the need for experts in all areas of practice and are able to work anywhere in the world. The quality focuses on the change that must occur through the educational process: the transformation refers to improvement and empowerment of students and the development of new knowledge.
- 4 - The Equity, based on the construction of a model of inclusion and solidarity that does not allow any discrimination in creed, race or ethnicity, language or socioeconomic background. The same characterization for environmental sustainability and prosperity improve the quality of life for all people and the dignity to human beings. It also promotes access to education and formal technology to optimize personal and professional skills. The equity is based on the principle of strengthening and creation of every opportunity to promote access, retention and success of students to higher education.

DESCRIPTORS: Relevance, Higher Education Quality, Equity, Sustainability.

Costa Rica has an area of 52.000 km, with a population of approximately five million people, the climate is tropical and humid, and the people are very friendly with the foreign person.

The University of Costa Rica has offices throughout the country, the Costa Rican population, according to their geographical location, has access to higher education.



The University of Costa Rica has six major areas of knowledge: Arts and Humanities, Basic Sciences, Agro Science, Social Science, Health and Engineering.

In each of them we have authorities that are responsible for coordinating the academic activities. This authorities can be call as Dean, Principal, and Faculty Assembly (professors) and they represent the higher collegial body grouped. In most cases, faculties are composed of schools, which are the units that implement education, research and social action. Around 100 careers are given under this first mode, culminating with university degrees (undergraduate and graduate), or, undergraduate to graduate programs and certificates of specialization in special programs.

The Social Action examines the needs and social and higher education demands of the Costa Rican population, in contact with people and the environment, complements and enriches their work through institutional programs, cultural processes, continuing education, extension teaching, community work and the media. This Social Action is one substantive activity that integrates and continuously fed back the university work with the national and international community in order to achieve, together, the changes required to improve the quality of life.

The highest authority for Social Action is the promoter that results in research and teaching projects, in coordination with communities and population that provide the training and knowledge sharing, from a vision of cooperation, access and support.

Social Action programs are made up of a set of projects that provide an approach articulately planned medium and long term, working with a transdisciplinary form with different populations in different geographical areas. They are characterized by accompanying processes that link the university with different

social actors in different spaces that respond to the particular needs and demands, through capacity building that contribute to the improvement of living conditions. Social Action programs seek to influence through collective and respectful dialogue that not only promote self-sufficiency and independence of social actors, but feeds the work of the substantive activities of the University of Costa Rica.

Regarding equal opportunities and access to education, there are the University of Costa Rica regulations, guidelines, institutional regulations, policies, agreements that believe that the Costa Rican population is entitled to receive higher education. Also, confirm the principle of "promoting actions to reduce and eliminate any inequality in the university community in order to contribute to consolidate a culture of justice, fairness and respect for people.

All acts in the institution are based on the understanding of individual and collective rights and duties, as well as recognition, appreciation and valuing differences of individuals and Institutions of Higher Education State University.

University of Costa Rica is committed to provide scholarships, residences , dining and other services to the students who require them. In short, this program is intended to provide scholarship opportunities and benefits to students from socially disadvantaged areas and those who are known for their leadership in the academy area.

The University of Costa Rica:

1. Promotes and ensures the benefits of scholarship opportunities and services for the student population, agile, accessible, timely and consistent with the mission of the University.
2. Contributes to attraction, admission, retention and graduation of students, under principles of quality, solidarity, equity, diversity and social justice.
3. Provides support to students with disabilities, who come from areas with limited opportunities in socio-economic, geographical or cultural background. Also, provides support in areas as: academic, arts and sports and leadership programs.
4. Promotes the participation of students in the process of international scholarships.
5. Encourages participation of trainees in programs, projects and academic activities that develops in the institution, to be important areas for personal and professional grow.
6. Provides opportunities of training in and out the country.
7. The university try the comprehensive development of the fellows, in coordination with various university departments and academics units.

The University of Costa Rica promotes ethical principles in:

Promoting decent work, mystical, equity, commitment, the exercise of human rights and excellence in the university, in accordance with the implementation and promotion of the values .

Also affirms the principle of university autonomy as a fundamental pillar of the model of public, democratic and humanistic university in the constant pursuit of achieving the common good.

Promoting actions to reduce and eliminate any inequality in the university community, in order to help consolidate a culture of justice, fairness and respect for people.

Drives the technological, intellectual honesty, cultural, artistic, scientific interaction in all the members of the community. Promote the support to programs and projects that strengthen and educate the general public on the rational use of available resources.

Stimulates the formation of a creative and critical awareness in the people within the Costa Rican community, enabling all sectors of society to participate effectively in the various processes of national activity.

Train professionals in all fields of knowledge, integrating a humanistic culture with its special or vocational training. Contribute to the advancement of the sciences, arts, humanities and technologies, reaffirming its interface and applying the knowledge of the Costa Rican reality and the international community.

Promote and develop with relevance and high level the teaching, research and the social action, influencing the growth and development not only in Costa Rica, also the Latin American region.

“Every human being has the right to grow and develop within an environment that provides the resources to achieve.” Ana Luisa Guzmán.

In a Crucible of Hygiene and Puberty: A Proposed Instructional Strategy

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Abstract

The paper reflects the outcome of a tried out proposed teaching strategy that can be employed for a large class. The instructional plan was implemented to sixty learners, both male and female and is in first year high school last August, 2012. The main topic of the instructional strategy is about hygiene and puberty and how these two are related to each other. The proposed teaching strategy recommends the execution of a workshop type of learning for a large class specially for general education topics. It aims to keep the attention span of the young learners at a high level while enjoying and learning at the same time. The primary evaluation procedures utilized by the researcher are observation and assessment of the written feedback from the participants. Results of the instructional strategy projects that the nature of workshop type of learning is an effective pedagogical method for young learners situated in a large class. It was proven that the said strategy can keep the learners pro-active and attentive.

Keywords. Workshop type of learning, hygiene and puberty, large class, attention span.

Background of the Study

Puberty is the phase of life where changes happen rapidly, and surprisingly. Teenagers may or may not have any idea about these changes on why and how these changes occur. A lot of school boys and girls are wondering how to go about the changes they experience. In line with this, hygiene becomes an issue or rather a major construct that they have to familiarize with. Hygiene is an essential matter in every adolescent. It permeates the adolescents into a better esteem that is significant in their holistic growth. The researcher believes that inculcating basic knowledge on puberty and hygiene to teenagers shall aid them into a deeper understanding of what they are going through in that particular stage of their life. These physiological changes are brought about by the body's preparation to adulthood.

The purpose of this strategy is to utilize participative methods in order to invite initiative from the students. "A happy and relaxed learner is a successful learner" (British Council, 2011). One importance of this strategy is that the learners are teenagers and that these age bracket belongs to those who starts to be more outgoing and those that socializes more. In order to become "socially accepted", they have to present themselves in such a way that is acceptable to the society. Filipino setting finds good grooming important. Soon these adolescents will become adults too therefore this time of their lives should prepare them on how to deal with such necessities in the future. I believe that the learners should be aware and give much attention to their needs related to puberty and hygiene. Hygienic products and tools will be introduced too to aid awareness in the learners. Hygiene is important in terms of health also, by knowing how to properly be groomed, one's overall well being is taken care of. Peers making fun of an adolescent is inevitable; this has an impact to one's perspective of self. With proper hygiene, this can be avoided resulting to the presentation of one's best self. By deepening their understanding on puberty and hygiene they are being encouraged to be responsible from within too and this will affect their attitude. Imparting change will only be successful if change indeed has transpired, and this is the main goal of the proposed strategy. Lastly, it is imperative that an adolescent attend to his/her well being.

Salyers and McKee (n.d.) stated that the puberty or the teenage years of adolescent learners are the phenomenal years that are challenging for educators. It was also mentioned in their article entitled "The Young Adolescent Learner" that these learning years are crucial and necessitates a pedagogical design that incorporates full range of sensory motor experiences. It was deemed from their study that engaging these experiences to their learning will increase their attention span. The researcher believes that the teenage years are those with a short attention span and requires a more demanding teaching style.

Lastly, a workshop type of learning is proposed to prolong the attention span of learners and to secure that the learning is heightened even in a large class. Since the typical problem encountered by a large class is classroom management and achieving the learning objectives, a workshop way of learning is believed to be the most effective teaching method.

Related Literature

Workshop way of learning

Kelley (1951) wrote a book entitled "Workshop Way of Learning". He enumerated the purposes of a workshop type of learning. Here are some of the list 1.) To put teachers in situations that will break down the barriers between them so that they can more readily communicate. 2.) To give teachers experience in a cooperative undertaking. 2.) so that teachers will learn methods and techniques that they can use in their own classrooms 3.) so that teachers will have collaboration with others and that they may produce materials that will be useful in their teaching.

In a workshop way of teaching, Kelley (1951) identified resources needed in preparations such as the staff, the reading materials, the outside resource person, visual and auditory aids. He also defined some procedures used to break the barriers or reducing barriers between learners. A very notable procedure he mentioned is to engage in a considerable amount of activity in the workshop that is designed to coax them out of their shells and to make them comfortable outside their shells. For some students, it might be more difficult to participate in workshop activities than any assigned book lesson. Participation is encouraged from the learners not plainly because it is fun and enjoyable but because the more a student hates to participate the more that he needs to since barriers should be reduced. As cited in the book, the use of first names is encouraged to break or reduce the barrier too. Two way communication or asking the students to participate and answer workshop questions is also a way to reduce the barriers since this will build confidence among the students and will increase their ability to contribute.

As written in the book, "effort is made to cause the learner to direct his attention to his own state of mind, and his own role in the total workshop. He thinks about himself and tries to see himself, to consider whether he is doing his part as well as possible" (Kelley, P.87)

When it comes to outcome of a workshop type of learning, there were several concepts listed. First is that we see changes in attitudes, as stated to translate knowledge into actual power, it takes energy. Attitude reveals how different a person is. Another outcome of this method is that we can observe changes in teaching methods, reports say that there is better relationship between teachers and students. Teachers coin the term "democratic teaching" related to workshop way of teaching, they said that they have a more relaxed attitude towards teaching as compared with their former teaching styles which they dread because it is full of tension. Next outcome is that there are signs of personal growth, this is the purpose of all education as teaching is the primary business of creating a safe environment where growth may take place and a bigger understanding of other humans. Another outcome for a workshop type of learning is that human relations are improved. Change in the human being's feeling and attitude is the ultimate and most important outcome. There should be a change in order to prove that learning took place. One important factor that workshop outcomes has is that friendships are formed. The fellowship formed in a workshop is very important in providing faith and courage with one another. In a workshop type of learning, we see prejudices reduced too. In the setting that a workshop facilitates is where open mindedness is conducive. Finally, we see appreciation for and understanding of democracy. School settings somehow give learners an undemocratic experience in an authoritarian method of teaching. In workshops, the learners are under a democratic condition of being able to contribute actively. (Kelley, 1951)

Harman (1990) described the workshop way of teaching as a routine and freedom to a healthier climate. From her study, she cited the instructional design of Grace Pilon where it was mentioned that workshop way of teaching encourages high students involvement. These involvement is highly beneficial for a large class population. The workshop way of teaching according to Pilon (as cited by Harman, 1990) is a procedure that attends and serves also the students with short attention span. Intelligent involvement is also one of the advantages of this kind of teaching procedure since it encourages high involvement not just by mere writing and reciting because this approach invites the students to focus, concentrate, think, share, and judge too. Meeting diverse needs is another positive contribution for this type of approach since it can cater even to the insecure, belligerent and those who are slow to grow. The principle of promoting learning living truths is another highlight for this approach since it stirs reinforcements to students to work hard at their right of own time to think. Lastly, Pilon's model suggests that workshop way is respecting dignity at all costs. It explores the possibility to see the positive potentials and the essential goodness in a student.

St. Martin Tour Academy website described the workshop way (as taken from their website) as:

“Through Workshop Way, the required diocesan curriculum is organized and taught in a way that instills self-confidence, intelligence and a life-long love for learning in each student. With Workshop Way students become successful learners because all students learn they can make mistakes and be wrong while learning, but that making mistakes does not diminish their intelligence. Students become self-aware and experience their own thought and growth. Workshop Way works because teachers set up and maintain an environment that motivates students to full participation in both workshop and full-class learning sessions..” (St Martin Tours Academy, 2012)

This only means that workshop way is designed to cater diversities in such a way not constraint to the traditional way of learning. Workshop way fosters a learning environment that sees the skills of the learners as positive and trying to improve it with the interactive experience.

Group Dynamics

Kelley wrote that “cooperation as a technique and as a way of life is superior to competition” (1951, p. 6). When people are cooperating with one another they also learn from each other. they develop dependence and confidence with each other. Human relations is utilized when people are situated to cooperate.

Klep, Wisse and Flyer (2010) studied on the dynamics of group affect which yields several effects on their performance of tasks. There were 70 three participant work groups who participated. The results show that the groups performed better on tasks that are creative in nature when they are on a positive mood and performed better in analytical tasks when they are on a negative mood. It also pointed out on one essential construct which is group belongingness that refers to the human motivation to be a member or an affiliate with others, this is to avoid loneliness and alienation. Also, it involves feelings of companionship, connectedness and affiliation. (Baumeister & Leary, 1995 as cited by Klep et al., 2010)

Sniezek (2007) in her blog pointed out that:

“Groups allow for critical support mechanisms that increase the chance of survival for all group members. For this reason it is only natural that humans today either unconsciously or consciously form or flock towards groups. Groups, however, do not possess these survival benefits without important costs such as inter and intra group competition, inter and intra group conflict, and social shielding from others outside of the group. Group dynamics is based on group processes that develop within a group that is not present in a random collection of individuals“.

By this, Sniezek defines group dynamics as a tool to learn and socialize at the same time. Also, with group dynamics, ideas are shared, processed and assessed thereby promoting a change in an individual. The group is consists of different people which is why the output of a group is different with the output of an individual alone. The collaboration of ideas depicts a positive notion that is why as cliché as it is two heads are better than one..... and so more is better.

Large Class

In a single cohort, a large class may include 50-70 students. Burnett and Krause (n.d.) stated that it is effective that the learners of the large class are thinking about their topic and are engaged with the information being taught to them. A few of the strategies suggested by Burnett and Krause (n.d.) are as follows:

- 1) Be motivated and enthusiastic by capturing student’s attention.
- 2) Keep it lively by moving around.
- 3) Encourage interaction and engage with students during lectures.
- 4) Utility of several interactive activities to apply the learning from the lecture.
- 5) The need to regularly monitoring students’ understanding.

Furthermore, UNESCO (2006) defined large class as a class of more than 50 learners and as relatively perceived by teachers. It was stated from the booklet they produced that the students can benefit from large classes also. Since there is an extensive variety from their group, they can learn and share different ideas from each other. In their research about teaching strategies for a large class, UNESCO (2006) suggested to involve the students in facilitating the lessons, that is to make them feel that they can also contribute.

Profile of Learners

The learners were first year high school students of Brainshire Science School in Airport road Pasay city There were sixty learners, or the total population of the first year high school students of the said school. The age

bracket of these learners is from 12- 14 years of age. They are a mixed of girls and boys in terms of sex. These learners are deemed to be undergoing major changes in their body which is believed to be part of puberty.

Objectives

The primary objectives of the proposed teaching strategy include:

- 1) To be able to make the learners familiar and know the importance of basic hygiene tools in terms of dental/oral, facial and over all bodily hygiene.
- 2) To exhibit interaction within the large class.
- 3) To invite active participation from the learners.

Target Thinking Skills

The proposed teaching strategy targets the following thinking skills from the 16 habits of mind summarized by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (2000):

1.)*Persisting*- there were three main activities in the workshop, each is crafted to make the learners want to win.

2.)*Taking Responsible Risks*- the students were exposed to activities that will test their risk taking behaviours and immediate decision making skills.

3.)*Thinking Interdependently*- Since the proposed teaching strategy is designed for a large class, decisions are expected to be done in collaboration, this thinking skill will enhance the interpersonal skills of the learners too.

4.) *Applying past Knowledge to new situations*- this skill was targeted on the pre-requisite of the workshop to somehow test the prior knowledge that the learners have.

5.) *Responding with wonderment and awe*- since the objective of the instructional plan is to invite active participation, activities were created in such a way that all students will participate and will engage themselves.

Procedure of implementation/Methods

The instructional plan was designed for a two hour workshop on hygiene and puberty. It is divided into three activities which addressed the objectives of the instructional plan.

The activities designed are interactive, promotes group dynamics and team work and are reward based. The instructional plan is designed in a workshop type of learning. The pedagogical approach is more democratic and invites active participation from the learners. It was also designed to heighten then attention span of the learners.

For the prerequisite, the teacher assessed prior knowledge of the students through question and answer. This is done to recall information on hygiene and puberty. The teacher facilitated brainstorming among the learners to explain why hygiene in puberty is important. The teacher asked the learners to identify the changes that they encounter in their body in the stage of puberty. The teacher provided several hygiene practices among different cultures too. She presented some ancient hygiene practices and compared it to the recent and the conventional for our society. The teacher explained how to deal with the changes that takes place in an adolescent's body. She also explained why these changes happen to them. The next paragraphs are the three main activities of the workshop conducted.

I SHALL REMEMBER

The first part was head started by an introduction; basically the teacher asked how the learners define the concepts hygiene and puberty. It was then followed by a memory game. In this part of the try out, the learners were divided into five groups, consisting of twelve members each. The memory game had two parts the first part required six members only. For the first part of the memory game the six learners per group were asked to pick a paper in a box. Each paper signifies one dental hygiene tool. They will tell the next learner what they have picked by whispering and the second learner will pick a paper too, bearing another dental hygiene tool and will now relay two dental tools until the sixth learner picks a paper. The sixth learner should relay the six dental tools to the first learner in any order, to complete the basic dental kit that an adolescent should have. The first team who gets the complete kit first to enumerate with the facilitator wins. The dental tools marked in the kit are tooth brush, tooth paste, mouthwash, floss, breath spray and breath mints.

The second part of the first activity is for facial care. The other six members for each group were tasked to do the same memory relay game. The facial kit to be completed consists of facial wash, facial toner, facial moisturizer, facial powder, oil blotter and facial scrub.

The first game was ended by integration of what they have learned. The facilitator came around and asked selected learners what they have learned from the activity. Of course, points were given to the winning groups.

IF THE TIME IS RIGHT

The second game is about general knowledge on basic hygiene. The groups were asked to form a circle. Basically, the second activity is like a quiz bee but with a twist. The title of the second activity is “if the time is right”. Each group will be given 100 minutes as a “time fund”. Before each question, each group should bid a certain number of minutes from their fund. The group with the highest bid shall be given the chance to answer the question. In case of a tie, the group who bid first shall be given the slot to answer. In case the group gets the question correctly, the minutes they bid shall be added to their minute funds but in the case that they will have a wrong answer, the minutes they have bid shall be deducted from their total funds. The questions are descriptive in nature, the facilitator will describe a hygienic tool that the learners shall answer after 10 seconds or less.

This part of the workshop provided the learners an avenue to make critical decision making as they have to be careful on how they will conduct every bid and every answer. With the constraint of time, they shall decide as a group as well that is why this part of the activity has promoted a great sense of group dynamics. It wrapped up with a q and a portion wherein the facilitator asked several questions from the learners on the things that they have realized in making a critical decision that greatly affects a team, not just themselves.

WHERE IT BELONGS

The last part of the workshop is about choosing the best possible answer. In this part of the activity, each group was given a moderator who holds one box containing different hygiene tools of all sorts. The group shall be allowed to go back to the box ten times only, allowing ten members of their team to get one each. They will be asked to pick the seven most used bath tools. After the time allotted to do the choosing (5 minutes), they shall be provided with a two minute sorting and decision making as a group on which seven most bath essential will be their final answer. The group may or may not utilize the maximum time allotted as the determinant of the winning group is as to whoever gets the seven most correct answer in the least possible time.

The final part of the workshop is an integration of all the realizations and learning encountered by the learners. Two members from each group were asked to share what they have learned. A summative assessment was conducted by asking for a brief answer on what some of the learners grasp from the entire workshop.

Results

As a result, all objectives were addressed from the activities conducted. The targeted thinking skills were also satisfied. As seen and heard in feedback provided by the students, they truly enjoyed the workshop. As part of personal observation, learners actively participated in all activities. The first objective is to be able to make the learners familiar with basic hygiene tools in terms of dental/oral, facial and over all bodily hygiene, at the integration of the first activity learners were able to grasp the list of these tools and they were able to know why these tools are important to their overall well being. The second objective was to know the importance of the concepts hygiene and puberty. They were able to give an in depth description of why the two concepts are essential in their lives. The last objective was conspicuously observed as all learners were able to participate actively, with awe, wonderment and enthusiasm. Selected feedback from the students are shown as follows:

My evaluation during our personal hygiene workshop is fun and exciting. There are many games and we've learned a lot about personal hygiene. - Jhaira Lanugan

My comment about the program is that it was awesome I've learned a lesson how to have a proper caring and maintaining our body clean - Jerald Soltes

It was fun and exciting because it had many games and I have learned about personal hygiene; tools and equipments for grooming. - Angelo Tayag

My evaluation is that the seminar was very enjoyable because there's a lot of activities. She taught us how to take care ourself and told us the different tools to take care of our body like shampoo and lotions. - Edrian Vizcarra

I had fun and I learned so many things about personal/proper hygiene. I like the activities. It's very related in the topic and it was so fun! That I cannot forget it, even though we didn't win I had fun. - Coleen Andres

The Personal Hygiene led by Ms. June Rose was great experience because I learned a lot of things from her in keeping our body clean. She explained the tips for us to be clean. Most of all, it was fun to know different tips and advices that she had given us in the seminar. - Louise Alpanta

The personal hygiene workshop was so fun because Ms. June is full of energy to teach us about personal hygiene and how to take care of ourselves to prevent sickness cause of any bacteria and because of that seminar. Now, I know how to take care of myself. - Millet Briones

The target thinking skills were also met. Persisting was met since the learners were able to maintain their determination to win and get the reward. Their drive to win was established and maintained until the end of the workshop. On taking responsible risks, learners were able to accomplish this on the second activity where they have to bid for time. The consequences of their decisions affect their performance as a group and to their overall score for the activity. On thinking interdependently, students were able to make critical decisions as a group. At a limited time, they were able to consolidate their decisions and rationale behind every suggested option that will work for the group performance. The fourth targeted thinking skill was achieved since they were able to apply past knowledge from their lessons to the quiz bee contest. Since the quiz bee has a twist, critical decision making was tested and hastened. The fifth targeted thinking skill is probably the most satisfied. The learners responded with so much enthusiasm. They played fairly, actively and happily. This is physically seen from how they responded to all the activities.

Finally, the result of the motivation is effective since it drove the learners' enthusiasm and persistence in order to actively participate and learn from the workshop. The reward system is said to be efficient in this manner of inviting participation from the learners.

Conclusions and Recommendations

As a conclusion, the proposed strategy is sufficient to handle a workshop for hygiene and puberty and other general education topics. It can carry out an interactive discussion between a teacher and her learners. The strategy proposed is good enough as a standalone workshop next time it will be implemented. Based on the results of the try out, the activities were fun and related to the topic. The employed method was done in such a way that it utilized the allowable time efficiently for a large class kind of teaching. A set of martial was provided for the teacher in order to manage the large class and since the teacher is not part of the organization (a resource speaker for that matter) the need to utilize martial is high. The martial are familiar with the students and vice versa. This way, they know how to handle the free riders and social loafers in the group.

The peer collaboration also helped increase the attention span of the learners. Even if they belong in a large class type of learning, the interactive activities which incorporated a lot of their motor skills paved an avenue to heighten the learning levels of the learners.

If the proposed instructional strategy is to be implemented, more time allotted is highly recommended since it could pass through the targeted thinking skills longer and better. Next time also, the teacher should make sure that the number of members per group is not very large in order to control and encourage the groups more. One part of the activity that should be carefully assessed is the giving of instructions since the learners are large in number it takes time to give instructions sacrificing the quality of information transferred to the learners. It should be consciously and cautiously handed over to make sure that each learner has a good grasp of the instructions. One of the most essential requirements for conducting an interactive workshop is to ensure the holistic understanding of the learners that they comprehended well what the whole workshop is all about. The problem with a fun filled workshop is the possibility of sacrificing the understanding of the main objective which is to educate and transfer knowledge. This workshop made sure that the activities bring along learning to the participants. One of the considerations to make in providing rewards to the learners as a means of motivation is to make it worthy of their persistence to win. It provided ease of pedagogical approach since it is made fun in a safe environment of also boosting their confidence

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L2 learning of non-native speakers: Comparing Malaysia and the United Kingdom

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Abstract

This study examined the perceptions about second language (L2) or English language learning held by the students at the Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM) and Sheffiled Hallam University (SHU). It further analyzed the respondents' views as related to language learning attitudes and language academic perceptions. Comparisons were made in the responses elicited from UKM and SHU students, as well as from the male and female subjects. A survey questionnaire was adapted from the one designed based on the works of Sparks, Ganschow and Javorsky (1993), Argaman and Abu-Rabia (2002), and Bell et al (2008). The instruments were used to gather the data from students taking the English language courses at both universities. The results revealed variations in response with respect to learners' perceptions about L2 learning. There were significant differences between UKM and SHU students with respect to some of the items related to language learning attitudes and academic perceptions. The paper also addressed the practical implications of the results.

Keywords: L2 learning; Non-native speakers

Introduction

Learning a second language (L2) is one of the significant experiences encountered by a student in an institution of higher learning. This is especially so if a particular second language, for instance the English language is used as the language of instruction in the institution/university or is used widely in reading and referencing tasks. If majority of the reading materials available in the university library are in the English language, then there is a great need for the university students to master their second language and improve their language competence. The learning or acquisition of another language is a complex and an intriguing process. It would take an individual a considerable period of time to acquire the target language, other than his/her own native tongue. Some second language acquirers would be more successful than others in acquiring a second language. This is dependent on the variables available to or exhibited by the learners; one of these which is crucial is the attitude-motivation factor. Educationists seem to frequently contribute views and suggestions that could increase the rate of second language acquisition or design materials that would enhance second language learning and mastery. Nevertheless, seldom would educationists investigate and document learners' perceptions and beliefs about their second language learning, experiences and world view. Investigations on students' perceptions should be conducted for several reasons: (i) educators would be aware about language learning from the learners' perspectives, (ii) learners' perceptions guide the way they behave and these can impact their learning outcomes, (iii) educational institutions can provide empowerment to the learners, and (iv) learners' views could lead to an improvement in the system of education.

Furthermore, investigations seem to be centred on learners of one particular setting and country. There is no research conducted comparing L2 learners in Malaysia and the United Kingdom (UK). The investigator believes that this research would provide a compelling contribution to the field of applied linguistics. A study of learners' perceptions would present a better understanding of students' performance and competence. According to O'Shaughnessy (1992) "perception is an experience" (p. 226) that assists and provides physical actions. Thus, learners' perceptions are learners' experiences that impact their actions and behaviour. A study of learners' perceptions would enable researchers to gain access into the learners' world view as well as into how they interpret their learning and learning experiences. The aim of this research is to examine the perceptions about

second language learning (L2) or English language learning held by non-native speakers of English in Malaysia and the United Kingdom (UK). It further examines the subjects' views as related to language learning attitudes and language academic perceptions. This study compares the responses elicited from the Malaysian subjects and the UK subjects, as well as from the male and female respondents. This investigation addresses the following research questions (RQ): RQ (1) Is there a significant difference between the UKM and SHU non-native speakers with respect to language learning attitudes and academic skills?; and RQ (2) Is there a significant difference between the male and female non-native speakers with respect to language learning attitudes and academic skills?

Review of Literature

Two theoretical perspectives of second language learning and acquisition that form the basis of this study. The first one is Gardner's Socio-Educational Model and second, it is Cummin's Model of Academic Language. Previous studies related to this investigation were also discussed. Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (1985) asserts that second language acquisition takes place in a social and cultural context. It proposes that the cultural beliefs and the community that the individuals are in, may influence the general language proficiency. For instance, if the cultural belief is that second language learning is difficult, then there would be low level of achievement. The model also indicates that there are four different kinds of individual differences, for instance intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety. Attitudes and personality would have their effect through one of these four components. Cummin's Model of Academic Language (Cummins, 1992 cited in Short, 2002; Snow, Met & Genesee, 1992) considers the integration of language and content instruction. According to Snow, Met and Genesee (1992), Cummins posits a paradigm in which the language tasks may be characterized as context reduced or context embedded and in which the tasks addressed through language may be cognitively demanding or undemanding. This model is based on the basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language (CALP) distinction. BICS refers to the language proficiency in everyday communication context while CALP concerns the manipulation of language in decontextualized academic situations (Cummins, 1992, 2003).

Related literature generally agrees that a measure of attitudes and motivation toward L2 learning would relate to achievement in that language (Gardner, 1985). In general, positive attitudes towards the L2, its speakers, and its culture can be expected to improve and enhance learning. (Ellis, 1994; Gardner, 1985). Tremblay and Gardner (1995) found positive language attitudes orient Canadian students toward developing specific learning goals and thus improved achievement in French courses. Among the results found by Shah (1999; 2002) was that the research subjects showed lack of positive attitude and low motivational intensity due to minimal effort put on L2 learning; this led to low English as a Second Language (ESL) achievement and academic achievement.

Sidek and Maher (2009) conducted a study on language learning attitudes and English language proficiency of first year Quranic students at KUIM. The research aimed to identify language learning attitude and its relationship with English Language proficiency amongst second language learners of English in KUIM. The results indicated that the learners showed less favourable language learning attitude as portrayed by the inclination of personality traits towards the less favourable attitude zones. It could be inferred that language learning attitude did influence the subjects' performance in their English language examination as pointed out by their final English examination results at the end of the first semester of their freshman year. The researchers recommended cooperative learning strategies in the English language activities conducted in the classroom as to improve the students' language learning attitude.

A study on motivation and attitude in learning English among UiTM students was carried out by Bidin, Jusoff, Aziz, Salleh and Tajudin (2009) in the northern region of Malaysia. The purpose of the investigation was to describe the relationship between the students' motivation and attitude and their English language performance. The questionnaires were distributed to the part two students from three UiTM campuses in the northern part of Malaysia. It was found that:

...the mean scores analysis of the motivation and performance revealed that the students were more extrinsically than intrinsically motivated when learning English. Nevertheless, the one-way ANOVA test indicated no significant differences. To test the students' attitudes and their performance, the Spearman Rho Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient was used and the analysis revealed a significant correlation between attitude

and achievement. The one-way ANOVA also showed that there is a significant difference. The mean scores was used to find out whether there is any difference between the respondents of different gender and their attitude in learning English. The results showed the existence of significant difference (p. 16).

Further, “the mean for the male participants was 2.95, while the mean for the female respondents was 3.01. When comparing the two means, “the female respondents’ mean is slightly higher than the male respondents’. Therefore, the female respondents have slightly better attitude in learning English compared to the male respondents” (p. 18).

Another study was conducted by Hansheng Yan (2009) on relations between gender difference and English vocabulary and the overall proficiency level. The aim of the study was to compare the cognitive CET-4 vocabulary, applied vocabulary and CET-4 scores of male group of English learners with that of female group of English learners in the Qufu Normal University in China. The results of the study showed that there were obvious differences in the students’ CET-4 cognitive vocabulary, applied vocabulary and CET-4 scores, and that the female group always excelled the male group in terms of both vocabulary and CET-4 scores. Thus, it can be concluded that in second language learning in the university, “there exist obvious gender differences among males and females, and that female have language advantages. Finally, it is pointed out that these conclusions are just exploratory due to limitations of this study, and more research is required to make clear relations between gender and second language learning” (p. 109).

An interesting research was conducted by Ladegaard (2007) in a rural community in Denmark. He analysed the language attitudes and linguistic behaviour among adolescents of both sexes. The results concluded that the traditional pattern of boys/men speaking in a significantly more non-standard way than girls/women is reproduced in the present context. The male informants express more genuinely positive attitudes to the language and culture of the local community than the female informants.

There is another study conducted by Shah and Ng (2005) which investigated on the reasons as to why international students from China and Indonesia did not perform well in the English Improvement Programme (EIP) available at Inti College, Malaysia. It addressed the students' attitudes towards Acrolect Malaysian English and their motivation to learn the language. Survey questionnaires were utilized to gather the data from the EIP students. The findings revealed that the students showed negative attitudes towards Acrolect Malaysian English. The preferred models were the native English speaker models, for instance Standard American English and Standard British English. In terms of motivation, the students were instrumentally motivated than integratively motivated. It was also found that despite high motivational intensity or effort, students' language performance was poor. This shows that high degree of effort alone without language desire or positive attitude is not sufficient for language learning success.

Shah, Yusof, Al-Bataineh, Yusop, Haron, Ong and Ahmad (2007) addressed the L2 learning beliefs the Malay students in a Malaysian university. The study examined the subjects’ beliefs in terms of the nature of second language learning, difficulty of second language learning, and second language learning aptitude. Survey questionnaires that were issued to the subjects were adapted from Horwitz’s (1987) Language Learning Beliefs Inventory. One of the most important findings was that majority of the respondents felt that it is not necessary to know about the English-speaking culture in order to speak English. They just would like to learn the English language per se. Over two-third of the respondents judged that vocabulary and grammar to be the most important for language learning. The participants seemed to believe that producing utterances with accurate vocabulary and correct grammar would enhance one’s credibility. They did not seem to believe in experimenting with the second language at the initial stage of learning. Over half of the participants considered some languages are easier to learn than others, while 43% indicated that English is a difficult language. English language is far from similar to the subjects’ first language (Malay language) in terms of language structures and rules. Majority of the respondents were not sure about having special language learning ability. This could impede their second language learning process and acquisition could be delayed.

In another related study Shah, Yusof, Sulaiman, Kudus, Yusof and Latiff (2009) compared the responses from the male and female subjects. One of the results revealed that both the males and females believed that learners who already acquired the L2 would face less difficulty in learning the third one. Both gender groups probably felt that these learners would inevitably employ the language learning strategies that they used to acquire the L2 in their attempt to acquire any subsequent languages. The subjects also resorted to translation throughout their learning process. Being in a climate where the Malay language was a dominant language, translating, word borrowing, code-switching and making associations between the two languages were the best options for the learners as they believed that these activities could hasten their pace of learning another language

Methodology

This research employed a survey and quantitative approach in the process of examining the perceptions of experiences held by the university students in Malaysia and the United Kingdom. A survey instrument designed by well-known researchers was adapted and used to obtain the participants' L2 learning experiences. The participants were students from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Malaysia and Sheffiled Hallam University (SHU), United Kingdom who were non-native speakers of the English language. Random selection approach was employed in choosing the respondents. The data were collected from one hundred and sixty-one students (n=161); out of the one hundred and sixty-one subjects, eighty-nine (n=89) were UKM students and another seven-two (n=72) were from SHU. The age range of the sample was 19-24 years, and there were 74 males and 87 females who responded to the survey instruments. Thirty-three (n=33) males and fifty-six (n=56) females were from UKM participated, while forty-one (n=41) males and thirty-one (n=31) females from SHU responded to the questionnaires. A survey questionnaire was adapted from the one designed based on the works of Sparks, Ganschow and Javorsky (1993), Argaman and Abu-Rabia (2002), and Bell et al (2008). T-test was conducted to analyze the data.

Results of the Study

The results of this investigation are presented in terms of answering two research questions. The questions are: (RQ1) Is there a significant difference between the UKM and SHU non-native speakers' with respect to language learning attitudes and academic skills?; and (RQ2) Is there a significant difference between the male and female non-native speakers with respect to language learning attitudes and academic skills?

To address RQ1 – “Is there a significant difference between the UKM and SHU non-native speakers' with respect to language learning attitudes and academic skills?”, t-test was conducted to compare differences between UKM and SHU students with respect to the mentioned aspects. Under L2 learning attitudes, fourteen items were analyzed, and in which there are four items each for “motivation” and “anxiety,” and three items each for “attention” and “self-confidence,” as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: English Language Learning Attitudes

No.	Question Items	UKM	SHU	p-value
1.	I define being successful for my English language course as an A scale.	2.27	2.22	.784
2.	I want to learn the English language.	2.28	2.15	.426
3.	I feel I should have studied harder for my English language courses.	2.15	2.31	.187
4.	I feel I have spent too much time studying for my English language courses.	3.46	3.74	.064
5.	I feel my attention wanders more easily in my English language course than my other courses.	3.28	3.85	.000*
6.	I feel I fall asleep more easily in my English language course than my other courses.	3.4	3.89	.003*
7.	I am more easily distracted when I study an English language course than my other courses.	3.2	3.79	.000*
8.	I have not gotten nervous and tense when studying for my English language course.	3.27	2.43	.000*
9.	I do not worry about my English language course.	3.45	2.86	.002*
10.	I feel anxious about my English language exams.	2.47	3.72	.000*
11.	I feel nervous and afraid about participating in class discussion during my English language course.	2.53	2.96	.028*
12.	I do not feel capable of studying my English language course.	3.36	3.65	.086
13.	I feel that I am not in control of my grades in my English language course.	2.87	3.79	.000*
14.	I will never be successful in an English language course.	4.18	4.00	.333

(* indicates significance)

Under the “motivation” aspect, all the four items indicated no statistically significant difference between the two universities, even though the means for UKM and SHU seemed to indicate differences. For instance, for the item “being successful in the English language is an ‘A’ scale,” the mean scores of UKM and SHU students were 2.27 and 2.22 respectively; this difference is not significant because $p > .05$. Other items that showed no significant difference were “I want to learn the English language” (UKM = 2.28; SHU = 2.15), “should have studied harder for my English language course” (UKM = 2.15; SHU = 2.31) and “spent too much time studying for my English language courses” (UKM = 3.46; SHU = 3.74). Although there was significant difference in

English language attitude between the two universities, the students in both universities seemed to exhibit positive attitude towards target language learning.

All of the items under “attention” showed significant differences in the means between the two universities. As can be seen, the items are “my attention wanders more easily in my English language course” (UKM = 3.28; SHU = 3.85), “fall asleep more easily in my English language course” (UKM = 3.4; SHU = 3.89) and “easily distracted when I study the English language course” (UKM = 3.2; SHU = 3.79). The SHU participants disagreed more to all these item than the UPM subjects; this means that the UKM students were less focused in their L2 learning than their SHU counterparts

Like the aspect on “attention”, all the items on “anxiety,” exhibited significant differences in the means. They are “I have not gotten nervous and tense when studying for my English language course” (UKM = 3.27; SHU = 2.43), “I do not worry about my English language course” (UKM = 3.45; SHU = 2.86), “I feel anxious about my English language exams” (UKM = 2.47; SHU = 3.72), and “I feel nervous and afraid about participating in class discussion during my English language course” (UKM = 2.53; SHU = 2.96). The data showed that the UKM students were more anxious than the SHU students during English language learning. They were more nervous, worried and afraid than the SHU participants. It can be inferred that the United Kingdom English speaking setting made it more conducive and less threatening to the international students learning English as another language.

With regard to self-confidence, only one item revealed significant difference in the means; the item is “I am not in control of my grades” (UKM = 2.87; SHU = 3.79). The SHU students tended to disagree more to this item than the UKM learners; this means that they exhibited a greater confidence than the UKM participants. The insignificant items are “I do not feel capable of studying for my English language course” (UKM = 3.36; SHU = 3.65) and “I will never be successful in the English language course” (UKM = 4.18; SHU = 4.00).

As can be seen in Table 2, nine items of L2 academic skills were analyzed.

Table 2: English Language Academic Skills

No.	Question Items	UKM	SHU	p-value
1.	I learn the rules of grammar in my English language easily.	3.64	3.26	.036*
2.	I learn the vocabulary of the English language easily.	3.19	2.33	.000*
3.	I have difficulty spelling words in the English language.	3.16	3.68	.001*
4.	I have difficulty in conversing/speaking in the English language.	2.67	3.15	.014*
5.	I have difficulty in listening to and understanding the English language as it is spoken.	3.07	3.74	.000*
6.	I read in the English language course easily.	3.07	2.25	.000*
7.	I write in the English language easily.	3.71	3.58	.452
8.	I have difficulty in translating the English language into my first language.	2.91	2.36	.001*
9.	I translate from my first language to the English language easily.	3.6	3.53	.679

(* indicates significance)

Seven items that revealed significant differences in mean scores between the two universities are: (i) “I learn the rules of grammar easily” (UKM = 3.64; SHU = 3.26); (ii) “I learn the vocabulary easily” (UKM = 3.19; SHU = 2.33); (iii) “I have difficulty spelling words” (UKM = 3.16; SHU = 3.68); (iv) “I have difficulty in conversing/speaking in the English language” (UKM = 2.67; SHU = 3.15); (v) “I have difficulty in listening to and understanding the English language as it is spoken” (UKM = 3.07; SHU = 3.74); (vi) “I read in the English language easily” (UKM = 3.07; SHU = 2.25); and (vii) “I have difficulty in translating the English language into my first language” (UKM = 2.91; SHU = 2.36). Compared to the SHU subjects, the UKM respondents showed a higher disagreement about the grammar and vocabulary learning being easy. The UKM students also felt it was difficult listening, understanding, speaking, reading and spelling in the English language; the SHU subjects did not feel such skills being very difficult. The higher agreement about the difficulty of translating from their first language to the English language was shown by the UKM participants more than the SHU subjects.

Two items that showed no significant differences in mean scores between the two universities are: (i) “I write in the English language easily” (UKM = 3.71; SHU = 3.58); and (ii) “I translate from my first language into the

English language easily” (UKM = 3.6; SHU= 3.53). Although there were no significant differences between the two university students, both groups seemed to encounter difficulty writing in another language and translating from their mother tongue into the English language.

To answer RQ2: “Is there a significant difference between the male and female non-native speakers with respect to language learning attitudes and academic skills?”, t-test for was conducted to compare differences between male and female students with respect to the mentioned aspects. Under L2 learning attitudes, fourteen items were analyzed (refer to Table 3).

Table 3: English Language Learning Attitudes

No.	Question Items	Male	Female	p-value
1.	I define being successful for my English language course as an A scale.	2.22	2.28	.735
2.	I want to learn the English language.	2.45	2.03	.009*
3.	I feel I should have studied harder for my English language courses.	2.27	2.17	.404
4.	I feel I have spent too much time studying for my English language courses.	3.68	3.51	.257
5.	I feel my attention wanders more easily in my English language course than my other courses.	3.51	3.55	.807
6.	I feel I fall asleep more easily in my English language course than my other courses.	3.39	3.82	.011*
7.	I am more easily distracted when I study an English language course than my other courses.	3.59	3.36	.175
8.	I have not gotten nervous and tense when studying for my English language course.	2.55	3.18	.001*
9.	I do not worry about my English language course.	2.95	3.39	.016*
10.	I feel anxious about my English language exams.	3.19	2.9	.121
11.	I feel nervous and afraid about participating in class discussion during my English language course.	2.86	2.6	.178
12.	I do not feel capable of studying my English language course.	3.53	3.46	.699
13.	I feel that I am not in control of my grades in my English language course.	3.24	3.31	.698
14.	I will never be successful in an English language course.	3.99	4.2	.249

(* indicates significance)

The four items that indicated statistically significant differences of mean scores between the males and females are: (i) “I want to learn the English language” (male = 2.45; female = 2.03); (ii) “fall asleep more easily in my English language course” (male = 3.39; female = 3.82); (iii) “I have not gotten nervous and tense when studying for my English language course (male = 2.55; female = 3.18) and (iv) “I do not worry about my English language course” (male = 2.95; female = 3.39). It can be seen that the males showed higher agreement than females about wanting to learn the English language. In terms of attention, the males tended to show lack of attention during target language learning. The females disagreed more towards not being nervous and tense and therefore seemed to experience more anxiety. In addition, the females seemed to be worried more about their L2 learning than the males. The other ten items that showed no significant differences are: (i) “being successful in my English language course is an ‘A’ scale”, (male = 2.22; female = 2.28); (ii) “should have studied harder for my English language course” (male = 2.27; female = 2.17); (iii) “spent too much time studying for my English language” (male = 3.68; female = 3.51); (iv) “I feel my attention wanders more easily in my English language course” (male = 3.51; female = 3.55); (v) “easily distracted when I study an English language course” (male = 3.59; female = 3.36); (vi) “I feel anxious about English language exams” (male = 3.19; female = 2.9); (vii) “I feel nervous and afraid about participating in class discussion during my English language course” (male = 2.86; female = 2.6); (viii) “I do not feel capable of studying for my English language course” (male = 3.53; female = 3.46); (ix) “I am not in control of my grades” (male = 3.24; female = 3.31); and (x) “I will never be successful in an English language course” (male = 3.99; female = 4.2).

As shown in Table 4, for L2 academic skills, nine items were analyzed.

Table 4: English Language Academic Skills

No.	Question Items	Male	Female	p-value
1.	I learn the rules of grammar in my English language easily.	3.86	3.14	.000*
2.	I learn the vocabulary of the English language easily.	2.92	2.71	.222
3.	I have difficulty spelling words in the English language.			

		3.31	3.46	.360
4.	I have difficulty in conversing/speaking in the English language.	2.86	2.91	.825
5.	I have difficulty in listening to and understanding the English language as it is spoken.	3.38	3.36	.899
6.	I read in the English language course easily.	2.77	2.64	.432
7.	I write in the English language easily.	3.65	3.66	.968
8.	I have difficulty in translating the English language into my first language.	2.41	2.89	.003*
9.	I translate from my first language to the English language easily.	3.92	3.26	.000*

(* indicates significance)

Three items that revealed significant differences in mean scores between the males and females are: (i) “I learn the rules of grammar easily” (male = 3.86; female = 3.14); (ii) “I have difficulty in translating the English language into my first language” (male = 2.41; female = 2.89); and (v) “I translate from my first language into the English language easily” (male = 3.92; female = 3.26). With respect to language rules, the males tended to feel the mastering of grammar as being difficult to achieve. The males more than the females felt that translation was a difficult process.

Six items that showed no significant differences in mean scores between males and females are: (i) “I learn the vocabulary easily” (male = 2.92; female = 2.71); (ii) “I have difficulty spelling words” (male = 3.31; female = 3.46); (iii) “I have difficulty in conversing/speaking in the English language” (male = 2.86; female = 2.91); (iv) “I have difficulty in listening to and understanding the English language as it is spoken” (male = 3.38; female = 3.36); (v) “I read in a English language course easily” (male = 2.77; female = 2.64); and (vi) “I write in the English language easily” (male = 3.65; female = 3.66).

Discussion and Implications

Since the subjects were from different language setting and circumstances, the data revealed different participants’ responses and a variation of subjects’ perceptions about L2 learning. Among the important results in the aspect of attitude/motivation were that majority of the subjects from both UKM and SHU wanted to learn English and most indicated paying attention in class. Despite this, not much of their time was allocated outside class towards the learning of the English language. Almost half of the respondents were worried about target language learning even though majority believed that they had the capability and would be successful. Quite a majority felt that they should have studied harder; this gave the indication that they had not been putting on a maximum effort in the learning of ESL. The results did not indicate that a great majority of the subjects giving maximum attention to L2 learning. This low motivational intensity indicated that the degree of attitude toward the learning of another language exhibited by the students was not very high. One of Shah’s (1999, 2002) findings revealed that underachievers exhibited lack of positive attitude and low motivational intensity towards L2 learning; similarly this study indicated that these research subjects of mixed ability and staying in two different settings, showed lack of positive attitude and also somewhat low motivational intensity towards the learning of L2. With respect to academic skills, majority admitted facing difficulty in learning the rules of grammar. About half of the respondents encountered difficulty in spelling, speaking, writing and reading. Nevertheless, quite a large number of the learners found translation a difficult process and this means that they need aid in this area. The UKM and SHU students also held different perceptions with respect to L2 learning. Some of their responses were significantly different from each other. The male and female respondents also exhibited different perceptions with respect to L2 learning; again, some of the items were significantly different from each other.

This research provided useful insights on participants’ perceptions on L2 learning. Majority of the respondents would like to learn another language, and hence implying that they were aware on the importance of being bilingual and the significant position of the English language in the global setting. But, there was lack of effort and energy put on the learning of an additional language; this effort should be increased and this means increasing the time of learning. The administrators from UKM and SHU should allocate more time and exposure to teaching of English, and in the case of UKM, a more formal and authentic English language situation should be created. The structures of a language should be emphasized and effective instruction of grammar should be employed. In the analysis of gender differences, the results revealed that more females than males gave more attention towards L2 learning, and also more males than females faced difficulty in areas such as anxiety and

translation. Results such as these provide educationists with reliable evidences with respect to which sex group need more coaching in L2 learning.

Since most participants need the translation skill, the language programs in both universities could be improved in terms of providing more translation coaching. Although this could be quite difficult to be conducted in SHU due to the presence of international students of differing mother tongues, avenues should be provided so that extra help could be forwarded in non-formal setting, for instance obtaining extra aid from students' own nationalities who are both competent in the English language and their first language. As in the case of Malaysia what the Ministry of Education, Malaysia could embark on, at the macro level is the introduction of a bilingual program, emulating the two-way bilingual program existing in the United States. The present language policy should perhaps be changed; a bilingual language policy would be more appropriate. More school subjects should be taught in the English language. Thirty to fifty per cent of the school hours should be reserved for the use of English in the teaching of some other subjects. To ensure that Malaysians could function effectively globally and internationally, this practice should be introduced; this could prevent further drop among Malaysians in L2 competency and fluency.

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Human Resource Management in the Implementation of Universal Basic Education in Nigeria: A Case Study of Some Selected Junior Secondary Schools

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Abstract

The study investigated the level of human resource management in the implementation of Universal Basic Education in Nigeria. The study specially examined the adequacy and competency of teachers in the teaching/learning process in selected Junior Secondary Schools in Kaduna, Nigeria. A total of ten (10) randomly selected junior secondary schools and fifty (50) randomly selected teachers were used for the study. Questionnaire was used to gather data from respondents. Data was analysed using frequencies and percentages. The findings revealed that most teachers are not adequately trained to teach in secondary schools in Nigeria. It was therefore recommended among others, that teachers and educational managers need to be provided with opportunities to improve their knowledge, skills, competency and understanding in their subject matters. Furthermore, in order to achieve the fundamental objective of the Universal Basic Education Programme which is to provide free, compulsory, uninterrupted nine year basic education to all school age children in every community in Nigeria, there is need to put in place a well planned and organised programme to train and re-train teachers regularly to boost their morale and enhance their performance.

Keywords:

Introduction/background of the study

Human resource management is an integral part of any organisation. It is crucial to maintaining and furthering the relevance, effectiveness and productivity of an organisation. An organisation refers to any complex institution such as government department, school system or company. The survival of an organisation is largely dependent on the quality of management or administrative services available.

Human resource management in the context of this research refers to the availability and adequacy of personnel for the implementation of the universal basic education programme.

Anaka and Anaekwe (2001) assert that there is population explosion across all levels of education without a corresponding increase in number of teaching staff. This has resulted in high student-teacher ratio which can jeopardize quality. For instance, pupils' population increased from six million to twelve million within four years UBE scheme. Soaring students' population should necessitate recruitment of more teachers.

It has often noted that no educational system can rise above the quality of its teachers. Obanya (2000) lamented that many educational initiatives gave dailed mainly because they did not take due account of the "teacher factor". Teachers are no doubt the pivot on which educational growth, development and quality hangs. The enrolment explosion rising from the implementation of the UBE programme necessitate the need for the production of quality teachers. Oyewobi (2002) while emphasizing that establishing new teacher education colleges as a means of providing teachers for the UBE programme within the shortest time might be too involving financially, recommended that the existing colleges of education can be expanded for the production of more teachers. Obanya (2000) suggested that teachers' association, universities, colleges of education, the National Teachers' Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) should be fully mobilized to develop a more systematic career improvement oriented and hands-on-skills targeted at continuing education programmes for all categories of teachers. All these are expected to enhance the productivity of teachers as well as guaranteeing quality assurance in the UBE programme.

The present study aims at assessing the availability, adequacy and management of human resources in the implementation of the Universal Basic Education Programme using some selected Junior Secondary Schools as case studies.

Review of related literature

Universal Basic Education (UBE) in Nigerian is a policy that is designed to cater for all children of school age (6 – 11years) nomadic population, urban slums, adult illiterates, school drop-outs and migrant people in physically isolated settlements, as well as people that may be considered as learners with special needs (Aboyi 2004). It is a programme which Ocheta and Olele (2009) says is a compulsory educational policy for Nigerian children irrespective of such bottle necks and handicaps associated with location, occupation, religion race and gender. This indicate that cultural differences, social economics, religions and location factors should not be an excuse (hindrance) to accessibility to basic education to the Nigerian child. This clearly shows that UBE's main objective is to eradicate illiteracy out of Nigeria, in order to achieve education for all (EFA), this also shows a step towards realization of millennium Development Goal (MDGs) and a step in making all Nigerian children reap the dividends of national and global technology breakthrough. As Mkpa (2005) said "the critical issues that requires the attention of UBE are access equity and quality basic education". This can be achieved via efficient and effective human resources management.

The purpose of Universal Basic Education in Nigeria as highlighted by Universal Basic Education hand book (2007) include:

- Developing the entire citizenry a strong consciousness for education and the commitment to its vigorous promotion.
- The provision of free Universal Basic Education for every Nigerian child of school age.
- Drastically the incidence of drop-out from the formal school system (through improved relevance, quality and efficiency).
- Catering for young persons who for one reason or another, have had to interrupt their school as well as other out-of-school children/adolescents through appropriate forms of complementary approaches to the provision and promotion of basic education.
- Ensure the acquisition of the appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, manipulative, communicative and life skills as well as the ethnic, moral and civic values needed for laying a strong foundation for life-long learning.

UBE programme has the potential to make the citizens productive and useful to themselves the country and the world at large if well implemented by human resource. Effective human resource management according to Wokocha (2006) is the key to the provision of high quality educational experiences.

The objectives of the UBE point to the fact that Nigeria wants all her citizens not just to have access to basic education but quality basic education, whether they are in Urban or Rural areas, primary or junior secondary schools. The above goals can be attained through effective human resource management. In view of this, the need for this study cannot be overemphasised.

Objectives of the study

To determine the availability, adequacy and management of human resources for the implementation of Universal Basic Education in selected Junior Secondary Schools in Kaduna State.

Research Question

To what extent are the human resources available, adequate and properly managed for the implementation of Universal Basic Education in Junior Secondary Schools in Kaduna State?

Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey design. Oppenhein (1992) described a survey as a study that involves a planned collection of data over a large area for the purpose of description. Cressey (1982) described it as a study that examines a situation as it is without any attempt to manipulate the dependent variables. The study population comprised all the 393 Junior Secondary Schools in Kaduna State and 175,655 students enrolled in such schools. A total of ten (10) schools and fifty (50) randomly selected teachers were used for the study. The

instrument used to collect data for the study was questionnaire. The data collected was analysed through the use of frequency counts and percentages.

Table 1: Availability of Human Resources (teachers) in ten (10) selected schools in Kaduna.

S/N	School	Number of teachers available	Number of teachers required
1	01	34	15
2	02	36	6
3	03	35	12
4	04	33	10
5	05	60	11
6	06	21	10
7	07	19	13
8	08	32	12
9	09	43	11
10	10	35	10

The data on table 1 indicates that the number of teachers available are not adequate for the successful implementation of the UBE programme in Kaduna.

Table 2: Availability of Human Resources (non-teaching staff) in ten (10) selected schools in Kaduna.

S/N	School	Number of non-teaching staff available	Number of non-teaching required
1	01	Nil	5
2	02	Nil	6
3	03	Nil	5
4	04	Nil	5
5	05	Nil	6
6	06	1	4
7	07	2	4
8	08	Nil	5
9	09	Nil	5
10	10	Nil	5

Table 2 indicates that most schools do not have non-teaching staff. The few schools that have non-teaching staff still require more. Both teaching and non-teaching staff are necessary requirement for the success of the UBE in Kaduna.

Table 3: Qualification of teachers in ten (10) selected schools

S/N	School	Number of teachers qualified		Total number of teachers unqualified		Total number of teachers
1	01	20	58%	14	41%	34
2	02	26	72%	10	27%	36
3	03	21	62%	13	38%	34
4	04	24	73%	9	27%	33
5	05	49	82%	11	18%	60
6	06	12	57%	9	43%	21
7	07	11	58%	8	42%	19
8	08	22	69%	10	31%	32
9	09	31	72%	12	28%	43
10	10	21	60%	14	40%	35

Table 3 above indicates that some teachers are not qualified to teach in Junior Secondary Schools in Kaduna. Most of the teachers who are not qualified are ND, HND or graduates without teaching qualification. The quality of teaching staff in the JSS is important for the success of UBE. Table 3 indicates their qualification in compliance with the minimum standard of NCE teaching qualification at the basic education level. Given the expectation that product at this final basic educational level are supposed to achieve sound measure of self attainment at their chosen vacations, it is absolutely necessary for teachers to attain the minimum standard qualification required to function effectively at this level. The Universal Basic Education Programme requires qualified teachers for its successful implementation. The success of any organisation is a resultant effect of quantity and quality of its working force.

Table 4: Students' Enrolment

S/N	School	Enrolment		Total
		Male	Female	
1	01	0	1022	1022
2	02	763	1798	1798
3	03	0	1022	1022
4	04	444	482	926
5	05	0	1974	1974
6	06	931	0	931
7	07	452	598	1050

8	08	470	505	975
9	09	463	300	763
10	10	1000	0	1000

The enrolment figures in Table 4 indicates that the teacher pupil ration in some of the schools is above 1:30 as recommended by the National Policy on Education.

Conclusion

In any educational system, the teacher is an important variable whose functions can enhance or deter the realization of her goals. The success or failure of such a system therefore, to a large extent, will depend on the teacher's effectiveness for no educational system can rise above the quality of teachers. Human resource management is therefore, expected to occupy a prominent place in the educational system. Nigeria is still far from having the calibre of teachers who can actually effect the kind of change desired in children and cater for the individual differences that exists among the children.

The shortage of teachers found in this study in Junior Secondary Schools implies that adequate planning might perhaps not have taken place in Kaduna State for the recruitment of teachers to the schools. Enrolment of students which is always on the increase implies the need for effecting planning for future supply of teachers to schools.

The findings of this study has led to the conclusion that teacher availability has not been fully embarked upon in the state. This is evident in the findings of the study which shows that teaching manpower was not adequately available in the schools.

The success of the UBE programme depends on the availability and effect management of relevant human resources, because quality education depends on the quality of teachers and other relevant staff available. It is obvious from this study that the relevant human resources for the survival of UBE are not adequate.

Consequently, implementation of the programme will continue to suffer very serious setback if the required human resources are not provided urgently.

Recommendations

- Based on the findings of this study, it was recommended that the state government should recruit more teachers on annual basis into Junior Secondary schools in the state in order to meet up with the influx of students into the schools. This is necessary in order to achieve the objectives of the Universal Basic Education which includes, among others, to enable pupils achieve permanent literacy and numeracy and to build in them the ability to communicate effectively.
- State Universal Basic Education Board, Kaduna and Local Government Areas should monitor and surprise teachers regularly to ensure they stay on the job. State Universal Basic Education should recruit non-teaching staff in the schools where they are available in short supply.

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Appendix 1

School code	Name of school
01	Government Junior Secondary School U/Boro
02	Government Junior Secondary School Narayi
03	Government Junior Secondary School Badarawa
04	Government Junior Secondary School Nassarawa
05	Government Junior Secondary School M/Gwarzo
06	Government Junior Secondary School K/Mashi
07	Government Junior Secondary School U/Shanu
08	Government Junior Secondary School U/Rimi
09	Government Junior Secondary School Kawo
10	Government Junior Secondary School Kakuri

Dil Derslerinde Sözcük Öğretme Yöntemlerinin Yeterliliği-Türkiye Örneği

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Özet

İletişimin tam olarak gerçekleşebilmesi göndericinin düşüncelerini alıcıya tam olarak aktarabileceği sözcükleri bilme/kullanma yeterliliğini gerektirir. Sözcük dağarcığı ne kadar genişse insanın kendini anlatma ve iletileri anlayabilme yetisi o kadar gelişmiştir. Günlük yaşamda hayatı devam ettirebilecek sayıda sözcük kullanılır. İnsanlar; bilişsel gelişimleri ve entelektüel düşünebilmeleri için kurumsal boyutta, kavram alanlarını genişletici bir eğitime gereksinim duyarlar. Dil derslerinde ders kitaplarındaki sözcükler ve sözcük öğretim yöntemleriyle sınırlı kalmaktadır. Bu nedenle, ders kitaplarında sözcüklerin, uzun süreli bellekte depolanıp istendiğinde geri çağrılmasını sağlayacak yöntemler olmalıdır. Araştırmanın amacı, Türkçe ders kitaplarındaki sözcük öğretim yöntemlerinin yeterliliğini sorgulamak ve bulgular ışığında önerilecek çalışmalarla alana katkı sağlamaktır. Önce, örneklem olarak alınan 6. Sınıf Türkçe ders kitabındaki sözcük öğretim yöntemleri betimsel olarak sınıflandırılmıştır. Daha sonra, bu kitabı bir sene önce okuyan, Türkiye'nin farklı bölgelerinden örneklem olarak alınan 180 7. Sınıf öğrencisine, bu kitaptan seçkisiz yöntemle belirlenen sözcüklerin anlamlarının irdeleneceği sözcük testi uygulanarak öğrencilerin sözcükleri hatırlama düzeyleri saptanıp bu yöntemlerin etkililiği sorgulanmıştır. (Proje, İÜ. BAP birimince 39371 no ile desteklenmiştir.)

Anahtar kelimeler:

Giriş

Dil; dünyanın, farklı kültürlerce yapılan sınıflamalar ve değerlerle yorumlanıp ses imgeleriyle kodlanmış şekli olduğundan dil öğrenme de aslında bir kod çözme eylemidir. Her dil dünyadaki nesnelere, olguları, olayları farklı işlevlerle ve değerlerle sınıflandırır ve farklı dil öğeleri (sözcükler) ile adlandırır, kodlar. “Dilin iskeleti dil yapılarından oluşuyorsa, sözcük dağarcığı en önemli organı ve etini temin etmektedir” (Harmer, 1997, s. 153). Bireyler, dillerinin geliştiği oranda, yani ne kadar çok sözcük bilirlerse, dünyayı o kadar çözümler, kavram alanlarını genişletip olgular arasındaki ilişkileri çözme ya da farklı ilişkileri görme yetilerini geliştirebilir, kısaca düşünebilirler. Apaydın'ın (2007), Lewis (1981)'tan aktardığı gibi, “Zengin ve dinamik bir sözcük hazinesi kadar kuvvetli bir silah yoktur.” Anlama ve anlatma becerisi sözcük dağarcığı ile doğru orantılı bir ilişki içindedir. Öğrenilen sözcükler boyutunda hayatla hesaplaşılır, başarı kazanılır; ayrıca ağızdan çıkan sözcüklerin niteliği insanların eğitim ve kültürlenme düzeyini ve sosyal statüsünü açığa çıkarır.

Aksan (2000, s. 55)'in tanımına göre dil, “düşünce, duygu ve isteklerin, bir toplumda ses ve anlam yönünden ortak olan öğeler ve kurallardan yararlanılarak başkalarına aktarılmasını sağlayan, gelişmiş bir dizge”dir. Bu dizgeyi oluşturan öğeler birbiriyle ilişkilidir, bu nedenle de tek başlarına bir anlamı yoktur, dizge içindeki diğer öğelere göre bir anlam ve değer kazanırlar. Aksan (1997, s. 46) bunu Wittgenstein'in “Sözcüğün anlamı onun dil içinde kullanımınıdır,” tümcüsüyle ifade eder. Dil, iletişim ve düşünme süreçleri için kullanılan üzerinde uzlaşmalar sonucu ortaya çıkmış göstergeler bütünüdür. Bu göstergelerin büyük bir çoğunluğunu ise kavramlar oluşturmaktadır (Apaydın, 2007). Bir dil göstergesi, ses imgesi olan bir “gösteren”le, “gösterilen” olan bir anlamdan oluşmakta ve böylece ortaya çıkan sözcükler kavramları adlandırarak dünyadaki nesne ve olgulara gönderimde bulunmaktadır. “Bir şeyin adı dil belleğimizde yoksa bizim için o şeyin kendisi de yoktur. ... İnsan, varlıkları adlandırarak kendine bir yaşama ortamı oluşturmuştur, bu ortamdaki tüm ilişkilerini, edimlerini hep adlarla, adlandırmalarla sürdürebilmiştir” (Özdemir, 2011: 51). Sever (2000, s. 16)'in de belirttiği gibi “Sözcükler birer kavramdır ve düşünmenin temel öğeleridir”. Özbay ve Melanhoğlu (2008, s. 31)'nin ifadesi ile de “İnsanın kelime ve kavram yönünden zengin bir birikime sahip olması, düşüncede de zengin olmasını sağlar.”

Sözvarlığı iki türde olabilmektedir: Etken sözvarlığı ve edilgen sözvarlığı. Bireyin tanıdığı, anlamını bildiği ve iletişimde kullanabildiği, yani anlatma becerisi bağlamında bilişsel süreçler işleterek zihninde yapılandırabildiği sözcüklerin tümü etken sözvarlığını oluştururken edilgen sözvarlığı bireyin tanımını ve

anlamını bildiği ancak anlama becerisi bağlamında bilişsel süreçler işlettiği, kendisinin kullanmadığı sözcüklerden oluşmaktadır. Bununla birlikte Sever (2000, s. 24), “Anlama becerisindeki gelişme, sözcük dağarcığını zenginleştirerek öğrencinin anlatma becerisini de iyi yönde etkilemektedir,” sözleriyle etken ve edilgen sözcükler arasındaki ilişkiye de gönderimde bulunmuştur. Özbay ve Melanlıoğlu (2008), Göğüş (1978)’ün “Kelime bilgisi; derinlik (kelimelerin çeşitli anlamlarını bilmek), genişlik (çeşitli konularda kelimeler bilmek), ağırlık (bir konuda oldukça çok kelime bilmek) olmak üzere üç boyutta tanımlanmaktadır.” sözünden yola çıkarak Özbay’ın (1997) yapılan araştırmalarda kelime bilgisinin derinlik boyutunun ihmal edildiği düşüncesini yinelemektedirler.

Günay (2007)’in açıklamasına göre, “Dildeki bir sözcüğün üç temel özelliği vardır ya da her sözcük üç biçimde tanımlanıp değerlendirilebilir: Biçim, anlam ve dilbilgisel ulam” Anlam alanı açısından, kavramsal durumu ve birleştirme ile ilgili özellikler açısından sözcüklerin anlamlarında bir bulanıklık söz konusu olabilir. Apaydın (2007)’in, Croft ve Cruse (2004)’dan alıntılıdığı gibi herhangi bir dilsel anlatım sonuçta gönderimlerinin ulamını yansıtmaktadır, dil genelleme ya da ulam koşulları ile işlemektedir. “Aynı sözcük farklı anlamsal kesitlerde yer alması nedeniyle çokanlamlı olarak değerlendirilir” (Günay, 2007, s. 13). Dilbilgisel ulam ise sözcüğün tümcedeki görevine göre farklı biçimde (ad, sıfat, belirteç, adil, ilgeç, bağlaç, ünlem ve eylem) tanımlanmaktadır. Sözcüklerin dilbilgisel ulamları da kullanılan bağlam içinde belirginleşir ve anlam oluşturmada bu ulamlar çözümlenir. “Güzel” sözcüğünün ad, eylem ya da sıfat mı olduğu kullanıldığı tümce içinde anlaşılır.

Apaydın (2007)’a göre bellekte kavramlar üç şekilde gruplandırılır: Yapısal niteliğine göre (adlar, adılar, eylemler, ilgeçler ...), konu açısından (yiyecekler, hayvanlar, insanlar...) ve sesbilimsel yapıya dayalı olarak (aynı sesle başlayanlar/aynı sesle bitenler...). Ülper ve Karagül’ün (2012) belirttiği ve Blachowicz, vd. (2006)’ten alıntılı oldukları gibi sözcük öğretimi aynı zamanda kavrama süreciyle ilgili olduğu için sadece sözcüklerin anlamlarını belletmeye yönelik etkinlikler kavramaya yeterli olmamaktadır. Sözcük öğretiminde sözcüğün tanımından çok, öğrencilerin sözcüğün kullanıldığı bağlamdaki anlamını yapısal, konusal ve sesbilimsel olarak değerlendirmesini sağlayan bilişsel süreçler sonucu çıkarsamalarını odaklayan çalışmalar önemlidir. Apaydın (2007) kavramsal ulamlamaya dikkat çekmiş ve araştırmasında sözcüklerin ve kavramların bellekte kalıcılıklarını sağlayabilmek için, birbirleriyle ilişkilendirilmiş, ulamlılandırılmış görünüm sergilediği biçimleriyle sunumunun öğretim-öğrenim süreçlerinde etkililiği, verimliliği arttıracığı düşüncesini benimsemiştir.

Bilgi işleme modeline göre öğrenmede zihinsel yapılar yoluyla (duyusal kayıt, kısa süreli bellek, uzun süreli bellek) çevreden gelen uyarıcılar algılanır, anlamlı bilgilere dönüştürülür, bilgiler bellekte saklanır, yeniden kullanılmak üzere geri çağırılır ve davranışa dönüştürülür. Birey görme, işitme yoluyla oluşturduğu duyusal kayıttaki gerekli bilgiyi kısa süreli hafızaya gönderir. Kısa belleğin iki sınırlılığı ise süre sınırlılığı ve kapasite azlığıdır. Kısa süreli belleğe gelen bilgi anlamlandırılarak doğrudan tepki üreticilere (davranış) gönderebileceği gibi, kodlanıp uzun süreli belleğe de gönderilebilir (Senemoğlu, 2000, s. 276). Buradaki kontrol mekanizmalarıyla uzun süreli belleğe geçirilen bilgiler unutulmaz. Belleklerde kodlama, depolama, ara-bul-geri getir aşamaları vardır. Depolanmış bir bilginin geri getirilebilmesi için uygun ara-bul-geri getir ipuçlarının olması gerekir. Kısa süreli bellekte (işleyen bellek) algısal kodlama (görsel, işitsel...) önemliken uzun süreli bellekte “anlamsal kodlama” önemlidir. Anımsama, kodlama anı ile ilişkilidir. Kodlamanın anlam odaklı yapılması, kodlama anındaki çevre ve kişinin ruh durumu anımsamayı etkilemektedir. Resim, koku sözcük, geçmiş yaşantılarla ilgili bir olgu anımsamanın ipucu olabilir. Geri getirme ipuçlarını sağlayan iki mekanizma, ipucu ile bellek izi arasındaki benzerlik olması ya da sunulan ipucunun depolanan bilgi ile ilişki içinde olmasıdır. Apaydın (2007), Cüceloğlu (1998)’nin etkili ve verimli öğrenme süreci için tara, sor, oku, tekrar et ve gözden geçir aşamalarını hatırlatarak öğrenmenin koşullanma yerine bilişsel bir süreç içinde gerçekleşmesinin bellek kullanımının tam ve doğru olarak gerçekleşmesinin önemini vurgulamakta olduğunu söylemiştir.

Sözcük anlamlarının kalıcılığını sağlayabilme bilginin bellekte depolanması sırasında bellek işlemlerini işlevsel hale getiren, bilginin geri çağırılmasında anımsama işleminin işlevsel olabilmesini sağlayan uygun yöntem, teknik ve ders malzemelerinin kullanıldığı sınıf içi etkinlikler gerekmektedir.

Bir “sözcüğü bilmek” olgusunun farklı boyutları vardır. Bu; sözcüğün nasıl sesletildiği, nasıl yazıldığı, hangi biçimbirimlerden oluştuğu, nelere gönderimde bulunduğu, yerine hangi sözcükler kullanılabileceği, dilbilgisel işlevinin ne olduğu, hangi sözcüklerle (eşdizimlilik) ve nerede/ne zaman/ne sıklıkta kullanıldığı bilgisini gerektirir. Böyle bilgiler zenginleştirilmiş sözcük öğretimi etkinlikleri doğrultusunda edinilebilir (Nation, 2001). Ülper ve Karagül (2012)’e göre, bu etkinlikler; **tanımsal bilgi** (eşanlamalıları öğretmek, karşıt anlamlıları öğretmek, yakın anlamlıları öğretmek, değişmece anlamını öğretmek, öğrencilerin kendilerinin sözcüğün anlamını söylemesi/yazması, ulamlara ayırmak, biçimbilgisel özellikleri öğretmek, örnek sözcükler sağlamak, örnek olmayan sözcükler sağlamak), **bağlamsal/kullanımsal bilgi** (sözcüğü kendi tümcesi içinde kullanmak, aynı sözcüğün farklı tümcelerdeki anlamını tartışmak, sözcükle ilgili senaryo oluşturmak, sözcük/sözcüğün

anlamı çerçevesinde karşılıklı konuşma yapmak, önemli konular ya da yaşantılar çerçevesinde karşılıklı konuşma yapmak) ve **çoklu karşılama** olarak sıralanabilmektedir. Çoklu karşılama bağlamında Çetinkaya (2002), Ataüenal (2000)'in "Aralıklı ve farklı biçimlerde yapılan tekrar kalıcılığı artırır," sözünden yola çıkarak anlamı bilinmeyen sözcüğün başka bir metinde bir daha geçmemesi veya üzerinde durulmamasının olumsuzluğunu dile getirmektedir. Schmitt (2007), bu konuda Nagy (1997)'nin öğrencilerin bir defa gördükleri sözcükleri % 5-14 oranında hatırladıkları ve Nation (1990)'in bir sözcüğün öğrenilebilmesi için 5-16, hatta daha çok karşılama gerektiğini bulguladığı araştırmalara işaret etmiştir.

Özbay ve Melanlıoğlu (2008), Akdoğan'ın 1999'da yaptığı araştırmasında, Türkiye'de ana dili eğitiminde kullanılan ders araç gereçlerinde öğrencilere öğretilen kelime ve kavram sayısının diğer ülkelere oranla oldukça düşük olduğunu bulguladığını belirtmişlerdir. Buna koşut olarak, ilköğretim birinci kademedeki bir çocuğun 2000 sözcük kullanması gerekirken, Gürtürk'ün 1986'da yaptığı araştırmaya göre, ülkemizde bu kademedeki öğrenciler 200-500, ikinci kademe öğrenciler 2000, lise öğrencileri ise 2500 dolaylarında, düşük seviyede sözcük bilmektedirler (Çetinkaya, 2002; Ülper, 2010). Yıldız ve Okur (2010), bu durumu Güzel (2006, s. 323)'in, "Ülkemizde ilköğretim çocuklarının sözcük hazinesini nicelik yönünden ölçecek bir araştırma yapılmamış ve öğrencilerin sözcük hazinesi gelişimi rastlantıya bırakılmıştır" ve Yıldız vd. (2006, s. 315)'nin, "Var olan sözcük hazinesi sayıları ise tahminlere dayanmaktadır," sözleriyle belirtmektedirler. İlköğretim ikinci kademe Türkçe Dersi Öğretim Programı [6-8. Sınıflar (MEB, 2006)]'nda bu konuya Genel Amaçlar içerisinde yer verilmekte ve öğrencinin, "Okuduğu, dinlediği ve izlediğinden hareketle söz varlığını zenginleştirerek dil zevki ve bilincine ulaşmaları; duygu, düşünce ve hayal dünyalarını geliştirmeleri amaçlanmaktadır," ifadesi yer almaktadır. Bununla birlikte yukarıda belirtilen sonuçlara göre de; Türkçe öğretiminde sözcük dağarcığını genişletme kazanımının tam olarak gerçekleştirilmediği, öğrencilerin ne edilgen ne de özellikle etken sözcük dağarcıklarının yeterli olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bununla beraber Mert Lüle (2012)'nin belirttiği gibi, alanda çoğunlukla yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğretiminde sözcük öğretimi üzerine sayılı araştırma vardır.

Bu düşünceler doğrultusunda geliştirilen bu araştırmanın amacı, Türkçe derslerinde kullanılan sözcük öğretme yöntemlerinin öğrencilerin sözcükleri edinmelerinde, diğer bir deyişle etken /edilgen sözvarlıklarına katmalarında ne kadar etkili olduklarını bulgulamak ve bu bağlamdaki eksiklikleri tespit edip öneriler geliştirerek Türkçe öğretimi alanına katkı sağlamaktır.

Yöntem

Karma yöntem araştırmanın benimsendiği bu çalışmada, temel olarak, nicel sonuçlara ulaşılabilecek tarama yöntemi uygulanarak, araştırmanın evreni olarak alınan ortaokul öğrencilerinin bir yıl önceki öğretim yılında okutulan Türkçe ders kitabında yer alan sözcükleri ne oranda hatırladıklarını bulgulamak hedeflenmektedir. Araştırmanın nitel yönünü de doküman analizi yapılarak Türkçe ders kitaplarındaki sözcük öğretme yöntemlerinin belli kategoriler altında sınıflandırılması ve devamında aşama boyunca karma model araştırma uygulanarak bu yöntemlerin nicel olarak oranlarının belirlenmesi oluşturmaktadır. Bu nedenle önce, 7. Sınıf ortaokul öğrencilerinin bir önceki öğretim yılında Türkçe dersinde hangi yayınevine ait kitabı okudukları Türkiye genelinde araştırılmış ve iki yayınevine (Evren ve Doku) ait kitaplar olduğu tespit edilmiştir; Doku Yayınevi'nin (Bıyıklı ve Özataş, 2012) okutulduğu okullara daha çok sayıda ulaşıldığı için bu kitap nitel araştırmanın örneklemini oluşturmuştur. Sözcükleri hatırlama düzeylerinin saptanacağı nicel araştırmada ise çalışma evrenini oluşturan 5 ilde bulunan 6 ilköğretim okulundan [Erzurum, Sakarya, İzmit, Eskişehir, İstanbul (2 okul)] her sınıftan 30'ar öğrenci olmak üzere toplam 180 7. sınıf öğrencisi seçkisiz, basit tesadüfi yöntemle örneklem olarak alınmıştır. Öğrencilere 6. Sınıfta okudukları Türkçe ders kitabı kapsamında hazırlanan sözcük testi uygulanarak öğrencilerin sözcükleri hatırlama düzeyleri saptanmıştır.

Veri Toplama Aracı

Veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılan "Sözcük Testi"ni hazırlayabilmek için 6. Sınıf Türkçe ders kitabında doküman analiziyle belirlenen sözcük öğretme yöntemlerini oluşturan kategoriler temel alınmıştır. Her sözcüğün, anlamının ders kitabında öğretildiği kategorinin altında değerlendirilebileceği bir şekilde, mecaz/yan/terim anlamlarıyla beraber toplam 60 sözcük/deyim (bulgular kısmındaki listelerde kalın harflerle yazılan) seçkisiz olarak, örneklem olarak alınan 6. sınıf Türkçe ders kitabından seçilmiştir. Bu durumda, araştırmada, ders kitabındaki etkinlik kategorileri bağlamında, öğrencinin metinden anlamını bilmediği sözcükleri belirlediği birinci kategori dışında, üzerine sözcük etkinlikleri hazırlanan toplam 380 sözcükten %15,78'i hedef almıştır.

Öğrencinin bir önceki sözcükleri hatırlama düzeylerini ölçmek için hazırlanan "Sözcük Testi" yedi bölümden oluşmaktadır: 1. Verilen tanımları kullanarak çengel bulmacayı doldurma, 2. Sözcüklerin eş anlamlılarını yazma, 3. Sözcüklerin zıt anlamlarını yazma, 4. Verilen sözcüklerle istenen anlamda (gerçek, yan,

mecaz, terimsel) tümce yazma, 5. Verilen deyimlerin anlamlarını yazma, 6. Verilen sözcüklerle tümce kurma, 7. Verilen tümcelerde altı çizili sözcüğün anlamını tahmin etme. Araştırma için geliştirilen bu envanterin Cronbach alpha güvenirlik faktörü ,743 ile “oldukça güvenilir” bir düzeydedir.

Verilerin Analizi

Önce, hangi sözcüklerin hangi yöntemlerle öğretildiğini saptamak amacıyla yapılan doküman analizini nicel sonuçlarla ifade edebilmek için betimsel analiz uygulanarak frekans ve yüzde hesapları yapılmıştır. Öğrencilerin sözcükleri hatırlama düzeylerini ölçmek için de öğrencilerin sözcük testi sonuçları excell programına işlenmiş ve okulların sözcük testini oluşturan bölümlerdeki başarılarını tespit etmek için ortalama puanları, daha sonra da genel ortalamalar hesaplanmıştır. Daha sonra okullar arasındaki başarı farkının anlamlı olup olmadığını belirlemek için Mixed ANOVA testi (6 [okul] x 7 [testteki bölüm sayısı]) ve başarının cinsiyete göre farklılaşp farklılaşmadığını saptamak için de yine Mixed ANOVA testi (2[cinsiyet] x 7 [testteki bölüm sayısı]) yapılmıştır. Testte 7 bölüm olduğu için .05’lik p değeri 7’ye bölündüğünden anlamlılık ifade eden p değeri .00714 bulunmuştur.

Bulgular

6. Sınıf Türkçe Ders Kitabındaki sözcük öğretme yöntemleri

6. Sınıf Türkçe Ders Kitabındaki sözcük öğretme yöntemleri ve oranları araştırıldığında Tablo 1’de özetlenen aşağıdaki sonuçlara ulaşılmıştır:

- Metinde anlamı bilinmeyen sözcükleri tespit etme, anlamını tahmin etme ve sözlüğe bakıp kontrol etme: Kitapta 6 metin için bu çalışma istenmiştir. Sözcük testinin 7. Bölümünü (Verilen tümcelerde altı çizili sözcüğün anlamını tahmin etme) oluşturan tümceler bu metinlerden seçilmiştir.

- Sözcük, deyim ve kalıplaşmış sözcüklerin anlamlarını tahmin etme: Bu kategoride yalnızca sözcüklerin anlamları tahmin edilebildiği gibi bazılarında bunlarla tümce kurmaları da istenmiş; bazılarında sözcüklerin harfleri karışık olarak verilmiş, anlamı ve tümce kurmaları istenmiş; bazılarında da sözcükler karışık harflerin bulunduğu tabloda sunulmuş ve öğrencilerin bunları bulup tümce kurmaları beklenmiş; bir etkinlikte de bağlamdan kopuk olarak harflerin bulunduğu bulmacada metindeki bazı kelimeleri (*felaket, zulüm, his, hırçınlık, cemiyet, darbe, hoyrat, muamele, tesadüf, mevcut, apartman, kudret, razı, ruh, yapıt, vefat, mahkûm, dayanak, teselli, mukadder*) bulmaları, sözlükten anlamları ve tümce kurmaları istenmiştir.

Bariş, uygarlık, eli boş dönmek, ağzını kapamak, canına tak etmek, yük olmak, çam sakızı çoban armağanı, ilgisini çekmek, sorumluluk, kanun, önlem almak, mağlubiyet, hak, hürriyet, görev, ehemmiyet, vatandaşı, borç, yöre, ilkel, işlemek, devlet, emanet, eser, zümrüt, reçine, çorak, konak, engin, sağanak, acı çekmek, kuş sütü eksik olmamak, kanı çekilmek, can vermek, sudan çıkmış balığa dönmek, ziyafet çekmek, kafasından geçmek, feryadı basmak, beti benzi solmak, küll gibi olmak, soluk soluğa kalmak, kusura bakmamak, eksik olsun, akıldan kalmak, dikkat çekmek, kaşlarını çatmak, başını derde sokmak, dalga geçmek, akıl sır erdirememek, dirlik düzenlik, alt üst olmak, alnını karışlamak, Allah etmesin, sancı, haber, serüven, önder, devrim, bütçe, güncel, ileriye görmek, galaksi, simülatör, yörünge, Orion, bulutsusu, gaz, küresel, çevre kirliliği, kaliteli, planlı, sorun, yapboz, baş döndürmek, uzay, gökyüzü, yeryüzü, gezegen, güneş, ay, boyut, saat, dünya, hava, vicdan azabı, geleneksel, bir aralık, gözü takılmak, rastgele, aşırı, sabah şekerlemesi, uykusu kaçmak, başını çevirip bakmamak, ekme parası peşine düşmek, sınırını bozmak, eli boş dönmek, kap, bilmece, ortanca, pati, sakınca, yumak, küpeşte, güverte, sevecen, felaket, cesaret, kutsal, ihanet, hayran, şiddet.

-Sözcükleri anlamlarıyla ya da örneklerle eşleştirme: Sözcük/deyim ve anlam eşleştirmesi (*işi bitmek, işe yaramak, altından kalkmak, Allah etmesin, kuşatmak, zemin, düş gücü, kale, başından geçmek, pay, dürtüklemek, anımsamak, eyvan, avlu, sarmak, başından geçmek, hesap sormak, hatırını kırmamak, eline su dökmemek, duru dil, iki gözü iki çeşme, küplere binmek, başına gelmek*), sözcükleri alfabetik sıraya sokup verilen anlamlarla eşleştirme (*Kovan, aksama, dirlik, tırtıl, salgi bezi, balmumu, kıvam, alnını karışlamak, enerji, depo*), tümceleri verilen deyimlerle doldurma (*tatlı dil, kara yazgı, el bebek gül bebek, soluk soluğa, yüzü kızarmadan, canından bezdirmek, yan gelip yatmak, bin dereden su getirmek, yüzüne vurmak, can kulağıyla dinlemek, kulu kölesi olmak, bir dediğini iki etmemek*), paragraflarda anlatılan durumları atasözleriyle eşleştirme (*Acıkan doymam susayan kanmam sanır, acıkmış kudurmuştan beterdir, gülme komşuna gelir başına*), tümcelerde metinde geçen deyimlerden hangisinin olduğunu bulma (*aklına gelmek, hak vermek, canı sıkılmak*) bu kategorinin altındaki etkinlik biçimlerindedir.

-Zıt anlamlarını bulma: Verilen sözcüklerin zıt anlamlarını yazma (*zengin, geri, çok, küçük, eski, sonra, yakın, dert, ilk, iyi, acı, kolay, ak, geniş, yitirmek, az, ön, büyük, kapalı, doğru, kazanmak, geri, gitmek, gerçek, birleşmek, yeni, yaklaşmak, soru, sevinmiş, güzelmış, eksik, acı, şişman, ağlamak, kederli, içeri, çift*) ve

sözcükleri zıt anlamlarıyla eşleştirme (*sabah, gitmek, dolu, dışarı, geri, son, yalan, sonra*) başlıca etkinlik türleridir.

- Eş anlamlarını bulma: Eş/yakın anlamlı sözcükleri birbirleriyle eşleştirme (*şüphe, tanıdık(aşına), güç, ilgi, gayret, yürek, mecbur, rastlantı (tesadüf), devir, duygu, şehir, gereksiz, yabancı, sohbet, cemiyet, konuk, mana, zaman, muhit, idadi, rüştiye, tesir, istikamet, esir, asır, inkılap*), sözcükleri bulmacada gizlenen eş/yakın anlamlarıyla eşleştirme (*ulus, önder, kuvvet, süre, bilgin, yurt, uygarlık, milli, kuşak, orta, çevirmek, usanmak, korumak, süslemek, oturmak, civıldaşmak, küsmek, kurak, ödev*), paragrafta altı çizili kelimelerin yerine anlamdaşlarının koyarak paragrafı yeniden yazma (*mecmua, sarf etmek, münasebet, şahıs, hakiki, ecdat*) ve kelime çiftlerini eş anlamlı/yakın anlamlı olarak sınıflama (*Eş: diyar-ülke, dil-lisan, rivayet-söylenti, pabuç-ayakkabı. Yakın: metot- teknik, üzüntü-gem, bitmek-tükenmek*) etkinlikleri bulunmaktadır.

- Eş sesli sözcükleri tümcede kullanma: *Doğru, oyalanmak, bol, yüz.*

- Anlamı verilen sözcükleri bulmacaya yerleştirme:

A, iş, anı, faks, memur, kongre, cephane, internet, anıtkabir, cumhuriyet, telgrafhane, olanaksız, cumhurbaşkanı, teleskop, rota, Satürn, Mars, uydu, roket, astronot, dünya, su, kraliçe, tasarruf, nakit, pelte, arı, düzen, Ural, devinim, ilke, basket, seyrek, tutum, ahenk, şikâyet, arp, şüphe, ot, bot, şaka, çanak, doktor, fisilti, şekerleme, inandırma

- Gerçek/mecaz/terim anlamı bulma: Tümcelerde altı çizili sözcüklerin gerçek/mecaz/terim anlamda olduğunu söyleme (*bozuk, dar, fırtına, karar, baba, kök, ince, soğuk, sert, eski*), tümcelerde altı çizili sözcüklerin anlamını yazma (*yıkmak, parlak, koyu, sıcak, taşkın, açılmak, dayanmak, denemek, yargı, sivri, sarsmak, kara, derinlik, kuru, çökmek, süzülme, bakmak*), sözcükleri gerçek/mecaz/yan anlamda tümcede kullanma (*düşmek, derin, uyumak [+temel anlam], hasta etmek, ışıldamak, kirlenme, paylaşmak, taşıyıcı, öldürmek*) bu kategorinin etkinlikleridir.

- Aynı kavram alanına giren sözcükleri bulma: Metinde aynı kavram alanına giren sözcükleri bulma (*orman*), bir sözcüğün çağrıştırdığı sözcükleri yazma/işaretleme (*vatan, gökyüzü/bayram*) etkinlikleridir.

- Paragraf oluşturma: Verilen sözcüklerin anlamlarını öğrenme ve bunları kullanarak bir paragraf yazma etkinliği bulunmaktadır (*dostluk, arkadaşlık, birlik, dayanışma/hak, görev, vatandaş*).

Tablo 1. 6. Sınıf Türkçe Ders Kitabındaki Sözcük Öğretme Yöntemleri ve Oranları

Sözcük etkinliği	Sözcük sayısı	%
Metinde anlamı bilinmeyen sözcükleri bulma, anlamını tahmin etme ve sözlüğe bakma	-	-
Sözcük, deyim ve kalıplaşmış sözcüklerin anlamlarını tahmin etme	131	34,4
Sözcükleri anlamlarıyla ya da örneklerle eşleştirme	51	13,4
Zıt anlamlarını bulma	37	9,7
Eş anlamlarını bulma	65	17,1
Eş sesli sözcükleri tümcede kullanma	4	1
Anlamı verilen sözcükleri bulmacaya yerleştirme	45	11,8
Gerçek/mecaz/terim anlamı bulma	36	9,4
Aynı kavram alanına giren sözcükleri bulma	4	1
Paragraf oluşturma	7	1,8
Toplam	380	100
Araştırmada kullanılan sözcük sayısı	60	15,78

Sözcük testinde öğrencilerin başarıları

Öğrencilerin sözcük testi bölümlerinden aldıkları ortalama puanlar (Tablo 2) arasında dengeli bir oranlamanın olmadığı görülmekle beraber doğru olarak bilinen sözcüklerde de böyle bir dengesizlik bulunmakta, belirli sözcükler üzerine yoğunlaşmaktadır.

Tablo 2. Sözcük Testini Oluşturan Bölümlerde Not Ortalamaları

Sözcük Testi Bölümü	İstanbul \bar{X}	Erzurum \bar{X}	Eskişehir \bar{X}	İzmit \bar{X}	Sakarya \bar{X}	İstanbul2 \bar{X}	Genel \bar{X}
1. Çengel bulmacayı anlamları verilen sözcüklerle doldurun.	20,6	29,3	22	54,3	21,3	25,6	28,8
2. Verilen sözcüklerin yanına eş anlamlılarını yazınız.	11,3	10,3	17	25,6	21,3	32,3	19,6
3. Verilen sözcüklerin yanına zıt anlamlılarını yazınız.	70,6	63,6	57,3	76,6	68,6	75	68,6
4. a. Verilen sözcüklerin gerçek anlamlarıyla tümceler yaz.	80	77,7	80	87,7	91	93,3	85
4.b. Sözcüklerin mecaz anlamlarıyla tümceler yazınız.	24,4	33,3	48,8	40	48,8	66,6	43,70
4.c. Verilen sözcüklerin yan anlamlarıyla tümceler yazınız.	5,5	3,3	6,6	4,4	17,7	32,2	10,92
4.d. Sözcüklerin terimsel anlamlarıyla tümceler yazınız	20	10	30	23,3	30	60	28,88
5. Verilen deyimlerin anlamlarını yazınız.	8,6	20,6	22,6	15,3	19,3	39,3	21

6. Verilen sözcüklerle tümce kurunuz.	28,6	32	49,3	40	50,6	72	45,44
7. Tümcelerde çizili sözcüklerin ne anlama geldiğini yaz.	7	10,6	16,6	18,3	18,6	35,6	17,83

Çengel bulmacanın tamamlandığı ve genel not ortalamasının 28,8 olduğu testin birinci bölümünde sözcükler en çok bilinen en az bilene doğru, bilen öğrencilerin yüzdelerine göre şöyle sıralanabilir: *tasarruf* (% 59,4), *imkânsız* (%52,2), *şüphe* (%51,6), *pay* (%41,6), *uydu* (%36,6), *arp* (% 26,1), *şikâyet* (%17,1), *tutum* (%2,7), bütün bulmacayı tamamlayabilen yalnızca bir öğrenci tarafından bilinen *devinim* (% 0,5) ve *kongre* (% 0,5).

Sözcüklerin eş anlamlılarının yazıldığı ve genel not ortalamasının 19,6 olduğu bölümde ise sözcükler, bilinme yüzdelerine göre şu şekilde sıralanmaktadır: *asır* (%41,1), *cemiyet* (%36,6), *istikamet* (%30,75), *tesadüf* (%24,4), *sarf etmek* (%17,7), *devir* (%15), *rivayet* (%12,7), *ecdad* (%7,7), *muhit* (%5,5) ve *aşına* (%5). Sözcüklerin eş anlamları yerine eşdizimsel örüntüleme içinde beraber kullanıldıkları sözcüklerin tüm okullardaki çoğu öğrenci tarafından yazılması ilginçtir (Sayıları düşük olan illerde cevaplayan sayısı da düşüktür.): *Tesadüf* = *karşılaşmak* [2 Er, 3 İst1, 10 İz, 3 Sak, 6 İst2, 11 Es]; *sarf etmek*=*çabalamak* [3 Er, 5 İst1, 9 İz, 5 Sak, 5 İst2, 5 Es]; *emek* [4 İst2, 2 İst1]; *istikamet*=*yol* [3 İst1, 1 Es]; *ileri* [1 İst1, 1 Es, 2 Er, 2 İst2]; *yer* [1 İst1, 2 Es]; *harita* [1 Sak]; *gitmek* [1 Es, 1 Er]; *salt*= *salt okunur* [1 İst2]; *devir*=*teslim* [1 İst2]; *emanet*=*teslim* [1 İst2]; *korumak* [1 Es] Ses benzerliklerinden ötürü de eş anlamların yanlış verildiği görülmektedir: *sarf etmek*=*israf etmek* [2 Er, 5 İz]; *muhit*=*mucit* [2 Er, 1 Es]; *buluş* [2 Es]; *rivayet*=*il* (vilayet) [1 İst1]; *ayet* [1 İst1]; *hidayet* [1 İst2]; *mukadder*=*kadir* [1 İst1]; *hoyrat*= *hayrat* [2 İst2]; *halay* [1 İst1]; *ecdad*=*vicdan* [1 İst2].

Zıt anlamlı sözcüklerin yazıldığı bölümde ise genel not ortalaması 68,6 olmakla beraber *yitirmek* (%9) ve *kederli* (%25) sözcüklerinin zıt anlamlarında öğrenciler sorun yaşamaktadır. “*Yitirmek*” ya “*kazanmak*” sözcüğünün (4 İst1, 4 İz, 9 İst2, 6 Sak, 5 Es) ya da “*yaşamak*” sözcüğünün (1 Es, 7 İz) zıt anlamlısı olarak verilmektedir. Diğer zıt anlamları bilinen sözcükler ise *dolu* (%89,4), *çift* (%87,2), *geniş* (%85,5), *yalan* (%83,8), *eksik* (%80), *son* (%78,8), *kazanmak* (%76,1) ve *birleşmek* (%71,1)’tir.

Sözcük testinin, sözcüklerin gerçek, mecaz, yan ve terimsel anlamlarının değerlendirildiği dördüncü bölümünde gerçek anlam kategorisinde öğrencilerin ortalamaları 85 olduğu gibi sözcük yüzdeleri de (*düşmek* [%86,6], *kök* [%81,1], *derin* [%87,2]) dengeli olarak yüksektir. Öğrencilerin, 43 not ortalamasıyla *düşmek* (%44,4), *kök* (%42,7) ve *derin* (%43,8) örneklerinde görüldüğü gibi normal dağılımla sözcükleri mecaz anlamlarıyla kullanmada başarılı olmadıkları saptanmıştır. 11,6 gibi düşük bir not ortalamasıyla öğrencilerin yan anlam hakkında bilgi sahibi olmadıkları, gerçek ve mecaz anlamı ayırt edebildikleri kadar yan anlamı ayırt edemedikleri *düşmek* (%9,4), *bakmak* (%11,6), *derin* (%13,8) örneklerinde de görülmektedir.

Deyimlerin anlamlarını yazma bölümünde öğrencilerin başarıları çok düşük olup not ortalaması 21’dir. En az yüzde ile bilinen *sudan çıkmış balığa dönmek* (%12,2) deyimini öğrencilerin büyük çoğunluğu “*çok ıslanmak*” olarak algılamaktadırlar. *Baş döndürmek* (%16,1) deyimini genellikle boş bırakılmış ya da “*yorulmak*” olarak almıştır. *Kanı çekilmek* (%18,2) deyimini de cevaplanmayan deyimler arasındadır. *Bin dereden su getirmek* (%20,5) çoğunlukla “*Bir derede su bulamayınca diğerine gitmek/birçok dereden su almak*” şeklinde düz anlamlarıyla değerlendirilmiştir; bununla beraber, bir sınıfta bu deyim aynı ve doğru anlamın yazılması, yüzdesini yükseltirken öğrencilerin bu deyim anlamını bir yerden aldıklarını düşündürmektedir. *Alt üst olmak* (%37,7), anlamı en çok bilinen deyimdir.

Not ortalamasının 45,44 olduğu, verilen sözcüklerle tümce oluşturma bölümünde öğrencilerin *hoyrat* (%7,2) sözcüğünün anlamını bilmedikleri görülmüştür. *Kudret* (%40,5) daha çok Atatürk’ün “Muhtaç olduğun kudret damarlarındaki asil kanda mevcuttur” vecizesiyle verilirken *güncel* (%50) sözcüğü yoğun olarak bilgisayarın güncellemesi örneğiyle verilmiştir. En çok *ihanet* (%64) ve *emanet* (%65) sözcükleriyle tümce kurulmuştur.

Tümcede geçen sözcüğün anlamını bilme bölümünde ise not ortalaması (17,83), yan anlamdan sonra gelen en düşük değerdir. Bununla beraber, sözcükler en çok bilinen bilinmeyene doğru *umursamamak* (%52), *mevkii* (%27,2), *bellemek* (%21,1), *mukadder* (%16,6 [bu sonucun bir sınıftaki öğrencilerden birinin adının Mukadder olmasından kaynaklandığı düşünülmektedir.]), *simülasyon* (%16,1), *prensip sahibi* (%10), *salt* (%7,2), *müspet* (%6,1) ve *telkin etmek* (%4,4) olarak sıralanmaktadır.

Ayrıca tüm bölümlerde genellikle ortalamaların en düşük olduğu iki ilde öğrenciler yönergeleri de anlamamakta, derslerde sıklıkla yapılan eşleştirme sorularının sonucu olarak “Sözcüklerin eş anlamlılarını yazınız” dediği halde ilgisiz sözcükleri sırf karşılıklı yazdıkları için eşleştirmektedirler; bu, derslerde etkinliklerin bilişsel değil motor süreçleri işletmeye yönelik yapıldığının bir göstergesidir.

Okullara göre öğrenciler karşılaştırıldığında, 6 okul arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur (p=.000). İstanbul 1’in puanları İzmit (p=.005) ve İstanbul 2 (p=.000) den daha düşüktür. Erzurum’un ve Eskişehir’in puanları İstanbul 2 (p=.000) den daha düşüktür. İzmit’in puanları İstanbul 1(p=.005) den daha yüksektir. İstanbul 2’nin puanları İstanbul 1 (p=.000), Erzurum (p=.000) ve Eskişehir (p=.000) den daha yüksektir. Cinsiyetlere göre karşılaştırıldığında, kızlar ve erkekler arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmadığı görülmektedir (p=.064). Her iki

cinsiyetin de en başarılı oldukları bölüm sözcüklerin zıt anlamlarının bulunması iken en başarısız oldukları bölüm ise deyimlerin anlamlarının yazılmasıdır.

Sonuç ve Öneriler

Türkçe ders kitaplarındaki sözcük öğretme çalışmaları incelendiğinde kısa süreli hafızada algısal kodlamaya dayalı belletmeye yönelik etkinliklerin olduğu, ancak uzun süreli hafızaya yönelik anlamsal kodlama yapılmadığı gözlemlenmiştir. Anımsama, kodlama anı ile ilişkili olduğundan yeni bir sözcüğün anlamının tahmin edilmesi gerektiği durumlarda yapısal (ad, sıfat, zarf vb.) ve konusal (bağlama dayalı anlam) analizlerin yapılmasını sağlayan kodlama anlarını oluşturan etkinliklere yer verilmelidir. Bununla birlikte, Türkçe öğretiminde zenginleştirilmiş sözcük öğretme etkinliklerinde tanımsal bilgi düzeyinde odaklanıldığı ve bağlamsal/kullanımsal bilgi ve çoklu karşılaştırma aşamalarının atlandığı gözlemlenmiştir. Bilgi düzeyinde eş anlamları bulma (%17,1), sözcükleri anlamlarıyla eşleştirme (%13,4), bulmacayı anlamı verilen sözcüklerle doldurma (%11,8), zıt anlamları bulma (%9,7) ve gerçek/mecaz/terimsel anlam (%9,4) etkinliklerinin bağlama dayalı anlam etkinlikleri olan paragraf oluşturma (%1,8), aynı kavram alanı sözcükleri belirleme (%1) ve sesbilgisel düzeyde eşsesli sözcükleri tümcede kullanma (%1) etkinliklerinden fazla olması bunu kanıtlar niteliktedir. Sözcüklerin anlamlarını tahmin etkinliklerinin oranı (%34,4) fazla olmakla beraber bağlamdan yola çıkmaktan çok sözlük anlamlarıyla sonuçlandırıldığı için bunlar tanımsal bilgi düzeyine girmektedir. Oysa, Hashemzadeh (2012) tarafından yapılan araştırmada, öğrencilerin sözcükleri hatırlama oranlarının okuma parçalarından sonra yapılan, bağlama göre anlamı düşünmeyi sağlayıcı boşluk doldurma etkinliklerinde en fazla olduğu bulgulanmıştır; açıklama, eşleştirme ve sözlük çalışmaları sırasıyla bunu izlemektedir. Oysa, Türkçe ders kitaplarında başarının en alt düzeyde olduğu eşleştirme ve sözlük çalışmalarının yoğun olduğu görülmektedir.

Öğrencilerin sözcüklerin gerçek anlamlarıyla tümceler yazmada (%85), mecaz (%43,70), terimsel (28,8)/eş (%19,6)/yan (10,92) anlamlarıyla yazmadan daha başarılı olmaları öğrencilerin sözcük bilgilerinde derinlik boyutunun yetersiz olduğunu göstermektedir. Dilidüzgün'ün (2013) yaptığı araştırmada da öğrencilerin kompozisyonlarını yazarken hep aynı sözcükleri yinelemelerini bulgulaması bunu desteklemektedir. Öğrencilerin çengel bulmacayı anlamları verilen sözcüklerle doldurma (%28,8) ve tümcelerde altı çizili sözcüklerin ne anlama geldiğini yazma (%17,83) etkinliklerindeki düşük başarıları ne tanımsal ne de bağlamsal düzlemde başarılı olduklarını gösterdiği gibi edilgen söz varlıklarının yetersizliğini de göstermektedir. Testin, verilen sözcüklerle tümce kurma (%45,44) bölümü, bu etkinliğin ders kitabında fazlaca uygulanmış olmasına karşın etken söz varlığı bağlamında gerekli katkıyı sağlamadığını göstermektedir. Öğrencilerin deyimlerin anlamlarını yazmada da (%21), çoğuna hiç cevap vermemeleri ve “sudan çıkmış balığa dönmek” deyimini için “sırılsıklam ıslanmak”, “bin dereden su getirmek” deyimini için “bir dereye su bulamayınca diğerine gitmek/birçok dereden su almak” anlamlarını yazmaları yetersiz olduklarını göstermektedir. Dilidüzgün'ün (2012) Türkçe ders kitaplarındaki görseller üzerine yaptığı araştırmada bulguladığı gibi örneğin, başına çorap örülen bir adam görseli ile “başına çorap örmek” ya da ayaklarından kökler, kafasından dallar çıkan bir adam görseliyle “beklemekten ağaç olmak” deyimlerini eşleştirme etkinliklerinin ne tanımsal ne de bağlamsal bilgiyle bir ilgisinin olması bu araştırmadaki sonuçları da desteklemektedir.

Sonuç olarak, Türkçe ders kitaplarında sözcük öğretme yöntemlerinin öğrencilerin “sözcüğü bilmesi” için yeterli değildir, Benzer (2013)'in, öğrencilerin 119 sözcük içinden 27'sinin anlamını bilip 36 tanesinin anlamını yanlış bildikleri, 57 tanesinin anlamını hiç bilemedikleri ve başarının %22,6 olduğu araştırmanın sonuçları da bu bulgularla paraleldir.

Ders kitaplarındaki sözcük öğretim yöntemlerini nicel ve nitel bağlamda geliştirmek için bu alanda yapılan araştırma ve uygulamalardan yararlanılmalıdır. Aksan ve Uçar (2012) yaptıkları çalışmada yakın anlamlı ve eşsesli sözcüklerin öğretiminde dil derlemi kullanarak, sözcük anlamı ilişkilerinin öğretimini çeşitlendirecek, kolaylaştıracak ve veri güdümlü öğrenmeyle anlamlı bir biçime dönüşebileceği etkinlik örnekleri sunmuşlardır. Eş sesli sözcüklerin sözlük tanımlarını derlemeden elde edilen bağımlı dizinlerdeki anlamlarıyla eşleştirmek, bağımlı dizinlerde eş sesli sözcükten önce ve sonra kullanılan sözcükleri belirleyerek benzer yapıları keşfetmek, bağımlı dizinlerde boşlukları bir sözcüğün eşseslileri ile doldurmak, bağımlı dizinlerde yakın anlamlı sözcüklerle kullanılan ortak sözcükleri belirleme, bir sözcüğün en çok hangi anlamının kullanıldığını belirleme bu örneklerden bazılarıdır. Dil derlemi kullanarak düzenlenen etkinlikler, gerçekleşmiş dil verisi kullanmasıyla, sözvarlığı ve dilbilgisi öğeleri arasındaki ilişkiyi / ortaya çıkan örüntüleri göstermesiyle ve öğrencilerin keşfetme, farkına varma yoluyla öğrenme sürecine aktif katılmalarını sağlamasıyla, Türkçe çalışma kitaplarından çok farklıdır (Aksan ve Uçar, 2012, s. 111). Arica Akkök (2011) de yaptığı araştırmada eğretileme ve adlandırma kullanılarak oluşturulan deyimlerin öğretilmesinde kavramsal ipuçları ile sunulan bağlamların çok etkili olduğunu bulgulanmıştır, deyimlerin bilişsel özelliklerinin farkındalığı deyimlerin yorumlanmasını

kolaylaştırmıştır. Özellikle deyimlerde görülen başarısızlığın giderilmesinde bu araştırmanın yönteminin ders kitaplarına yansması önemlidir. Çetinkaya (2002), tümcede altı çizili sözcüğün yerine hangi sözcük getirilirse tümcenin anlamı bozulmaz, hangi tümcede sözcük verilen anlamda kullanılmıştır, aşağıdaki tümcelerin hangisinde sözcük verilen tümcedeki anlamıyla kullanılmıştır, anlamları sözcükleri eşleştiriniz, verilen sözcükleri tümcelerdeki uygun boşluklara yazınız vb. alıştırmalarla gerçekleştirdiği deneysel çalışmasında öğrencilerin öğrendikleri sözcüklerle tekrar tekrar karşılaşmalarının sözcükleri öğrenme düzeylerini yükselttiğini bulgulamıştır. Acat (2008) tarafından kavram haritaları üzerinde durulurken Yıldız ve Okur (2010) yaptıkları çalışmada serbest okuma etkinliklerinin de sözcük dağarcığını genişlettiği sonucuna varmışlardır.

Sözcük etkinliklerinin yanı sıra Türkçe ders kitaplarına seçilen metinlerin, öğrencinin seviye ve ilgisine uygun olması, günlük hayatta kullanabileceği, kullanım sıklığı yüksek sözcüklerden oluşması da önemlidir. Ayrıca anlamı bilinmeyen kelimelerin diğer metinlerde de geçmesine dikkat edilmelidir. Çünkü yeni kelimelerin öğrenilmesi için uzun bir süreç gerekir. İlk duyulduğunda kısa süreli belleğe alınan kelimeler, uzun süreli belleğe aktarılmazlarsa çabuk unutulurlar. Apaydın (2007) ulamsal sözcük öğretimi düzenlenerek sunumu yapılan bilginin algılanmasının ve bellekte kalıcı olmasının, düzensiz sunulan bilgidan daha başarılı olacağını, kavramsal ve çağrışımsal ilişkilendirmeler eşliğinde yapılan ulamsal sözcük öğretiminin hem kodlamayı hem de geri çağırmaı olumlu yönde etkilediğini belirtmiştir.

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Öğretmen Adaylarının Öğretmenlik Mesleğinin Tercih Sebepleri

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Özet

Türk Milli Eğitiminin genel amacı, bireyleri, Türk milletinin milli, ahlaki, insani, manevi ve kültürel değerlerini benimseyen, Türkiye Cumhuriyetine karşı görev ve sorumluluklarını bilen ve bunları davranış haline getirmiş, geniş bir dünya görüşüne sahip yapıcı, yaratıcı ve verimli yurttaşlar olarak yetiştirmek, onları hayata hazırlayıp ilgi ve yetenekleri doğrultusunda kendilerini mutlu kılacak bir meslek sahibi olmalarını sağlayarak ülkenin refah ve mutluluğunu artırmak, ekonomik, sosyal, kültürel kalkınmayı destekleyerek Türk Milletini çağdaş uygarlığın yapıcı, yaratıcı, seçkin bir ortağı yapmaktır. Bu amaçların gerçekleştirilmesinde en büyük pay eğitim sistemlerinin temel unsurlarından olan öğretmenlere düşmektedir. Öğrencilerin istenilen amaçlar doğrultusunda yetiştirilebilmesi için öğretmenlerin iyi niteliklere sahip olmasının yanında mesleğini severek, isteyerek ve geleceğe yön verecek bireyleri yetiştirdiğinin de farkında olarak yapması gerekmektedir. Üstlenilen sorumluluk, toplumsal beklentiler ve kazanılması gereken özellikler dikkate alındığında öğretmenliğin herkes tarafından yapılamayacak bir meslek olduğu kolayca anlaşılmaktadır (Şimşek, 2003). Dolayısıyla öğretmenlerin bu mesleği tercih sebepleri ile mesleğe yönelik algı ve tutumları oldukça önem taşımaktadır. Bu çalışmada da öğretmen adaylarının, öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih sebeplerinin araştırılması amaçlanmıştır. Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi, İlköğretim Bölümü'nde eğitim görmekte olan birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin görüşlerine başvurularak anket formu ile toplanan veriler nitel araştırma deseni kullanılarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Öğretmen adayları, öğretmenlik mesleği, meslek tercihi.

Giriş

Eğitim sistemlerinin en önemli girdilerinden biri de öğretmenlerdir. Öğretmen, öğrenmeyi kılavuzlayan ve davranış mühendisi olarak da anılan, hem kendi alanında hem de eğitsel açıdan yeterli kişidir (Pehlivan, 2006: 93). Öğrencilerin milli eğitimin hedefleri doğrultusunda yetiştirilebilmesini sağlamak için öğretmenlerin yalnızca iyi niteliklere sahip olması yetmemekte, aynı zamanda mesleğini severek, isteyerek ve geleceğe yön verecek bireyleri yetiştirdiğinin de farkında olarak yapması gerekmektedir. Üstlenilen sorumluluk, toplumsal beklentiler ve kazanılması gereken özellikler dikkate alındığında öğretmenliğin herkes tarafından yapılamayacak bir meslek olduğu kolayca anlaşılmaktadır (Şimşek, 2003). Dolayısıyla öğretmenlerin bu mesleği tercih sebepleri ile mesleğe yönelik algı ve tutumları oldukça önem taşımaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih etme nedenlerini ele alan bazı çalışmalar (Boz ve Boz, 2008; Çermik, Doğan ve Şahin, 2010; Hacıömeroğlu ve Şahin Taşkın, 2009; Kartal ve Taşdemir, 2012; Tataroğlu, Özgen ve Alkan, 2011) bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmalarda öğretmen adaylarının mesleği tercih sebebi olarak; öğretmeyi ve çocukları sevmeye, saygın bir meslek olduğunu düşünme, bazı anabilim dallarında o branşı sevmeye ve iş olanağının fazla, çalışma şartlarının uygun olması, kendilerini yetiştiren öğretmenlerden etkilenme, meslek tatminliği, eğitimle topluma faydalı bireyler yetiştireceğini düşünme, üniversite sınavından alınan puan, ekonomik sebepler, daha iyi fırsatlar sunan bir iş bulana kadar kendini güvence altına alacağı bir meslek olması, ailenin teşvik etmesi, kendine uygun bir meslek olarak görme gibi etkenler belirtilmiştir.

Papanastasiou ve Papanastasiou (1997)'nin ABD ve Kıbrıs'taki öğretmen adayları ile yaptığı karşılaştırmalı çalışmada ise ABD'li öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenliği tercih sebeplerinde öğretmeyi sevmeye, çocuklarla uğraşmayı sevmeye, öğretmenliğin doğuştan gelen bir yetenek olması inancı gibi içsel motivasyon kaynaklarının etkili olduğu; Kıbrıslı öğretmen adaylarının ise mezuniyetten sonra hemen iş bulma olanağı, güvenli bir olması, öğretmenlik mesleğinde çok çeşitli iş imkanları olması, tatilinin çok olması gibi sebeplerle öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih ettikleri belirtilmiştir. Elde edilen bu bulgularla da, gelişmekte olan ülkelerde öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih sebeplerinin daha çok ekonomik ve dışsal faktörlere, gelişmiş ülkelerde ise bu sebeplerin daha çok içsel motivasyon kaynaklarına bağlı olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Yurt dışında yapılan benzer çalışmalarda, toplumda ve öğrencilerde fark yaratma isteği, öğretmenlerin öğrenciler için bir rol model olduğu düşüncesi,

öğrenci ve öğretmen arasında karşılıklı bilgi ve deneyim paylaşımı yoluyla ortak bir gelişme ve sürekli bir öğrenme ortamı oluşturma, olumlu bir öğrenme ortamı yaratma, çocuk sevgisi, öğretmenliğin yaratıcılığı geliştiren bir meslek olması, eğitimle topluma yarar sağlanması gibi faktörler öğretmenlik mesleğini tercihte gösterilen diğer sebeplerden olmuştur (Stiegelbauer, 1992; Hayes, 1990; Weiner, 1993).

Bu çalışmada ise Hacettepe Üniversitesi'nde eğitim görmekte olan öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih sebeplerinin araştırılması yoluyla öğretmen adaylarını mesleği tercihe iten motivasyon kaynaklarının daha çok hangi yönde yoğunlaştığı saptanmaya çalışılmıştır.

YÖNTEM

Bu çalışmada nitel araştırma desenlerinden durum çalışması kullanılmıştır. Durum çalışması, “nasıl” ve “neden” sorularının sorulduğu, güncel bir olguyu kendi gerçek yaşam çerçevesi içinde çalışan, olaylar üzerinde araştırmacının kontrolünün az olduğu, olgu ve içinde bulunduğu içerik arasındaki sınırların kesin hatlarıyla belirgin olmadığı ve birden fazla kanıt veya veri kaynağının mevcut olduğu durumlarda kullanılan bir nitel araştırma desendir (Yin, 2009).

Örneklem

Araştırmanın örneklemini, 2013-2014 öğretim yılı güz döneminde Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi, İlköğretim Bölümü, Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, Fen Bilgisi Eğitimi, İlköğretim Matematik Eğitimi Anabilim Dalları'nda eğitim görmekte olan birinci sınıf öğrencileri oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmaya katılan grubun farklı niteliklere sahip olması göz önünde bulundurularak amaçlı örnekleme yöntemlerinden maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme kullanılmıştır. Maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme, çeşitlilik gösteren durumlar arasında herhangi ortak ya da paylaşılan olguların olup olmadığını bulmaya çalışmak ve bu çeşitliliğe göre problemin farklı boyutlarını ortaya koymaktır (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2011:109). Araştırmaya 79 (%83,16) kadın, 16 (%16,84) erkek olmak üzere toplam 95 öğretmen adayı katılmıştır. Örnekleme yer alan öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre dağılımı Tablo 1'de sunulmuştur.

Tablo 1: Örnekleme yer alan öğretmen adaylarının cinsiyet ve anabilim dallarına göre dağılımı

Bölüm Cinsiyet	İlköğretim Matematik Eğitimi		Okul Öncesi Eğitimi		Fen Bilgisi Eğitimi		Toplam	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Kadın	39	82	12	86	28	82,35	79	83,16
Erkek	8	18	2	14	6	17,65	16	16,84
Toplam	47	100	14	100	34	100	95	100

Veri Toplama Aracı ve Veri Analizi

Veriler, araştırmacılar tarafından hazırlanan anket formu ile toplanmıştır. Anket formu iki kısımdan oluşmaktadır. Birinci kısımda, öğretmen adaylarının demografik özelliklerini belirlemeye yönelik sorular yer alırken; ikinci kısımda öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih nedenlerini 5 madde halinde en önemli olandan daha az önemli olana doğru sıralamalarının istendiği ve öğretmenlik mesleğini tekrar tercih edip etmeyeceklerini sorgulayan iki adet açık uçlu soru yer almaktadır.

Öğretmen adaylarının sorulara verdikleri cevaplar nitel araştırma yöntemiyle analiz edilmiştir. Bu kapsamda sorulara verilen cevaplar detaylı bir şekilde incelenerek kategorilendirilmiştir. Sorulara verilen cevaplar tekrar incelenmiş, hangi ifadenin hangi kategoriye girdiği saptanarak frekans ve yüzdeleri hesaplanmıştır.

BULGULAR

Aşağıda toplanan verilerden elde edilen bulgular ayrıntılarıyla sunulmuştur.

1. Öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre yaşlarının dağılımı

Öğretmen adaylarının yaşlarına göre dağılımları Tablo 2 de sunulmuştur. Buna göre öğretmen adaylarının %57,89'u on sekiz yaş grubuna dâhildir. Bunu %30,53'lük bir oranla on dokuz yaş grubuna dâhil olan öğrenciler takip etmektedir.

Tablo 2: Örnekleme yer alan öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre yaşlarının dağılımı

Yaş	İlköğretim Matematik Eğitimi		Okul Öncesi Eğitimi		Fen Bilgisi Eğitimi		Toplam	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
17	3	6,4	0	0	1	2,94	4	4,21
18	24	51,06	8	57,15	23	67,65	55	57,89

19	17	36,14	5	35,7	7	20,59	29	30,53
19 üzeri	3	6,4	1	7,15	3	8,82	7	7,37
Toplam	47	100	14	100	34	100	95	100

2. Öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre mezun oldukları lise türlerinin dağılımı

Öğretmen adaylarının yaşlarına göre dağılımları Tablo 3 de sunulmuştur. Tabloya göre Anadolu öğretmen lisesinden mezun olanların %45, 26'lık bir oranla en fazla paya sahip olduğu görülmektedir. Anadolu öğretmen liselerini, %30, 53'lük bir oranla Anadolu liseleri takip etmektedir. Bu şekilde bir sonuç çıkması beklenen bir durumdur. Çünkü Anadolu öğretmen liseleri öğretmen adayı yetiştiren kurumlardır ve üniversiteye girişte eğitim fakültesini tercih etmek isteyenlere ek puan verilmektedir.

Tablo 3: Örnekleme de yer alan öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre mezun oldukları lise türlerinin dağılımı

Lise Türü	İlköğretim Matematik Eğitimi		Okul Öncesi Eğitimi		Fen Bilgisi Eğitimi		Toplam	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Anadolu Lisesi	9	19,15	3	21,44	17	50	29	30,53
Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi	37	78,72	5	35,71	1	2,94	43	45,26
Genel Lise	1	2,13	0	0	13	38,24	14	14,74
Fen Lisesi	0	0	1	7,14	0	0	1	1,05
Meslek Lisesi	0	0	5	35,71	0	0	5	5,26
Diğer	0	0	0	0	3	8,82	3	3,16
Toplam	47	100	14	100	34	100	95	100

3. Öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre bölümlerini tercih sıralarının dağılımı

Öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre bölümlerini tercih sıralarının dağılımı Tablo 4'te sunulmuştur. Buna göre, her üç bölümü de adaylar en çok 1-5 arasındaki tercih sırasında göstermişlerdir. Toplama bakıldığında bu oran %72,62 gibi büyük bir paya sahiptir.

Tablo 4: Örnekleme de yer alan öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre bölümlerini tercih sıralarının dağılımı

Tercih Sırası	İlköğretim Matematik Eğitimi		Okul Öncesi Eğitimi		Fen Bilgisi Eğitimi		Toplam	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1-5	33	70,21	12	85,71	24	70,59	69	72,62
6-10	6	12,77	2	14,29	6	17,65	14	14,74
11-15	3	6,38	0	0	3	8,82	6	6,32
16-20	4	8,51	0	0	0	0	4	4,21
21-25	1	2,13	0	0	1	2,94	2	2,11
26-30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Toplam	47	100	14	100	34	100	95	100

4. Öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre ailelerinin aylık gelir dağılımı

Öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre ailelerinin aylık gelir dağılımına ilişkin bilgiler Tablo 5'te sunulmuştur. Tabloda yer alan bilgilere bakıldığında, aileleri düşük gelir grubunda bulunanların oranının daha yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Aylık geliri 2500 TL ve altı olan ailelere sahip olan öğretmen adaylarının yüzdesi toplam 77,89 olmuştur.

Tablo 5: Örnekleme de yer alan öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre ailelerinin aylık gelir dağılımı

Aylık Gelir	İlköğretim Matematik Eğitimi		Okul Öncesi Eğitimi		Fen Bilgisi Eğitimi		Toplam	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1000 TL ve Altı	16	34,04	3	21,43	3	8,82	22	23,16
1001 TL - 2500 TL	22	46,81	10	71,43	20	58,83	52	54,73
2501 TL - 4000 TL	8	17,02	1	7,14	10	29,41	19	20
4001 TL ve üzeri	1	2,13	0	0	1	2,94	2	2,11
Toplam	47	100	14	100	34	100	95	100

5. Öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre ailelerinin eğitim durumlarının dağılımı

Öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre ailelerinin eğitim durumlarına ilişkin bilgiler Tablo 6'da sunulmuştur. Tablo 6 incelendiğinde, öğretmen adaylarının annelerinin daha çok ilkököl mezunu (%50,53); babalarının ise çoğunlukla lise mezunu (%33,68) olduğu görülmektedir.

Tablo 6: Örnekleme de yer alan öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre ailelerinin eğitim durumlarının dağılımı

Aile Eğitim Durumu	İlköğretim Matematik Eğitimi		Okul Öncesi Eğitimi				Fen Bilgisi Eğitimi				Toplam					
	Anne		Anne		Baba		Anne		Baba		Anne					
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%				
Okur- yazar değil	0	0	2	4,26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2,11		
Yalnızca okur-yazar	0	0	0	0	1	7,14	0	0	0	0	0	1	1,05	0	0	
İlkökol mezunu	29	61,70	12	25,53	5	35,71	0	0	14	41,18	10	29,41	48	50,53	22	23,16
Ortaokul mezunu	8	17,02	6	12,77	2	14,29	6	42,86	7	20,59	5	14,71	17	17,89	17	17,89
Lise mezunu	6	12,77	14	29,78	6	42,86	7	50	9	26,47	11	32,36	21	22,11	32	33,68
Ön lisans mezunu	1	2,13	3	6,38	0	0	0	0	2	5,88	3	8,82	3	3,16	6	6,32
Lisans mezunu	3	6,38	9	19,15	0	0	1	7,14	2	5,88	3	8,82	5	5,26	13	13,68
Yüksek lisans mezunu	0	0	1	2,13	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	5,88	0	0	3	3,16
Doktora mezunu	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Toplam	47	100	47	100	14	100	14	100	34	100	34	100	95	100	95	100

6. Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih etme sebebi ile ilgili kategoriler

Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih etme sebebi ile ilgili kategoriler Tablo 7’de gösterilmiştir. Buna göre öğrencilerden alınan veriler 23 farklı kategoride toplanmıştır. Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğini seçme nedenleri arasında ilk sırada %12’lik bir oranla *kendini öğretmenlik mesleğine uygun görme* yer almaktadır. Bunu 11,17’lik yüzde ile *öğretmekten mutluluk duyma* ve 10,08’lik yüzde ile *eğitimle topluma fayda sağlayacağını düşünme* takip etmektedir.

Tablo 7: Öğretmenlik Mesleğini Tercih Etme Sebebi İle İlgili Kategoriler

Kategoriler	Frekans	%
Kendini öğretmenlik mesleğine uygun görme	44	12
Öğretmekten mutluluk duyma	41	11,17
Eğitimle topluma fayda sağlayacağını düşünme	37	10,08
Öğretmenlik mesleğine olan sevgi	30	8,17
Branşını sevdiği için	30	8,17
Çocuk sevgisi	27	7,36
Ailesi istediği için	23	6,27
Öğretmenliğin kutsal ve değerli bir meslek olması	22	6
Puanı okuduğu bölüme yettiği için	20	5,45
Tatilin fazla olması	15	4,09
Rahat bir meslek olması	14	3,81
Kadınlar için uygun bir meslek olması	13	3,54
Nitelikli öğretmen eksikliğinin eğitimde yol açtığı sorunlar	9	2,45
Ailesindeki ve çevresindeki öğretmenleri örnek alma	9	2,45
Öğretmenlik mesleğinin getirisi fazla	7	1,91
Gelirinin iyi olması	6	1,63
Okul ortamının sevilmesi	4	1,09
Eğlenceli bir meslek olması	4	1,09
Atama durumunun ve iş olanaklarının diğer mesleklere göre daha iyi olması	4	1,09
Öğretmenliğin yeniliğe açık bir meslek olması	3	0,82
Çevredekiler öğretmenlik mesleğini kendisine uygun gördüğü için	3	0,82
Öğretmen-öğrenci ilişkilerine imrenme	1	0,27
Üniversitenin saygınlığı	1	0,27
Toplam	367	100

“Kendini öğretmenlik mesleğine uygun görme” kategorisine giren ifadeler, kendimi öğretmen olarak düşündüğümde doğru mesleği seçtiğimi düşünüyorum, yapabileceğim tek mesleğin öğretmenlik olduğunu düşünüyorum, diğer mesleklere göre daha kolay yapabileceğini düşündüğüm için, el becerim ve herhangi bir şeye yeteneğim olmadığı için, kendime yakıştırdığım meslek türünün öğretmenlik olması, bu meslekte başarılı olabileceğimi düşünüyorum, öğretmenlik mesleğinde kendimi buluyorum, kendimde bir öğretmende olması gereken özelliklerin(sabırlı olma, etkili iletişim becerisi, konuşkan olma, iyi bir anlatıcı olma vb.) bulunduğunu düşünüyorum şeklinde çeşitlenmiştir. “Öğretmekten mutluluk duyma” kategorisine giren ifadeler ise birilerine bir şeyler anlatmak hoşuma gider, insanlara bildiğimi anlatmak ve öğretmek isterim, öğretmeyi seviyorum, bilgi aktarımı gerçekleştirmenin verdiği haz, bilgi paylaşmayı seviyorum, anlatmayı seviyorum, eğitmeyi seviyorum, bilgilerimi başkalarına aktarmaktan ve onları bilgilendirmekten gurur duymak, öğretme arzusu, öğretmek işinin benim için eğlenceli olması ve beni mutlu etmesi olarak ifade edilmiştir. “Eğitimle topluma fayda sağlayacağını düşünme” kategorisinde ise topluma faydalı olmak, bir öğretmen bir toplumun eğitimcisidir, toplumun belli değerler etrafında toplanmasını sağlamak, öğrencilere yalnızca ders hakkında bilgi vermek istemeyip hayatın içindeki güzel şeylerden de bahsetmek istemem, doğru olanı öğretmeyi ve yanlışlığı değiştirmeyi hedeflerim, gelecek için iyi bir nesil yetiştirmek, yaşadığımız topluma katkı vermek için, düzeni sağlamak istiyorsam gençlerden başlamalıydım, eğitimin toplumun yapı taşı olduğuna inanmam, gelecek neslin temellerini öğretmenler atar ve ben bu temelleri sağlam atmam istiyorum, hayata yeni başlayan, bilgiye ve eğitime muhtaç bireyleri yönlendirmeyi ve onlara doğruyu göstermeyi isterim, ülkemizde yaşanan terör olaylarında halkı az da olsa bilgilendirerek aza indirmek gibi cümlelerle ifade edilmiştir.

Öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih sebeplerinde bölümlere göre farklılıklar da gözlenmiştir. Örneğin matematik eğitimi bölümünde öğrencilerin çoğu tercih sebebi olarak matematik branşını sevmelerini belirtmiştir. Yine okul öncesi eğitimi bölümünde ise öğretmen adaylarının neredeyse tamamı tercih sebepleri arasında çocuk sevgisini göstermiştir. Öğretmenlik mesleğinin rahat bir meslek olduğu ve tatillerinin fazla olduğu inancı adayların öğretmenlik mesleğini tercihlerinde % 8 oranında etkili olmuştur. Özellikle eğitim sisteminin bir gereği olarak yapılmakta olan üniversiteye giriş sınavında alınan puanlar da adayların %5,45’ini öğretmenlik mesleğini seçmeye itmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarının %6,27’si ailesi istediği için mesleği tercih ettiklerini vurgulamıştır. Bu araştırmada da toplumda var olan öğretmenlik mesleğinin kadınlar için ideal meslek olduğu görüşü ile ilgili

ifadeler %3, 54'lük bir oran ile yer almıştır. Aday öğretmenlerden %2,45'i nitelikli öğretmen eksikliğine yönelik problemleri çözmeyi istedikleri için bu mesleği tercih ettiklerini belirtmişlerdir.

7. Öğretmen adayları tarafından öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih etmede birinci sırada ifade edilen sebepler

Öğretmen adayları tarafından öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih etmede birinci sırada ifade edilen sebepler Tablo 8'de gösterilmiştir. Tabloya göre öğretmen adaylarının mesleği tercih sebepleri arasında birinci sırada gösterdiği nedenler sırasıyla; ilköğretim matematik eğitimi bölümünde “branşını sevme”, okul öncesi eğitimi bölümünde “eğitim ile topluma fayda sağlayacağını düşünme”, fen bilgisi eğitiminde ise “kendini öğretmenlik mesleğine uygun görme” olarak belirtilmiştir. Toplamda ise adaylar ilk sırada %14,74'lük bir oranla “kendini öğretmenlik mesleğine uygun görme” kategorisine uygun ifadelerde bulunmuşlardır.

Tablo 8: Öğretmen Adayları Tarafından Birinci Sırada İfade Edilen Tercih Sebepleri

Kategoriler	İlköğretim Matematik Eğitimi		Okul Öncesi Eğitimi		Fen Bilgisi Eğitimi		Toplam	
	Frekans	Yüzde	Frekans	Yüzde	Frekans	Yüzde	Frekans	Yüzde
Kendini öğretmenlik mesleğine uygun görme	2	4,26	2	14,29	10	29,41	14	14,74
Öğretmenlik mesleğine olan sevgi	6	12,77	1	7,14	6	17,65	13	13,68
Branşını sevdiği için	13	27,65	-	-	-	-	13	13,68
Öğretmekten mutluluk duyma	4	8,51	1	7,14	7	20,59	12	12,63
Eğitimle topluma fayda sağlayacağını düşünme	1	2,13	4	28,58	6	17,65	11	11,59
Puanı okuduğu bölüme yettiği için	9	19,15	-	-	1	2,94	10	10,53
Çocuk sevgisi	3	6,38	1	7,14	1	2,94	5	5,26
Tatilin fazla olması	5	10,63	-	-	1	-	5	5,26
Öğretmenliğin kutsal ve değerli bir meslek olması	1	2,13	2	14,29	-	-	3	3,16
Rahat bir meslek olması	-	-	1	7,14	1	2,94	2	2,11
Nitelikli öğretmen eksikliğinin eğitimde yol açtığı sorunlar	-	-	1	7,14	1	2,94	2	2,11
Ailesi istediği için	-	-	-	-	1	2,94	1	1,05
Çevredekiler öğretmenlik mesleğini kendisine uygun gördüğü için	-	-	1	7,14	-	-	1	1,05
Gelirinin iyi olması	1	2,13	-	-	-	-	1	1,05
Kadınlar için uygun bir meslek olması	1	2,13	-	-	-	-	1	1,05
Atama durumunun ve iş olanaklarının diğer mesleklerle göre daha iyi olması	1	2,13	-	-	-	-	1	1,05
Toplam	47	100	14	100	34	100	95	100

8. Öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre mesleği yeniden tercih etme durumlarının cinsiyete göre dağılımı

“Okuduğunuz bölümü yeniden seçme şansınız olsaydı öğretmenlik mesleğini tekrar tercih edip etmeyeceğinizi gerekçeleriyle açıklayınız” sorusuna verilen cevaplar değerlendirilerek öğretmen adaylarının anabilim dallarına göre mesleği yeniden tercih etme durumları analiz edilmiştir. Anabilim dallarına göre mesleği yeniden tercih etme durumlarının cinsiyete göre dağılımı Tablo 7’de gösterilmiştir. Buna göre, kadın öğretmen adaylarının % 65,82’si, erkeklerinse %68,75’i mesleğini tekrar tercih edebileceklerini belirtmişlerdir. Ayrıca araştırmaya katılan toplam katılımcıların %66,32’si öğretmenlik mesleğini tekrar tercih edebileceklerini ifade etmişlerdir.

Tablo 9: Mesleği Yeniden Tercih Etmede Cinsiyet Faktörü

Mesleği Tercih Etme Durumu	Bölüm		İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği				Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği				Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği				Toplam	
	Kadın		Erkek		Kadın		Erkek		Kadın		Erkek		Kadın		Erkek	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Evet	23	58,98	5	62,5	7	58,33	2	100	22	78,58	4	66,7	52	65,82	11	68,75
Hayır	16	41,02	3	37,5	5	41,67	0	0	6	21,42	2	33,3	27	34,18	5	31,25
Toplam	39	100	8	100	12	100	2	100	28	100	6	100	79	100	16	100

Soruya “hayır” şeklinde cevap veren adaylar iki durumda kategorize edilmiştir. Adaylardan bazıları eğitim görmekte olduklarından farklı bir branşta öğretmen olmak istediklerini, diğerleriyse öğretmenlik mesleğini hiç tercih etmek istemediklerini belirtmişlerdir. Farklı bir branşta öğretmen olmak isteyenlerden bazıları özellikle rehberlik ve psikolojik danışmanlık ya da görme engelliler öğretmenliği okumak istediklerini belirtmiş bazıları ise sadece “farklı bir branşta öğretmen olmak isterdim” şeklinde ifadelerde bulunmuşlardır. Öğretmenlik mesleğini hiç tercih etmek istemeyenler ise gerekçeleri arasında atanamama sorunu, öğretmen maaşlarının düşük olması, puanının hayalindeki mesleğe yetmemesi gibi sebepleri göstermiştir. Adaylar öğretmenlik mesleği yerine tıp, diş hekimliği, beslenme ve diyetetik, fizik tedavi ve rehabilitasyon, eczacılık, mühendislik, veterinerlik, hukuk gibi alanları tercih etmek istediklerini belirtmişlerdir.

SONUÇ ve ÖNERİLER

Bu çalışmada Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi İlköğretim Bölümü’ne yeni başlamış olan birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin yani geleceğin öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih sebepleri araştırılmıştır. Bu araştırmanın yapılması gelecek nesilleri yetiştirecek olan öğretmenlerimizin bu mesleği tercih etme sebeplerini

belirlemek açısından önem taşımaktadır. Öğretmenlik mesleğinde emek verilen kişinin insan olması mesleği tercih etme sebeplerinde maddi faktörlerden çok manevi faktörlerin etkisinin fazla olmasını gerektirmektedir. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları da bu görüşü destekler nitelikte olmuştur. Öğretmen adaylarının büyük bir kısmı öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih sebepleri arasında daha çok *kendini öğretmenlik mesleğine uygun görme, öğretmekten mutluluk duyma, eğitimle topluma fayda sağlayacağını düşünme, öğretmenlik mesleğine olan sevgi* gibi manevi faktörleri göstermişlerdir. En az ise *atama durumunun ve iş olanaklarının diğer mesleklere göre daha iyi olması, çevredekiler öğretmenlik mesleğini kendisine uygun gördüğü için, gelirin iyi olması* gibi daha dışsal olan sebepleri göstermişlerdir. Bu sonuç Türk eğitim sistemimiz açısından oldukça sevindiricidir.

Araştırmanın sonuçlarını detaylandırdığımızda, öğretmen adaylarının daha çok Anadolu öğretmen liselerinden mezun olması bu liselerin öğretmen yetiştirme amacına ulaştığını göstermektedir. Bunun yanında bu lise türünden mezun olmuş adayların eğitim fakültelerini seçecek olması halinde ek puan olanağı sağlaması adayların öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih etmesini kolaylaştıran bir etkidir. Zaten öğretmen adaylarının bölümlerini daha çok ilk beş sırada tercih etmiş olmaları da bu görüşü destekler niteliktedir. Öğretmen adaylarının ailelerinin eğitim durumu ve gelir düzeyine bakıldığında düşük sosyo-ekonomik düzeyde oldukları göze çarpmaktadır. Bu durum öğretmen adaylarının aile isteği doğrultusunda öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih etmiş olabileceğini akıllara getirmektedir. Araştırma bulgularına bakıldığında ailesi istediği için bu mesleği tercih ettiğini söyleyenlerin yüzdesi azımsanmayacak düzeydedir.

Araştırma ilköğretim bölümünden üç anabilim dalında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Anabilim dalları bazında öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih sebeplerinde ilk sıradaki ifadeye baktığımızda ilköğretim matematik eğitimi anabilim dalındaki öğretmen adaylarının en çok branşlarını sevdiğileri için mesleği tercih ettiklerini görmekteyiz. Bunu puanı okuduğu bölüme yettiği için ve öğretmenlik mesleğine olan sevgi faktörleri takip etmiştir. Okul öncesi eğitimi anabilim dalındaki öğretmen adayları ise ilk sırada eğitimle topluma fayda sağlayacağını düşünme faktörünü, daha sonra eşit oranlarla kendini öğretmenlik mesleğine uygun görme ve öğretmenliğin kutsal ve değerli bir meslek olması faktörlerini öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih sebebi olarak belirtmişlerdir. Fen bilgisi eğitimi anabilim dalındaki öğretmen adaylarının mesleği tercih etme sebeplerinin sıralamasına bakıldığında ilk sırada kendini öğretmenlik mesleğine uygun görmenin yer aldığı, bunu sırasıyla öğretmekten mutluluk duyma, eşit yüzdelerle de öğretmenlik mesleğine olan sevgi ve eğitimle topluma fayda sağlayacağını düşünmenin takip ettiği görülmektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının büyük bir kısmının öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih sebebi olarak puanı okuduğu bölüme yettiği için, tatilin fazla olması, rahat bir meslek olması, kadınlar için uygun bir meslek olması, nitelikli öğretmen eksikliğinin eğitimde yol açtığı sorunlar gibi ifadeler kullanması oldukça dikkat çekici ve düşündürücüdür. Öğrencilerin üniversite sınavlarından aldığı puanların, onları beklide hiç istemedikleri bir mesleğe yönelmek zorunda bırakması ve bunun sonucu olarak da öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih etmeleri mesleğin doğasına aykırı bir durumdur. Bu durumdan hem öğretmen adaylarının hem de ileride onların yetiştireceği nesillerin büyük zarar göreceğini tahmin etmek zor değildir. Nitekim öğretmen adaylarından puanlarının yetmesi durumunda öğretmenlik mesleğini tekrar tercih etmeyeceklerini ve sağlık alanlarına veya hukuk, mühendislik gibi diğer alanlara yöneleceklerini söyleyenler olmuştur. Öğretmen adaylarının eğitim süreçlerinin sonunda “keşke”lerle dolu olarak mezun olup eğitim sistemine dâhil olması ileride olumsuz sonuçlara sebep olabilir. Öğretmenlik mesleğinin rahat, tatili bol, kadınlar için ideal bir meslek olarak görülmesi geçmişten günümüze kadar hala etkisini gösteren yanlış bir algı olarak genç öğretmen adaylarının ifadelerinde de yer almaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının günümüz eğitim sisteminde nitelikli öğretmen eksikliğinin yol açtığı sorunların farkında olması ve bunu değiştirmek amacıyla öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih etmeleri araştırmada ortaya çıkan olumlu sonuçlardandır. Bu düşünceye sahip öğretmen adaylarının sisteme dâhil olması Türk eğitim sistemi açısından sevindiricidir.

Çalışmada elde edilen bu sonuçlar giriş kısmında sözü edilen diğer araştırmacıların bulguları ile paralellik göstermektedir. Bu da bize yurt içi ve dışındaki öğretmen adaylarının benzer sebeplerle mesleği tercih ettikleri sonucuna ulaştırmaktadır. Araştırmanın sonuçları değerlendirildiğinde bazı önerilerde bulunulabilir. Öncelikle öğrencilere lisede aldıkları eğitim süresince, ilgi ve yeteneklerini tanımaları ve mesleklere olan farkındalıklarını artırmak amacıyla çeşitli rehberlik hizmetleri verilmeli, bu doğrultuda tutum- ilgi-beceri testleri yapılmalı ve bunun sonuçları öğrenci ve velileri ile paylaşılarak gerekli yönlendirme yapılmalıdır. Aileler öğrenciyi meslek tercihinde özgür bırakmalı, çeşitli baskılar sonucunda öğrencinin zorla eğitim almasının önüne geçilmelidir. Öğretmenlik mesleğinin toplumda rahat bir meslek olarak nitelendirilmesinin sebepleri araştırılarak bunların çözümüne yönelik önlemler alınmalıdır. Öğretmen adaylarının kafasında bundan sonrası için “keşke”lerin olmasını istemiyorsak lisans eğitimle süresince her türlü destek verilerek, onlara ileride yapacakları mesleğin önemi ve değeri hissettirilmelidir.

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Using of the Vig in the Preparation of Student Teachers

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Abstract

The article deals with using of the video interaction guidance (VIG) in the education of teachers to support their professional development – above all in the area of social skills. The VIG is primarily focused on communication. Nevertheless, with the increase of the amount of teachers-students successful interactions, the efficiency of the whole teaching process grows. A quantitative research and an illustrative case-study are presented. Results of the research suggest that the positive video feedback provides a valuable opportunity for personal, professional and social development for both teachers and pupils across a range of contexts. These investigations have shown that this approach improves the communication skills and self-esteem of student teachers, therefore enhancing effective learning and teaching and minimising negative contact, e.g. misunderstanding, inattention, conflict. The student teachers have started fully enjoy the teaching, being energized by it.

Keywords: Video interaction guidance (VIG), social skills, communication skills, education of teachers

Introduction

Communication skills constitute highly important part of profession skills of teachers, enabling them to attach positive relationships with students and to create pleasant and effective atmosphere in teaching process (Gursimsek, Vural, Demirsoz, 2008). Many studies of Czech and foreign authors warn that above all student teachers have insufficiently developed their abilities to manage the class. According to Sükran Tok (2010), communication and behavioral management skills belong to the most substantial problems of the beginning teachers.

Facing up to this situation, the preparation of the student teachers should be concentrated on the development of social skills. The integration of this activities directly to the teaching practice could help them to bridge over the gap between the theory and real classwork. Video interaction guidance (VIG) enables to proceed such an integration with considerable efficiency.

Video interaction guidance

The VIG was developed in the Netherlands (e.g. Jansen & Wels, 1995, 1998) as a short – time intensive method helping to improve interactions between parents and children. It was being expanded into many other areas of a social contact - VIG is being used in a very wide range of contexts (education, health service, social-work, management etc.). VIG method is currently practiced in many different countries, including the Czech republic, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States. The method of VIG has been inspired by a wide range of theoretical sources from several disciplines – some of the most important are human ethology (Trevarthen – theory of intersubjectivity, reciprocity, protoconversation; Papouschek and Papouschek – intuitive parenting), psychology (Bowlby – attachment theory, Vygotsky – zone of the proximal development, Bandura – social learning theory), research of communication (Jacobson - rituals of the contact, Watzlavik – common theories of verbal and nonverbal communication, videofeedback et al.), pedagogy (Tausch and Tausch, Rogers – humanistic pedagogy, Gordon – parental ability et al.).

Through the video-records, the method aims at increasing of the successful interactions, including verbal, nonverbal and paraverbal aspects of the communication. A unique feature of VIG is that trainees watch themselves from a distance and have time for selfreflection, with the possibility to stop, review or to slow down the recording. The records are then being analysed according to Principles of the contact – categories of observable elements of behaviour (Biemans, 1990). „Based on the social learning theory of Bandura (1997), VIG assumes that positive reinforcement of positive behavior increases the self-efficacy of learners. Using the

method of positive self-modelling (Dowrick, 1999), the VIG trainer therefore selects and labels exemplary interactions in order to strengthen positive teacher behavior“ (Fukkink, Tavecchio, 2010, p. 2).

The goal of VIG in schools is to help to teachers to develop their communication and self-reflection skills that would enable them to attach relationships with the students succesfully, to manage the class and the education efficiently and to support their self-confidence in the role of the teacher.

Material and Methods

Methodology of the VIG

The VIG process involves the negotiating the goals of the work, resulting from actual needs of the teacher. Then the videotrainer is filming the teacher, short (approximately 10 minutes) records are being created at agreed times. The crucial parts of the record are being selected and analysed by the videotrainer. These moments are then being watched and discussed with the teacher with the intention of revealing and strenghtening of his/her own communication sources - which seems to be more efficient than to point out and eliminate mistakes. This part of the VIG process leads into building of partial goals for the next work of the teacher – folowed by the next VIG intervention.

VIG implementation into undergraduate study of teaching

The pilot evaluation focused on the possibility of VIG implementation into undergraduate study of Teaching Psychology at Secondary Schools and colleges. 133 students of Teaching Psychology (130 females, 30 males) practising at 30 secondary schools and at 12 colleges of 10 regions of the Czech Republic for atleast 3 months. The data were collected from October 2003 till June 2009).

The study had two crucial aims: VIG implementation and evaluation. Three VIG trainers aimed at supporting and helping to develop social skills of students of Teaching Psychology by using VIG during the role playing (microteaching) and students' practices at real schools.

The evaluation focused on measuring the changes in the social skills of the student teachers over the VIG intervention period by video analyzing. In addition, the written student-teachers' reflection were analyzed.

Case-study

One of the parciipients of the research was selected to demonstrate the impact of VIG on the student teachers in more detail. The student was a 23-year woman who had been already working as a teacher at a gymnasium where she was subserving her practice as well. Despite of her advanced teaching skills she faced up to the insufficient attention of students (approximately 16-years), who were allowed to use notebooks during lessons (an important part of the school orientation). She needed to find out some efficiant ways how to activate the students more.

First recodring

The teacher seemed to be free-hearted and tolerant, well-prepaired, trying to involve all the students into the education. She tried to activate the students to infer examples, connections etc, but the notebooks created a barrier of the eye-contct and of the interactions generally.

In the following discussion, we were talking about the communication sources and strenghts of the teacher. We were observing the connection between the eye-contact with the teacher and the activity of the students. A possibility to limit of using the notebooks were discussed, but the teacher would like to attract attention and activate students without limiting them. The partial goals till the next intervention were: more equable eye-contact with all students, direct activations.

Second recording

The teacher tried to activate the students more directly, even in the connection with the notebooks („try to find this out“ etc.), but she was working hard herself, not giving enough space to reactions of students. She succeeded in activating students with the concrete examples.

In the discussion, the teacher was astonished that she had given so small space for the reactions. We were talking about different forms of teaching (if it is more efficient to lecture without a participation of students or to activate them and guide them trough the education). We were discussing the possibility to limit using of

notebooks occasionally, the teacher considered trying it, because she realized that she needed more of the eye-contact with students to attract their attention.

Third recording

In the last recording, there was a huge change in the organization – the teacher and the students were sitting in a circle together, the teacher succeeded in activating of the students more times, the students were paying more attention to the teacher and to themselves as well.

The teacher was very absorbed by the changes that seemed to increase the activity of students and the efficiency of the education. She was pleased that she had managed to attract the attention and realized how the changes reached thanks the VIG helped her to feel more satisfied with the education.

Results and Discussion

Chart 1 shows the teaching methods that student teachers used during their microteaching and practice. They used more student-centred and activating methods after the VIG intervention, the form of lecturing was changed also – with more questioning.

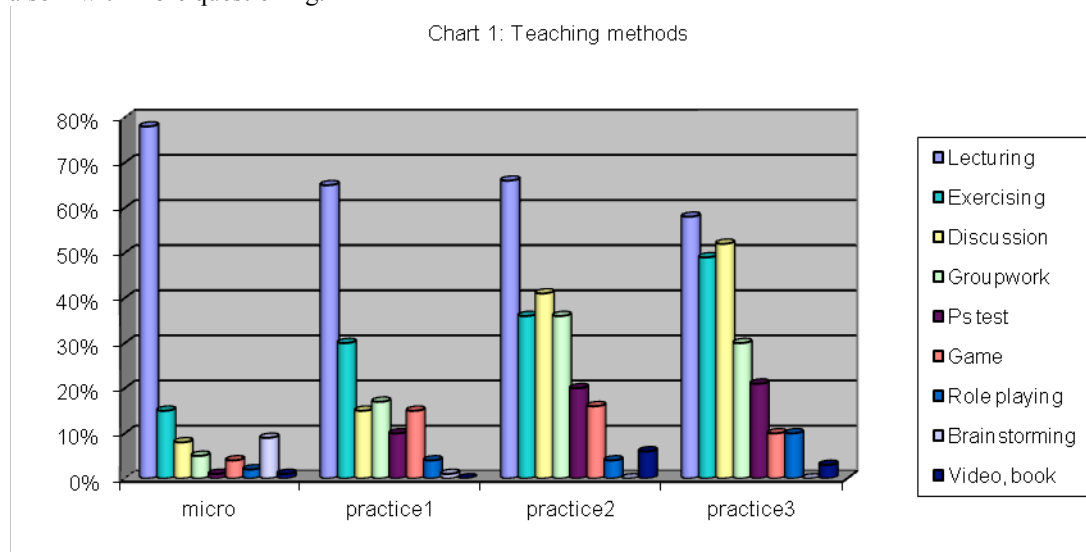


Chart 2 shows changes in social skills of the student teachers during their teaching practice – remarkable changes after first and second VIG feedback.

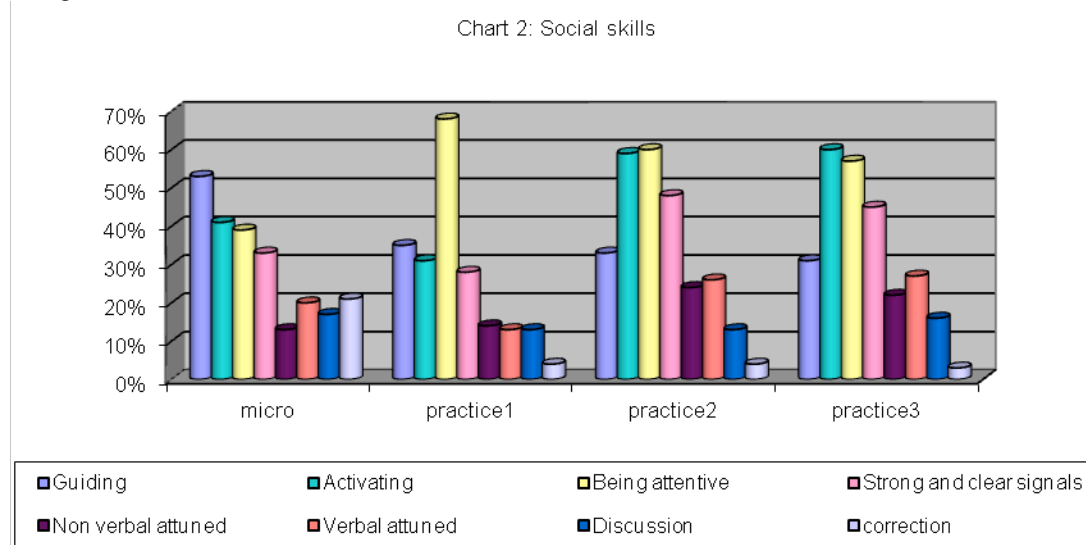
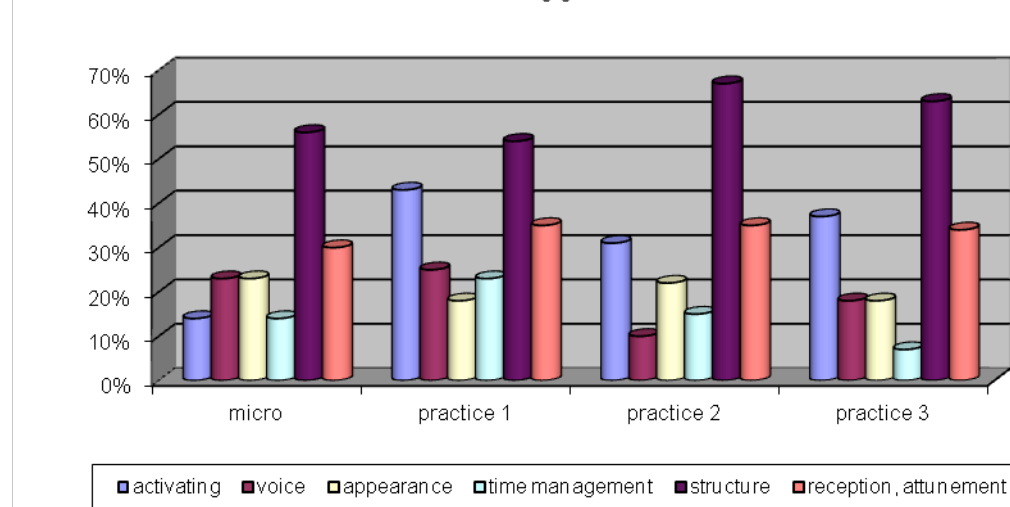


Chart 3 shows changes in working goals that student teachers set during VIG intervention. The goal „to activate students more“ remarkably raised after first real experience of teaching in a big class of students as well as the aim to be better attuned and to make better structure of the lecture and to have a better time-plan of

activities. Many of them worked on their voice (modulation, intonation, articulation, loudness, fluency,...) and on their appearance (dress, face expression, movement, gestures,...).

Chart 3: Working goals of students



Conclusion

The VIG provides an important tool to analyze and develop effective teacher-students interactions and to prepare and positively motivate student teachers for their future profession. There is a substantial positive impact of the VIG on the self-reflection processes of the students. The method helps to reduce insecurity and nervousness of the student teachers during their practice.

The student teachers rated very high the possibility to see themselves on the records and analyzed them together with positive and supported videotrainers and other students. They found helpful to see the records of other students as well.

In summation, the VIG has a positive effect on teacher-students' communication and perception: the student teachers used activating techniques more frequently, became more attentive, receptive and attuned to the initiatives of students. As a consequence, students were more involved into the education.

Acknowledgements

This study is a part of development programme fields of science at Charles University No. P07 Psychosocial aspects of quality of life, a sub Psychological and social aspects shaping the life course, lifestyle and quality of life - determinants and prospects.

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Virtual Gallery for Children as a Hypertext. How Art Training Influences Cognition and Stimulate the Children's Creativity?

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Abstract

Nowadays everything has its counterpart on the Internet. Every company, all public or private institutions, each educational institution, or even the majority of individuals have their own websites, or belong to a social network. These are the portals such as: Nasza Klasa (Our Class), Facebook, Twitter, You Tube, Flickr or Fotka.pl. Also great art galleries and national museums in Poland and in the world have their own websites (Karczmarzyk, 2013).

Websites today constitute the great power of information. They are the source of information, but also tend to be an indispensable complement to activity of any public or private institution. They guide a potential receiver to important for him/her information about the activity, history or social and cultural background of the institution. Virtual museums and galleries are no exception to this rule. However, what makes them important is the fact that the offer of majority of them is directed especially toward children. In this article the online gallery for children will be analyzed in the perspective of new forms of communication and its impact on children's creative abilities.

Keywords:

The modern world as a multimedia reality

How is today's world different from what it was? What would the world be like without computers? The computer and the Internet has become an integral part of our life, the thing which we do not want to get rid of. Why? We all communicate through the Internet. We create own websites, participate in communication via social networks, talk with each other using the chat rooms such as Gadu Gadu or Skype. Thanks to it we communicate one another, participate in the community, create and follow particular tasks and objectives, our and others goals. We impact one another.

As Boguslaw Dziadzia noted, " Media along with other agencies of socialization influence who we are, what values we share, how we perceive the world, they help us in shaping our identity " (Dziadzia, 2008:5). What's more, technologization and computerization make changes not only to the human being but also to the language, which he uses. There are new words, expressions in speech and writing, which define the virtual world and communication through the media. We commonly know expressions such as an e-mail (a letter), a chat (an Internet meeting), a video conference (a web meeting via video) and text emoticons (stylized drawings indicating the emotional state of the sender (Ch. Vandendorpe , 2008:142). These emotive pictograms are the visual code which is an example of crossing the borders of speech and incorporating the iconic dimension into writing (Ch. Vandendorpe, 2008:142). As a result appears the very different kind of writing, which is a specific computer jargon.

An extremely important to this phenomenon is a new receiver - a man - child - recipient. He in fact reads the web page and at the same time creates it. Thanks to him/her the website begins to „be real ". The recipient is not a passive viewer, but an active participant who, through his activity gives some sense to a virtual world. This determines the multidimensionality of a website. Anyone can be the recipient of the page, regardless of age, gender, race, religion, etc. Therefore, despite the fact that some websites of art galleries are designed for a specific recipient, their actual receivers are all people on Earth. It is worth investigating the opportunities offered by a gallery website and think about its creative potential, hidden in the language of media.

Examples of selected gallery websites as a hypertext

Turning to the analysis of selected gallery websites and trying to show them as multidimensional, composed of many discourses unites, we should define the word hypertext. In English a hypertext is a plain text, in which some words are specially marked - emphasizing different forms by colors. The concept of a hypertext appeared in 1965, long before the computers era. Recently, however, it has been experiencing a dynamic growth and popularity. A term coined by Theodor Nelson – a sociologist, working on the computer device to perform various operations on the text, such as checking, comparing, binding and correlating texts with other documents. Hypertext is a new solution for the technology that has changed forever the way we traditional used to use texts. Inventing it caused a revolutionary change in the methods of collecting and sharing information. Today it is an inseparable element of any website (Karczmarzyk, 2013).

An important feature of a hypertext is its openness, or lack of any spatial framework and restrictions based on age, sex or a continent. Anyone with the Internet access can freely use the websites as well as impact on their quality (some websites offer the recipient the ability to edit the information that is missing). What is more, the content available on the website complement with other websites by sending the user to another page. Formed in this manner an unlimited information network is constantly changing - because some information is updated other content is enrich with for example videos, photographs, or readers posts. Websites for children, such as AFK, Artists for Kids, MoMa. Destination Modern Art, Tate Gallery in London, the Children's Gallery in London, the Louvre for children, The Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York or the Polish website " BALL " of the Ministry of Culture and National Heritage are examples of a multimedia hypertext, which uses on one hand visual messages and on the other hand verbal text referring the user to subsequent web pages with further information on the topic. Sometimes it is a simple formula and its structure resembles a computer game but sometimes it is an intricate network of information which refers to the following interesting information on the history of art, or the biography of the artist.

For example, the American website MoMa inspires children to activity aimed at creating, painting, writing new words, listening but also finding out information about the biography of artists and to perform own works of art, which can be later printed.

Although this kind of a hypertext is only partial open (because there is no possibility to take advantage of the further web pages linked with the major one) due to the use of multimedia language MoMa's website very strongly influences the activity of its recipient. An interactive message forces a little child to „play with art," which is both a lesson in art history as well as a factor developing creative activity of a child.

Also the Polish web side " BALL " is built on a similar principle, it is designed for the youngest children, who thanks to it can learn about Polish towns and get to know the most important monuments and interesting facts about the city its building, main characters, schools etc. Here, drawings and caption refer a child to texts, and again subsequent texts. This is a typical structure of a hypertext, which is built as a network of multiple dependencies and sub-dependencies in order to provide information to a given recipient.

In turn, the English website of the Tate Kids (Tate Modern in London) "tempts" a child with colorful and diversified headings, which are similar to advertisement of the next "enchanted worlds." When a child chooses one of them he/she may disappear in a thicket of possibilities that gives him/her a particular website.

Educational skills developed by gallery websites

The selected examples of gallery web pages for children (described in the book of M. Karczmarzyk, "Child in a virtual gallery") reveal a great diversity in terms of both content and form of a multimedia language. On the websites of the recipient can find the information stored in the form of text, video, sound, drawings, of a painting. It is important here, however, is that in addition to data on the work of art its author or the image, a child can also activate itself through his/her own creative activity .

Gallery web pages stimulate the creativity of children forcing them to constant exploration and investigation further places of the virtual world. It is also a play that teaches and also shapes the personality and emotional intelligence. Because a child while working at the computer experiencing many positive feelings such as joy, but also sadness, surprise, curiosity, excitement. According to Jane McGonigal, it develops: optimism, ambition, knowledge, joyful productivity and cooperation, e.g. by joining the online community playing in a given game, or conversing on the forum about the problem (McGonigal, Internet source). In this way, thus the linguistic and social competences are being shaped. With graphic software, the impression of reality and more and more advanced technologies such as 3D and 5D, the player is drawn ever deeper into virtual reality. He/she has a

power there as well as a sense of agency and control, the possibility of choice and planning. In this way a child shapes the process of self- education, identity, and knowledge how to cope with difficult situations. Thanks to the multiple possibilities of going back to the game, particular activity or a level, the player learns self-discipline and patience in gaining goals.

Even viewing an online gallery web page is becoming potentially creative, because it forces the viewer to seek further interesting information, and the „links " offer an endless exploration of different options that require a creative responses and become the kind of stimulus to induce activity that is associated with thinking (Pater - Ejjgierd, Karczmarzyk, 2010). Thus, the child learns how to develop either aesthetic or creative competences. This type of education is similar to self- education and e-learning (Pater - Ejjgierd, Karczmarzyk, 2010). It prepares the child to work independently and provides ability to concentrate on the task performed alone. Internet art galleries for children offer them both the knowledge of the history of art and a play with a work of art. Therefore, this kind of activity can be fully recommended for children and their parents who seek to enrich and stimulate the development of their children.

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About the Peculiar Aspects of Relativity and Beyond: A Pedagogical Perspective

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Abstract

In this paper a pedagogical, but rigorous introduction to the key concepts of relativity is presented. Starting by the notions of space and time, of fundamental importance for the evolution for the global knowledge of children already in the primary school, it arrives to indications about the teaching of relativity in the high school and university. Interesting considerations related to fascinating topics, like the evolution of the concept of spacetime and the unusual amazing peculiarities emerging by the extensions of relativity, will be done.

Keywords:

INTRODUCTION

The Einstein's theory of general relativity (1915) is a theory concerning space, time and gravity. Before 1905, the causal structure of space and time identified a notion of simultaneity: for a given event "A", i.e. a point in space at an instant of time, it is possible to define the future of "A", all events that, in principle, can be achieved by a particle which starts from "A" (Einstein & Lawson, 2012 - Einstein & Infeld, 1967 - Einstein, 2013). The same can be said for the past of "A". What is not in the past or in the future of "A" is the set of simultaneous events to "A". This implied the possibility of separating the study of space-time in separate studies of space and time. This is the pre-relativistic notion of the structure of space-time. The theory of relativity has aroused a great philosophical interest for its deep implications on crucial concepts, such as those of space, time, matter, absolute, relative, and for the assignment of physical meaning to non-Euclidean geometries, issues that have their roots and are inherent to the essence of the man, since his childhood.

Identifying space with gravitational field, physics becomes a real geometry, a doctrine of the possible forms in the space. Even this close link to the geometry leads to the early experiences of the child, relative to her/his orientation in space. Hans Reichenbach spoke of a theory that is based on a critique of the apodictic character of each "a-priori" concept, by means of the method of successive approximation of the principles to the experience, that is the main modality with which the child compares her/himself to the external world (Reichenbach, 1957 - Reichenbach, 2011).

For all that, the Einstein's theory becomes an important and precious contribution, described with high mathematics elegance, which is based on the fundamental concepts of space and time and has a large cross on the first child's activities, related to the knowledge and understanding of the world (Di Sia, 2013).

THE NOTIONS OF SPACE AND TIME IN PRIMARY SCHOOL

The theme of space and time leads to interesting proposals for cross activities as early as in the primary school. It is possible to consider:

- 1) the use of space as exploration of different environments and organization of spatial relationships;
- 2) the acquisition of the spatial orientation and the intuition of the first simple concepts of geometry and measurement (logic-mathematical area) (Polya, 1973);
- 3) to know how to manage the basis motor skills in different situations, in an increasingly and autonomous modality, through:
 - the self-knowledge,
 - the knowledge of the other (psycho-motor area),
 - the knowledge of the objects,
 - the knowledge of the space-time (Ausubel, Novak, & Hanesian, 1978).

The physical activity, especially for children, tends to turn on conscious and unconscious mental processes. This also stimulates the verbalization of experience, for translating the gestural code in verbal communication, enhancing not only the language skills, but also the exercise of listening, attention, observation and reflection skills (Piaget, 1986). When asked on what the word “space” brings to mind, the children’s responses are varied, but all oriented to an extension (Casasanto, Fotakopoulou, & Boroditsky, 2010), which can be:

- a) finite, local or global (space is my home, is a square, a pine forest, a farm, a forest, a big city, the earth, the world);
- b) it can tend to infinity (it is a thing, where you run.....and never ends, another land, the sky with many planets, one thing that never ends.....infinite, the sea that never ends) (Paivio, 1986).

About the concept of time, it is very important and normally it is better understood during the growth. When children, it is difficult to understand, but with the help of teachers and the continuing work following a process and a graduated path, starting by the primary school, children acquire very important skills for life and for living together in the society (Sandri, 2008).

For anyone it is important to respect times and to know an orientation in time, to be able to live and work with others, for example:

- realizing the flow of time,
- to give importance at the activities, which take place in time,
- living in the present,
- retracing the past,
- making advances on the future,
- dealing with the different types of time,
- becoming aware of the difference between cyclical time and the time of the temporal sequence,
- making explicit the relativity of historical documents (a class chooses what to remember, cannot remember everything).

The concept of “elastic” time, that can be deduced by relativity, definitely helps the child, which becomes an adolescent in his personal growth (Di Sia, 2001 - Boxenbaum, 1986).

THE NOTIONS OF SPACE AND TIME IN LOWER AND UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL

Growing up in age, adolescents mature, think and approach also disciplines such as philosophy. The concept of space has been studied with considerable interest by philosophy, in particular in relation to its nature and its subjectivity or objectivity. The space was intended as the place of bodies or as containing them; in the first case the space is full, in the second it is necessary to admit the existence of the vacuum.

Aristotle supported the concept of space as a place; the space of a body is the limit in which it is contained. The space is for him finished and its maximum extension coincides with that of the celestial spheres. These concepts, starting from the Aristotelian tradition, formed a thought line that, passing through Descartes and Spinoza, reached Kant (Di Sia, 2013). The notion of space as a container, partially filled and partially empty, systematically formulated for the first time by the Greek atomists, became one of the foundations of classical physics through the work of Newton. He introduced the concept of “absolute space”, stating that the space is the “sensorium” of God, the reality through which God communicates with nature.

With contemporary philosophy, it has opened the question of jurisdiction in dealing with the problems inherent the nature of space, having to consider the new picture of the situation with the new changes starting from the theory of relativity, and considering the fact that the physical universe, for a properly description, requires the use of other geometries, different by the Euclidean geometry (Di Sia, 2000). All that puts the growing boys in front to new concepts and ideas, so as in front to a serious reflection, discussion and interdisciplinarity.

About the concept of time, philosophically it has been considered as a homogeneous flow, in which the changing things are “immersed”. The Greek thought considered that flow as circular (the symbol was the wheel).

Plato, in the work “Timeo”, studied the problem of time in the complete philosophical significance, defining it as “the moving image of eternity” which “proceeds according to the number” (Platone, 2000). Aristotle explicited the link between time and thought, which remained a constant of philosophy. He, in the work “Physics” (Aristotele, 2011), defined the time as “the number of movement according to before and then”.

By the Renaissance, the “scientific” conception of time appeared, which considers the time as a set of homogeneous instants, hence the Newtonian concept of “absolute time”. Newton spoke of time as an attribute of God, “absolute time” that can be measured such as “relative time” (Guicciardini, 2011). The modern physics has

challenged the classical notion of time; relativity requires the acceptance of different temporal sequences, depending by the speed of the various observers (Di Sia, 2000). The problem of the subjectivity and objectivity of the time is sure an issue of great emotional and intellectual impact by adolescents, who are walking toward adulthood, in particular in relation to the personal available amount of time, compared to the finite length of the human life (Stassen, 1996).

SPECIAL RELATIVITY

The special relativity changed the assumptions on the causal structure of space-time, leading to define the notion of “light cone” of an event, but not a notion of simultaneity. About the invariant structures of space-time, if in the pre-relativistic physics we had the time interval between each pair of events and the spatial interval between simultaneous events, in special relativity we find the “space-time interval”, defined as $ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$, where c is the speed of light in vacuum. The special relativity is a theory of Lorentzian flat geometry, with pseudo-euclidean metric.

GENERAL RELATIVITY

The general relativity saw its birth by the attempts to formulate a theory of gravity, which is “compatible” with the basis ideas of special relativity and the “equivalence principle”. This principle suggests that the “free-fall motion” in a gravitational field can be seen as analogous to the inertial motion of the pre-relativistic physics and special relativity (Einstein & Lawson, 2012 - Einstein & Infeld, 1967 - Einstein, 2013 - Schutz, 2009). The gravity can be interpreted as a change in the structure of space-time, that allows to an inertial observer an acceleration relatively to another. Einstein discovered that this idea could be implemented simply by generalizing the flat Lorentzian geometry in a “curve” geometry. General relativity is therefore a theory of space and time, taking into account of the physical effects of gravity in terms of curved geometry of space-time (Powell, 2011). The geometry of space-time is not fixed “in advance” (as in special relativity), but “dynamically evolving”.

PECULIAR INVOLVED BASIS NOTIONS AT ACADEMIC LEVEL

Introduced the notion of tangent vector for describing an infinitesimal displacement by a point P_1 to P_2 , the set of all tangent vectors in P_1 has the natural structure of vector space, but in a curved geometry a tangent vector at P_1 cannot be naturally identified with a tangent vector at a generic point Q different from P_1 . Therefore the more general notion of tensor in P_1 must be used, which generalizes the notion of four-vector. An illuminating example of a tensor field, i.e. of a tensor defined on all the points P_i of a space, is a “metric”, which is an inner product on the tangent vectors (Wald, 1992).

An elegant and mathematically clear way for defining a tangent vector is a “derivation”, i.e. a directional derivative operator acting on functions. The most intuitive way is to consider a curve, locally described by the coordinates $x(t)$ of the point on the curve as a function of the parameter of the curve “ t ”, and to identify the tangent to the curve at the point $x(t)$ with the set of n numbers $(dx^1/dt, \dots, dx^n/dt)$ to the point on the curve, labeled by the parameter “ t ”. About the need of having a mathematically precise notion of “set of points” constituting the space-time, the appropriate notion is that of “manifold”, which is locally seen like \mathfrak{R}^n . Defined the tensors, it is possible to define a tensor field of type (k, l) and to use the notion of “parallel transport” along a curve. The notion of curvature completes the essential mathematical material needed for the formulation of general relativity (Weinberg, 1972 - Di Sia, 2010).

ABOUT THE TEACHING OF GENERAL RELATIVITY IN UNIVERSITY

Preceded special relativity to general relativity, also at more qualitative level in the secondary school, decreases the obstacles of conceptual nature. It is important the knowledge of classical mechanics, as well as notions of electromagnetism; the even qualitative knowledge of electromagnetic waves sure helps for learning the concept of gravitational wave.

Approaching the special relativity, it is interesting to possibly give the appropriate emphasis at the geometric point of view. Even at qualitative level, are significant:

- 1) a clear explanation that the space-time in general relativity does not have the structure of a vector space;
- 2) the introduction of the notion of tangent vector to a curve;

3) the introduction of the notion of a space-time metric and its use for determining the “proper time” spent along a curve;

4) the introduction of the notion of “geodesic curve” as a curve that “extremes” this time.

For a course at the university level, it is believed that the known key thoughts are:

a) how to calculate the elapsed time along arbitrary “time-type” curves;

b) how to determine time-type geodesics (which represent the possible paths of “free-fall” particles) and null-geodesics (representing possible paths of light rays) in space-time (Weinberg, 1972 - Di Sia, 2010). If students do not possess the necessary tools for understanding the Einstein’s equation, it will be not possible the derivation of the solutions, so they will have to “accept” that space-time “births” as solution of the Einstein’s equation.

c) After that, it is possible to discuss the Schwarzschild solution, representing the external gravitational field of a spherical body, and the solutions of FLRW (Friedmann-Lemaître-Robertson-Walker), representing homogeneous and isotropic cosmologies.

d) In relation to the Schwarzschild solution, it is possible to solve the equations of the “null-“ and “time-type” geodesics, and then to derive predictions for the motion of planets and the “bending” of light, so as the nature of “black-hole” of the (extended) solution of Schwarzschild.

e) Other key issues are the gravitational radiation and the nature of black-hole, all fascinating topics for the students minds and that open the way to the unified theories (Ellis, 2000).

THE FASCINATING TOPICS OF UNIFIED THEORIES

The recent theories about the unification of the fundamental forces include other dimensions, that our senses do not see or feel, hidden extra-dimensions (Di Sia, 2000). Students can think about simple everyday situations, so as the picture of a point on a sheet; it is actually a three-dimensional object, not without dimensions, because of the ink of the pen. It is the “representation of a point”, not “a point”. For the same reason, the sheet of paper on which we have drawn the point, however subtle may be, has still a thickness (Di Sia, 2013). We identify normally a hair with a line, but on fact it has a thickness; we identify normally the tip of a pin with a point, but on fact it is a sphere, and so on. This enables the students to understand that in the reality there is always some insignificant size, if compared to the others, relatively to the context in which we are.

The simplification in mathematical and physical modelling research led to the classical physics, relative to the real world, easily observable with the available tools, but if we try to understand more about the “ultra-small and ultra-big world”, we do not have many available tools, nor the nature provides obvious evidence.

The superstring theories are one of the attempts to explain all the fundamental forces of nature and known particles in a single comprehensive framework, considering the vibrations of tiny supersymmetric (special symmetry of physics) strings (one-dimensional objects) (Di Sia, 1994 - Di Sia, 1995). The strings are the basis constituents of such theories, one-dimensional objects instead of entities to zero length (points). At each point of the visible space it would exist therefore six (or seven) new dimensions, strongly wrapped to form geometric objects.

The quantum geometry is a recent field of mathematics that introduces a new concept of space, unifying the methods of classical differential geometry with non-commutative algebras and functional analysis; it incorporates in geometry many ideas of quantum physics, works with quantum spaces and includes the classical concept of space as a special case (Di Sia, 2004 - Rovelli, 2010).

Differently by the classical geometry, the quantum spaces cannot be interpreted as a collection of points; there are non-trivial quantum fluctuations of geometry at all scales. A very interesting application of the quantum geometry in physics regards the mathematically consistent description of physical space-time at every scale, in particular at ultra-microscopic distances, i.e. of order of the Planck length (about $1,6 \times 10^{-35} m$, value defined with a standard uncertainty of $8,1 \times 10^{-40} m$).

All these innovations open the way to new amazing scenarios, such as the time travels, the multiverse, the discrete nature of space-time, the quantum computing, which until a few years ago were subjects of comic books and science fiction. These scenarios attracted always children, youngs and adults; this should be taken into account since primary school (Di Sia, 2013).

CONCLUSION

The study of relativity, one of the two pillars of the modern physics, and the evolution of this theory toward an unified picture of the universe, one of the objects of study and research for the current theoretical high energy

physics and advanced mathematics, can surely be used to help the child in the process of evolution, growth, self-knowledge and love for knowledge, which is one of the most important aspects of human life.

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Transformational Leadership of Coaches and Sport Commitment of Iranian Football Players: Implications on Training and Selection of Teachers as Coaches

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership style of Iranian high schools' coaches and sport commitment of Iranian high schools' football players. This study also examined the effect of age and playing experience on athletes' sport commitment. A total of 270 football players were selected from 31 high schools football teams in Iran using the simple random sampling procedure. Instruments of the study were Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Avolio & Bass, 1995) and Sport Commitment Model Scale (SCMS) (Scanlan, Carpenter, Schmidt, Simons, & Keeler, 1993). The results of the study indicated that there is a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership style of coaches and sport commitment ($r = .419$, $\beta = .478$, $p \text{ value} = .001$). In addition, the results also showed that there are no significant differences in sport commitment of football players of different their ages ($F(2, 252) = 1.115$, $p \text{ value} = 0.330 > 0.05$) and years of football experience ($F(2, 252) = 0.053$, $p \text{ value} = 0.948 > 0.05$). Findings of this study suggest that transformational coaches that the transformational leadership style is effective in enhancing the sport commitment of Iranian high school football players.

Keywords: Transformational leadership style, Sport commitment

INTRODUCTION

Transformational leadership theory is relatively new in sport settings and it has proved to be useful (Bass & Riggio, 2006). With transformational leadership, the followers feel trust, administration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do. According to Bass (1985), the leader transforms and motivates followers by (1) making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes, (2) inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team, and (3) activating their higher-order needs. In contrast, transactional leadership involves an exchange process that may result in follower compliance with leader requests but is not likely to generate enthusiasm and commitment to task objectives (Yukl, 2010).

By altering and influencing followers' beliefs and attitudes, transformational leaders motivate and inspire followers to exceed expectations. According to Bass & Riggio (2006) and Avolio (1999) transformational leadership factors are: (1) Idealized influence (attributed), (2) Idealized influence (behavior), (3) Inspirational motivation, (4) Intellectual stimulation and (5) Individualized consideration. Several studies examined the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors, commitment and satisfaction of subordinates (Amorose & Horn, 2000; Chen & Fahr, 2003; Louise & Robert, 2007; Andrew, 2008; Hallajy, 2009). Their findings revealed that transformational behaviors have influence on subordinates' outcomes such as commitment and satisfaction. In a sport setting, researchers showed transformational leadership style of coaches can predict and increase commitment of their followers (Golshani, 2001; Nikoofar, 2006; Andrew, Kim, Stoll, Cup & Todd, 2008; Hallajy, 2009).

Leadership styles and behaviors of coaches can motivate players to achieve goals, perform better, and become successful. Coaches can also influence their athletes to the highest performance based on their maximum capabilities (Ting Chen, 2007; Zardoshtian, 2008). In addition, the authors stated that coaches need to understand several skills for teaching athletes. Therefore it is critical for sport coaches to be knowledgeable about various things (such as planning, instructing, training, psychology needs of players), and be able to carry

out different tasks. Sufficient knowledge about leadership style of a coach as leader can make him or her successful or unsuccessful.

Several studies have been conducted about behaviors and leadership styles of leaders (managers) in sport organizations and coaches of sport teams in Iran. For instance, Golshani (2001) and Nikoofar (2006), evaluated relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles of manager of physical education organization and organizational commitment of employees in two provinces of Iran (West Azarbayejan and Sistan and Baloochestan). They found that transformational leadership style of the manager of physical education organization increased the organizational commitment of employees. However, within the context of high school sports in Iran, several authors reported lack of commitment among Iranian high school students in sport participation. Specifically, Hashemi (2010) found out that only 48% of Iranian high school students participated in sports such as football, volleyball, and handball in 2010 as compared to a previous study by Hoseini (2009) that showed participation in sport activities was 67% in 2009. The decline in sport participation level among Iranian high school students may be due to a lack of sport commitment or the “desire and resolve to continue sport participation in a particular program, specific sport, or sport in general” (Scanlan et al, 1993, p. 6).

Reports of poor leadership of coaches and the declining commitment of Iranian high school athletes in sport participation suggest a new coaching model is needed in Iranian high schools that use the proposition of the transformational leadership theory to enhance the commitment and performance of athletes in Iranian schools. For this reason, this study seeks to examine the relationship between transformational leadership styles of Iranian coaches and sport commitment of high school football players. Using high school as the setting since this sport is the most popular sport in Iran (Ramezanijad, *et al.*, 2010), this study seeks to examine whether Iranian high school coaches who engage in transformational leadership behaviors are able to inspire and empower high school football players to a higher level of commitment than those coaches who do not engage in such leadership behaviors.

The following hypothesis were formulated for this study

H₁: There is no significant relationship between the transformational leadership style of coaches and the sport commitment of high schools’ football players in Iran.

H₂: There is no significant difference in sport- commitment of the high schools’ football players of different ages in Iran.

H₃: There is no significant difference in sport commitment of the high schools’ football players of different football playing experiences in Iran.

METHODOLOGY

This research employed the use of survey design and descriptive research. The function of the descriptive statistics was to illustrate and summarize the observations (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006). Furthermore, the intensity and direction of the connection between the leadership styles of coaches and sport commitment of high school football players was explored using a correlational approach. SEM was employed as a strong procedure to assess the relationship among the observed and the latent variables.

Instruments

The researcher used a standardized back-translation technique (Arbuckle, 2009) to translate the original English version of the two instruments (MLQ and SCMS) to Persian version. Then a pilot study was utilized to confirm the capability of the methodological procedure of the research and also to increase the validity and reliability of instrumentations of the study. Results of the pilot study showed that internal consistency of MLQ Rater Form (five transformational subscales) with ranges from 0.80 to 0.89, and SCMS (four subscales) from 0.81 to 0.85 were acceptable.

Participants

The researcher selected 15 provinces through Simple random sampling was used to choose 15 out of the sum total of 31 provinces in Iran (high school football teams) to strengthen the confidence level of the research results. 270 (15 teams × 18 players = 270 players) Iranian high school football players (mean age = 17.35 years, standard deviation = 0.78.) were ultimately chosen to participate, although 255 actually participated, as the result

of missing answers to some questions. Thus, 255 participants completed all of the questionnaires. The subjects ranged in age from 15 to 20 years (mean age = 17.35 years; standard deviation = 0.78). In terms of experience, the players' amount ran the gamut from 0 (inexperience) to 10 years (mean age = 2.66 years; standard deviation = 3.04). The age and experience of all of the participants (coaches and football players) were categorized into three groups.

Statistical Analysis

The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership style of coaches and sport commitment of Iranian high schools' football players, and to provide a direct model with two variables. The data was analyzed through Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using AMOS 18 (Arbuckle, 2009) in order to investigate a model which reflects purposes of this study. In addition, the one-way ANOVA was utilizing to determine the sport commitment differences in age and football playing experience category.

Procedure

Permission was obtained from the Iranian Ministry of Education to gather the data, whereupon the researcher attended a meeting with high school coaches and administrators. The researcher elucidated the objectives and aims of the research and requested the cooperation of the coaches and administrators in carrying out the research. They were willing to assist the researcher in the gathering of data. The researcher handed out the coaches' demographic questionnaire to the 15 coaches and collected them after the coaches filled them out. The researcher met each team in its respective dormitory to delineate the objective of the study; the researcher gave the team members lucid instructions. Demographic, transformational (Rater form) and sport commitment questionnaires were distributed among football players, and then the completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher. It took about 30 minutes for the students to answer the questionnaires and they were requested to answer all questions.

RESULT

Structural model was used to analyze hypotheses 1. As illustrated in Table 1 there is a positive and significant medium correlation, $r = 0.419$ (Cohen, 1988) between the transformational leadership style of coaches and the sport commitment of high schools' football players in Iran at p value < 0.001 . Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected (reject H_{01} at $\alpha = 0.001$).

Table 1: Correlation Estimate among the Variables in the Measurement Model

Transformational	<-->	Sport Commitment	0.419*
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* Significant level at $\alpha < 0.001$

The result as shown in Table 2 showed that transformational leadership style of coaches significantly contributed toward the prediction sport- commitment of high schools' football players ($\beta = 0.478$, $B = 0.477$, S.E. = 0.092, C.R. = 5.185. $p = 0.000$). The result based on standard regression weight (β) indicated that when transformational leadership goes up by 1 standard deviation (SD), sport commitment goes up by 0.478 standard deviations. Thus, the H_{01} was supported by the data.

The unstandardized estimate (unstandardized regression coefficient) or B (0.477) indicated that when transformational goes up by 1 SD, sport commitment goes up by 0.477 standard deviations. The regression weight estimate, 0.477, has a standard error about 0.092. Critical Ratio (C.R.) calculated from dividing the unstandardized estimate (B) by the estimate of its standard error (S.E.) ($Z = 0.477 / 0.092 = 5.185$). In other words, the regression weight estimate is 5.185 standard errors above zero (Table 2). If an estimate has a critical ratio greater than two (in absolute value), the estimate is significantly different from zero at the 0.05 level (C.R. = 5.185 > 1.96 , $p < 0.05$) (Arbuckle, 2009). Thus, the table shows that the covariance between transformational and sport commitment is significantly different from 0 with $p = 0.000$ (at p level < 0.001).

Table 2: Standardized Regression Weights: Total Structural Model

DV	path	IV	Unstand Estimate	S.E.	Standard Estimate	C.R.	ρ^*
Sport Commitment	<---	Transformational	0.477	0.092	0.478	5.185	0.000

* Significant level at $p < 0.001$

One-way ANOVA was used to examine whether or not there were differences in sport commitment of football players with different football players ages. The results showed that there is no significant differences in sport commitment of football players of different their ages, $F(2, 252) = 1.115$, p value = 0.330 > 0.05, (Table 3). Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected (fail to reject H_{04} , at $\rho = 0.05$).

Table 3: Sport commitment and players' age

ANOVA				
	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2	0.476	1.115	0.330
Within Groups	252	0.427		
Total	254			

Another objective of the research is to determine the differences in sport commitment of the high schools' football players of different football playing experience (less than 3 years, from 4 to 6 years, and from 7 to 10 years) in Iran. The following hypothesis was formulated:

H_{05} : There is no significant difference in sport commitment of the high schools' football players of different football playing experiences in Iran.

Table 4: Sport commitment and Football playing experience

ANOVA				
	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2	0.023	0.053	0.948
Within Groups	252	0.430		
Total	254			

One-way ANOVA was used to examine whether or not there were differences in sport commitment of football players with different football playing experiences. The results revealed that there are no significant differences in sport commitment of football players of different football playing experience (three categories), $F(2, 252) = 0.053$, p value = 0.948 > 0.05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected (fail to reject H_{05} , at $\rho = 0.05$) (Table).

DISCUSSION

The results of SEM analysis revealed that $\beta = 0.478$, indicating that 47.8% of the variance of the sport commitment could be explained by transformational leadership style. Also, coaches adapting transformational leadership styles accounted for the variance in sport commitment with of football players 22.8% of accounted variance. The results are similar to the results of previous studies (e.g., Andrew, 2004; Antonakis, *et al.*, 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Hallajy, 2009; Javdani, 2002) which found a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and subordinates' commitment. The results of the current study demonstrated a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership style of coaches and sport commitment of football players ($r = 0.419$, p value = 0.001). In addition, the results of path analysis and regression weight showed that of all dimensions of the transformational leadership style only inspirational motivation has significantly affected the sport commitment ($\beta = .210$, $p = 0.005$). Thus, it can be concluded that inspirational motivation as a dimension of transformational leadership style increased more sport commitment of the football players than the other dimensions of the transformational leadership style.

The findings showed that transformational leadership style of coaches would increase sport commitment of Iranian high schools' football players. On the basis of the research findings, it can be interpreted that a coach provides a desired level of transformational behavior; he is able to fulfill athletes' desire to resolve or maintain physical activity and to promote sport participation. The results may be due to transformational behavior abilities. Idealized influence (Attributed), Idealized influence (Behavior), and Inspirational motivation, as the three dimensions of transformational leaders, can increase the followers' self-confidence, create an excellent vision and strong beliefs among them for achieving shared goals (Antonakis, *et al.*, 2003; Bass, 1997). The result of the current study is supported by Antonakis, *et al.*, (2003) and Bass (1997). The findings of the current study showed that the most important dimension of the transformational leadership style of coaches was inspirational motivation, the main function of which was to increase sport commitment of the high school football players. This result may be due to the importance of young age (15-20 years) (Durand-Bush & Salmela, 2001) for improving their skills and performances in sport setting. Thus, it can be concluded that the high school coaches

have to use inspirational motivation dimension of transformational leadership style more than the other dimensions in order to increase sport commitment of the football players.

By engaging in those behaviors, transformational leaders clearly explain their goals and are able to motivate their followers to get their commitment toward achieving the goals (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In addition, Idealized influence (Behavior) component of transformational leaders has been reported to be positive in terms of developing emotional ties with their followers. These emotional ties are formed because followers believe that their leader has certain positive characteristics such as: perceived power, focus on higher-order values and ideals (Antonakis, *et al.*, 2003; Bass, 1997). Further, individual consideration dimension of transformational leaders also can communicate with their followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006). It has been reported that it creates positive communications between transformational leader and followers' commitment (Antonakis, *et al.*, 2003), and consequently, this characteristic of transformational behaviors of coaches can increase players' commitment. Therefore, the players are committed to the team's work.

Comparing the results of this study with those of other studies in the literature reveals that the results are consistent with the proposition of the transformational theory (Bass, 1985; Avolio, 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006), which suggested that the transformational behavior of a leader increases the commitment of his or her followers. The results demonstrated that transformational leadership style is effective not only in business, industries, military, and education but also in sport settings. Specifically, the results support the proposition put forward by Hallajy (2009), which states that transformational coaches can effect and predict the sport commitment of handball players. Moreover, the effect of transformational behavior as a leadership behavior on sport commitment in this study is consistent with the result of the Andrew's (2004) study that showed positive feedback as a leadership behavior can influence athlete's sport commitment.

Javdani (2002) also found a positive relationship between transformational leadership style of managers and teachers' organizational commitment. The findings of the current research are also consistent with those of Klinsontorn's (2007) study which reported that transformational leadership style has a positive effect on organizational commitment and can increase it. The result of this study is also supported by other studies' findings (e.g., Doherty, 1997; Amorose & Horn, 2000; Chen & Fahr, 2003; Louise & Robert, 2007). These scholars stated that transformational leaders try to create incentive, insight and vision, so it would increase commitment of their followers. Similar to the findings of this research, Barling, Weber & Kelloway (1996) showed the effects of transformational leadership style on subordinate's commitment. These similarities among the findings of this study and those of previous studies might be due to applicability of MLQ in diverse cultures (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

However, the findings of this study are in contrast with those of Doherty & Danylchuk's (1996) findings who studied the transformational and transactional leadership style of coaches of athletic departments of universities in Ontario. In their report they have indicated that transformational and transactional leadership behavior of athletic administrators was not related to the commitment of coaches. In addition, Pruijn & Boucher's (1995) findings as cited by Yusof (2002b) of Dutch national sport organizations revealed that there is no significant relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and commitment of subordinates. Moreover, Javdani (2002) revealed that there is no relationship between transactional leadership style of managers and teachers' organizational commitment. In addition, on the basis of the path analysis, findings of this study are inconsistent with those of Andrew *et al.*, (2008) and (Andrew, *et al.*, 2010) who found that path coefficients between the three dimensions of transformational leadership behaviors charismatic, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation and commitment toward athletic director were positively significant, while only the path coefficients between intellectual stimulation and individual consideration and commitment toward athletic department were positively significant. Moreover, Kent & Chelladurai's (2001) found that only charismatic and individual consideration two dimensions of transformational leadership style of athlete directors have correlation with normative organizational commitment. These dimensions have a high influence on the organizational commitment of members (Bass, 1985).

There are some reasons for the inconsistency between the findings of this study and some of previous studies. Mujtaba and Sungkhawan (2011) stated that cultural, personal, and professional differences are parts of human life. These diversity influences individuals' senses and opinions. Further, Bass & Avolio, (1993) revealed that transformational organizational culture improves employee organizational commitment. In addition, transformational behaviors and culture predict and positively influence organizational outcomes such as commitment and satisfaction (Kathrins, 2007). In addition, Wallace and Weese (1995) found that organizational culture may have an impact on level of transformational leadership behavior in sport settings. Further, athletic experience (M. A. Eys, *et al.*, 2003) and other factors such as race and age (Bolikah & Terry 2001) may have impact on the relationship between transformational leadership and outcome variables.

This study did not find a significant relationship between sport commitment and age and also between sport commitment and football playing experience of football players. This may be due to low playing experiences. Young players may have less experience than older players. In other words, young less experienced players may do not have sufficient skills, and consequently their individual and team performance level may decrease. The players that have lower performance and skills than others cannot succeed. Therefore, their willingness to continue participating in sport activities may decrease. In addition, sport enjoyment and motivation of players for staying in the team may also decrease. Similar to the findings of this study, Lok and Crawford (1999) found that there was no significant relationship between experience and employees' commitment in non-sport settings. This similarity may be due to some similarities between the concept of organizational commitment and sport commitment such as tendency to work hard and constancy to stay in the organization.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the current study suggest the need for more transformational leaders in school settings and other sport settings. Iranian high school coaches who have transformational leadership style would be able to empower high school football players to higher levels of commitment, and hence higher participation in a particular program, specific sport, or sport in general as stated by Scanlan, *et al.*, (1993). The transformational leadership behaviors can be taught (Bass, 1990) through workshops and seminars (Bass & Riggio 2006). Training football coaches to become transformational leaders should be an important issue for the Sport Department of the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Ministry of sport of Iran. This department should select physical education teachers for coaching positions based on their potentials to become transformational leaders. Furthermore, the Football Federation of Iran is the main facilitator for teaching of coaches; it should provide lectures, courses and workshops whose primary focus is on following syllabi including transformational leadership principles with the goal of improving transformational leadership behaviors of coaches. The results will solve the problem that was mentioned earlier by Noroozi, *et al.*, 2012, who argued that a coach without an effective leadership style can neither increase commitment and satisfaction of players nor enhance the poor performance that was mentioned by Zardoshtian (2008). In addition, the problems of decreased commitment and satisfaction of Iranian high school football players and poor results of high school national teams (Hashemi, 2010) will be solved. Players, having improved their skills and performance by greater participation in training programs and competitions, can achieve better results in competitions.

Based on the results of this study, it is recommended that the policy of the Education Ministry and the Sport Ministry of Iran should be focused on the transformational leadership behaviors of coaches and its effects on football players' commitment by considering the following programs:

1- Identifying coaches who show more transformational behavior than others. It is important to identify coaches who pose transformational behavior, so that they can be involved in various coaching and education activities. This would improve football players' satisfaction and commitment. Coaches that have little or no transformational leadership behaviors can also be identified, so that they undergo an appropriate education and training program.

2- Workshop for teaching the transformational leadership behavior based on its dimensions: Transformation leadership behavior has many dimensions, and organizing workshops for coaches can enhance their leadership behavior practically, the end result of which would be higher satisfaction and commitment of high school football players.

3- Improving social and psychological abilities of the transformational behaviors of coaches considering the importance of athletes' ages in high school setting. Best time to learn for an individual is when he/she is at the school age, and coaches need to improve their social and psychological abilities, so that they can utilize these capabilities more effectively and specifically for the high school football players in that age group. This will enhance coaches' transformational leadership behavior and will lead to improved sport commitment and satisfaction of high school football players.

4- Improving motivational abilities of the transformational behaviors considering the psychological needs of athletes in high school setting.

5- Organizing meetings for knowledge and experiences sharing of coaches about the transformational leadership style. This will improve coach's transformational leadership behavior and will lead to increase sport commitment and satisfaction of high school football players.

6- Teaching coaches to identify and use appropriate methods of football instructions and trainings, considering the transformational behaviors, and consequently increasing athlete satisfaction and commitment.

7- Teaching coaches to identify and use appropriate strategies, techniques and tactics of football games and transfer this knowledge to football players, thereby increasing their athlete satisfaction and sport commitment.

8- Teaching coaches to improve individual and team performance of the football players, thereby increasing their athlete satisfaction and sport commitment.

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Competencies of Student-Teachers in State Universities and Colleges (SUCs): Basis for Monitoring Strategies

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine the competence of SUCs student-teachers in Negros Occidental and the relationship existing between their competence and the variables in their profile. The descriptive-correlational method of research was employed in this study. The respondents were the 127 fourth year college students of the select State Universities and Colleges in Negros Occidental, Philippines. The data in this study were obtained using the modified instrument based from NCBTS. The mean, one-way ANOVA and Pearson r were the statistical tools used to determine the level, differences and the relationship existing between variables. Findings revealed that the level of competence of SUCs student-teachers was high as a whole and in almost all of the domains except in community linkages. No significant differences were observed in the level of competency of SUCs student-teachers as perceived by the respondent groups. Likewise, no significant relationship was observed between student-teachers level of competence and the identified variables in their profile. It was concluded therefore, that SUCs student-teachers were competent in terms of the seven domains except in community linkages. Likewise, respondent groups were almost the same in their perceptions of the competence of SUCs student-teachers in terms of the seven domains. Furthermore, SUCS student-teachers competence is not related to the variables in their profile. It was therefore recommended that student-teachers should continuously exert effort in doing their tasks as student-teachers. Furthermore, student-teachers are encouraged to strengthen their links to the communities, particularly as these links help in the attainment of the curricular goals.

Keywords:

INTRODUCTION

Today's educational scenario is plagued with many contentions about teaching and learning performance. These two variables are inseparable. Several researchers have shown that learning performance is related to the quality of education experienced by learners. According to Villamin as cited by Figueroa (2008) quality education lies in the hands of committed and effective teachers who dedicate the best years of their lives to the service of the youth. In building the foundation for tomorrow, no task can be more daunting than that held by educators of the land. In their hands, lie the responsibilities of shaping minds, molding character, and empowering the spirits of the youth. Teachers are provided with unique opportunities for influencing students. Thus, the task of producing quality graduates is dependent upon them.

Federico Mayor (2000), UNESCO General Director, also states that teachers have a pivotal role to play in preparing the young generation to help realize the country's hopes and aspirations; that the coming century will see a more socially just, more tolerant and more peaceful world because in many respects, teachers make the school. The excellence of a school is inseparable from the excellence of its teachers.

Rosas (2003) on the other hand, predicated that the growing complexity of running the educational system at a time when our country is moving towards the next millennium demand our foremost concern and dedication. He further reminds educators of the need to explore alternatives, particularly in the attainment of quality education through the teacher. He went on by saying that teachers play the most important role in the education of the youth who represent the greatest manpower resources in the achievement of the national vision for the 21st century.

It has been said that other than the learner, no other factor is as crucial for effective learning as the teacher. This is especially true in the Philippines, where the teacher plays multi-roles. The importance of the teacher in

learning was underscored by Hendricks (2005) when he pointed out that an effective teacher does not only know how to teach the content, but whom he teaches. Therefore, what are important are not what you do as a teacher, but rather what and how the learners are doing as a result of what you have done to them. Likewise, Lupdag (1997) opined that we could improve teaching only if we first think over why we teach, what to teach, how we teach and whom we teach.

The arguments presented above were also supported by the research conducted by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) of which qualitative and quantitative analysis suggest that policy investments in the quality of teachers may be related to improvements in students' performance.

Quality teachers, therefore, are the single greatest determinant of student achievement. Teacher education, ability, and experience account for more variation in student achievement than all other factors. Studies have found that 40 to 90 percent of the difference in student test scores can be attributed to teacher quality (Hammond and Ball, 1997). Knowing the subject matter, understanding how students learn, and practising effective teaching methods translate into greater student achievement. Therefore, it is vitally important that teachers are well-prepared when they begin teaching and that they continue to improve their knowledge and skills throughout their career.

In the Philippines, the teaching profession has been struggling to keep pace with changes in society and the accompanying challenges of the technological world. With the notion that teacher education, which consists of pre-service education of teachers (PET) and the In-Service Education of Teachers (INSET), has been unable to bridge the growing gap between the needs and expectations of learners, and the knowledge and skill levels of both new and existing teachers, the Teacher Education and Development Program (TEDP) was conceived. This Program seeks to conceptualize a teacher's career path as a continuum that starts with the entry to a teacher education program and concludes when a teacher reaches retirement from formal service. One key element in the program is the establishment of a set of a National Competency-Based Teacher Standards (NCBTS) so that teachers, pupils and parents are able to appreciate the complex set of behaviors, attitudes and skills that each teacher must possess in order to carry out a satisfactory performance of their roles and responsibilities (TEDP, 2005).

Along with the Commission on Higher Education (CHED), Professional Regulation Commission (PRC), Civil Service Commission (CSC), and Department of Education (DepEd), the Northern Negros State College of Science and Technology (NONESCOST) as a Teacher Education Institution is not exempted in the implementation of TEDP in general and the NCBTS in particular. It is at this context that the researchers take initiative to conduct this investigation on the competency of the student-teachers in order to establish empirical evidence that would help the College Teachers Education Department set directions toward offering teacher education training in consonance to the thrust of the government and toward producing quality teachers.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study aimed to determine the level of competency of the student-teachers as perceived by themselves, the critic teachers and the intern supervisors of State Colleges and Universities in Negros Occidental, Philippines during the Academic Year 2009-2010 as basis for monitoring strategies.

Specifically, this study sought answers to the following questions:

1. What is the profile of the student-teachers in terms of
 - 1.1. Age and gender
 - 1.2. Socio-economic status of parents as to:
 - 1.2.1. Educational attainment of both mother and father,
 - 1.2.2. Occupation of both mother and father,
 - 1.2.3. Combined monthly family income,
 - 1.2.4. Size of the family, and
 - 1.3. Aptitude test result?
2. What is the level of competence of SUCs student-teachers as perceived by themselves, by the critic teachers and the intern supervisors in terms of the following domains:
 - 2.1. Social regard for learning,
 - 2.2. Learning environment,
 - 2.3. Diversity of learning,
 - 2.4. Curriculum,
 - 2.5. Planning, assessing and reporting,
 - 2.6. Community linkages, and

- 2.7. Personal growth and professional development?
3. Is there a significant difference in the perception of the student-teachers, critic teachers, and intern supervisors on the competency of SUCs student-teachers?
 4. Is there a significant relationship between the competency of the student-teachers and the identified variables in their profiles?
 5. Based on the findings, what monitoring strategy can be proposed?

HYPOTHESES

Based on the aforementioned research problems, the following were the hypotheses of the study:

Ho1. There is no significant difference in the perception of the student-teachers, critic teachers, and intern supervisors on the competency of SUCs student-teachers.

Ho2. There is no significant relationship between the competency of the student-teachers and the identified variables in their profiles.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is primarily anchored on the Teacher Education and Development Program's (TEDP) Teacher Performance and Development Framework that is based upon the core values of Filipino teachers and on the principles of effective teaching and learning. The framework is divided into seven (7) domains that represent the desired features of the teaching and learning process. These domains incorporate a series of strands of desired teaching performance statements which can be identified as performance indicators that are observable indicators of quality of a teacher's performance. The seven domains are: social regard for learning; learning environment; the diversity of learners; curriculum; planning, assessing and reporting; community linkages; and personal growth and professional development.

Each of these domains becomes a part of a set of Competency-Based Teacher Standards that leads to a National Teacher Performance and Development Framework. This framework allows teachers to self-assess their own performance against the competency standards in order to identify areas of strength as well as the areas that need to be developed further in order for them to function more effectively as facilitators of learning.

The seven domains

Social regard for learning. This domain focuses on the ideal that teachers and prospective teachers serve as positive and powerful role models of values in the pursuit of learning of different kinds of the effort to learn. The teacher's actions, statements, and different types of social interactions with students exemplify this ideal.

The teaching model is further described by Wagner and McCombs (1995) when they write, "teachers decide for the learner what is required from outside by defining characteristics of instruction, curriculum, assessment, and management to achieve desired learning outcomes". The teaching model seems to place much of its energy on the process of teaching and less concern on what is learned or how it is learned.

Learning environment. This domain focuses on importance of providing for a social, psychological and physical environment within which all students, regardless of their individual differences in learning, can engage the different learning activities and work towards attaining high standards of learning. The pre-service teacher is expected to understand the implication of providing sound learning environment. According to Astrand (2001), relationships, activities, and time define the learning environment.

Diversity of learners. This domain emphasizes the ideal that the teachers can facilitate the learning process in diverse learners by first recognizing and respecting individual differences, then using knowledge about students' differences to design diverse sets of learning activities to ensure that all students can attain desired learning goals. Such should be the focus of the prospective teachers in this domain.

Curriculum. In this domain, the teachers and prospective teachers will learn all the elements of teaching learning process that work in convergence to help students understand the curricular goals and objectives, and to attain high standards of learning defined in the curriculum. These elements include the teacher's knowledge of subject matter and the learning process, teaching-learning approaches and activities, instructional materials and learning resources.

Planning, assessing and reporting. The domain refers to the alignment of assessment and planning activities. In particular, the domain focuses on the (1) use of assessment data to plan and revise teaching-learning plans, (2) the integration of assessment procedures in the plan and implementation of teaching-learning

activities, and (3) reporting on learner's actual achievement and behaviour. The pre-service teacher should be made aware of the principles involved in planning, assessing and reporting and how they are applied.

Community linkages. This domain focuses on the ideal that classroom activities are meaningfully linked to the experiences and aspirations of the students in their homes and communities. Thus, the domain focuses on teachers' efforts directed at strengthening the links between schools and communities, particularly as these links help in the attainment of the curricular goals. In this domain, the mentee joins the mentor in the different community in the teaching-learning process. While the Performance Indicators are not applicable, the pre-service teacher had plenty of opportunity to be involved in community activities.

Personal growth and professional development. The domain emphasizes the idea that teachers value having a high personal regard for the teaching profession, concern for professional development, and continuous improvement as teachers. The pre-service teachers imbibe these ideals as the mentor models such characteristics.

On competencies in teaching

Short as cited by Natabio (2002) has classified the meaning of competence by describing the four common concepts. The first concept deals with competence as a form of behaviour or performance. In teaching, competence occurs in situation where purpose of interest obligates one to choose the most appropriate behaviour or performance as well as to put this into operation satisfactorily.

The second concept entails a command of knowledge and skills. Conceiving competence in this way implies something more than just doing some behaviour or performance. Competence denotes choosing and knowing why one does something or what one chooses to do. In this sense, competence involves the selection of a particular knowledge/skill to be used in a given situation, as well as for the purpose that a person has planned for the situation.

The third concept involves competence as a degree or level of capability deemed sufficient for the purpose. This view admits that a judgement of competence has been made using some public standards or criteria of excellence.

The fourth concept regards competence as a quality of a person or a state of being. The concept of competence in this view starts with a definition of a particular character holistically.

Holmes Group in their report on "Tomorrow's Teachers" stated that competent teachers possess broad and deep understanding of children, the subject they teach, the nature of learning and schooling, and the world around them. They exemplify the critical thinking they strive to develop in students, combining tough-minded instruction with a penchant for inquiry.

Teachers' competency in teaching consists of a set of knowledge, abilities and beliefs one possesses and brings to the teaching situation.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study used the descriptive-survey method of research to describe the nature of the present situation and to interpret functional relationship between variables involved. The study was conducted to the Teacher Education Department of the three State Colleges in the province of Negros Occidental, Philippines.

RESPONDENTS

The respondents of this study were all the Fourth Year Bachelor of Secondary Education students during the Academic Year 2009-2010 qualified for student teaching and internship, the critic teachers, and the intern supervisors of the respective State Colleges and Universities.

INSTRUMENTS

The Hollingshead four-factor index of socio-economic status (SES) as modified by Barnett (2003) was utilized to determine the socio-economic status of the respondents. This scale, widely used in the social sciences (Cirino, Chin, Seveik, Wolf, Lovett and Morris, 2002), uses parents' education, occupation and income of parents to measure SES.

Also, this study utilized the Competency Checklists provided in the Teacher Education and Development Program (TEDP, 2005). These are checklists of the competency in teaching according to the strands of desired teaching performance and specific performance indicators in seven (7) domains such as: social regard for

learning, learning environment, diversity of learning, curriculum, planning, assessing and reporting, community linkages, and personal growth and professional development. For the purpose of this study, the instrument was modified by using numerical value to be encircled for ease in scoring. This was validated by experts.

PROCEDURES FOR DATA GATHERING

The researchers personally administered the questionnaire and checklists to student-teachers. Administration followed immediately after they are settled for classroom observations. The administration was supplemented with discussion to the respondents on how to properly answer the instruments.

TREATMENT OF DATA

To provide precise and objective presentation, analysis and interpretation of the qualitative and quantitative information of the study, the following statistical tools were employed:

1. To determine the profile of the respondents, frequency and percentage were used.
2. To determine the level of competency of the student-teachers in seven (7) domains, mean was used.
3. To test the significant difference in the perception of the respondent groups on the level of competency of SUCs student-teachers, One-Way ANOVA was used.
4. To test the significant relationship between SUCs student-teachers competency and the identified variables in their profile, Pearson Product Moment of Correlation Coefficient was used.

The data were treated accordingly using Window-based SPSS with the help of a qualified statistician.

SCORING PROCEDURE

Each specific performance indicator under the seven (7) domains of the TEDP Checklists was provided 3-point Likert-type scale with the following legend:

Scale	Interpretation
3	I can do this very well
2	I can do this but I need to learn more and improve
1	I am learning how to do this

The scores in each domain are added and the total is divided by the number of items (specific performance indicators) under the domain. To obtain the competency level by individual student-teacher, the score in each domain are added again and the total is divided by 7. The score is interpreted as follows:

Scale	Interpretation
3.25-4.00	Very Competent – satisfies most of the performance indicators
2.50-3.24	Competent – satisfies 75% of the performance indicators
1.75-2.49	Fairly Competent – satisfies 50% of the performance indicators
1.00-1.74	Poorly Competent – satisfies below 50% of the performance indicators

RESULTS

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

1. Majority of the respondents of this study were female (70%) who are mostly 20 years old and below (63%). In terms of socio-economic status of parents, the profile showed that majority of the respondents' mothers and fathers are elementary(39%) and high school levels (35%), respectively, who are working mostly as unskilled or service workers. The family income reported by the respondents indicated that a great majority have a low annual family income (77%). The profile also revealed that most of the respondents belong to a family with six (6) members (74%). Moreover, majority of the respondents' aptitude in OLSAT is below average (44%); majority of the respondents have average aptitude in teaching (49%) and in English proficiency (57%), respectively.
2. The level of competence of SUCs student-teachers as perceived by respondents on the seven domains of the teaching and learning process when taken as a whole is high (see Tables 4, 5 and 6).

However, when each domain is considered separately, the respondents rated average only on the community linkages.

Table 4. Level of competence of SUCS student-teachers as perceived by themselves

Domains	Mean	SD	Interpretation
Social regard for learning	2.33	0.33	High
Learning Environment	2.35	0.33	High
Diversity of Learning	2.56	0.59	High
Curriculum	2.26	0.35	High
Planning, assessing and reporting	2.21	0.36	High
Community Linkages	2.10	0.43	Average
Personal growth and professional development	2.29	0.38	High
As a Whole	2.26	0.31	High

Table 5. Level of competence of SUCS student-teachers as perceived by critic teachers

Domains	Mean	SD	Interpretation
Social regard for learning	2.25	0.15	High
Learning Environment	2.22	0.46	High
Diversity of Learning	2.29	0.38	High
Curriculum	2.21	0.53	High
Planning, assessing and reporting	2.25	0.32	High
Community Linkages	2.13	0.43	Average
Personal growth and professional development	2.23	0.37	High
As a Whole	2.22	0.38	High

Table 6. Level of competence of SUCS student-teachers as perceived by their supervisors

Domains	Mean	SD	Interpretation
Social regard for learning	2.21	0.53	High
Learning Environment	2.25	0.15	High
Diversity of Learning	2.29	0.38	High
Curriculum	2.22	0.46	High
Planning, assessing and reporting	2.38	0.42	High
Community Linkages	2.15	0.37	Average
Personal growth and professional development	2.40	0.45	High
As a Whole	2.27	0.39	High

3. Results of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) showed no significant differences on the perception of the respondents on the level of competence of SUCs Student-Teachers (see Table 7):

Table 7. Significant difference in the perception of student-teachers, critic teachers, and intern supervisors on the level of competence of SUCS student-teachers

Domains	Levels of Educ. Attainment	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P-value	Interpretation
Social regard for learning	Between Groups	0.40	2	0.20	1.82	0.17	Not Significant
	Within Groups	15.22	140	0.11			
	Total	15.62	142				
Learning environment	Between Groups	0.22	2	0.11	0.95	0.39	Not Significant
	Within Groups	15.87	140	0.11			
	Total	16.09	142				
Diversity of learning	Between Groups	0.21	2	0.10	0.32	0.73	Not Significant
	Within Groups	45.85	140	0.33			
	Total	46.05	142				
Curriculum	Between Groups	0.10	2	0.05	0.39	0.68	Not Significant
	Within Groups	17.34	140	0.12			
	Total	17.43	142				
Planning, assessing, and reporting	Between Groups	0.12	2	0.06	0.44	0.65	Not Significant
	Within Groups	18.30	140	0.13			
	Total	18.41	142				
Community Linkages	Between Groups	0.05	2	0.02	0.12	0.89	Not Significant
	Within Groups	26.58	140	0.19			

	Total	26.63	142				
Personal growth and Professional development	Between Groups	0.09	2	0.05			Not Significant
	Within Groups	20.60	140	0.15	0.34	0.72	
As a whole	Total	20.69	142				
	Between Groups	0.05	2	0.03			Not Significant
	Within Groups	13.65	140	0.10	0.26	0.77	Significant
	Total	13.70	142				

4. No significant relationships were found between the Student-Teachers' competency on social regard for learning, learning environment, diversity of learners, curriculum, planning, assessing and reporting, community linkages and personal growth and professional development and in their profiles such as age, gender, socio-economic status and aptitude (see Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14).

Table 8. Significant relationship between competency in terms of social regard for learning and the identified variables in the profile of the student-teachers

Variables correlated	N	r	p	Interpretation
Social regard for learning and gender	127	-0.03	0.77	Not Significant
Social regard for learning and Age	127	-0.09	0.31	Not Significant
Social regard for learning and socio-economic status	127	0.09	0.32	Not significant
Social regard for learning and aptitude	127	-0.07	0.45	Not Significant

Table 9. Significant relationship between competency in terms of learning environment and the identified variables in the profile of the student-teachers

Variables correlated	N	r	p	Interpretation
Learning environment and gender	127	-0.07	0.43	Not Significant
Learning environment and Age	127	-0.13	0.14	Not Significant
Learning environment and socio-economic status	127	0.13	0.15	Not significant
Learning environment and aptitude	127	0.02	0.85	Not Significant

Table 10. Significant relationship between competency in terms of diversity of learning and the identified variables in the profile of the student-teachers

Variables correlated	N	r	p	Interpretation
Diversity of learning and gender	127	-0.01	0.93	Not Significant
Diversity of Learning and Age	127	-0.14	0.12	Not Significant
Diversity of Learning and socio-economic status	127	0.12	0.17	Not significant
Diversity of Learning and aptitude	127	-0.07	0.47	Not Significant

Table 11. Significant relationship between competency in terms of curriculum and the identified variables in the profile of the student-teachers

Variables correlated	N	r	p	Interpretation
Curriculum and gender	127	-0.05	0.59	Not Significant
Curriculum and Age	127	-0.07	0.46	Not Significant
Curriculum and socio-economic status	127	0.14	0.11	Not significant
Curriculum and aptitude	127	-0.06	0.48	Not Significant

Table 12. Significant relationship between competency in terms of planning, assessing and reporting and the identified variables in the profile of the student-teachers

Variables correlated	N	r	p	Interpretation
Planning, assessing and reporting and gender	127	-0.12	0.19	Not Significant
Planning, assessing and reporting and Age	127	-0.01	0.92	Not Significant
Planning, assessing and reporting and socio-economic status	127	0.11	0.24	Not significant
Planning, assessing and reporting and aptitude	127	-0.08	0.37	Not Significant

Table 13. Significant relationship between competency in terms of community linkages and the identified variables in the profile of the student-teachers

Variables correlated	N	r	p	Interpretation
Community Linkages and gender	127	-0.08	0.36	Not Significant
Community Linkages and Age	127	-0.10	0.28	Not Significant
Community Linkages and socio-economic status	127	0.06	0.47	Not significant
Community Linkages and aptitude	127	-0.03	0.75	Not Significant

Table 14. Significant relationship between competency in terms of personal growth and professional development and the identified variables in the profile of the student-teachers

Variables correlated	N	r	p	Interpretation
Personal Growth and Professional Development and gender	127	-0.15	0.10	Not Significant
Personal Growth and Professional Development and Age	127	-0.09	0.33	Not Significant
Personal Growth and Professional Development and socio-economic status	127	0.05	0.61	Not significant
Personal Growth and Professional Development and aptitude	127	-0.01	0.99	Not Significant

5. Based on the results of the study monitoring strategies were designed for student-teachers' evaluation guide.

CONCLUSION

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

1. Student-Teachers of the State Universities and Colleges in the Province of Negros Occidental who are mostly female with age bracket of 20 years old and below are mostly sons and daughters of parents who are mostly elementary and high school graduates who work as unskilled or service workers with an annual income which is low.
2. Student-teachers are perceived to be competent on the domains of the teaching and learning process. Community linkages, however, need to be improved.
3. There is no significant difference in the perception of the level of competence of the student-teachers by the respondents.
4. There is no significant relationship between the competency of the student-teachers and the identified variables in the profiles.

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Role of Previous Accounting Experience in Benefiting from E-Learning Accounting in Practice – Comparison Between Poland and Slovakia

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Abstract

The article presents comparative analysis based on results of questionnaire survey of perceived usefulness and the role of different teaching tools such as national and EU regulations and legislations, practical applications in various accounting subjects (examples, exercises and case studies), a concise presentation of the material in the form of slides or text, links to electronic accounting databases, links to national and international accounting sites, and proposed further reading for various accounting subjects. Analysis revealed significant gap between assessment of usefulness of teaching tools in two different groups of users of e-learning platform: students without practical experience in accounting and people interested in vocational training who already have practical experience in accounting for both Slovakia and Poland. Differences in perceiving the role of such tools depends significantly on practical experience in accounting which help recognize indispensable tools used in the work of the accountant and skills necessary to use them.

Keywords:

INTRODUCTION

The article presents results of the questionnaire survey conducted among users of the e-learning platform FASTER for learning accounting in practice. Paper presents comparative analysis of perceived usefulness and the role of different teaching tools such as national and EU regulations and legislations, practical applications in various accounting subjects (examples, exercises and case studies), a concise presentation of the material in the form of slides or text, links to electronic accounting databases, links to national and international accounting sites, and proposed further reading for various accounting subjects. Analysis revealed significant gap between assessment of usefulness of teaching tools in two different groups of users: students without practical experience in accounting and people interested in vocational training who already have practical experience in accounting for both Slovakia and Poland.

E-LEARNING PLATFORM FASTER FOR LEARNING ACCOUNTING IN PRACTICE

Theoretical knowledge generated in higher educational systems is often not directly linked to the practical real-time work environment's needs. EU priorities area of Knowledge Society and Innovation with objectives such as improving the quality and intensity of investments in human capital for the upgrade of the education system, investing in the future, promoting reforms in the education system and improving access and basic skill levels for all (FASTER consortium, 2013). In that context the emphasis is put on linking the educational system with the labour market with focus on the adaptability of employees and businesses and the gradual increase of the participation in education and training so as to be equipped with the skills and abilities needed to cope with the ever-changing labour market while improving workload quality and productivity. Five educational institutions from five different EU member states: Athens University of Economics and Business (Greece), Sofia University "St. Kliment Ohridski" (Bulgaria), City University, London (United Kingdom), University of Warsaw (Poland), Technical University of Kosice (Slovakia) decided to promote project FASTER with idea of development of a European e-learning tool supporting European collaboration in the field of Finance and Accounting.

Concerning the objectives defined in Europe 2020 strategy, the outcomes of the project will support long term career advancement, international mobility of employees in accountancy branch, as well as graduates with

degrees in disciplines other than accounting, or people employed in business, with the foundation studies to become a professional accountant. Special attention is placed on mature and motivated student seeking a career in accounting for which no prior professional experience will be required. This group of people represents the group at risk due to their high unemployment (FASTER consortium, 2013).

The field of finance & accounting is a profession with a key role in strengthening national economies and the promotion of entrepreneurship. Based on the analysis of labour market, and European Commission documents and activities done in the field of education and accountancy the FASTER partnership defined main aims and objectives of the project (FASTER consortium, 2013):

- to produce a modern technological e-learning & knowledge-sharing environment on finance and accounting which allows both students and professionals in pursuit of lifelong learning to gain practical knowledge on their discipline, but not restricted to national borders. Apart from e-learning environment platform will propose a job seeking mechanism,
- to link studies & working environment and widen transnational pursuit of jobs in finance and accounting,
- to offer new incentives and produce a prototype ICT environment expandable to all languages and to all disciplines.

All project consortium countries (United Kingdom, Greece, Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia) are countries with different types of economy and different taxation and accounting legislation systems. Therefore, engaging partners from these countries, guarantees that FASTER outcomes will meet multiple European Union (EU) needs in accounting education and employment. Another parameter the consortium meets is the geographical coverage of EU (North, Middle and South-eastern Europe), so it has potential in increasing employment mobility and integration of job markets within involved EU member states. (Palova & Vejicka, 2013)

The developed platform improve the quality and attractiveness of vocational education and training through the review of its primary structure and curricula qualification, setting professional rights and establishing a system of formal accreditation of learning at a Pan-European Qualifications Framework. Furthermore, FASTER aims at fostering long-term career advancement and international mobility, ensuring that the professional development of certified general accountants remains a lifelong experience which distinguishes graduates with any accounting qualifications in the job market while at the same time providing graduates with degrees in disciplines other than accounting, or people employed in business, with the foundation studies to become a professional accountant (FASTER consortium, 2012).

Modern information and communication technologies bring crucial changes into the educational system, including accounting courses. These technologies enable to obtain knowledge using more senses and without presence of a teacher. Slovak universities offer long distance education through self-instructive materials, educational technologies, Internet and tutor's help. In Slovakia Authors of educational textbook scripts share them in both paper and electronic version, while in Poland academics give access to educational materials through their own web page close to university web page. In Slovakia textbooks have a compact style, they separate crucial information from secondary data, and they specify entry knowledge necessary for the study of different chapters. Methodical instructions and system of tests and accounting examples are important components of the textbooks and they allow verifying of the accounting knowledge and skills. The new technologies change the entire educational process and they offer the education to the bigger amount of students. (Tusan & Stasova, 2008)

LITERATURE REVIEW

There was considerable debate in the accounting literature about a gap between competencies taught at universities and those needed in the workplace (Sundem, 1999; Brungardt, 2009) and opinion that students were not being prepared for the business world (Albrecht and Sack, 2000).

The accounting education follows the national legislation of the accounting and accounting procedures, furthermore it follows mandatory accounting chart in Slovakia and "model" accounting chart in Poland – each company obligated to conduct accounting books has to create their own accounting chart. When accounting education is focused on the transfer of the bookkeeping skills and knowledge, students are tempted to habitually match the accounts with the accounting transactions. (Tusan & Stasova, 2008)

Beginning accounting students struggle with the new terminology and the unfamiliar concept of accounting for transactions and using financial information for managerial decision making. Bryant and Hunton (2000), Farley and Ramsay (1998), and Krausz et al. (1989) found that learning is enhanced when students relate new knowledge to a previous experience, putting it in a context that can be used. Students did not think profoundly about the final impact of the business transaction on the financial situation of the accounting unit. This explains

why it is important to modify the system of the accounting education at the Slovak universities and start to teach accounting instead of bookkeeping. Students should be able to understand the accounting data and their structure, respecting the general accounting principles of the accounting reports, the billing, the valuation and its influence on financial situation and the disclosure of information according to the international instruments of the accounting regulations. (Tusan & Stasova, 2008) Muhamad et al. (2009) points that due to internship during the undergraduate programme students are able to gain practical experience while simultaneously being able to reflect on what they have learned in the classroom. According to Lam and Ching (2007) internship can assist students to bridge the gap between the academic learning process and the practical reality. Internship programmes are perceived as a valuable way to acquire broad competencies where the practical knowledge obtained supports and complements the theoretical studies learned in the classroom (Mihail, 2006). The author noted that interns have successfully developed their personal skills, particularly relating to information technology, time management, communication skills, teamwork, specialist knowledge and ability to prioritize tasks. Empirical research in cognitive psychology has established that prior experiences are able to enhance the performance in fairly complex learning and problem solving tasks (Britton & Tesser, 1982).

In 2007, the International Federation of Accountants issued the International Education Practice Statements 3 "Practical Experience Requirements – Initial Professional Development for Professional Accountants", which stresses the importance of integrating formal education and practical experience in enabling graduates to develop their professional knowledge and skills.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The present research paper analyzes the results collected by a survey conducted in June-October 2013 in Poland and Slovakia among users of online platform FASTER. The purpose of conducting this survey was at first to identify which teaching tools and methods are considered to be the most useful in the process of teaching accounting using the e-learning platform FASTER and secondly to test and estimate the progress in gained accounting knowledge, skills and abilities in practical accounting among students and people interested in vocational trainings from both Poland and Slovakia. Participants of testing courses were acquainted with FASTER platform which consists of eight e-courses (Financial accounting, Accounting plans, Accounting for public limited companies (S.A.) – limited liability companies (Ltd) – Groups of companies - Code for accounting books, Tax Accounting, Balance sheet issues, Analysis of financial statements - Business valuation, Accounting ERP, International Accounting Standards), links to books, journals, e-books, legislation and websites, as well as job seeking tools. Participants were invited to test educational modules with resources, glossary and job seeking part of the platform and then to fill the evaluation form. The main aim of pilot testing activities was to indicate the efficiency and the compliance of the application with the applied needs of end users, including student community and people interested in vocational training from SMEs, employers and accounting offices, financial services of governmental agencies and local authorities.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

The demographic characteristics of participants in testing the FASTER platform were as follows: 97 students from Poland and 55 from Slovakia, 16 people interested in vocational training from Poland and 37 from Slovakia. The practical aspects of educational material seems to be the most important for interested in vocational training, but learning by practice is the most needed by students especially considering their future worklife with finance and accounting. Almost all participants use PC everyday, but in Poland the use of computers is more common among students (in Poland – 70% - everyday, 29% - often) than among people interested in vocational training use computers (in Poland – 88% - everyday, 6% - often). It can be explained by characteristics of job and duties fulfilled in work time without PC. However, in Slovakia students use PC less commonly (70% everyday, 23% - often) than people interested in vocational training (84% - everyday, 13,5% - often). Students both in Poland (52% - everyday, 40% - often) and Slovakia (70% - everyday, 25% - often) are more familiar with Internet than people interested in vocational training (in Slovakia 84% - everyday, 8% - often, and in Poland 50% - everyday, 25% - often). The majority of participants in pilot testing activities took part in no more than 1-2 e-learning courses before. Moreover, 78% of Slovak and 25% of Polish people interested in vocational training and 74% of Slovak students and 40% of Polish students, were without any experience in using e-learning courses. In Poland 75% of people interested in vocational training and 1% of students have got practical experience in accounting. On the contrary, in Slovakia 5,5% of students and only 13,5% of people interested in vocational training have got practical experience in accounting. It is worth

mentioning that in Slovakia 35% of people interested in vocational training need the knowledge in the area of accounting in their career.

RESULTS

Influence of practical experience in accounting on assessment of efficiency of the platform

The assessment of accuracy of information on e-learning platform of accounting in practice differs more between students and people interested in vocational training from different countries than within these groups, $MS_B > MS_W$ (Tab. 1). People interested in vocational training from Poland appreciate the accuracy of information on e-learning platform of accounting in practice more than students as a result of longer and deeper practical experience in accounting of entities, while in Slovakia students assess accuracy of information higher than people interested in vocational training. There are fewer people interested in vocational training in Slovakia that have got practical experience in accounting and ability to recognize crucial information essential in real business than in Poland.

Table 1. Differences in mean significance of accuracy of information between and within groups by practical experience in accounting (students versus people interested in vocational training) and by country (Poland versus Slovakia)

Accuracy of information	Students PL	Students SK	Vocational PL	Vocational SK
average	4,208	3,727	4,438	3,541
variance	0,666	0,646	0,529	0,811
ANOVA	MSB	MSW	test F	p-value
	6,418	0,676	9,488	0,000*

* difference of means is significant ($p < 0.05$); MS_B - Mean Square Between groups; MS_W - Mean Square Within groups

Evaluation of clarity of layout and format of e-learning platform of accounting in practice depends more on individual characteristics than differences between practical experience in accounting and between countries, $MS_W > MS_B$ (Tab. 2). Students from both Poland and Slovakia assess clarity of layout and format higher than people interested in vocational training because their assessment bases on habits acquired during studies, not-confronted with the practice. They assess arrangement of educational content considering only the usefulness of particular issues in preparing for the exam, rather than focusing on the meaning of issues in practice and bookkeeping of real business.

Table 2. Differences in mean significance of clarity of layout and format between and within groups by practical experience in accounting (students versus people interested in vocational training) and by country (Poland versus Slovakia)

Clarity of layout and format	Students PL	Students SK	Vocational PL	Vocational SK
average	3,743	3,691	3,250	3,568
variance	0,893	0,884	1,000	0,808
ANOVA	MSB	MSW	test F	p-value
	1,249	0,884	1,414	0,240

The assessment of easiness to use e-learning platform of accounting in practice differ more between students and people interested in vocational training from different countries than within these groups, $MS_B > MS_W$, $p < 0.15$ (Tab. 3). Out of every target group, students from Poland appreciate the easiness to use e-learning platform of accounting in practice the most. On the contrary, people interested in vocational training from Poland evaluate it the least. The observation can be explain by fact that in Poland people interested in vocational training use computers and Internet less commonly than students (see Sample characteristics). In Slovakia students assess easiness to use e-learning platform lower than people interested in vocational training. The reason of difference is similar to the Polish situation, in general in Slovakia less students use PC (70% - everyday, 23% - often) than people interested in vocational training (84% - everyday, 13,5% - often). The difference in frequency of using PC between Polish and Slovakian students explains why the assessment differs more between countries than within the groups. ANOVA analysis points that the assessment of easiness to use e-learning platform of accounting in practice differs more between students and people interested in vocational training than within these groups, especially in Poland, $MS_B > MS_W$, $p < 0.05$ (Tab. 4) and together in Poland and Slovakia $MS_B > MS_W$, $p < 0.15$ (Tab. 4).

Table 3. Differences in mean significance of easiness to use between and within groups by practical experience in accounting (students versus people interested in vocational training) and by country (Poland versus Slovakia)

Easiness to use	Students PL	Students SK	Vocational PL	Vocational SK
average	3,802	3,745	3,188	3,703
variance	0,840	0,786	1,229	0,826
ANOVA	MSB	MSW	test F	p-value
	1,754	0,852	2,059	0,107**

** difference of means is significant ($p < 0.15$); MS_B – Mean Square Between groups; MS_W – Mean Square Within groups

Table 4. Differences in mean significance of easiness to use between and within groups by practical experience

Easiness to use	Students /Vocational PL+SK	Students /Vocational PL	Students /Vocational SK
MSB /MSW	2,182	0,859	5,215
ANOVA test F / p-value	2,542	0,112**	5,853

* difference of means is significant ($p < 0.05$); ** difference of means is significant ($p < 0.15$)

Attractiveness of the graphics plays bigger role for students than for people interested in vocational training both in Poland and Slovakia, however the differences are not essential.

Table 5. Differences in mean significance of attractiveness of the graphics between and within groups by practical experience

Attractiveness of the graphics	Students PL	Students SK	Vocational PL	Vocational SK
average	3,743	3,509	3,750	3,595
variance	0,713	0,921	0,600	0,859
ANOVA	MSB	MSW	test F	p-value
	0,742	0,785	0,944	0,420

Comparative analysis of perceived usefulness and the role of different teaching tools

Differences in perceiving the role of legal regulations, financial indicators, links to national and international accounting sites, and case studies - examples of using accounting in practice depends significantly on practical experience in accounting which helps experienced users recognize indispensable tools used in the work of the accountant and skills necessary to use them. On the contrary, users without experience tend to perceive learning tools as an easy-way of passing their exams, rather than as a way of self-development that will help in future career.

EU and national regulations and legislations

On average the EU and national regulations and legislations in Poland are more important for people with practical experience in accounting than for students without any practice in real business. On the contrary, in Slovakia a role of legislations is more appreciated by students, but the differences on average are not big. ANOVA analysis points bigger differences within groups of students and people interested in vocational training than between these groups, especially for Poland and Slovakia together, however cannot reject null hypothesis because $p > 0.05$ (Means are the same).

Table 6. Perceived usefulness and the role of EU and national regulation and legislations in five-point Likert scale

EU and national regulations	Students PL+SK	Vocational PL+SK	Students PL	Vocational PL	Students SK	Vocational SK
average	3,538	3,528	3,515	3,625	3,582	3,486
standard deviation	0,946	0,973	0,976	0,885	0,896	1,017

Table 7. Differences in mean significance of regulations & legislations between and within groups by experience in accounting

EU and national regulations	Students /Vocational PL+SK	Students /Vocational PL	Students /Vocational SK
MSB /MSW	0,004	0,908	0,168
ANOVA test F / p-value	0,004	0,947	0,180

Practical applications in various accounting subjects (examples, exercises and case studies)

Practical applications in various accounting subjects (examples, exercises and case studies) are more important for people with practice in accounting of real business than for students (Tab. 8). Skills and abilities to solve accounting issues, find solution of accounting problems in unusual circumstances are more needed in real life than during exams, because consequences of errors or misunderstanding in real business transaction are bigger for companies (penalty, taxes, bankruptcy) than failing an exam for students. ANOVA analysis of preferences of practical applications in various accounting subjects (examples, exercises and case studies) suggests bigger differences within groups of students and people interested in vocational training than between these groups separate in Poland and Slovakia and in Poland and Slovakia together as well (Tab. 9).

Table 8. Perceived usefulness and the role of examples with case studies in five-point Likert scale

Examples with case studies	Students PL+SK	Vocational PL+SK	Students PL	Vocational PL	Students SK	Vocational SK
average	4,250	4,264	4,356	4,375	4,055	4,216
std deviation	0,800	0,763	0,769	0,719	0,826	0,787

Table 9. Differences in mean significance of case studies between and within groups by practical experience in accounting

Examples with case studies	Students /Vocational PL+SK	Students /Vocational PL	Students /Vocational SK
MSB /MSW	0,008	0,626	0,578
ANOVA test F / p-value	0,013	0,911	0,880

Concise presentation of the material in the form of slides versus text

Concise presentation of the material in the form of slides is more preferred by the people interested in vocational training as they need more selective information without the necessity to go through long introduction of theory and conditioning, which makes access to crucial issues easier (Tab. 10). On the contrary, in Poland students prefer text than slides in order to limit the personal misunderstanding of particular issues by using full description of theory, procedures and processes of drawing a conclusion.

Table 10. Perceived usefulness and the role of educational material in form of slides in five-point Likert scale

Slides	Students PL+SK	Vocational PL+SK	Students PL	Vocational PL	Students SK	Vocational SK
average	3,981	4,000	4,059	4,250	3,836	3,892
standard deviation	0,791	0,734	0,822	0,683	0,714	0,737

Table 11. Differences in mean significance of material in the form of slides between and within groups by practical experience

Slides	Students /Vocational PL+SK	Students /Vocational PL	Students /Vocational SK
MSB /MSW	0,015	0,604	0,523
ANOVA test F / p-value	0,024	0,876	0,719

ANOVA analysis of preferences of concise presentation of the material in the form of text suggests bigger differences between groups of students and people interested in vocational training with practical experience in accounting in Poland, $MS_B > MS_W$ (Tab. 13).

Table 12. Perceived usefulness and the role of educational material in form of text in five-point Likert scale

Text	Students PL+SK	Vocational PL+SK	Students PL	Vocational PL	Students SK	Vocational SK
average	3,949	3,830	4,050	3,750	3,764	3,865
standard deviation	0,810	0,672	0,805	0,683	0,793	0,673

Table 13. Differences in mean significance of material in the form of text between and within groups by experience in accounting

Text	Students /Vocational PL+SK	Students /Vocational PL	Students /Vocational SK
MSB /MSW	0,556	0,604	1,239
ANOVA test F / p-value	0,920	0,339	1,986

Accounting databases with financial indicators and links to accounting sites

The importance of accounting databases with financial indicators and links to national and international accounting sites in conducting real business is appreciated by people interested in vocational training among whom majority have got practical experience in accounting more than by students with no experience (Tab.14 and 16). Bigger differences in assessment of usefulness of crucial accounting indicators (for instance rates of social insurance, income tax, minimum wage in economy, value added tax for given goods or services etc.) in real business are observed between groups of students and people interested in vocational training than within these groups in Slovakia and also in Poland and Slovakia all together, $MS_B > MS_W$, (Tab. 17 and Tab. 15 but for $p < 0.20$).

Table 14. Perceived usefulness and the role of accounting databases in five-point Likert scale

Accounting databases	Students PL+SK	Vocational PL+SK	Students PL	Vocational PL	Students SK	Vocational SK
average	3,679	3,868	3,673	3,688	3,691	3,946
standard deviation	0,909	0,962	0,950	0,873	0,836	0,998

Table 15 Differences in mean significance of accounting databases between and within groups by experience in accounting

Accounting databases	Students /Vocational PL+SK	Students /Vocational PL	Students /Vocational SK
MSB /MSW	1,405	0,850	0,003
ANOVA test F / p-value	1,652	0,200	0,003

Table 16. Perceived usefulness and the role of accounting sites in five-point Likert scale

Accounting sites	Students PL+SK	Vocational PL+SK	Students PL	Vocational PL	Students SK	Vocational SK
average	3,577	3,887	3,644	3,813	3,455	3,919
standard deviation	0,937	1,013	0,944	0,981	0,919	1,038

Table 17. Differences in mean significance of accounting sites between and within groups by experience in accounting

Accounting sites	Students /Vocational PL+SK	Students /Vocational PL	Students /Vocational SK
MSB /MSW	3,798	0,915	0,394
ANOVA test F / p-value	4,152	0,043*	0,438

* difference of means is significant ($p < 0.05$); MS_B - Mean Square Between groups; MS_W - Mean Square Within groups

Proposed further reading for various accounting subjects versus accounting journals

Further reading for various accounting subjects is more useful for people interested in vocational training who are able to formulate their needs and choose proper source to solve their problem (Tab. 18). Such ability is a result of practical experience in real business, especially taxes, accounting and preparing financial statements.

On the contrary usefulness of accounting journals is mostly appreciated by Slovakian students, and secondly by people interested in vocational training from Poland (Tab. 20). It can be explained by kind of article publicised in accounting journals. In Poland all accounting journals are dedicated to professionals and search for solution of practical problems, interpretation of amended acts and explanation how to use regulation and legislation in practice. The practical experience in accounting, bigger in Polish group of interested in vocational training than Slovak one, also explains the observed differences.

Table 18. Perceived usefulness and the role of further reading in five-point Likert scale

Further reading	Students PL+SK	Vocational PL+SK	Students PL	Vocational PL	Students SK	Vocational SK
average	3,538	3,660	3,515	3,625	3,582	3,676
standard deviation	0,897	0,783	0,912	0,885	0,875	0,747

Table 19. Differences in mean significance of further reading between and within groups by practical experience in accounting

Further reading	Students /Vocational PL+SK	Students /Vocational PL	Students /Vocational SK
MSB /MSW	0,588	0,757	0,168
ANOVA test F / p-value	0,777	0,379	0,203

Table 20. Perceived usefulness and the role of accounting journals in five-point Likert scale

Accounting journals	Students PL+SK	Vocational PL+SK	Students PL	Vocational PL	Students SK	Vocational SK
average	3,487	3,509	3,436	3,563	3,582	3,486
standard deviation	0,905	0,973	0,910	0,892	0,896	1,017

Table 21. Differences in mean significance of accounting journals between and within groups by experience in accounting

Accounting journals	Students /Vocational PL+SK	Students /Vocational PL	Students /Vocational SK
MSB /MSW	0,020	0,851	0,896
ANOVA test F / p-value	0,023	0,880	0,637

Role of previous accounting experience in progress in learning process with use of online platform

We suppose that students without experience in accounting who self-assessed their knowledge as basic or low should achieve higher progress in learning process, rather than people interested in vocational training with experience in accounting who tends to strictly assess their progress in knowledge and gained skills. However, results show that in more complex issues from the area of accounting and finances people interested in vocational training courses achieved higher progress in their knowledge and practical skills than students. Progress in skills and abilities is calculated as positive difference between self assessment made by each respondent (testing of chosen e-course on FASTER platform) of their skills and abilities in practical accounting possessed before pilot use of the educational online platform FASTER and self-assessment of the same skills and abilities in practical accounting gained after completing e-course on the FASTER platform. For instance, higher increase in knowledge and practical skills of people interested in vocational training than students in both Poland and Slovakia was observed in areas of International Accounting Standards such as knowledge of the international requirements for assets and liabilities recognition and distinguishing the differences between consolidation and business combinations. However in an area of knowledge of various approaches for valuation of assets, liabilities and financial instruments higher progress was observed only in Slovakia. In Poland higher progress in this kind of knowledge was observed for students (Tab. 22) because Polish accounting standards known by accounting practitioners are used in rather conservative way.

Table 22. Increase in skills and abilities in practical accounting as result of pilot testing courses by target groups

Skills and abilities in practical accounting	target group	Poland			Slovakia		
		before	after	progress	before	after	progress
e-course: International Accounting Standards Know the international requirements for assets and liabilities recognition	Vocational	2,1	4	1,9	1,5	3	1,8
	Students	1,43	3,09	1,66	1,5	2,9	1,5
Distinguish the differences between consolidation and business combinations	Vocational	2,1	4	1,9	1,8	3,3	1,9
	Students	1,63	3,17	1,54	1,6	2,9	1,5
Know various approaches for valuation of assets, liabilities and financial instruments	Vocational	2,2	3,5	1,3	1,7	3	1,6
	Students	1,68	3,17	1,49	1,6	2,6	1,3
e-course: Tax Accounting Post the VAT of purchases and sales	Vocational	3,25	4,42	1,17	2,5	4	1,5
	Students	2,31	3,69	1,38	2,4	3,6	1,2
e-course: Balance sheet issues Define events after the reporting period and decide what should be present in the financial statements	Vocational	2,08	4,09	2,01	2,6	4,1	1,5
	Students	1,61	3,71	2,1	2,2	3,4	1,2

Polish companies rarely value assets and liabilities in fair value or amortized costs. Low per-cent of Polish enterprises prepare financial statement according to International Accounting Standards and even lower part of them use hedge accounting for financial instruments. In Poland students without experience in accounting achieve higher progress in learning process, rather than people interested in vocational training with experience in accounting in most e-courses, while in Slovakia people interested in vocational training with experience in accounting (lower than in Poland, 13,5% versus 75% of participants interested in vocational training) achieve higher progress in large part of skills and abilities in practical accounting (Tab. 23).

Table 23. Progress in skills and abilities of people with practical experience in accounting higher than students

Skills and abilities in practical accounting	Poland	Slovakia
Posting the VAT of purchases and sales		X
Calculating payroll list with the income tax and social insurance contributions, recording it in books of account		X
Distinguishing the tax revenues and tax deductible expenses determining the taxable income and appropriately determining the amount of the company income tax		X
Technical organization and procedures related to closing account books and preparing financial statements		X

Defining events after the reporting period and deciding what should be present in the financial statements			X
Rules and methods of conducting annual stocktaking. plan and conduct (with assessment) annual stocktaking			X
Rules and procedures of adjustment entries connected with each group of accounts based on trial balance			X
Recording transactions of depreciations and allowances. prepayments and accruals and provisions			X
Methods of valuation of assets and liabilities at the balance statement day (the end of the reporting period)			X
Identifying impairment of assets			X
Practicing basic accounting for valuation of property. plant and equipment and construction in progress			X
Preparing financial statements based on trial balance			X
Computing the most important ratios in order to measure the liquidity	X		
Understanding the importance of the Statement of Cash Flows	X		
Understanding the two methods used for preparation of the Statement of Cash Flows – direct and indirect	X		
Understanding the role of the Financial Module in an ERP system	X		
Orientating oneself in area of International Accounting Standards / International Financial Reporting Standards	X		
Assigning an international approach to accounting and reporting issues	X		
Knowing the international requirements for assets and liabilities recognition	X	X	
Distinguishing the differences between consolidation and business combinations	X	X	
Knowing various approaches for valuation of assets. liabilities and financial instruments			X

Regarding posting the value added tax (VAT) of purchases and sales (e-course: Tax accounting) ANOVA analysis shows essential differences between four groups of students from Poland and Slovakia and participants interested in vocational training from Poland and Slovakia (Tab. 24) than within these groups. The crucial differences are observed between groups of students and people interested in vocational training as whole (Polish and Slovakian together) and between groups of students and people interested in vocational training from Poland (Tab. 25). Observed differences between Poland and Slovakia can be explained by practical experience in accounting of real business (bigger among participants from Poland) where issues of value added tax are commonly present. The second reason are frequent changes and complexity of Polish law of value added tax which increase a gap between practice and theory.

Table 24. Obtained skills and abilities in value added tax accounting in five-point Likert scale

Post the VAT of purchases and sales	Students PL	Students SK	Vocational PL	Vocational SK
average	3,667	3,545	4,417	4,000
variance	0,865	1,073	0,811	0,800
ANOVA	MSB	MSW	test F	p-value
	2,122	0,881	2,408	0,074*

Table 25. Differences in mean skills in value added tax accounting between and within groups by experience in accounting

Post the VAT of purchases and sales	Students /Vocational PL+SK		Students /Vocational PL		Students /Vocational SK	
MSB /MSW	5,539	0,868	5,400	0,855	0,802	0,982
ANOVA test F / p-value	6,378	0,014*	6,317	0,015*	0,817	0,380

* difference of means is significant (p<0.05); MS_B -Mean Square Between groups; MS_w - Mean Square Within groups

Regarding defining events after the reporting period and deciding which should be reported in the financial statements (e-course: Balance sheet issues) ANOVA analysis points less essential differences between four groups of students from Poland and Slovakia and participants interested in vocational training from Poland and Slovakia, p<0.15 (Tab. 26) than within these groups. The essential differences are observed between groups of students and people interested in vocational training as whole (Polish and Slovakian together) and between groups of students and people interested in vocational training from Slovakia, p<0.05 (Tab. 27). Differences between Poland and Slovakia are observed, because in Poland only 5,3% of active companies are obliged to prepare financial statements, so such issue is quite new even for people with practical experience in accounting. In Slovakia mentioned problem does not seem to be so essential and it is easier for people interested in vocational training with lower experience in accounting to achieve progress in practical skills than for students (Tab. 22).

Table 26. Obtained skills and abilities in presenting events after reporting period in five-point Likert scale

Events after reporting period	Students PL	Students SK	Vocational PL	Vocational SK
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average	3,646	3,412	4,091	4,091
variance	1,000	0,632	0,691	0,291
ANOVA	MSB	MSW	test F	p-value
	1,634	0,806	2,026	0,116**

** difference of means is significant ($p < 0.15$); MS_B -Mean Square Between groups; MS_W - Mean Square Within groups

Table 27. Differences in mean skills in presenting events after reporting period between and within groups by practical experience in accounting in Poland and Slovakia

Events after reporting period	Students /Vocational PL+SK		Students /Vocational PL		Students /Vocational SK	
MSB /MSW	4,213	0,795	1,773	0,945	3,080	0,501
ANOVA test F / p-value	5,298	0,024*	1,875	0,176	6,148	0,020*

* difference of means is significant ($p < 0.05$); MS_B -Mean Square Between groups; MS_W - Mean Square Within groups

Summarizing, we can conclude that actual increase in skills and abilities in practical accounting depends essentially on the understanding of the role of accounting and law in real-life business. Such understanding should be more developed in groups which previously had experience in practical accounting. Our findings confirm such assumption in case of Slovakia in the areas mentioned in the Table 23 more frequent than in case of Poland. Previous experience in accounting profession gives students the practical opportunity to apply their knowledge in an industry context and to reflect on their personal learning journey (Boud & Costley, 2007). Accounting students with practical experience in accounting reveal learning pertaining to their workplace preparedness, understanding of accounting principles and taught concepts and are motivated to improve their generic skills and practical accounting skills (Cord et al., 2010). Practical experience in accounting of an enterprise, understanding the role of accounting documentation in an enterprise's organisation, ability to identify business processes and related accounting documents are crucial for higher benefits from learning accounting in practice, especially when using e-learning platform where contact with experienced teacher is limited.

CONCLUSION

We conclude that willingness to appreciate the importance of particular learning tools such as examples – practical applications in various accounting subjects (exercises, case studies), links to EU and national regulations and legislations and links to electronic accounting databases, depends on actual practical experience in accounting of enterprises. Further conclusion is that actual increase in skills and abilities in practical accounting depends essentially on the understanding of the role of accounting and law in real-life business. Such understanding should be more developed in groups which previously had experience in practical accounting. Students with job experience in accounting have an opportunity to apply their theoretical knowledge in a structured environment, take a deeper understanding of the role of accounting in real organization, appreciate accounting regulation and tax law, and understand the importance of documentation of business operation in a real enterprise. The practice in accounting area allows them to reflect on what to learn in order to be able to work in accounting, where to find necessary information and how to cope with accounting issues in future workplace. Moreover, students with practical experience are more likely to understand why do they have to acquire particular knowledge and skills. Students are more open to solving complex problems that may arise in their area of expertise and are able to act on time. Thus we can conclude that practical experience in accounting change students' perception of learning tools and their usefulness for gaining practical skills needed in financial and accounting departments of an enterprise.

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21st Century Teacher Image to Stakeholders of Teacher Education Institutions in the Philippines

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Abstract

This study presents the perceptions of the students and teachers from kindergarten to tertiary level of the image of the 21st century teacher to provide basis in designing teacher development programs in Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the Philippines. The highlights of the report are the personal, psychosocial, and professional images of the 21st century teacher in basic education and the teacher educators based on a survey done to 612 internal stakeholders of nine member institutions of the National Network of Normal Schools (3NS). Data were obtained through the use of a validated researcher-made instrument which allowed generation of both quantitative and qualitative descriptions of the teacher image. Through the use of descriptive statistics, the common images of the teacher were drawn, which were validated and enriched by the information drawn from the qualitative data. The study recommends a repertoire of teacher development programs to create the good image of the 21st century teachers for a better Philippines.

Keywords: Teacher image, 21st century teacher, teacher education, development program

INTRODUCTION

Teaching is viewed as the noblest profession in the world. It produces all other professions one could think of. According to Rand (cited in Wayant, 2003), teaching is one of the most crucial, responsible, and important professions since it requires communicating knowledge and guiding of the intellectual development of the human beings. Rand added that the purpose of teaching is the communication and spread of the right ideas and intellectual values, which means the creation of culture. Teachers can then help create a good culture particularly in the school, which is hoped to influence the home of their students and the society where they also belong. As explained by Zwell (2000), a successful culture provides an avenue for highly competent individuals to be engaged, challenged, and motivated to exercise their talents and impact their organization.

At the helm of the teaching profession are the teachers. In the Philippines, teachers in the Republic Act No. 9155 are referred to as “persons engaged in teaching at the elementary and secondary levels, whether on full-time or part-time basis including industrial arts and vocational teachers and all other persons performing supervisory, managerial and/or administrative functions in all schools and education offices at the district, division, regional and central levels and qualified to practice teaching under RA 7836 and/or those performing functions in support of education such as standards setting, policy and programs formulation, research and sector monitoring and evaluation” (DepEd, 2014). In the Republic Act 10533 or the K to 12 Law, the term teacher already includes those handling kindergarten (DepEd, 2013). Moreover, the Code of Ethics for Professional Teachers of the Philippines (Resolution Act No. 435, 1997) describes teachers as duly licensed professionals who possess dignity and reputation with high moral as well as technical and professional competence (DepEd, 2014).

Teachers, in general, are respected for their image as the source of information and facilitator of one’s intellectual development. As Cage (cited in Wayant, 2003) explained, teachers make a difference in each child’s life and affect each family and the future of every one. Given this responsibility of teachers, their preparation or formation, which is a responsibility of Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) is critical.

Teachers, however, could have different images as viewed by different generations of learners from varied contexts. Traditionally, in the Filipino context, teachers are seen as straight, firm, and dignified who wear big eye glasses and A-cut skirt. Intellectually, some would say “*mag-teacher ka na lang (just be a teacher)*” if one is

not that bright to be a doctor, lawyer, or engineer. In this digital age, where people are liberated in their thinking and behavior, there could be a change in the image of a teacher. This change in the image of teachers as viewed by the community is partly influenced by how they were developed by the teacher educators or those who have trained them in TEIs.

There are a lot of expectations from teachers in this technology-driven 21st century society. According to Mac Meekin (2014), the image of the 21st century teacher is due to the emergence of social web and technology-driven classrooms. Mac Meekin listed 27 traits of the 21st century teacher, which include among others teachers who are techno savvy, those who facilitate students' learning, let them create, design, question, contribute, relate what they learn to the real world, and discern what is right from wrong. These traits have been supported by Resta (cited in Ledesma, 2011) who synthesized the characteristics of teacher educators that can better serve students in the 21st century as follows: 1) facilitate and inspire student learning and creativity so that all students achieve in the global society; 2) enable students to maximize the potential of their formal and informal learning experiences; 3) facilitate learning in multiple modalities; 4) work as effective members of learning teams; 5) use the full range of digital-age tools to improve student engagement and achievement; 6) work with their students to co-create new learning opportunities; 7) use data to support student learning and program improvements; 8) be lifelong learners; 9) be global educators; and 10) work with policy leaders as change agents.

The 21st century teacher could also be described by the professional standards set for teachers. In the Philippines, the National Competency-Based Teacher Standards (NCBTS) is usually referred to if the characteristics of an effective and efficient teacher are of interest. Domain 1 of NCBTS states that teachers serve as positive and powerful role models of the values of the pursuit of learning (TEC, DepEd & CHED, 2009). Being a role model implies setting good examples to others. Hence, the value to learning of the students may also reflect that of their teachers as facilitators of their intellectual development.

The foregoing characteristics of a teacher have to be developed by TEIs to both the pre-service and in-service teachers so that they could cope with the demands of this digital-age. Training programs for teachers and educators should be designed to orient them on the qualities desired of a 21st century teacher. Training programs such as those conducted by the Teacher Education Council (TEC) dubbed as Teacher Induction Program (TIP) set a good example of programs that make new teachers aware of NCBTS and conscious of the competencies they should be equipped with to meet the demands of the 21st century.

However, there is also a need for the development of personal, psychosocial, and professional aspects of the teacher based on what is viewed and acceptable in the present society. Hence, this study aims to determine the perceptions of students in different levels from kindergarten to those who would become teachers themselves and to those who already practice their profession including the educators that have developed them.

The perception of stakeholders about teachers' image can be considered as one of the most fascinating inquiries in the field of education. Educational experts, academicians, professionals, parents, and learners have unabashedly expressed their admiration for teachers who have made an impact on their lives. They speak of their favorite teachers' qualities and influence on their lives. A number of studies on the qualities and image have also been conducted over a period of time and across cultures.

One of the recent studies along this line was conducted by Ampadu (2012) which examined the students' views on their teachers' teaching practices in Mathematics, and how they had influenced their learning experiences. This study, involving 358 students from junior high schools, revealed that students' perceptions of their teachers' teaching vary since their teachers employed both teacher-centered and learner-centered approaches.

Other studies on teachers have presented a strong correlation between perception of teachers and students' learning; that is, a student is likely to learn well if s/he has a more positive image of his/her teacher. A case in point is Rawnsley's (1997) study which established that students develop a more positive attitude toward their mathematics lessons where the teacher is considered to be highly supportive and gives the students a chance to play an integral role in the teaching-learning process.

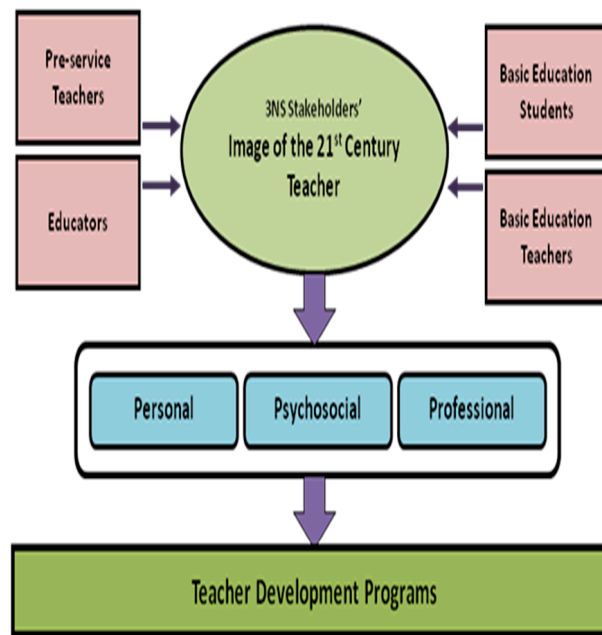


Figure 1: The Development of the “Image” of the 21st Century Teacher

Other studies on the image of teacher are capsulized in a book that essentially emphasized the importance of positive perception of students toward their teachers, which is generated from a cordial and friendly relationship between the students and their teachers (Middleton & Petitt, 2010). The students mentioned that their best teachers know them personally including their interests and strengths, smile at them, encourage them to participate in school activities, provide descriptive feedback on assignments, connect classroom learning to real life, apologize when they make mistakes, give meaningful activities, and show enthusiasm in what they do.

With the stakeholders’ perception of teachers comes the inquiry on the factors that might have influenced these points of view. Brok (2006) in his study identified several factors that influence students’ perception. These factors are student and teacher gender, student and teacher ethnic background, student age, teacher experience, class size, student achievement, and subject. Each of these factors produces distinct effect on students’ perception.

The 21st century learning contexts bring forth a revitalized interest on the image of teachers because face-to-face interaction in the classroom is now challenged by other modes of learning, e.g. web-based learning. This is also coupled with the seemingly growing number of teachers whose ethno identity, not to mention belief systems, is different from their own students. This new context in education gives a new dimension in the study of students’ perception of their teachers.

To contribute to how the 21st century teachers are perceived nowadays in the context of the Philippines, it is ideal to determine such perception from those who are directly exposed to them and those who wanted to become them, the teachers themselves including those that developed them. Thus, this study was conducted. It is hoped that the study will provide relevant input on how the TEIs in the Philippines should prepare future teachers in the era of the K to 12 Reform.

As shown in Figure 1, the image of the 21st century teacher is described in this study in three aspects, namely: personal, psychosocial, and professional. *Personal traits* initially refer to the appearance, behavior, manner of thinking, manner of talking, work ethics, social relation, student relation, and other personal traits. *Psychosocial traits* refer to teacher’s reaction to various situations happening in the workplace and in the society in general. *Professional traits* refer to those competencies expressed in terms of roles expected of a teacher mostly drawn from the NCBTS as the national document that defines standards for teachers observed in the Philippines. These traits reflect teacher’s roles as organizer, communicator, mentor, expert, motivator, classroom manager, evaluator, decision maker, leader, reflective practitioner, adviser, action researcher, agent of change, learner, community member, and role model. These teacher traits or “teacher image” were described by the internal

stakeholders of the 10 member institutions of the National Network of Normal Schools (3NS) and were used to recommend programs for teacher development in the Philippines.

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive research describes the image of the 21st century teacher based from a survey conducted in 2013 to 9 out of 10 TEIs belonging to the National Network of Normal Schools (3NS). Each TEI had respondents representing four sectors of stakeholders, namely: basic education students (kindergarten, elementary and high school); pre-service teachers with specialization in pre-school, elementary, and high-school education; basic education teachers; and teacher educators. These nine institutions are state universities situated across the three main islands in the Philippines (four in Luzon; three in Visayas; and two in Mindanao). There were 50 to 80 respondents from each TEI sampled, making it to a total of 612 respondents. The age of the respondents ranged from 4 to 71, with an average age of 22. Those respondents in the kinder and elementary levels were assisted by their teachers when they responded to the survey instrument as there was only one instrument that was used by all respondents. Most of the respondents were female (69%) and single (75%). There were 31 to 83 respondents per sector. A survey questionnaire was used which made use of forced-choice and open-ended formats. The survey questionnaire had four main parts: the *first* part asked for the respondents' personal and institutional information; the *second* part was a checklist of personal traits of teachers where each category requires selecting top two preferred among five given traits; the *third* part showed items reflective of the psychosocial traits presented using a Semantic Differential Scale; and the *last* part included professional traits categorized into 16 roles of a teacher where each had five statements expressed in the form of a four-point Likert Scale. The open-ended part of the instrument allowed the respondents to provide information or traits that were not captured by any of the parts of the instrument. The instrument underwent validation by experts and was tried out to the different internal stakeholders of one of the 10 member TEIs of the 3NS. All those involved in the tryout represented the sectors targeted as respondents of the study. The final instrument was based on the suggestions given by the expert validators and feedback from those who participated in the pilot testing. The instrument had two versions: one in English and another in Filipino. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Responses provided in the open-ended format were consolidated based on common patterns and themes and they were used to validate and enrich the data generated from the forced-choice items.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personal Traits

This section focuses on the personal traits of teachers based on eight categories: appearance, behavior, stance or point of view, communication skills, work ethics, social relation, student relation, and other personal traits.

Teacher's Appearance. The kindergarten pupils perceived that their teacher should be "smart" (*ranked 1*) and "well-groomed" (*ranked 2*) among the five initial traits they needed to choose from. The other three traits include "cheerful" (*ranked 3*), "well-dressed" (*ranked 4*), and "healthy" (*ranked 5*). These descriptions of the appearance of the teacher were supported by the majority of the respondents from the basic education students, pre-service teachers in elementary and secondary levels, basic education teachers, and teacher educators themselves. Smartness and good grooming were then seen as the top two desirable appearances of the 21st century teachers. The results are attributable to the traditional view of a teacher, as the source of knowledge and role model including that in grooming, close to being omniscient in the eyes of the students. It is an expectation that every student especially in the basic education holds. A teacher departing from this image may turn out to be a major disappointment for students even in this era of technology-driven society. In addition, in the context of school, the teacher should be "smart," which could be synonymous to being intelligent, well-read, and well-informed considering teachers as the main giver or source of information. The school, in its most basic and ultimate role, is seen like a fountain of knowledge and the teacher as its main player.

Teacher's Behavior. Similar to teachers' appearance, the choice of the kindergarten pupils as to how their teachers should behave is that they should be "well-mannered" (*ranked 1*). This perceived image is the same as what the majority says from among the kindergarten teachers themselves, and the students and would-be teachers in the secondary schools, basic education teachers, and teacher educators. The second most popular response is that they like the teacher to be "disciplined" (*ranked 2*), which is also associated with proper behavior. Consistently, the results show the importance of social decorum among teachers. This perception can

be associated with the view of teachers as leaders and as implementers of rules. Other choices of the respondents included traits such as “honorable” (ranked 3), “humble” (ranked 4), and “proactive” (ranked 5). The perceived behavior of a teacher in the 21st century could then still be the same as the conventional image of a teacher as the cited traits were desired even by the teachers of the past.

Teacher’s Manner of Thinking. As regards manner of thinking, the 21st century teacher is perceived as “open-minded” (ranked 1). This was endorsed mostly by the elementary pupils, pre-service teachers at all levels, and teacher educators. The other traits on how the teacher thinks based on the weighted mean and ranks include being a “global thinker” (ranked 2.5) and “realistic” (ranked 2.5), “intelligent” (ranked 4), and “practical” (ranked 5). Apparently, the 21st century teacher needs to be open-minded to see the realities of the global society, which would require practical discernment as the society is fast-changing brought about by technological and environmental changes.

Teacher’s Manner of Talking. As regards manner of talking, the 21st century teacher is viewed as “confident” (ranked 1). This was endorsed mostly by the pre-service teachers in the kindergarten and secondary level, basic education teachers, and teacher educators. To other stakeholders, talking “with sense of humor” (ranked 2) matters as well including having “clear diction” (ranked 3), “polite” (ranked 4), and “honest” (ranked 5). Clearly, what matters at present is that teachers are able to convey their ideas with confidence and clarity for them to look credible and smart. These traits are consistent with the one of the desired qualities of 21st century learners, a good communicator (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2013). Teachers are likely to be listened to if they show a sense of humor. Display of politeness and honesty at all times makes them appear boring.

Teacher’s Work Ethics. When it comes to work ethics, the 21st century teachers are perceived “responsible” (ranked 1). This was endorsed mostly by the elementary pupils, pre-service teachers in the kindergarten and secondary level, basic education teachers and teacher educators. Other stakeholders value more a teacher who is “creative” (ranked 2), “organized” (ranked 3), “resourceful” (ranked 4), and “with initiative” (ranked 5). It can be inferred from the data that being “responsible” was prioritized among the five traits since a responsible teacher could also manifest traits of being “organized” and also working “with initiative.” Being “creative”, which is a characteristic that is truly reflective of the 21st century teacher, was chosen more than being a “resourceful” as the former also manifests the latter trait.

Teacher’s Social Relation. As regards social relations, the 21st century teacher is viewed as “fair” (ranked 1). This was endorsed by almost all sectors of stakeholders. Other respondents prefer a teacher who is “kind” (ranked 2), “caring” (ranked 3), “understanding” (ranked 4) and “friendly” (ranked 5). The results show that stakeholders across sectors preferred a teacher who is fair, kind, caring, or friendly when dealing with other people regardless of who they are. These traits are truly admirable of a teacher this 21st century and maybe across time.

Teacher’s Relation with Students. As regards relation with students, the 21st century teacher is perceived as “encouraging” (ranked 1). This was endorsed by almost all secondary school students, pre-service teachers at all levels, basic education teachers and teacher educators. Other respondents preferred a teacher who is “collaborative” (ranked 2), “respectful” (ranked 3), “authoritative” (ranked 4), and “lenient” (ranked 5). Looking at the results, one could infer that education stakeholders prefer the present teachers to be encouraging and collaborative. Being collaborative, in addition to being a good communicator, is a trait highlighted in the framework of the 21st century learner (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2013).

Other Personal Traits of a Teacher. When asked to name other personal traits the like 21st century teacher to possess, the majority of the stakeholder respondents identified. “God-fearing” (ranked 1.5) and “patient” (ranked 1.5). These traits are also desired of students in basic education level (DepEd, 2013). This means that both students and teachers value the virtue of patience and fear to God as these traits are expected in a country whose population is mostly affiliated with religious groups, like the Philippines. Consequently, the 21st century teacher is still expected to be “morally upright” (ranked 3), which is also defined in the Code of Ethics for Professional Teachers (RA 435, 1997). Other stakeholders also want the teachers to be “generous” (ranked 4) and “nationalistic” (ranked 5).

Psychosocial Attributes

This section presents the data and discussion of the psychosocial attributes of a teacher drawn from various situations testing his/her perception or possible behavior as a social being. These traits include teacher's reaction to: 1) a multicultural classroom; 2) a competition; 3) an external evaluation/accreditation; 4) school policies; 5) academic situation; 6) a diverse classroom; 7) social equality; 8) personal and organizational success; 9) environmental disasters; 10) bold expressions; and 11) societal concerns.

Teacher's Behavior in Multicultural Classroom. The respondents across all sectors in the study expressed a strong agreement, that when the 21st century teacher is assigned to handle a multicultural class, s/he views it as a good opportunity to enhance his/her teaching skills and not as threat that may force him/her to seek employment in another school. Given the situation, it can be gleaned that the respondents' image of a 21st century teacher is one that is highly motivated and open-minded rather than nearsighted or narrow-minded.

Teacher's Behavior in a Competition. The majority of the respondents (excluding basic education teachers and teacher educators) described the 21st century teacher as a person who is likely to "cheer up" when his/her coached team fails to win in a competition. The basic education teachers and the teacher educators chose "challenged" rather than "cheers up" as a preferred image of a teacher in a competition, a response that suggests depth and strong sense of maturity in dealing with situations related to teaching and learning as seasoned or professional teachers. Although the opposite response indicated by the rest of the respondents is widely acceptable, it may be viewed in a professional perspective as less scholarly. This clearly suggests that the respondents view the 21st century teacher not only as good sport but also as a highly motivated person. This perception was also supported by another item where all the respondents agreed that the 21st century teacher regards competition as a potent motivation to achieving excellent performance. Specifically in education, competition provokes students to obtain more marks, to exert more ideas, and to excel in their studies (Kaddour, 2011).

Teacher's Behavior in an External Evaluation/Accreditation. The majority of the respondents favored the situation that suggests that the 21st century teacher "reviews the weak areas, and helps in improving the school performance" when the school's overall performance in an accreditation or evaluation process fails. This means that all the respondents perceive the 21st century teacher as just and thorough rather than cynical in his/her dealings.

Teacher's Behavior to School Policies. The majority of the respondents visualized the 21st century teacher to have a strong sense of moral obligation rather than judgmental as most of their responses strongly favored "counsels the colleague" as an appropriate action the 21st century teacher should take when a colleague is found violating school rules and policies.

Teacher's Behavior in an Academic Situation. The majority of the respondents found that the 21st century teacher has the tendency to walk the path between consoling and defending. The question now is the manner of defending and consoling what they do. It is also a possibility that they defend their colleagues by talking to them and expressing their opinions but not actually taking concrete actions to defend them. An investigation on this matter is worth the time since it provides information on the dynamic relationship established by teachers and students in an academic institution.

Teacher's Behavior in a Diverse Classroom. The majority of the groups of respondents indicated agreement to the idea that the 21st century teacher views cultural differences or diversity as hindrance to the achievement of optimum learning among learners in a classroom. The responses suggest that the aforesaid differences, if not handled effectively, may pose as potential threat which keeps learners from achieving fully and optimally in the classroom. The proper handling may start from the curriculum which dictates the content of instruction, that is sensitive and at the same time responsive to needs of students of various ethnical backgrounds or orientations to the employment of methodologies which are appropriate to address such differences.

Teacher's Behavior in Promoting Equality. Social equality is desired in a diverse classroom and community. This was so evident in the study as all respondents agreed to the idea that the 21st century teacher views the promotion of equality as one of the most important and crucial concerns of teachers. This means that the respondents view the 21st century teacher as an ambassador in promoting ethnic equality so as to avoid conflicts that root from ethnic diversity and cultural differences. Likewise, Mourar (2007) states that fairness is a basic

element of ethics of the teachers. Giving everyone an equal opportunity to succeed in the society starts in the character building years of the children. Essentially, teachers should lead by example for children and show them how fairness works. Fairness is not merely treating everybody alike, it goes much deeper. Fairness rather means giving everybody the right tools to advance and grow which could be associated with social equality.

Teacher's Behavior in Organizational Success. With the exception of the basic education teachers and teacher educators, all the rest of the respondents indicated disagreement on the idea that the 21st century teacher regards organizational success as the sole responsibility of leaders or officials in an organization. Obviously, the majority of the respondents subscribed to the opposite idea, that is, they believe that the 21st century teacher should view that the success of an organization depends on the collective efforts of the individual members. This is consistent with their view of personal success as product not only of one's own making but also of the other people around him/her.

Teacher's Behavior to Environmental Disasters. All of the respondents agreed that the 21st century teacher views environmental disasters as a social concern rather than as a normal phenomenon. This suggests that the respondents perceive the 21st century teacher as a person and a professional who has a profound and broad understanding of the environment and of the critical environmental issues and problems.

Teacher's Behavior to Bold Expressions of Thoughts. Although the majority of the groups of respondents signified disagreement to the idea that the 21st century teacher views bold expression of thoughts, opinions and sentiments as a manifestation of defiance, the basic education teachers and the teacher educators indicated opposite response. This difference may be explained by the latter group of respondents' careful attention to the word "bold" in the statement that if one is careful or meticulous enough, the statement could mean strong defiance or violent or undiplomatic way of expressing sentiments or airing grievances to authorities, and it should not be practiced by the 21st century teacher.

Teacher's Behavior to Societal Concerns. All of the respondents viewed the 21st century teacher as one who believes that each citizen has his/her own responsibilities and accountabilities as a member of society. This is strongly supported by the respondents' unanimous agreement to the statement that the 21st century teacher views societal problems or issues as concerns of every individual. The respondents also thought of the 21st century teacher as a person who recognizes that social responsiveness starts with the social consciousness because social awareness is a key to informed and active involvement to social affairs. Finally, all of the respondents were in strong agreement to the statement that the 21st century teacher regards social awareness as everybody's responsibility. This means that the respondents perceive the 21st century teacher as a professional who asserts social awareness as the prime or vital responsibility of every individual in a society.

Professional Attributes

In this section, the 12 perceived roles of a professional teacher in the 21st century are presented and discussed.

Teacher as a Planner and Organizer. The respondents at all levels agreed that 21st century teachers should be thoughtful of the diversity of learners in his/her classroom. Also, the teachers must be able to set appropriate learning goals for all types of learners. In implementing so, they must pace the lessons with consideration of the needs and difficulties of the learners, giving equal importance to their cultural background when providing learning opportunities. Their teaching methods, learning activities and instructional materials and resources must be aligned with the lesson objectives and appropriate to learners, as well. According to Brown, Earlam, and Race (1995), an effective teacher also trains the students to be organized in everything including the management of their time and learning resources.

Teacher as an Effective Communicator. The respondent stakeholders at all levels recognized the importance of effective communication in the teaching and learning processes. All of them strongly agreed that teachers must use the language appropriate to the learners' level and background and to the subject area being taught. They likewise approved the use of mother tongue in the classroom. On the other hand, startlingly, all the basic education student respondents opposed the use of the students' lingo in classroom discourse when pre- and in-service teachers and teacher educators actually supported its use. The contradictions were probably due to either a misconception or lack of understanding of the term "lingo" by both parties. At one end, "student lingo" may have been construed by the teacher groups as language used by the students when they speak with their peers,

and therefore could facilitate learning processes. On the other end, the students probably thought of “student lingo” as too informal and inappropriate in the classroom setting, and may be difficult for the teachers to comprehend. Thus, students decided that their peer language should not be spoken while doing classroom activities. Given the valuable contribution of effective communication in the skillful delivery of teaching and learning processes, the inclusion of communication skills development in the training content and design of teacher development programs should be considered. Similarly, the inclusion of the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) in the K to 12 Curriculum necessitates the conduct of formal teacher training to help ensure the effective implementation of program.

Teacher as a Facilitator. The respondents at all levels strongly agreed to the idea that 21st century teachers should encourage learners to freely express their ideas while optimizing time and available learning resources and observing established routines and procedures. The respondents clearly recognized one of the key roles that teachers play—as facilitators of learning. Gleaning from the data, the 21st century teachers are expected to be skillful at creating a truly learner-centered learning environment, one that is non-threatening and able to get learners hooked at achieving despite of apparent academic diversities. While computer-based instruction is quite rapidly dominating teaching-learning processes, the stakeholders’ response on the issue of teaching without the black/chalkboard shows the appreciation of the importance of having a discussion board while teaching. It would be most helpful, therefore, to design the training curriculum of teacher training programs for knowledge and skills development, providing minds-on and hands-on opportunities to explore and learn various facilitative techniques, and development and utilization of technologies that support teaching and learning processes.

Teacher as an Expert. The stakeholder respondents at all levels strongly agreed that 21st century teachers should be knowledgeable not only of their specific field of expertise but also of other fields that may be directly or indirectly related to the content they teach. Data further reveal that the 21st century teachers are expected to integrate relevant scholarly works or ideas to enrich the lesson as needed, and not simply focus on the specific topic to be learned at a time. They should make learning meaningful and relevant by linking current content with lessons learned in the past and those that may be presented in the future, as well as to the learners’ actual experiences. Clearly, teachers must have a thorough understanding of content—what it is about and how it connects with other areas and to real life. It may be observed, however, that if compared with the basic education students, the pre- and in-service teachers and the teacher educators are more conscious of the need to connect specific content with those in other related fields. This is an evidence of the formers’ appreciation of one of the special features of the K to 12 Enhanced Basic Education Curriculum—the use of the spiral approach to ensure mastery of knowledge and skills after each level. The spiral curriculum is a technique often used in teaching where the basic facts of a subject are first learned. As learning progresses, the details gradually increase; its connections with concepts in other learning areas are established, and the basic and preceding concepts are emphasized many times. To support this expectation of 21st century teachers as experts, and in line with the teacher quality requirements of the K to 12 EBE Program, importantly, teachers are afforded learning opportunities that would keep them abreast with constantly evolving concepts and information in their fields, and how these are found to connect with the content of other learning areas. Teacher development programs, therefore, should not only constantly provide teachers with content updates, but also with learning opportunities to truly appreciate where and how concepts connect and should be viewed.

Teacher as a Motivator. The majority of the respondents agreed that the teacher as a motivator inspires students to study hard. As the teacher serves as motivator, s/he inspires the students to study hard, gives timely feedback to students for all given tasks, creates a stress-free environment, encourages students to join various school and class activities, and sets high standards of learning performance. According to Zulueta and Guimabatan (2012), motivation is central of learning. A motivated student obtains what he/she learns more compared with others who are not motivated. As teachers play an important role in the learning process of the students, teachers must be a motivator to each learner. Each learner is different from one another. Some learners who respond well to the challenge of mastering a complex task and subject are considered deep. Others are strategic learners who are motivated primarily with rewards. Some learners react well with competition. Another type is the surface learners who are motivated by a desire to avoid failure (Bain, 2004). Individual teachers have various types and levels of motivation to improve their teaching in ways that better enhance student learning (NCBTS, 2006).

Teacher as a Classroom Manager. Stakeholders believed that the 21st century teacher must be a classroom manager, who maintains a safe and orderly classroom for his/her students. S/he must check the condition of

his/her classroom from the materials s/he uses to the arrangements of chairs and tables and even the cleanliness of the rooms. Teachers need to monitor the situation of the learners inside the classroom. Teachers equally feel attached to and concerned about the children and are ready to offer their utmost effort and time even beyond the confines of the classroom (Salandanan, 2010). Classroom management is another significant factor for the learning of the students. Teachers play various roles in a typical classroom, but surely one of the most important roles they play is that of a classroom manager. Effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom (Manzano, Manzano and Pickering, 2003). Teachers must assure the proper management of classroom before the class starts. Learning environment is one of the domains identified in the NCBTS, which deals with providing social and physical environment within which all students, regardless of their individual differences in learning. It can also engage learners to different learning activities and work toward attaining high standards of learning.

Teacher as an Assessor/Evaluator. The views of the kindergarten learners, elementary students, and high school students, which are congruent with the view of the prospective teachers, 21st century teacher must not heavily employ traditional techniques when assessing learning. S/he prepares formative and summative tests regularly and uses assessment results to improve teaching and learning. Evaluation is very essential for the learners to realize and understand the ideas they need to improve on. Feedbacks on assessments are not only used for diagnostic and corrective measures but also to encourage and motivate the learners for further effort, to maintain and improve self-confidence as appropriate. Evaluation is the systematic determination of a subject's merit, worth and significance, using criteria governed by a set of standards. This evaluation helps to assess pupil's progress. Another important domain in the National Competency-Based Teacher Standards where in assessment is included. The domain of planning, assessing and reporting refers to the aligned use of assessment and planning activities to ensure that the teaching-learning activities are maximally appropriate to the students' current knowledge and learning levels (NCBTS, 2006).

Teacher as a Problem Solver/Decision Maker. As shown in the views by the kindergarten pupils, elementary students and high school students, which the prospective teachers at the same level also agreed with, teachers must take appropriate action to address teaching-learning difficulties and make outright decision when no other authority can decide in a problematic situation. Parents entrust their children to school since they know and believe that the teachers are the second parents to their children. Decision making involves giving consideration to a matter, identifying the desired end result, determining the options to get to the end result, and then selecting the most suitable option to achieve the desired purpose. Teachers make countless decisions all day long in an effort to promote student learning. Breakdown of decisions includes three categories: planning, implementing, and assessing. Some decisions are made at the desk when preparing lesson or unit plans, designing an instructional activity, or grading papers (Fuller and Pearson, 2011).

Teacher as a Reflective Practitioner. All stakeholder respondents were in agreement of the view that the 21st century teachers should be reflective practitioners. As such, 21st century teachers should have their personal philosophy, and evaluate their own teaching and its impact through self-evaluation and feedbacking. The results concur with what Brookfield (1995) suggests of a teacher as a reflective practitioner—one who needs to know oneself or one's autobiography as a teacher and learner and who recognizes students' eyes, colleagues' perceptions, as well as theoretical literature.

Teacher as a Leader. The data reveal that the majority of the stakeholders from kindergarten to teacher educators expressed agreement on the image of the 21st century teacher as a leader and his/her leadership should strongly manifest inside and outside the classroom by reinforcing and following policies and rules in the workplace and by initiating projects/activities that effect better learning and stimulating work environment.

Teacher as an Adviser. The majority of the stakeholders valued the need for a teacher as an adviser in the 21st century classroom. This image of a teacher as an adviser is one who sets up the venue for students' success, provides fruitful classroom experiences, and promotes rights, and justice. They agreed that classroom opportunities should not create fear and discomfort among learners. The teacher as an adviser also gives individualized guidance to students, conducts regular conferences with parents and teachers, involves parents to participate in school activities, and provides opportunities to realize and maximize students' potentials.

Teacher as an Action Researcher. The data reveal that stakeholders viewed the 21st century teacher as someone who uses and undertakes research to inform instruction. This finding strengthens the claim of many

institutions that research is an important or even integral component of instruction which means that the two are complementary. Other behaviors of a teacher as a researcher include creating knowledge, making a connection between teaching and research, getting research ideas based on students' performance, and doing extra reading and other learning activities. This indicates for a preference to do doing extra academic undertakings like research that could inform or further learning in the classroom.

PROPOSED DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR TEIS

This section presents suggested development program for pre-service and in-service teachers based on the findings of the study to get closer to bridging the gap between theory and practice and provide the students across levels with teachers whose qualities match with their expectations. The development programs are described in terms of scope and design.

Scope. Training of pre-service teachers, in-service teachers, and even teacher educators should be holistic to include development programs for the improvement of their personality as well as their psychosocial and professional image. The personality development training should expose them to techniques in projecting the following images of a teacher: smart, well-mannered, open-minded, confident, responsible, fair, encouraging, god-fearing, and patient. As explained by Magno & Sembrano (2006), personal characteristics have an effect on teaching efficacy as they lead to better teaching performance and effectiveness. This then suggests that a good training package for teachers should cover both personal and professional. Hence, teachers need also to be trained on the professional and psychosocial aspects as well. For the training on teachers' psychosocial skills, this should cover: how to deal with learners in a multicultural, competitive, or diverse classroom; how to cooperate to school rules and regulations and to external evaluations and accreditation; how to behave as a member of a school, organization, or society; and how to express oneself and respond to the academic concerns of the school and society. In terms of professional development, all the teachers at different career stages starting from pre-service level to being a teacher educator should undergo continuous training for their professional development to be better planner, organizer, communicator, facilitator, expert, motivator, classroom manager, assessor/evaluator, problem solver, decision maker, reflective practitioner, leader, adviser and action researcher.

Design. The training of teachers at all levels to develop their desirable images should be in a developmental manner where their preparation begins while they are still students in the basic education level. Teachers could develop among their students the same traits the students want of their teacher. As the saying goes, "the earlier the better." This means that the potential of students to become future teachers could be nurtured as early as they enter the school for formal training. Actual exposure to the teachers they want and their formation into individuals who possess these traits they want may serve as a good foundation for the creation of model teachers in the future. Likewise, kindergarten teachers should continue monitoring their pupils who are inclined to be like them and sustain this liking through role modelling. Considering that pupils may be handled by different teachers of different personalities in the same school, there must be articulation of students' preferred professions between the present and the former teachers to provide them with the right guidance to the profession where they will likely succeed in the future including that of becoming a teacher. These pupils who have initial aptitude to teaching detected as early as when they were in kindergarten should be continuously monitored in their basic education so that they really go into teaching and become the great teachers they envision themselves to be.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The foregoing data have provided significant information on the image of the 21st century teacher that could provide lessons particularly to TEIs in the Philippines. *First*, regardless of the sector they represent, the stakeholders of TEIs perceive the 21st century teacher as smart, well-mannered, open-minded, confident, responsible, fair, encouraging, God-fearing, and patient. *Second*, in terms of psychosocial traits, the 21st century teacher is viewed as a professional who demonstrates a strong moral character, strong sense of moral obligation, and positive sense of the world. S/he is open-minded, highly motivated, just, thorough, obedient, humane, but is challenged to manage the requirements of diverse and multicultural classroom. S/he advocates equality, fairness, and compassion among the people and deems it his/her moral obligation and social responsibility to keep them morality sound. S/he also believes in peaceful and diplomatic way of resolving conflicts. Further, as a

professional, he/she is perceived to recognize that success is achieved collectively through unity and cooperation. S/he is thought of as person who has not only broad and profound understanding of the social and environmental issues and problems but also deep concern for the society and environment. *Lastly*, as regards professional traits, the 21st century teacher regardless of the level of learner s/he handles is a planner, organizer, communicator, facilitator, expert, motivator, classroom manager, assessor/evaluator, problem solver, decision maker, reflective practitioner, leader, adviser, and action researcher.

Given the personal, psychosocial, and professional images of the 21st century teacher, the TEIs should rethink on how they train the students who will be teachers. Pre-service teacher education programs should develop in them these roles of a professional teacher while continuing professional education programs should enhance teachers' capacity to elevate their practices in performing their various roles as they mature or grow in their profession so that they could always be looked up to as role models for other teachers who are younger than they are in the teaching profession. Teachers should all act as leaders, action researchers, reflective practitioners, and advisers; the difference lies in the manifestation and actualization of these traits. The TEIs, being focused on higher education, develop their students to be their own persons; however, there is a pattern of behavior or image that may or may not work in basic education. Eventually, the TEIs have to figure out and see how training addresses or departs from the expectations and the contexts in which the teachers will be in the future. The new teacher education curriculum should be sensitive to the development of the psychosocial attributes, that is, it should aim to develop the psychosocial social attributes the different stakeholders of education expect the 21st century teachers to possess and demonstrate. The congruence between what the stakeholders expect and how the 21st century teachers behave may facilitate a smooth relationship between the former and the latter. Smooth relation may result in positive image of the teachers and respect and support from stakeholders. With this, the 21st century teachers may develop positive self-concept and self-esteem and may take pride in the teaching profession. All these will enable the 21st century teachers to function in the classroom and in society with dignity and pride, efficiently and productively, and fully and optimally as individuals and professionals. The instructions provided by the TEIs in the country should deliberately develop the psychosocial attributes, especially those that are expected of them to possess and demonstrate, of the would-be teachers. Intervention programs of the same intention may also be implemented to attain the same purpose. Review of the curriculum of teacher education to check what is being taught in the pre-service is reflective of the requirements in the in-service. Retraining of tertiary teachers to enable them to have a full grasp and understanding of the basic education contexts as well as the players that compose such contexts is deemed very important

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Improving the Quality of Vocational and Technical High Schools With Aircraft Maintenance Field

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Abstract

As a consequence of the growth in global aviation market, aircraft operators in Turkey are to increase the number of aircraft that they operate. The MRO (Maintenance, Repair and Overhaul) companies in Turkey do serve not only to national airlines but also to foreign airlines. Furthermore they have an increasing share on the global MRO market. The demand to qualified and certified maintenance staff has been covered by approved Aircraft Maintenance Training Organizations such as the related departments of Universities. But the rapid growth of the MRO market and the increased costs lead MRO organizations to employ staff, who should be qualified but not necessarily certified (no Aircraft Maintenance License), for performing minor maintenance tasks.

The vocational and technical high schools with aircraft maintenance field in Turkey are approved neither by EASA (European Aviation Safety Agency) nor by national aviation authority, DGCA (Directorate General Civil Aviation). However the graduates of these schools are potential employees of MRO organizations seeking non-certified staff. With or without certification, quality is the major concern in aviation market. The improved quality of the students will result in their acceptance by the market and this could be achieved by improving the quality of the schools, therefore the teachers.

Keywords:

INTRODUCTION

As a consequence of global economic growth and increasing urbanization, air travel remains a growing market. The two biggest commercial aircraft manufacturers Boeing and Airbus market research between 2012 and 2031 predicts a continuing growth. For example 20 year world annual traffic growth of 4.7% is forecast by Airbus (Airbus S.A.S., 2012, s.12) and 5.0% by Boeing (Boeing, 2012, s.4). The number of passengers traveled by air was above 3 billion in 2011 and is forecast to be above 7.5 billion in 2031. Passenger aircraft fleet (only commercial aircraft with seats > 100) was 15,555 in 2011 and is predicted to be 32,551 in 2031 which means an increase of 109%. Similar increase in freighter aircraft (>10t) fleet is also predicted, i.e. 2938 aircraft in 2031. Aircraft need for both fleet growth and for replacement of older aircraft, which will be retired by 2031, will result in the delivery of 27,347 passenger aircraft and 851 freighters between 2012 and 2031 (Airbus S.A.S., 2012, s.12). Boeing reports that aircraft fleet including regional jets and freighters was 19,890 in 2011 and is forecast to be 39,780 in 2031. 34.000 new aircraft deliveries between 2102-2031 are predicted. The market value of these aircraft by 2010 catalog prices is \$4,470 billion (Boeing, 2012, s.3). It should be remembered that acquisition cost is only 25% of Life Cycle Cost of an airplane. In 2012 active aircraft fleet generated an MRO (Maintenance Repair Overhaul) spend of approximately \$53 billion, which is expected to grow to approximately \$76 billion by 2021 (Steward, 2012, s.36). New airplane deliveries by regions are summarized in the table 1 below.

Table 1. New airplane deliveries by regions (Boeing, 2012, s.3)

	Asia Pacific	North America	Europe	Middle East	Latin America	CIS	Africa	World
Large	320	40	200	190	0	30	10	790
Twin aisle	3,230	1,320	1,440	1,100	340	250	270	7,950
Single aisle	7,990	5,040	5,800	1,060	2,080	700	570	23,240
Regional jets	490	890	320	20	90	160	50	2,020
Total	12,030	7,290	7,760	2,370	2,510	1,140	900	34,000

As global economies continue to grow and thousands of new aircraft are delivered during the next 20 years, the demand for personnel to operate these airplanes will be unique. Boeing projects a need for approximately 601,000 new aircraft maintenance technicians (Boeing, 2012, s.26). The growth rate of aviation market in Turkey is above the world averages. Besides, Turkey makes important investments to become a regional MRO base which consequently brings qualified technician demand, predicted to be around 10,000 by 2023 (TOBB, 2012, s.65; TÖSHİD, 2012, s.10). New technician demand by region has been given in Table 2.

Table 2. New technicians by region (Boeing, 2012, s.26)

Regions	Asia Pacific	Europe	North America	Middle East	Latin America	CIS	Africa	World
Technicians	243,500	129,700	92,500	53,700	47,300	18,100	16,200	601,000

Meeting this demand will require airplane manufacturers and the commercial aviation industry to rely more heavily on new digital technology to meet the learning requirements of new generation. The growing diversity of aviation personnel also demands highly qualified, motivated and knowledgeable instructors with cross-cultural and cross-generational skills. Emerging markets that currently recruit maintenance technicians from outside the region will have to develop a foundation for training qualified personnel from within the local workforce (Boeing, 2012, s.26).

The demand to qualified and certified maintenance staff in Turkey has been covered by approved Aircraft Maintenance Training Organizations such as the related departments of Universities. But the rapid growth of the MRO market and the increased costs lead MRO organizations to employ staff, who should be qualified but not necessarily certified (no Aircraft Maintenance License), for performing minor maintenance tasks.

The vocational and technical high schools with aircraft maintenance field in Turkey are approved neither by EASA (European Aviation Safety Agency) nor by national aviation authority, DGCA (Directorate General Civil Aviation). However the graduates of these schools are potential employees of MRO organizations seeking non-certified staff. With or without certification, quality is the major concern in aviation market. The improved quality of the students will result in their acceptance by the market and this could be achieved by improving the quality of the schools, therefore the teachers.

In this study, first the current status of vocational and technical high schools with aircraft maintenance field is investigated than a training program to improve the theoretical and practical knowledge level of the vocational teachers of aircraft maintenance field is developed. The development of this program (managed by Anadolu University Faculty of Aeronautics and Astronautics, supported by the Ministry of National Education and funded by the Boeing Company), methods and procedures used are presented in the corresponding chapters of the study.

CURRENT STATUS OF VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOLS WITH AIRCRAFT MAINTENANCE FIELD

In this chapter the current status of 9 vocational and technical high schools with aircraft maintenance field in Turkey is investigated. It has been found that only 3 of 9 schools have branch teachers, and their number is only 9. School E has 1 aircraft electronics branch teacher and 2 airframe and powerplant branch teacher, School G has 4 aircraft electronics branch teacher and 1 airframe and powerplant branch teacher and School I has only 1 aircraft electronics branch teacher. However total number of students registered in aircraft maintenance field is 1408 by September 2013, 452 in airframe and powerplant branch and 119 in aircraft electronics branch. (see Table 3) schools with no branch teacher is marked with a star. Within all 9 schools, approximately 150 students for 1 airframe and powerplant branch teacher and approximately 20 students for 1 aircraft electronics branch teacher (Ministry of National Education web site, 2013).

Table 3. Distribution of students registered in aircraft maintenance field

Schools	A*	B*	C*	D*	E	F*	G	H*	I	Total
Class 9	34	27	31	68	71	68	71	34	33	437
Class 10	---	26	25	50	72	46	72	30	32	353
Class 11	---	271	45	301/282	481/302	501	511/242/2	---	281	363
Class 12	---	---	251	---	521/162	461	641/212	---	311	255
Total	34	80	126	176	289	210	305	64	124	1408

1: Airframe and Powerplant Branch

2: Aircraft Electronics Branch

Vocational school teachers were graduated from the Technical Education Faculties until they were converted to Faculty of Technology in 2009. These new faculties are training engineering students. The graduates of these

faculties can also become teachers at the technical and vocational schools upon pedagogical courses. These Faculties of Technology have only departments of Electrics & Electronics Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Mechatronics Engineering, Metallurgy and Materials Engineering, Automotive Engineering and Production Engineering. This means that no vocational teacher in aircraft maintenance field has been taught any more.

In the current status, vocational teachers from several fields have been lecturing courses special to aircraft maintenance field in the above mentioned 9 schools. They try to improve their teaching qualities with their own efforts, with the motivation of the schools management and with the aid of some MRO organizations. The success of these efforts and aids are based on the person and not sustainable. The best solution is thought to be a professional and corporate cooperation of the Ministry of National Education, Higher Education Institutions having DGCA approved aircraft maintenance departments and the industry.

DEVELOPED TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM

As a result, a training program to improve the theoretical and practical knowledge level of the vocational teachers of aircraft maintenance field is developed. First a gap analyses between the EASA/DGCA approved aircraft maintenance syllabus and the ability of the current teachers to teach this syllabus is analyzed and the training needs of these teachers are determined. Interviews with 30 vocational teachers lecturing aircraft maintenance related courses and with the managers of vocational and technical high schools with aircraft maintenance field have been made. The complete approved aircraft maintenance technician training syllabus is presented and teachers are asked to mark the modules/sub modules with 0, 1 and 2, where 0 (zero) means the teacher can give courses including that sub-module without any personal improvement, 1 means the teacher can give courses including that sub-module after a short refreshment and 2 means the teacher needs a comprehensive training to give courses including that sub-module. An example of this analysis has been given in Table 4.

Table 4. Gap analysis for EASA Part 66 Module 8 Basic Aerodynamics

Sub-Module	0	1	2
8.1 Physics of the Atmosphere			
8.2 Aerodynamics			
8.3 Theory of Flight			
8.4 Flight Stability and Dynamics			

According to these results, subjects with high priority have been assessed and a 30 days pilot application is established. The program will be held by the academic and technical staff of Anadolu University Faculty of Aeronautics and Astronautics and will be delivered by face to face mode. Miscellaneous workshops, labs and Aircraft Maintenance Center of the Faculty will be used. Educational methods such as lecture, question & answer, demonstration, experiment, drill & practice will be used. Course level will be as defined by Commission Regulation (EU) No. 2042/2003 amended by 1149/2011 Appendix 1, published in the Official Journal of The European Union. Known as EASA IR Part 66. Level 3: A detailed knowledge of the theoretical and practical aspects of the subject and a capacity to combine and apply the separate elements of knowledge in a logical and comprehensive manner. At the end of the course the attendant will;

- (a) know the theory of the subject and interrelationships with other subjects.
- (b) be able to give a detailed description of the subject using theoretical fundamentals and specific examples.
- (c) understand and be able to use mathematical formulae related to the subject.
- (d) be able to read, understand and prepare sketches, simple drawings and schematics describing the subject.
- (e) be able to apply his knowledge in a practical manner using manufacturer's instructions.
- (f) be able to interpret results from various sources and measurements and apply corrective action where appropriate.

Course Syllabus

1. Physics of the Atmosphere: International Standard Atmosphere (ISA), application to aerodynamics.
2. Aerodynamics: Airflow around a body; Boundary layer, laminar and turbulent flow, free stream flow, relative airflow, upwash and downwash, vortices, stagnation; The terms: camber, chord, mean aerodynamic chord, profile (parasite) drag, induced drag, centre of pressure, angle of attack, wash in and wash out, fineness ratio, wing shape and aspect ratio; Thrust, Weight, Aerodynamic Resultant; Generation of Lift and

Drag: Angle of Attack, Lift coefficient, Drag coefficient, polar curve, stalls; Aerofoil contamination including ice, snow, frost.

3. Theory of Flight: Relationship between lift, weight, thrust and drag; Glide ratio; Steady state flights, performance; Theory of the turn; Influence of load factor: stall, flight envelope and structural limitations; Lift augmentation.

4. Flight Stability and Dynamics: Longitudinal, lateral and directional stability (active and passive).

5. Flight Controls: Operation and effect of: roll control: ailerons and spoilers, pitch control: elevators, stabilators, variable incidence stabilizers and canards, yaw control, rudder limiters; Control using elevons, ruddervators; High lift devices, slots, slats, flaps, flaperons; Drag inducing devices, spoilers, lift dumpers, speed brakes; Effects of wing fences, saw tooth leading edges; Boundary layer control using, vortex generators, stall wedges or leading edge devices; Operation and effect of trim tabs, balance and antibalance (leading) tabs, servo tabs, spring tabs, mass balance, control surface bias, aerodynamic balance panels.

6. Basic Aircraft Structures and Systems: Airframe structures-basic concepts; Construction of fuselage, wings, stabilizers, flight control surfaces and nacelles/pylons; Basic concepts of Air Conditioning and Cabin Pressurization, Instruments/ Avionic Systems, Electrical Power, Fuel Systems, Landing Gear.

7. Gas Turbine Engine: Potential energy, kinetic energy, Newton's laws of motion, Brayton cycle; The relationship between force, work, power, energy, velocity, acceleration; Constructional arrangement and operation of turbojet, turbofan, turboshaft, turboprop.

8. Workshop Practices: Basic equipment requirement for aviation (training) workshops; Safety precautions to be taken when working on aircraft and at workshops;

Avionics & Electrical workshop: AC generation, DC generation, transformers, motors, generators, electrical power distribution, electrical cables and connectors, avionic general test equipment, Instrument, communication and navigation systems;

Pneumatics & Hydraulics workshop: Hydraulic power system lay-out, hydraulic fluids, Hydraulic reservoirs and accumulators, pressure generation, emergency pressure generation, filters, indication and warning systems; Pneumatic system (including air conditioning and cabin pressurization) lay-out, system sources, component location, distribution, indications and warnings;

Structural Repair Workshop: Dimensions, tolerances, calibration of tools and equipment, precision measuring tools, fits and Clearances, limits for bow, twist and wear, shaft and bearings checking standards, riveting, pipes and hoses, sheet metal work, fasteners: (bolts, studs and screws, locking devices), pipes and unions, springs, bearings, transmissions (gears, belts and pulleys, chains, control cables).

Engine Workshop: inlet; compressors, combustion section; turbine section; exhaust; maintenance practices on miscellaneous engine systems; powerplant installation: configuration of firewalls, cowlings, acoustic panels, engine mounts, hoses, pipes, feeders, connectors, wiring looms, control cables and rods, engine monitoring and ground operation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

As a consequence of global economic growth and increasing urbanization, air travel remains a growing market. Parallel to global growth, the aviation market in Turkey has been growing, even with a higher rate. Besides, Turkey makes important investments to become a regional MRO base which consequently brings qualified technician demand which also brings a demand to highly qualified, motivated and knowledgeable instructors.

The demand to qualified and certified maintenance staff in Turkey has been covered by approved Aircraft Maintenance Training Organizations such as the related departments of Universities. But the rapid growth of the MRO market and the increased costs lead MRO organizations to employ staff, who should be qualified but not necessarily certified (no Aircraft Maintenance License), for performing minor maintenance tasks.

The graduates of vocational and technical high schools with aircraft maintenance field in Turkey are potential employees of MRO organizations seeking non-certified staff. Since the population of young people in Turkey is relatively higher than that of European countries, this can be an opportunity for new technicians to find jobs in European countries. With or without certification, quality is the major concern in aviation market. The improved quality of the students will result in their acceptance by even the global aviation market and this could be achieved by improving the quality of the schools, therefore the teachers.

By September 2013, there are 1408 students registered in aircraft maintenance field but only 9 branch teachers. Furthermore 6 of 9 schools have no branch teacher. None of the 9 teachers graduated from an aviation related faculty, because no vocational teacher in aircraft maintenance field had been taught in Turkey and will

not be taught in the future by the formal higher education programs. This strengthens the in-service training of current and future branch teachers of aircraft maintenance field.

This improvement can be achieved by a professional and corporate cooperation of the Ministry of National Education, Higher Education Institutions having DGCA approved aircraft maintenance departments and the industry.

This study will initiate some other cooperation on other fields of vocational education in Turkey resulting with high quality graduates easily to be recruited by the market.

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RESEARCH-BASED COURSE DESIGN AS THE IMPLEMENTATION OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT EVALUATION FUNCTION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to produce Basics of Mathematics Learning Process as a reinforcement of personality and social competence from Mathematics future teachers. The benefits of this study were as well as the implementation of the quality management function on the learning evaluation function or reflection and the follow-ups. The course design development was accomplished with the following stages. (1) The study of Mathematics Education Study Program Curriculum, study of literature, (2) data achievement, (3) data analysis (4) discussion (5) course design arrangement, and (6) conclusion. The result obtained from data analysis was there were indicators of personality or social components which did not provide yet an optimal assessment of evaluation acquisition. There was consistency between student and output (alumni). Syllabus as a course design of Basics of Mathematics Learning Process was arranged by applying modeling approach (attention phase - retention-reproduction-feedback), and for at each phase, it had been selected the technique of individual and group assignment which demanded students activities as future teacher as adaptation or personality and social competence reinforcement.

Key word: quality management evaluation function, course design, personality and social competence.

INTRODUCTION

The challenge of future teachers, which brings consequences of education quality management implementation, has to get an attention. The enhancement of School Mathematics Curriculum has also become one of the references of the enhancement of Mathematics Education Study Program Curriculum in Educators and Educational Personnel Foundation (LPTK). The new curriculum in school is 2013 Curriculum, whereas Curriculum in Mathematics Education Study Program, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, State University of Semarang as one of Educators and Educational Personnel Foundations (LPTK) is 2012 Curriculum. The main competencies of the graduate competence are ; (1) capable of mastering Mathematics and applying it intelligently and democratically in the mathematics education context ; (2) capable of organizing Mathematics learning in professional in an honest and intelligent way by applying innovative learning models, utilizing the latest technologies that are environmentally friendly, and being student centered in a democratic atmosphere; (3) capable of holding Mathematics workshop using innovative approaches, utilizing up to date technology which is environmentally friendly and upholding the principles of tolerance and responsibility ; (4) capable of providing guidance in Mathematics learning in an intelligent, religious, tolerant and responsible way (Mathematics Education courses, 2012). Moreover, with global life challenges, teacher are demanded to constantly perform various improvements and adjustments to the competencies mastery (Sudrajat, 2007).

Basics of Mathematics Learning Process course is one of the subjects with the study of creative and innovative mathematics learning, as well the technology and environment based learning practice in manifesting the graduate competencies. The course is intended to provide to the students the teacher candidate of Mathematics subject lesson, in order to be a teacher that has a pedagogic, personality, social, and professional competences (Government Regulation No. 7 of 2005). This course is a means of exercise for students doing classroom management. The reinforcement of the four competencies has actually been supported by the implementation of other courses, but the fact remains that the personality and social competence have not been achieved optimally. The reinforcement of both competencies is not only performed on certain subjects, but it may be accomplished on any existing course based on Curriculum. Social and personality competence that can be reinforced with character education has been designed in every course, but how this evaluation has not been detected. This is shown by the lack of the assessment tool and the evaluation results that could be reported. The main issue is how the learning draft of Basics of Mathematics Learning Process was able to facilitate teacher to be students to strengthen social and personality competence?

The purpose of this study was to produce Basics of Mathematics Learning Process as a reinforcement of personality and social competence from Mathematics Teachers to be. The benefits of this study are as well as

the implementation of the quality management function on the learning evaluation function or reflection and the follow-ups.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The course design development was accomplished with the following stages. (1) The study of Mathematics Education Study Program Curriculum, study of literature, (2) data achievement, (3) data analysis (4) discussion (5) course design arrangement, and (6) conclusion. The curriculum studied was 2012 Curriculum. The data source was Mathematics Education Study Program alumni graduated year 2012 and the students that had taken Basics of Mathematics Learning Process 1 course. Alumni data was in the form of personality test results (Center for the Professional Education of Teachers Semarang State University 2013). Student data was students' perception towards social and personality competence, where the instrument that was being developed is in reference to indicators of competence contained in Teachers and Lecturers Act (Hidayah, 2011). Both the data were analyzed in the form of percentage for each competency to describe competence mastery for each aspect or indicator as a whole as well as each respondent. Course design that was developed was syllabus format according ISO standards that exists in Semarang State University.

RESULTS

Mathematics Education Study Program vision is: a winning, meaningful, and dignified study program. While the goal are to produce graduates that: (1) have the characteristic and professional minimal having pedagogic, social, personality competence, and master Mathematics field of study, behave and act as an dignified scientist based on Pancasila and have an insightful knowledge; (2) able to develop Technology and Science and conform himself to the progress of times; (3) have high integrity in Mathematics education field, which is supported by English proficiency and mastery of information and communication technology (ICT); (4) are able to carry out research in the field of Mathematics education that is oriented on the development of science and technology based on the principles of conservation. (Agoestanto, 2012). Basics of Learning Mathematics Process 1 (odd semester) type of theoretical lectures and Basics of Learning Mathematics Process 2 (even semester) with the kind of practical and theoretical lectures.

Average earnings of personality data analysis result from 33 alumni of each aspect were as follows, intelligence aspect 77.32; The urge to achieve 67.10; the urge to work regularly 61.91; the urge to work together with others 74.88; The urge to help 62.53; The urge to work diligently 64.85; the urge to finish the assignment 61.30; and emotional maturity 60.20. Score acquisition category was 40-49 (low), 50-59 (rather low), 60-72 (medium), 70-79 (high enough), 80-89 (high), and 90-100 (very high) (Hidayah, 2014). From data achievement, it was stated that there were no alumni with very low or very high acquisition criteria. The distribution of many alumni in each personality aspect and criteria can be seen in table 1.

Table 1. The distribution of Many Mathematics Education Study Program Alumni PPG Candidates Semarang State University 2013 in every aspect of personality and criteria

No	Aspect	Number of Alumni with Score Acquisition						
		< 39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-79	80-89	90-100
1	Intelligence			1	3	14	15	
2	The urge to achieve		2	2	16	11	2	
3	The urge to work regularly		2	8	21	1	1	
4	The urge to work together with others			1	6	17	9	
5	The urge to help		3	9	12	8	1	
6	The urge to work diligently			12	11	8	2	
7	The urge to finish the assignment			6	26	1		
8	Emotional maturity			8	25			
	Percentage							

Paying attention to personality test results above, it can be said that the results have not been optimal. This became a concern for the preparation of future teacher students at LPTK, in particular Mathematics Education Study Program. These data is a reflection for quality improvement of organizing courses that directly related to the competence of future teachers. One of them is Basics of Mathematics Learning Process course. This test was one of the determining factors for selection candidates of trainee teacher profession education (PPG), which was preceded by the devotion program in remote regions of Indonesia. This Education Program is one of the programs of the Directorate of Education and Educational Personnel (Diktekdik) in order to increase education quality in Indonesia, as well as the equity program of education quality. Devotion here means teaching in schools, which require appropriate fields of study. In duty place for one year, they are obliged to carry out the

task of being a teacher at the school that needs and interact with the community in which they live. The purpose of PPG Program is to produce future teachers who have competence in planning, executing, and assessing learning process; following up on assessment result, coaching, and training learners as well as conducting research, and are able to develop professionalism in a sustainable way (Rustad, 2013). This finding is reinforced by data results about perceptions of social and personality competence of the students who have taken course of Basics of Mathematics Learning Process. The results were summarized in the table 2.

Table 2. Future Mathematics Teacher Student Perceptions towards supporting factor of Teacher Personality and Social Competence Mastery

No.	Assessed Component	Average	Criteria
Personality Competence Indicator			
1	Acting in accordance with the norms of law, social, religious, and national culture	2.75	Good
2	Showing honored and mature personality	2.63	Good
3	Work ethic, high responsibility, pride on becoming a teacher	2.46	Average
Social Competence Indicator			
4	Acting inclusively, act objectively and not discriminatively	2.73	Good
5	Communicating with fellow students, lecturers, educational personnel, parents, and community	2.32	Average

Source : Hidayah, 2014

Paying attention to the results of student self-assessment against personality and social competences above, there was the personality or social component indicator, which still did not provide an optimal assessment. There was consistency between student assessments with output (alumni), connecting between the competence of students and graduates of teacher education is very important. There are three phase of teacher preparation and development, such as, Pre – Service Preparation phase, License phase, and Continuing Professional Development (Wise, 2001). Referring to the formulation of graduates competency of Mathematics Education Program Study and the existing social and personality competence condition facts, then it becomes a problem how the implementation of the study should be designed in order to be effective learning.

The result of this study is a reflection of further follow-up that is accomplished in order to improve the course quality referring to the competence of graduates. Teacher Profession Program with the participants was the output from Bachelor Degree Study Program, was carried out with two curriculums, they are Academic Curriculum which was conducted on campus and Dormitory Life Curriculum to develop the values of participants character related to personality and social competence. Nevertheless, the competence of Bachelor's degree educational graduates also included 4 competencies, namely Pedagogic, Social, Personality, and Professional Competence. Character values as reinforcement of personality and social competence were designed explicitly in course design in the form of syllabus-implementation-evaluated-followed up, thereby allowing the lecturers make improvements in a sustainable way.

Design and implementation integrating character values have been applied to each of the subjects, but the assessment towards character values to measure personality and social competence was not carried out yet. This brought the follow-up consequences do not refer to reflection result on the lecture implementation.

Personality and social competence reinforcement was manifested in the form of learning activities either individually or in groups. Selection of strategies or learning model also specifies the implementation of character values in learning.

Hidayah's research result (2003) suggested that to improve the ability of future teacher students in developing a learning draft and ability to do teaching practice can be done through modeling with phase: attention – retention – reproduction – motivation. Effective modeling is direct modeling from lecturers and friends, whereas VCD modeling was less helpful.

Attention Phase is the learning implementaton modelling by integrating characters values with particular strategy by lecturers and friends, later followed by questions and answers and discussion. (democratic, respecting students' opinions, have well manner in talking, dressing, and doing, providing students with a polite response, using oral and written Indonesian correctly and properly)

Retention Phase, the students are given the opportunity to develop learning plan as a closed loop and open loop that is done in small groups. Through this phase, future teacher students are required to share their experiences to friends, invite other students to observe the preparation of teaching practice in front of the class and give input, proven by friends observations on the observation sheets that have been signed by observer. Each time practice, the observer must be different.

Reproductionon Phase, i.e. student candidates conduct simulations to teach, as well as a model for other students. This phase carried out as a phase of demonstrating candidate's performance not only pedagogic and professional competence, but also personality and social competence. As well as modeling for other students.

Feedback Phase, i.e. giving feedback that made each completed performance by students, conducted by a lecturer or other students. Through this phase, the future teacher student is required to be mature in receiving input from friends or lecturers; required also for another student to give an opinion and input towards the assessment of apprentice performance that refers to a teaching practice observation instrument.

Thus, the activity of this lecture, which was expected to strengthen personality competence, was able to show a mature and honored role model, and has a work ethic and high responsibility, sense of proud to be a teacher. As for social competence capable of being inclusive, acting objectively, and not discriminatory, be able to communicate with fellow students, lecturers, educational personnel, and the community.

Alternative Implementations

Strengthening the personality competence can be designed as clearly stated in the course contract. Things that can be stated in the contract as the personality and social competence reinforcement, among others: (1) during attending the lectures, students has to keep the principles of Pancasila as ideology basis and students ethics as Indonesia citizens ; (2) Developing cooperation and maintaining togetherness in achieving accomplishments; (3) Having good manners of speaking and acting towards anyone; (4) keeping the good name of Almamater; (5) Going to College ontime; (6) Not attempting to cancel the lectures; (7) completing the task on time in accordance with the requirement.

Course contract is delivered at the beginning of the lecture become a mutual agreement between students and lecturers. Together committed to obeying all regulations that have been mutually agreed.

Lecture accomplishment is evaluated during the lecture for 1 semester. A student who disobeys contract regulation will directly get the consequences in accordance with requirement that have been mutually agreed.

Social competence indicators were integrated in the syllabus is contained in the strategy, methods, approaches, or learning models. Approaches and learning models for Mathematics school learning with a scientific approach that facilitates students to observe, ask, do, make a sense, conclude, and communicate (Curriculum, 2013). Any model centered on students, using a scientific approach, learning with cooperative learning. Through the application of the model, students are used to do cooperation in arranging problem solving, do cooperation in solving the problem, give each other and mutual acceptance. Through this routine, students will experience the wonderful togetherness.

The assessment was carried out in the process and product. The second form of assessment to measure the four of future teacher students' performance that includes four competencies used the instrument, both observation sheet and questionnaire. The course design was formulated in the following form of Syllabus (attached).



CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussion of the studies that have been accomplished, it can be concluded that to strengthen social and personality competence of future Mathematics teacher students can be done by implementing quality management evaluation function. Lecturers design the course referring to the reflection result towards the process course results that are undergoing, supported by a study of data and information concerning the course results. Syllabus as a course design of Basics of Mathematics Learning Process was arranged by applying modeling approach (attention phase -retention-reproduction-feedback), and at each phase, it had been selected the technique of individual and group assignment which demand future teacher students activities as adaptation or personality and social competence reinforcement.

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Appendix

	KEMENTERIAN PENDIDIKAN DAN KEBUDAYAAN UNIVERSITAS NEGERI SEMARANG (UNNES) Office: Gedung H It 4 Kampus, Sekaran, Gunungpati, Semarang 50229 Rektor: (024)8508081 Fax (024)8508082, Purek I: (024) 8508001 Website: www.unnes.ac.id - E-mail: unnes@unnes.ac.id		 Certificate ID11/01904 Certificate ID11/01904.01
	FORMULIR SILABUS		
No. Document FM-02- AKD-05	No. Revision 01	Page 1 from 2	Published Date 1 st Maret 2014

SYLLABUS

Faculty	: Mathematics and Science (FMIPA)
Department/Study Program	: Mathematics / Mathematics Education
Course	: Mathematics Education Basic 2
Course Code	: PMA304
SKS	: 3 sks

Main competence: able to organize Mathematics learning professionally and honestly and apply intelligently creative and innovative learning, utilize friendly environmentally technologies, centered on the students in a democratic atmosphere.

Learning Main Material	Learning Activities	Indicator	Evaluation	Time Allotment	Study resource
Review teaching basic skills; professional teacher competence Process standard and character of Mathematics learning, as well as students education character. peer teaching practice and modeling: attention-phase retention-reproduction-feedback	1) Students do the lecture contracts; theoretical prerequisite review 2) Do Mathematics learning observation in actual class (Junior High School) in groups (2-3 people) using a standard assessment instrument 3) presented the results of real teaching observation 4) example of learning tool development by lecturers as modelling 5) Students develop learning tools as individual work with Junior High School different main material 6) Peer teaching which are preceded by practice in small groups, other students perform observations with a standard instrument 8) feedback conducted by lecturers towards practice performance and the lesson plan. Comments are given by other students.	1) Students deal with lecture contracts and sign them, as a form of commitment to carry out the contract consequences in a democratic way. 2) capable of performing communication with group friends, lecturers, principals, and target school teachers 3) Creating an assessment of the real learning in junior high school class using standard instruments, honestly. 4) Designing learning based on 2013 Curriculum, according Mathematics learning characteristics by utilizing technology and the environment intelligently and responsibly. 5) Implementing social and personality paedagogy , professional competence, in peer teaching of junior high school material. 6) Conducting peer teaching observation for Junior High School material 7) Appreciating the performance of other students 8) Appreciate others opinions	Process: Peer teaching performance. Activity; cooperation; presentation The ability to respond to others in practice	1x3x50'	1
			Product: Results of Mathematics learning tool in SMP/MTs and SMA/SMK/ MA Observation report	1x3x50'	1 s.d 13
	Mid Semester Evaluation		Self-assessment of paedagogy competence and	1x3x50'	

			mastery of study field. Fulfillment of measure polling of personality and social competence		
The practice of implementing mathematics learning tool in High School / Vocational School / MA through peer teaching, with modeling: attention-phase retention-reproduction-feedback	1 Conducting Mathematics learning observation in a real class (SMA/SMK) for groups (2-3 people) using a standard assessment instrument 2) presenting the results of real teaching observations 3) example of learning tool development by lecturers as modelling 4) Students develop learning tools as individual work with different subject matter 5) Peer teaching are preceded by training in a small group (different groups with the Junior High School). Peerteaching is carried out in turn 6) feedback conducted by lecturers towards practice performance and the lesson plan. Comments are given by other students.	1) are able to communicate with my group, lecturers, principals, and target school teachers 2) conducting an assessment of the real learning in high school/vocational school class using standard instruments, honestly. 3) Designing learning based on 2013 curriculum, according to Mathematics learning characteristics by utilizing technology and the environment in intelligently and responsibly. 4) implementing paedagogy, social, personality and professional competences in peer teaching with High School/ Vocational School material 5) conducting peer teaching observation with High School/ Vocational School material 6) Appreciating the performance of other students 7) Appreciate others opinions	Process: Peer Teaching Performance. Activity; cooperation; presentation The ability to respond to others in practice Product: Mathematics Learning Tool result in SMP/MTs and SMA/SMK/MA Observation Report	1x3x50' 5x3x50'	1s.d 13
Final Semester Examination	Peer teaching with chosen material			2x2 3x50'	

Resource Library:

1. Basics of Diktat and Mathematics Learning Process
2. Permendikbud No. 54 year 2013 on Graduates Competencies Standards and their attachments
3. Permendikbud No. 64 year 2013 on Content Standards and attachments
4. Permendikbud No. 65 year 2013 on Process Standards and their attachments
5. Permendikbud No. 66 year 2013 on Assessment Standards and their attachments.
6. Permendikbud No. 68 year 2013 about Basic Competence and Curriculum Structure in Junior High School - MTs and their attachments
7. Permendikbud No. 69 year 2013 about Basic Competence and Curriculum Structure in Senior High School - MA and their attachments
8. Permendikbud Number 70 by 2013 about Basic Competence and Curriculum Structure in Vocational School and their attachments
9. Junior High School Mathematics BSE Act
10. Junior High School Mathematics BSE
11. Integrated Character Guideline
12. Examples of Learning Draft
13. Form Syllabus and RPP

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Problems and Countermeasures in Multicultural Education in Primary and Middle Schools in China

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Abstract

As globalization speeds up in the early period of the 21st century, multicultural education becomes more and more important in the world, especially in China which has 56 ethnicities and increasing number of students come from all over the world today. This paper starts with summarizing the present multicultural education situations in primary and middle schools in China, and then discusses the major problems in such areas as course design, curriculum, and instructional methods employed in multicultural education in primary and secondary schools, and finally proposes the possible pathways to solve those problems. It expected that special and effective models in multicultural education should be established in China in the future to fit for the rapid development of multicultural education and human society.

Keywords: Multicultural education, curriculum, teaching methods, primary and middle schools, China

INTRODUCTION

As a kind of value tropisms in world ethnic education development multicultural education began in the 1960s in the western countries. The multicultural education shaped during the period from the beginning of 20th century to 1980s, in which it developed in the direction of sequence and conventionality, and the importance was attached to the theories and practices of multicultural education as its value was presented gradually in the political and economic areas all over the world; and it progressed towards the institutional development 1980s later and extended deeply towards all fields in society as its researches advanced further as a result of its implemental and numeral value were embodied to some extent. The multicultural education refers to a process of comprehensive school reform and basic education for all students. It challenges and rejects racism and other forms of discrimination in schools and society and accepts and affirms the pluralism (ethnic, racial, linguistic, religious, economic, and gender, among others) that students, their communities, and teachers represent. Multicultural education permeates the curriculum and instructional strategies used in schools, as well as the interactions among teachers, students, and parents, and the very way that schools conceptualize the nature of teaching and learning. Because it uses critical pedagogy as its underlying philosophy and focuses on knowledge, reflection, and action (praxis) as the basis for social change, multicultural education promotes the democratic principles of social justice(Nieto,1996). Today, multicultural education is a progressive approach for transforming education that holistically critiques and responds to discriminatory policies and practices in education. It is grounded in ideals of social justice, education equity, critical pedagogy, and a dedication to providing educational experiences in which all students reach their full potentials as learners and as socially aware and active beings, locally, nationally, and globally. Even it was merely concerned with a certain esteem towards the culture of minority, and it wanted to actualize the equality of the basic rights of human beings.

Multicultural education has evolved both in theory and in practice, and formed in a broad international movement influenced world education development. It is one of the focuses with public concern in today's international education, which is a strong thought, and also a profound practice innovation. With the development of globalization, the internationalization and popularization of education brings about cultural diversity in the world today, which significantly enhances the development of multicultural education in various countries. China is a multi-ethnic country, with a rich and varied culture. The rise and development of multicultural education has provided new perspectives in researching on ethnic education of China. Multicultural education in China has been a special model in worldwide multicultural education. Under the guidance of Marxism ethnic theory and on the base of history and reality of multi-in-union social structure in the Chinese nation, historical development, character, policy, curriculum and practical effect of multicultural education are the main contents of constructing and perfecting multicultural education model with Chinese characteristics.

The purpose of the present review is to summarize the fulfillments of multicultural education, to show problems in multicultural education in primary and middle schools of China, and to suggest some possible ways of solving these problems in order to improve multicultural education and the whole education equality and quality of elementary and middle school education in China.

MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION SITUATIONS OF PRIMARY AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN CHINA

Multicultural education becomes more and more important in the 21st century as globalization speeds up. It is a trend to insist on the diversified development of the ethnic group's education in multi-ethnic countries. As a multi-ethnic country, China's ethnic groups have their distinguishing cultures and traditions. In the long-term historical development process, the frequent migration of minority nationalities, gradually formed a "big mixed, small settlement" ethnic residential characteristics, showed a "pattern of diversity in unity of social": diversity or multiple refers to the various ethnic minority culture; integration, refers to the Han nationality as the main body of ethnic culture of the Chinese nation (Wang et al., 2007) . Accordingly, in the aspect of education, China's education came into being "education pattern of diversity in unity of the Chinese nation". Historically, the harmonious development of culture not only maintains the mainstream culture education, and also keeps the development of multicultural education, namely all the minority nationalities have their own education form and education system. This is the foundation for multicultural education in China.

Based on the literature statistic method, the present authors find that since 1990 China started to introduce some information on western multicultural education and to publish papers on it. More papers have been published since 2008(Fig.1), suggesting that the multicultural education research has been enhanced in recent years in China. Chinese scholars have made efforts to study multicultural education, such as the comparison of

multicultural education between China and the western countries (Long, 2006; Zhang, 2013); curriculum model, curriculum construction and curriculum reform (Zheng, 2004; Ma, 2007; Wang & Li, 2009; Peng, 2010); teacher education and the teaching methods (Dai, 2010; Gao, 2013), etc. However, most of these papers belong to theoretical researches, although there are some empirical studies, action researches and even less reports on teacher education, research methods and cultural practices of multicultural education (Fig.2). And most of the research is superficial, with lower level compared with the western countries'. So actually, China just starts to formally and largely study its multicultural education topics in the whole education systems.

Since curriculum is the most important way of the multicultural education implementation, curriculum design the multicultural education is increasingly becoming the focus of attention in the academic circle in China. Taking as an evaluation basis the basic law in curriculum designing students' development should be the central task and the relationships between society, students, and knowledge should be kept in balance. The development of social modernization has greatly accelerated the process in China. At present, curriculum content in many of China's minority areas deviates from students' actual life and affects directly the nation's educational development.

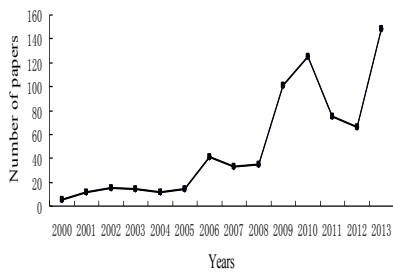


Fig.1 Numbers of published papers on multicultural education in China since 2000

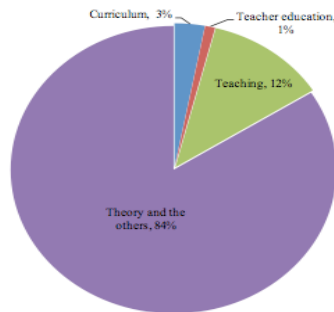


Fig.2 Proportion of the research topics of multicultural education in China since 1990

Thus, the study on curriculum content of minority areas under multicultural background becomes a current issue urgently to be probed. Based on the standpoints of both cultural eco-environment theory and multicultural education theory, an investigation on Tibetan traditional culture and primary school's curriculum problem in Danba County was carried out with the methods of literature review, in-depth interview, fieldwork, etc. (Ge, 2007). While the cultural imbalance of minority area's showed the lack of cultural adaptability in curriculum in some Mongolian-teaching junior middle schools in Tong Liao with the respects to curriculum aim, curriculum content, curriculum structure and teacher's quality (Chang, 2007). In addition, to develop ethnic culture, understanding multicultural is not only the important concept of new curriculum standard, but also an educational concept in the multicultural music education. The music course criterion for all-day compulsory education in China advocates through music teaching, makes student have aesthetic ability and music literacy to some extent, and enjoys music, understands music, appreciates music, manifests music, accepts and create music, and then molds student's temperament, personality perfect, and becomes a person with all-round development and physical and mental harmony.

It's been a century since Chinese local teaching materials appeared; it plays an important role in school education. The new promulgated basic education reform with the "three grade course" development and management regulations provide new opportunities for the local school's multicultural curriculum development; also provide a broad space and policy support for the development of local teaching materials. As the rich cultural city of Harbin in the north, has the obligation to play a role model in education reform (Gai, 2012). So a new reform in curriculum of elementary education has set a pattern of developing and managing curriculum at three levels, which has provided a wide space and system safeguard for multicultural education in ethnic minority regions.

Although some achievements have been made in multicultural education in China, more work needs to be completed to solve some problems in multicultural education and thus to fit for the requirement of education development.

PROBLEMS IN MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION OF PRIMARY AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN CHINA

Vacant construction of relevant laws and regulations of multicultural education

The construction of relevant laws and regulations of multicultural education are not complete and perfect in China. Though since 1950s, China's ethnic education laws and regulations construction have been partly established, but on the whole, the ethnic education laws and regulations construction are lagging behind the development of education itself, ethnic education legislation cannot satisfy the needs of the development of ethnic education, and this contradiction increasingly prominent. There have been no systemic and special ethnic education laws and regulations for multicultural education. Both central and local governments concentrated more to the right to education, especially for the minority ethnic groups into the mainstream society of the protection of the right to education, and ignored the ethnic education role in the inheritance and development of minority culture. This is the significant deficiencies in China's ethnic education legislation contents, and also the bias in the ethnic education legislation guiding ideology.

Slow development and implementation of multicultural curriculum

The development and implementation of multicultural curriculum resources in China started late, with a poor foundation and slow development. The promotion of local culture is short of vitality; the heritage of multicultural is sustained in superficial level and in a stagnation stage. Since the idea of guiding the ethnic education development in China is to cultivate talents of all types and at all levels in ethnic regions, the ethnic education from form to content copied main ethnic (Han) model. It is main ethnic dominating minority ethnic education. On the curriculum establishment, the inheritance of traditional culture was ignored. Ethnic education not formed their own characteristics, neglected the humanities education, and lacked local characteristics. For instance, there is lack of access to learn the Tibetan culture in the curriculum of social culture, the current text book in primary schools is not in accord with their cognitive experience, and the present curriculum content cannot arouses students' interest. As we know that the local curriculum should be multiple and authentic with multicultural education ideas. Inner Mongolia is a minority autonomous region, however, for a long period of time, the school curriculum has made more point of developing Han Chinese students' integration of knowledge. It has been neglected that Mongolian and other ethnic groups reflect the diversity of cultural and geographical characteristics of the knowledge system. The cultural adaptability in four Mongolian-teaching junior middle

schools in Tong Liao was lack in cultural adaptability in curriculum goal, curriculum model, curriculum development system and teacher's quality (Qi, 2006). So the ethnic education curriculum should be reset to implement multicultural education. However, the curriculum reform is facing two problems in China: one is the problem in curriculum resources development; the second is the course of the implementation of the problem, i.e. how to implement from theory to practice after the curriculum development and reform.

Backward teaching methods in multicultural education

There are few investigations on teaching methods of multicultural education in China. And the ordinary teaching and practice in multicultural education are traditional one, i.e. duck-stuffing teaching that is "banking education", in which students learn to regurgitate and passively accept the knowledge they are given. No critical education, so students and teachers view what they learn in a passive way, to regurgitate and passively accept the knowledge they are given. So the education efficiency is very low.

Less fund and few qualified teachers in multicultural education

The multicultural education is under shortage of fund and qualified teachers in China. Although great efforts have been made, various problems in multicultural education is still exists in primary and middle schools. For example, the shortage of fund is one of the main problems in fulfilling multicultural education due to the poor financial situation, especially in developing area. The teachers' sense of multicultural education outlook and teaching experience are weak, the teachers' personal quality is varying from each other, and lack of solid theoretical foundation. So the qualified teacher resources are very limited in China.

Inappropriate and old research methods in multicultural education

Literature review methods, questionnaire methods, interviewing methods, classroom observation, etc. are employed in investigating multicultural education in China. However, most of these research methods employed are simple and not novel. Chinese researchers ignored some differences in each focus point. In the research methods field, there is some same realization that qualitative research methods are the main methods in the research of multicultural education. This can prove the idea is not appropriate that the use of qualitative research methods in the study is not scientific enough. In the analysis of the reference, it is common to note the studies which are lack of academic rules and accumulation.

POSSIBLE PATHWAYS TO IMPROVE MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION IN CHINA

As we know that the aim of multicultural education is to pursue equality, difference and cooperation, to create a school environment with different cultures, to integrate different cultures into school lessons, to teach through multiple ways and by multiple means, cooperate with community and to evaluate students in real environment are necessary. While the following five countermeasures should be put into practice:

To speed up the pace of legislations of multicultural education

China should speed up the pace of ethnic education legislation to fit for the urgent requirement of administering education according to law, and further of reforming and developing ethnic education. China should draw lessons from the experience of western countries to promote multicultural education developments by means of the law. The government should pay more attention to the perfection of the policy of local laws and regulations, and improvement of the mechanism of evaluation and improvement.

To reform school to improve multicultural education

Due to multicultural education being a close relation to school innovation, the school reform should perform with a multicultural perspective, including how a school's policies and practices implicitly illustrate beliefs about who deserves the benefits of a high-quality education. So an antiracist and anti bias perspective is essential in schools. Schools should pay attention to all areas in which some students might be favored over others, including the curriculum and pedagogy, sorting policies, and teachers' interactions and relationships with students and their communities. Schools also need to examine how the curriculum may perpetuate negative, distorted, or incomplete images of some groups while exalting others as the makers of all history.

School reform should reflect an understanding and acceptance of all students as having talents and strengths that can enhance their education. A perspective that affirms the talents and experiences of students and their families can expand the people and roles included in the curriculum. School reform measures based on the assumption that children of all families bring cultural and community strengths to their education would go a long way toward providing more powerful learning environments for a higher number of youngsters. Besides, school reform should be considered within the parameters of critical pedagogy. A critical education expects that students will seek their own answers, be curious, and be questioning. Using critical pedagogy as a basis for school reform renders very different policies for school than do traditional models of school reform. Even more important than just increasing curricular options, critical pedagogy helps to expand teachers' and schools' perspectives about students' knowledge and intellectual capabilities.

To enhance teachers' preparation program to fit for multicultural education

In response to the diversified development of future society, it requires that the teacher not only has a solid professional accomplishment in multicultural education background, but also has the idea of multiculturalism and quality, with respecting different cultures and meeting the demand of the education of different ethnic and social class. In order to better achieve this goal, the reform of teacher education curriculum is one of the important ways. For example, ethnic history and culture, cultural anthropology can be added in the general course to deepen the teacher's understanding of the relationship between different culture and people, and between different culture and education development. In addition, local ethnic arts, regional geography, history, and local inspection courses can be set up to study the local history development, geographical environment, way of living, community groups, and cultural forms to enhance teachers' knowledge about multicultural and the corresponding local culture knowledge, to form the identification of the local social multicultural, acceptance and the sense of belonging, to develop the teacher's multicultural attitude, and to promote the understanding of the multicultural education. In the major of education courses, the multicultural education or the ethnic culture, local culture, community culture and education, etc, should be also added to train teachers' abilities of observing, collecting, and recording local culture, ethnic culture and turning it into curriculum teaching. Add the corresponding education research methods course; improve the future teachers' ability of observing and understanding the student class culture, the relationship between teachers and students, the class atmosphere, and dealing with cultural differences.

To create and apply innovation curriculum to multicultural education

It is very important that the government attaches great importance to multicultural curriculum development and implementation. So firstly, the governments should invest a lot of money; fully rely on the intelligence of intellectuals in the areas of ethnic, cultural figures and front-line teachers to develop the multicultural curriculum with region characteristics. Then, in the implementation stage after curriculum developed, the government will take effective measures to ensure that the course can be implemented.

The curriculum reform should not only be based on the ethnic main-body culture; but also be paid attention to the minority area's culture and its ethnic culture. So we should develop curriculum that adapts to the minority students and make them enjoy equal development opportunity. The selection of curriculum content ought to be close to life and adaptive to the characteristics of students and schooling. The primary curriculum content in China's primary and middle schools should be built with the base of curriculum resources, promoting the development of the school-based curriculum, and improving the art curriculum.

The future textbook should breaks the tradition that arranges the contents as subject-centered, and regards social concern as the center to organize the contents. When new primary curriculum(such as mathematics) established with the view to multicultural education, the four principles should be adopted: ① model principle ② the principle of situational, ③ the principle of acceptability, and ④ readable addition principle, and three elastic and flexible design ways: ① elements-additive, ② system-integrated, and ③ topic-expanding type(Sun, 2012). In addition, the following four curricula may be constructed to promote multicultural education:

(1) **Discipline curriculum** i.e. branched or subject course, is a kind of discipline centered to weave. Discipline curriculum has the advantage of helping systemically imparting human culture knowledge, and helping students form the systemic cultural knowledge. It will help students systemically understand and know their native cultural knowledge, objectively regard the national culture and other differences in national culture, through the discipline curriculum implementing multicultural education, and then to form the concept of multicultural education. For example, as to the language discipline, the school can combine the school

curriculum knowledge with the ethnic language, ethnic culture, folk religion, folk literature, ethnic history, and so on, helping cultivate students' national self-confidence.

(2) **Activity curriculum**, which is also called experience course or children's center courses, is based on students as the main body of the course. Through the activity curriculum, school let the students experience the existence of multicultural, build their own culture, and cultivate the students' creativity in the practical activities. Physical education and art course provided by the school, for example, let students to understand the ethnic long-term development of national sports by physical education, like horseback riding, archery and other activities. On art, through understanding of ethnic music, art, dance and sculpture art activities let the student experience and really feel the existence of multicultural, then improve the students' aesthetic ability and cultural accomplishment.

(3) **Integrated curriculum** is composed of two or more subject curriculum; its types mainly include the subject standard, social standard course and children standard courses. Integrated curriculum is formed under the multicultural development. Through the integrated curriculum study, student multiple intelligences and comprehensive quality should be much improved.

(4) **Optional course** is set based on the characteristics of different students and interests, in order to adapt to the students' individual differences. Therefore, implementing multicultural education concept in optional courses is very necessary. In the setting of optional courses, the school can provide ethnic folk dance, folk history, folk music, folk art, ethnic language and text, according to the different ethnic students, let the students free take the course according to their own needs. For instance, the student of Han nationality or other nationalities can also take Tibetan dance and music. Optional courses are helpful to cultivate students to adapt to the region or ethnic regions, and to promote the development of bilingual teaching.

To develop new teaching and researching methods and assessment systems for multicultural education

Firstly, the teaching methods should be shifted from "discipline-centered" to "capacity-centered" to guide teaching. To use critical pedagogy to help students become agents of their own learning so they can use what they learn in productive and critical ways. The knowledge they learn can be used to explore the reasons for certain conditions in their lives and to design strategies for changing them. Secondly, to strengthen digital and internet techniques in modern multicultural education. While digital technique gradually increases the speed of global cultural homogenization, modern distance education on the basis of digital technique is endowed with the most effective function of carrying out multicultural education in contemporary society. Because of its different history idiom and space time shackle on carrying out multicultural education, traditional education is always unable to construct the deep curriculum exhibition model on the different national culture. But the various dynamic digital text can invent quasi-real condition multidimensional educational environment which traditional education can't support on the aspects of multicultural education, such as equality of educational opportunity, national identity and cultural understanding, making distance learners to be with critical media literacy on the attitude and emotion in the field of their core value.

In addition, novel research methods, such as more completed mathematical models of multicultural education in elementary and middle schools may be established, and tested with some practical education measures in a long and exhaustive experiments.

CONCLUSION

The multicultural education has been closely linked to the societal development of humankind after experiencing a long process of evolution, and it shows its significance of existing extensively. Multicultural education serves a significant function undoubtedly in keeping peace of the world and stabilization of countries, spreading and creating various cultures, dealing with ethnic problems and promoting the education of states. Although China has made some progress in both multicultural education and its researches, there are many problems, such as lack of multicultural education laws and regulations, weak curriculum construction, little fund provided, and fewer qualified teachers in elementary and middle schools. So more countermeasures should be investigated and completed. The present authors propose firstly the multicultural education theory should be strengthened. From the methodology aspects, we point out that the ultimate goal of education is for everyone's happy life. From the practice aspects, we give schools two suggests: building multicultural education environment, schools should construct campus culture that has the minority characteristics, and also can implant multicultural into courses to achieve this goal; cultivating students a better sense of what their own national mean, school should construct the mutual recognition mechanism between nations and foster the students' intercultural communication ability.

It is necessary to perfect policies, regulations and institutional building make full use of various resources, strengthen the construction of teachers, building the modern of training system, strengthening evaluation and improvement mechanism in multicultural education. Especially, in China, the ethnic groups' education is an important part of the multicultural education and the development of the ethnic groups' education will go further in future; it is reasonable for us to study by the word "multicultural education" instead of "ethnic groups' education". On the other hands, promote the cooperation of family, school, and community, common to create a good learning atmosphere. To strengthen the government responsibility, the compulsory education in ethnic minority areas, taking as the biggest project for poverty alleviation. As a means to achieve this common goal, the multicultural education is gaining an increasing global attention, improving the understanding between different cultures and educating people to be citizens empowered with democratic awareness. Thus, it is expected that special and effective models in multicultural education should be established in China in the future.

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İlköğretim Dersinde Yayımlanan Öğretmenlik Mesleği ile İlgili Makalelerin Değerlendirilmesi

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Özet

Bu araştırmanın amacı, 1939 ve 1966 yılları arasında yayın faaliyetini sürdüren İlköğretim Dergisi'nde yayımlanan öğretmenlik mesleği ile ilgili makalelerin genel bir değerlendirmesini yapmaktır. Bu çerçevede dergide yayımlanmış makaleler incelenmiş, konuyla ilgili makaleler belirlendikten sonra amaca uygun olanlar içerik analizi yöntemiyle analiz edilmiştir. Araştırma sonunda dergide 1939 ve 1966 yılları arasında öğretmen yetiştirme ve öğretmenlik mesleğinin sorunlarına yer verildiği görülmüştür.

Anahtar kelimeler: Süreli yayın, öğretmen eğitimi tarihi, öğretmenlik mesleği, ilköğretim dergisi

GİRİŞ

Eğitim tarihinin en önemli amaçlarından birisi de geçmişten dersler çıkarmak ve gelecekte benzer hatalar yapılmayarak sorunlara kalıcı çözümler üretmektir. Eğitim tarihi bu amaçlara ulaşmak için farklı araçlar kullanır. Bu araçlardan bir tanesi de dergilerdir.

Dergiler içinde yaşanan zamanı canlı olarak aktaran araçlar olması bakımından önemlidir. Dergilerin yayın hayatına devam ettiği yıllarda ele aldığı sorunlar ve bu sorunlara karşı geliştirilen çözüm önerileri günümüz açısından önemlidir. Eğitim tarihinin en önemli araçlarından olan bu dergilerden birisi de İlköğretim Dergisi'dir.

İlköğretim Dergisi 1939 ve 1966 yılları arasında yaklaşık 27 yıl yayın faaliyetlerine devam etmiştir. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından çıkarılan dergide dönemin çok farklı eğitim sorunları yanında ele alınan bir diğer sorun da öğretmenlik mesleği ile ilgilidir. Derginin yayın hayatına devam ettiği yıllar öğretmenliğin Türkiye'de meslek haline gelmesinde önemli yıllardır. Derginin yayımlandığı yıllar öğretmen okulları, eğitim enstitüleri, köy enstitüleri, yükseköğretmen okulları açısından önemli yıllardır.

Bu çalışmada İlköğretim Dergisi'nde yayımlanan öğretmenlik mesleği ile ilgili makaleler değerlendirilmiştir. Konuya uygun makaleler içerik özelliklerine göre iki başlık altında incelenmiştir. Bunlar; öğretmenlerin hizmet öncesi ve hizmetinde yetiştirilmesi, öğretmenlik mesleğinin özellikleri ve nitelikleri ile ilgilidir.

HİZMET ÖNCESİ VE HİZMETİÇİ ÖĞRETMEN YETİŞTİRMESİ İLE İLGİLİ MAKALELER

Dergide hizmet öncesi ve hizmet içi öğretmen yetiştirilmesi ile ilgili yer verilen makalelerde genel olarak Türk öğretmen yetiştirme tarihinde önemli yerleri olan eğitim enstitüleri, köy enstitüleri ve öğretmen okullarının tarihsel gelişimleri yanında oynadıkları roller hakkında da bilgiler verilmiştir. Bunun yanında dergide öğretmenin iş başında yetiştirilmesi ile ilgili konulara yer verildiği görülmektedir.

Cumhuriyet döneminde ilköğretim alanında yaşanan problemlerin en önemlilerinden birisi de yeterli sayıda öğretmenin bulunmamasıdır. 1964 yılında dergide yer alan bir yazıda ilkokullarda görev yapan öğretmenlerin 3391'inin vekil, 2605'inin eğitimci, 8810'unun eğitimci ve 62.083'ünün asil öğretmen olarak çalıştıkları ifade edilmektedir. Öğretmenlerin %1'inin türlü sebeplerle hizmetten ayrılacağı ve her yıl yeni okul yapılacak olmasından dolayı Öğretmen Okulları Genel Müdürlüğü planlarına göre 1972 yılına kadar 50.000 öğretmen yetiştirilmesi gerektiği (İlköğretim Dergisi, 1964).

1957-1958 eğitim-öğretim yılının başlaması münasebetiyle Maarif Vekili Tevfik İleri'nin radyoda yapmış olduğu konuşmalar dergide de yayımlanmıştır. Bakan konuşmasının bir bölümünü öğretmenlere ayırmıştır. Öğretmenlik mesleği ile ilgili alınacak en önemli tedbirin iyi öğretmen yetiştirme olduğunu ifade eden Tevfik İleri, bir yandan ilkokullara öğretmen yetiştirmek için farklı illerde yeni öğretmen okulları açarken bir yandan da artan ortaokul ve lise öğretmeni yetiştirmek için yeni arayışlar içinde olduklarını ifade etmiştir. Ortaokul

öğretmeni yetiştirmek için eğitim enstitülerinin sayılarını arttırarak artan ortaokul öğretmeni ihtiyacını karşılama, lise öğretmeni ihtiyacını karşılamak için de Ankara ve İstanbul'da üniversite dışında, üniversitede görev yapan öğretim üyelerinden de yararlanarak Yüksek Öğretmen Okullarının açılması bu arayışlar içinde düşünülmüştür. Bakan Tefik İleri, bu konuşmasında Yüksek Öğretmen Okullarına öğretmenlik mesleğini seçmiş lise mezunları ile geniş ölçüde yapılacak bir seçme sınavı ile İlköğretmen Okulları mezunlarının da bu alınacağını belirtmiştir. Yine farklı genel müdürlüklere bağlı olarak öğretmen yetiştirme yerine öğretmen yetiştirme işinin tek bir genel müdürlüğüne bağlanması ve böylece öğretmenlerin derecelerine göre aynı meslek esaslarına göre yetiştirilmeleri meselesi bu konuşmada ele alınan konulardan birisi olmuştur (İlköğretim Dergisi, 1957).

Yeterli sayıda öğretmen yetiştirememe sorunu yanında öğretmenlerin hangi kaynaktan yetiştirileceği yönünde de sorunlar bulunmaktadır. Güzdüzalp (1952c), günümüzde de çok fazla tartışılan, fen-edebiyat fakültesi mezunlarının öğretmen olma durumlarını tartışmaktadır. Ona göre fen-edebiyat mezunlarının eğitim enstitülerindeki fen, edebiyat ve yabancı diller bölümlerinin lağvedilerek ortaokul öğretmenliğinin kendilerine verilmelerini istemeleri haksız bir istektir. Çünkü Gündüzalp, fen –edebiyat fakültelerinin kuruluş amaçlarının öğretmen yetiştirmekten ziyade herhangi bir bilim alanında derinlemesine araştırma yapacak elemanlar yetiştirmek olması, ortaokullarda öğretmenlerin “Türkçe, tarih, coğrafya ve yurttaşlık bilgisi” yahut “matematik, fizik, kimya, tabiat bilgisi hatta ilave olarak tarım ve ticaret derslerinin” tamamını yüklenebilmelerine rağmen fen-edebiyat mezunlarının bu branş derslerinin tamamını okutmada yetersiz kalmaları, öğretmenliğin kendine özgü bazı özellikleri olan bir meslek olması ve eğitim enstitüsü mezunlarının ülkenin en ücra yerlerinde çalışmaya razı olurken fen-edebiyat mezunlarının çoğunluğunun buna razı olmayacağı gibi nedenlerle bu isteklerine karşı çıkmaktadır.

Dergide Türkiye’de öğretmen okullarının gelişimini tanzimattan itibaren inceleyen araştırmalar bulunmaktadır (Ayas, 1951; Doran, 1960; Güvenç, 1958; İnan, 1948; İnan, 1948; Kazmaz, 1958; Koryak, 1948; Köroğlu, 1946; Okuturlar, 1958; Öymen, 1948; Tuncor, 1958; Ülkümen, 1948; Üsterci, 1956). Bu okulların gelişimini tarihsel olarak anlatan makalelerde ayrıca 1946’dan sonra demokratik gelişmelerin ilköğretim hayatında da önemli etkiler yarattığı, daha önce köylüler tarafından yapılan okulların yapımının vilayet ve devlet bütçesine alındığı, öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlar arasında da birlik sağlandığı ve ilkokul öğretmenleri için intibak kanununun çıkarıldığı, Cumhuriyetle beraber öğretmen olmak isteyen kızların sayılarında önemli artışlar yaşandığı gibi bilgilere de yer verilmiştir.

Öğretmen okullarının programları günün ihtiyaçlarına göre zaman zaman değişikliğe uğramıştır. Alpan (1952), öğretmen okullarının 1952-1953 eğitim öğretim yılı başında yenilenen taslak programını değerlendirmiştir. Taslak programın eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerinin aktif bir metotla işlenmesi, işin bir amaç değil araç olarak görülmesi, bütün faaliyetlerde öğrenci ilgi, ihtiyaç ve kabiliyetlerinin dikkate alınması, son sınıflara uygulama derslerinin konulması ve bu amaca ulaşabilmek için uygulama ilkokulunun bu kuruma bağlanması gibi yenilikler getirdiğini ifade eden Alpan, derslerle ve özellikle programa yeni giren derslerle ilgili ders ve yardımcı ders kitaplarının yazılması, psikolojik teknik araçlarının bulundurulması, öğretmenlerin yeni programlara göre yetiştirilmeleri gibi eksikliklere de değinmiştir.

Ayesbeyoğlu (1956), öğretmenliği meslek haline getiren asıl nedenin “metot” olduğunu anlattığı makalesinde yeni nesillere verilecek eğitimin temellerinin ilkokul öğretmenleri tarafından atıldığını vurgulamaktadır. Ona göre bu öğretmenlere yetiştirilmeleri sürecinde geniş bir felsefi kültür verilirse eğitim öğretim metotlarında daha başarılı olacaklarını ifade etmektedir. Bu nedenle ilköğretmen okullarının programlarında felsefeye özel bir önem verilmelidir.

Tonguç (1948), öğretmen okullarının toplum içinde önemli görevler yüklendiğini ifade etmektedir. Ona göre iş eğitiminin gelişmesine çok yardımcı dokunan kurumlar arasında öğretmen okullarının ayrı bir yeri vardır. Modern anlamda iş eğitiminin gelişmesi, halk arasında yayılması her şeyden önce ilkokul öğretmenlerinin iş ilkesine dayalı eğitim ve öğretim metotlarını benimsemelerine bağlıdır. Ona göre öğretmen okulları bu fikre kaynaklık yapmıştır. İş eğitimi fikri burada beslenmiş ve buradan etrafa dağılmıştır. Avrupa ve Türkiye’de bulunan öğretmen okullarında iş eğitimi çalışmalarını değerlendiren Tonguç, öğretmen okullarını batı kültürünün yarattığı bilimsel esaslara dayanarak işletme meselesinde geç kalmamış olsaydı Türkiye’de mecburi eğitim davası (7-16 yaş) kökten halledilmiş, modern pedagojinin ilkelerinin ilk ve orta dereceli okulların tamamını sarmış olacaktı.

Türkiye’de öğretmen yetiştirme tarihinde eğitim enstitülerinin ayrı bir yeri vardır. İlk kez 1946 yılında artan öğretmen ihtiyacını karşılamak amacıyla kurulan eğitim enstitülerinin sayısı ilerleyen dönemde 17’ye kadar ulaşmış ve ülkenin ortaokul öğretmen ihtiyacını karşılamıştır. Dergide eğitim enstitülerinin kurulmasının sadece ortaöğretim kademesinde değil aynı zamanda ilkokul öğretmenleri üzerinde de önemli yararlar sağlayacağı vurgulanmıştır. Eğitim enstitülerinin ilkokul öğretmenlerine sağlanacak yararlar şöyle ifade edilmiştir (Kurtça, 1947):

- İlkokul ve ortaokul öğretmenleri birbirlerini zayıf öğrenciler nedeniyle birbirlerini suçlamak yerine iyi ilişkiler geliştireceklerdir.
- Eğitim enstitüsünden yeni mezun olmuş birisi ilkokul ve ortaokul öğretmeni olabildiği gibi başarılı ilkokul öğretmenlerinin de ortaokul öğretmeni olabilmelerinin yolu açılmıştır.
- İlkokul öğretmenlerine ortaokul öğretmeni olabilmeye şansının verilmesi çevrede ilkokul öğretmenlerini küçümsemek gibi bir durumu ortadan kaldıracaktır.
- Eğitim enstitüleri özel yetenek gerektiren; müzik, resim, beden eğitimi yabancı dil gibi branşlara da öğretmen yetiştirmektedir. Bu öğretmenler ilkokul ve ortaokulun birleştiği yerlerde sınıf öğretmenlerinin girmekte zorlandığı bu derslerde görev alacaklardır. Böylelikle ilkokul öğretmenleri, vermekte zorlandıkları bu ders yüklerinden kurtulacaklardır.
- Eğitim enstitüsünden yeni mezun olan öğretmenler ile ortaokul öğretmenliği yapmaya hak kazanan ilkokul öğretmenleri, birinci sınıftan son sınıf olan 8. sınıfa kadar öğrencilerini daha iyi tanıma imkânına sahip olacaklardır. Böylelikle öğretmen e öğrencilerinin ilgi ve yeteneklerini daha yakından tanıma şansı bulacaktır.

Öğretmenlerin yüksek tahsil yapabilmeye imkânlarından yoksun olduğu ifade edilen dergide bu konuda tek açık kapının Eğitim Enstitüleri olduğu belirtilmektedir. Eğitim Enstitülerinin her yıl ortalama 350-370 öğrenci aldığı ve bunlardan dörtte birinin lise mezunu olduğu ifade edilen dergide bunun da ancak 33 bin ilkokul öğretmenin binde 8'inin yükseköğrenim görebilmeye şansı yakaladığı anlamına geldiği ifade edilmektedir. Dergiye göre ilkokul öğretmenlerinin yükseköğrenim görmeleri sağlansa bile mali, ailevi, yaşlılık ve bekâr olup olmama gibi nedenlerle öğrenime devam edememe gibi sorunlar da bulunmaktadır. Bu nedenle öğretmenlerin iş başında bu eğitimleri almaları sağlanmalıdır (Gündüzalp, 1952b; Türkyılmaz, 1955; Yıldırım, 1952). Dergide öğretmenlerin tıpkı doktor, avukat ve mimarlar gibi sürekli okumak, mesleklerindeki gelişmeleri takip etmek ve yeni kurslara katılmaları gerektiği belirtilmektedir. Öğretmenlerin mesleğe girdikten sonra yeni şart ve durumlara kendilerini uydurabilmeleri, bilgilerini arttırmaları ve öğretme becerilerini geliştirebilmeleri amacıyla düzenlenen faaliyetlere iş başında yetiştirme denilmektedir (Anderson, 1963; Arifoğlu, 1963; Aygün, 1964).

Dergide öğretmeni iş başında yetiştirme yöntemleri ve programları hakkında bilgilere de yer verilmiştir. Karagöz (1955), Amerika'da öğretmen eğitiminin hizmet öncesi ve hizmet içi olmak üzere iki şekilde gerçekleştirildiğini, bu iki eğitim işinin de üniversitelere bağlı kolejler tarafından gerçekleştirildiğini belirtmektedir. Songür (1957) ise Türkiye'de iş başında eğitimin farklı araçları olduğunu, bunların en önemlilerinden birisinin de öğretmenlerin meslek toplantıları olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Holmund (1963) dergide, Türkiye'de öğretmeni iş başında yetiştirme programlarının nasıl geliştirilebileceği ile bazı önerilere yer vermiştir. Bakanlık tarafından düzenlenecek olan kurs ve yaz etkinliklerine katılanlara kredi ya da akademik bir derece verme, kursları başarılı bir şekilde tamamlayan öğretmenlerin maaşlarında iyileştirmeler yapma, sadece yazın değil aynı zamanda akşamları da kurslar düzenleme, mahalli seviyede çok sayıda faaliyete girişme, mahalli okul idarecilerinin eğitim programlarının oluşturulma sürecine dahil edilmesi, öğretmenin ders programlarında bu kurslar için boş zamanlar bırakmak, büyükşehirlerdeki üniversite ve bazı enstitü uzmanlarından bu kurslarda yararlanmak bu kurumun başarılı olması ve geliştirilmesi için getirilen önerilerdendir.

Türkiye'de öğretmen yetiştirme tarihi içinde önemli kurumlardan biri tanesi de köy enstitüleridir. Köy enstitülerinin öğretmen yetiştirme tarihimizde önemli görevler yerine getirdiğine dair dergide çok sayıda makale bulunmaktadır (Aydın, 1939; Gündüzalp, 1949; Koca, 1949; Öymen, 1940a; Öymen, 1942; Öztürk, 1949; Tonguç, 1942; Uyanık, 1942). Karagöz (1950), köy enstitülerinin 10 yıl gibi kısa bir zaman içinde önemli hizmetler verdiğini dile getirmektedir. 10 yıl içinde köy enstitülerinden 15 bine yakın öğretmen ve sağlıkçı yetiştirilmiştir. Ona göre köy enstitülerinin kısa zamanda bu kadar ürün vermesinin nedenini tarihimizde aramak gerekmektedir. Cumhuriyetin kuruluşu ile beraber nüfusun büyük kısmının köylerde yaşaması ve halkın ancak %10'unun okuma-yazma bilmesi köy enstitülerini kısa zamanda daha fazla enerji harcayarak ürün vermeye zorlamıştır.

Koç (1961), iktidarların değişmesiyle etkilenmeyecek bir eğitim sistemi için 200 dolayında eğitimcinin eğitimin farklı dallarında neler yapılması gerektiği konusunda ilkeler geliştirdiğini belirtmektedir. Kendisinin de katılmış olduğu "Öğretmen Yetiştirme" komitesinde de bazı ilkeler geliştirildiğini ifade etmektedir. Bu ilkeler şunlardır:

- Hangi alan ve hangi seviyede olursa olsun öğretmenlik görevini yapacak kişilerin mutlaka öncelikle genel bir eğitimden, temel kültür ve bilgi veren lise seviyesinde bir eğitimden geçmesi gerekir.
- Genel kültürden sonra adaylara çalışacakları okulların yapısına uygun bir branş kültürü verilmelidir. Branş kültürü; ilkokul öğretmenleri için ilkokul dersleri ile birlikte ekonomik ve sosyal hayatımızda gerekli değişmeyi yapmaya yarayan tarım, sanat, sağlık gibi yardımcı branşlardır. Ortaokul öğretmenleri biraz daha derinlemesine bilgiye ihtiyaç duydukları için üniversite bilgilerin köklerini alarak yetiştirilmelidir. Branş

bilgisinden sonra, bütün öğretmen adaylarına öğretmenlik bilgisi ile ilgili teorik bilgiler ve uygulamalar yaptırılmalıdır.

ÖĞRETMENLİK MESLEĞİNİN NİTELİK VE ÖZELLİKLERİ İLE İLGİLİ MAKALELER

Dergide bu başlıkla ilgili olarak; öğretmenlik mesleğinin özellikleri, öğretmenlerin taşınması gereken nitelikler, öğretmenlerin karşılaşmış oldukları sorunlar, öğretmen-veli ilişkileri ve öğretmenlerde meslek heyecanının diri tutulması için yapılması gerekenler gibi konularda bilgiler verilmiştir.

Dergide öğretmenlik mesleğinin kendine özgü bazı nitelikleri olduğundan söz edilmektedir. Zor bir meslek olmasına rağmen manevi açıdan öğretmenleri diri tutması, her gün yeni bilgi ve görgü öğrenmeyi gerektirmesi, çevreye karşı iyi bir örnek olmanın gerekliliği bu özelliklerden bazılarıdır. Bunun yanında dergiye göre öğretmek demek, öğretilen üzerinde kontrol ve otorite sahibi olmak demektir. Fakat gerçek bir öğretmenin öğrencileri üzerindeki otoritesi sert ve kaba bir otorite olmaktan ziyade tatlı ve manevi bir tesir alma biçimindedir. Dergide öğretmenin bu tesir ve nüfuzunu iki biçimde kullandığını belirtmektedir. Bunlardan birincisi; eşya ve olayları ve onlara ait bilgileri mükemmel bir şekilde tanımak, diğeri bu eşya ve olayları ve onlarla ilgili bilgileri öğrencilere tam, kolay, çabuk ve istekle benimsetmek konusunda gösterilen istidat ve kabiliyettir (Aytuna, 1949; Baymur, 1942).

Öğretmenlik mesleğinin diğer mesleklere göre sağladığı bazı yararları da yer verilmektedir. Öğretmenlerin; toplum içinde saygı görmesi, çocuklar için sadece öğretmen değil anne, baba kısacası her şey olmaları, yetiştirdikleri öğrencilerin gelecekte önemli toplumsal görevlere gelmesi, toplumsal birçok sorunun çözümünde önemli anahtar rol durumunda olması, öğrencilerin gelişimlerini yakından görmesi, ders verirken izlenecek metot bakımından özgür olması, derse hazırlanırken ve ders verirken aynı zamanda kendisinin de gelişmesi, oldukça uzun bir tatili olduğu için istediği birçok işi yapabilmesi bu avantajlardan bazılarıdır (Dinçer, 1947).

Dergide özel yetenek gerektiren derslerin ilkökul öğretmenlerince uygulanması önemli problemlerden birisi olarak görülmüştür. Bu derslerden birisi de müzik dersidir. Müzik derslerinin diğer derslerden daha zayıf yürümesinin özellikle iki nedeni üzerinde durulmuştur. Bunlardan birincisi öğretmenlerin müzik bakımından yetersizliği, ikincisi ise okullarda çocuklara yönelik eser azlığıdır (Koray, 1947). Bu nedenle müzik öğretmeni yetiştirme meselesi Cumhuriyetin kuruluşundan itibaren ele alınan konulardan birisi olmuştur. Cumhuriyet dönemi müzik öğretmeni yetiştirme sürecinin Cebeci'de 1 Kasım 1924 yılında açılan Musiki Muallim Mektebi ile başladığı ifade edilen dergide bu okulun 15 yıl faaliyette kaldığı, belirtilmekte, 1 Eylül 1939 tarihinden sonra okulun sadece bir müzik bölümü olarak Gazi eğitim enstitüsü bünyesinde görevine devam ettiği ifade edilmektedir. Bunun yanında nitelikli müzik öğretmeni yetiştirmek için önerilere de yer verilmiştir. Okulu 6 yıllık bir okul haline getirerek öğrencilerini ortaokuldan alınması ve Devlet Konservatuarına birer pedagoji bölümü ekleyerek buralardan öğretmen yetiştirmek bu öneriler arasında yer almıştır (Tangör, 1962).

Okul-aile birliklerinin kurulması ilk kez 1947 yılında 415 sayılı Tebliğler Dergisi'nde yer almış ve bu kurumların bir an önce kurulması istenmiştir. Fakat Vural (1947), okul-aile birliklerinin sadece bir birlik olarak oluşturulmasının bir anlam taşımayacağını, bu kuruluşun başarılı olması, kendisinden beklenen katkıyı yapabilmesi için öğretmenlerin sorumluluk alması gerektiğini belirtmektedir. Fakat Göker (1962) okul-aile birliklerinin kuruluş amacından uzaklaştığını, okul müdürlerinin bu kurumu parama toplama amacıyla kullanmaya başladığını ifade etmektedir. Fakat Ayas (1950) her şeye rağmen öğretmen ve öğrenci velisinin çocukların istenmeyen davranışlarıyla ilgili ortak hareket etmelerinin gerekliliğine vurgu yapmaktadır.

Dergide kalabalık sınıfların dezavantajları yanında önemli yararlar sağladıkları belirtilmektedir. Çünkü sınıfın kalabalık olmasının olumlu sonuçlar verdiğini iddia eden araştırmacılar da bulunmaktadır. Bunlara göre sınıfın kalabalık olması sınıf ruhunun yapıcı ve düzenleyici havasını oluşturmada önemli etki yapmaktadır. Dergide, 50-60 kişilik sınıflarda görev yapan öğretmenlerin yakınmak yerine kalabalık psikolojisinin yapıcı, yaratıcı ve dayanışmacı atmosferinden faydalanmaları gerektiği belirtilmektedir (Güneşlioğlu, 1962).

Makalelerde tartışılan konulardan birisi de başöğretmenlik konusudur. Mickelson'un "Modern İlkokulda Başöğretmen" adlı eserinde başöğretmenliğin tekamül safhasını; öğretici, katip, idareci ve rehber biçiminde sıraladığını ifade eden Er (1950), iyi bir başöğretmenin bu dört fonksiyonu üzerine alması gerektiğini belirtmektedir. Diğer bir ifadeyle iyi bir başöğretmen hem öğretici, hem katip, hem idareci hem de iyi bir rehber olmalıdır. Salmagil (1941) ise başöğretmen olarak görevlendirilen kişilerin idari işler, eğitimle münasebetleri ve eğitim-öğretim işleri bakımından önemli görevler üstlendiklerini belirtmektedir. Öymen (1940b) ise gezici başöğretmenlerin eğitim sorunlarını yerlerinde görmeleri nedeniyle önemli görevler üstlendiğini ifade etmektedir.

Özgür (1948), Türkiye'deki gezici başöğretmen kurumuna karşılık Amerika'da gezici öğretmenlik kurumunun bulunduğunu, bunların görevlerinin ise ülkemizdeki başöğretmenlik kurumundan farklı olduğunu söylemektedir. Buna göre Amerika'da gezici öğretmenler, öğretmenler arasından seçiliyor ve bu seçimin

ardından üniversitelerden psikoloji, sosyoloji, ruh bilimi gibi derler alınıyor ve daha sonra da psikoloji kliniklerinde staj yapılmaktadır. Gezici öğretmenler okullarda ders okutmamaktadırlar. Sadece okul, aile ve toplumsal çevreye uyum sağlamada problem yaşayan öğrencilere yardım etmektedirler.

Dergide en fazla yer verilen alanlardan birisi de köy eğitimidir. Köy eğitimi ile ilgili ele alınan konulardan birisi de öğretmenlerdir. Bu makalelerde köyde görev yapan öğretmenlerin toplum kalkınmasında önemli görevler üstlenebilmesi için bazı önerilere yer verilmiştir. Köy öğretmenin köy kalkınmasında görev alabilmesi için öncelikle kendini köylüye sevdirmesi gerektiği ifade edilen dergide öğretmenlerin nazari bilgiler yanında köyü ilgilendiren pratik konularda da bilgi sahibi olması, toprağın nasıl daha iyi işletileceğini bilmesi, hayvan ve hayvan hastalıkları konusunda bilgili olması gerektiği belirtilmektedir (Kızıloğlu, 1940; Yarat, 1952). Dergide köyde görev yapan öğretmenlerin bazı sorunlarına da değinilmiştir. Köylerde görev yapan öğretmenlerin şehirde görev yapan öğretmenlere göre şartlarının daha ağır olduğu ifade edilen dergide köy öğretmenin sadece okuldaki eğitim-öğretim ile değil aynı zamanda köylün eğitimi ve mesleki işleriyle de ilgilenmek zorunda kaldığı söylenmektedir. Bunun yanında köy öğretmeni öğrencilerin eğitim-öğretimiyle ilgili yayınları da takip edememekte, dolayısı ile kendilerini geliştirememektedirler (Ağırmaslı, 1942; Tuğral, 1957; Yücel, 1949; Zeyrek, 1949).

Dergide tüm zorluklara rağmen öğretmenlerde meslek heyecanının diri tutulmasının önemine vurgu yapılmaktadır. Öğretmenlerin mesleklerinde diri, heyecanlı tutulmasının onları mesleki bilgilerle teçhiz etmekten daha önemli olduğu ifade edilen dergide bunun nedeni olarak da bilginin tek başına insanı harekete geçirmede yeterli olmaması, bilginin duygularla ve heyecanlarla beslendiğinde anlam ifade etmesi gösterilmiştir. Öğretmenlere bu meslek heyecanının kazandırılması için toplumun bazı sorumlulukları bulunmaktadır (Gündüzalp, 1952a).

Sungu (1942) ise öğretmenlerin vazifelerini anlattığı yazısında öğretmenlerin öğrencileri sadece derste değil ders dışında da çalıştırmaları gerektiğini belirtmekte, ders dışı çalışmalarının çocukların hayatlarına katkı sağlayan çalışmalar olmasını vurgulamaktadır. Bunun yanında öğretmen öğrencilerine ceza olarak ödev vermemeli, çocukların nasıl ders çalışmaları gerektiği konusunda aydınlatıcı olmalı, derste çevreden yararlanabilmeli ve öğrencileri derslerde aktif tutmalıdır.

Binbaşoğlu (1957), eğitim kavramının değişime uğraması ile öğretmenin görevinin de değiştiğini belirtmektedir. Daha önce sadece öğretmenin bilgi aktarması eğitim olarak anılırken artık bireyin değişen hayata uyum sağlaması eğitim olarak tanımlanmaktadır. O, öğretmenin iyi bir öğretim için çocuğu tanımmasının yanında çevrenin de tanınmasının önemi vurgulamaktadır.

Dergide öğretmenler için kurulan bazı örgütler hakkında da bilgiler verilmektedir. Tonguç (1944) köylerin şehirlere göre hastalığa yakalanma riskinin fazla olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Fakat buna karşı köy öğretmenin çaresiz kaldığını ifade eden Tonguç, 1943 yılında köy öğretmenleri sağlık ve içtimai yardım sandığı kurulduğunu ve bu kurumun önemli görevler üstlendiğini belirtmektedir. Sandık, kurulduğu andan itibaren köy öğretmenlerden 244 kişiye doğum, 29 kişiye evlenme, 2 kişiye kaza ve 9 kişiye ölüm yardımı olmak üzere 284 kişiye yardım etmiştir. Arman (1944) ise öğretmenlerin tek başlarına yeterli derecede para biriktirememeleri ve bu nedenle de ev sahibi olmamaları nedeniyle 1943 yılında 4357 Sayılı Kanun ile “Yapı Sandıkları”nın kurulmaya başlandığını ifade etmektedir.

Makalelerde öğretmenlik mesleği ile ilgili ele alınan konulardan birisi de nitelikli öğretmenlerin özellikleridir. Buna göre nitelikli öğretmen; bilmek, öğretmesini sevmek ve öğretmekten haz almak özelliklerine sahip olmalıdır. Başarısızlık öğrencilerin istidatsızlığından değil, öğretmenlerin bu istidatsızlıklarını bulup tanıyamamasından ileri gelmektedir. Bunun yanında nitelikli öğretmenin zaman zaman kendisini hesaba çekmesidir (Arıkan, 1957; Fenner, 1958).

Berklin (1962a), öğretmenlik mesleğinin özellikleri ve öğretmenlerden beklentilerini kaleme aldığı makalesinde Atatürk ve yabancı bilim adamlarının öğretmenlik mesleği ile ilgili düşüncelerine yer vermiştir. Bu düşüncelerde genellikle öğretmenlik mesleğinin faziletlerine yer verilmiştir. Aytuna (1950), ise zamanın en yeni pedagojik görüşlerin öğretmenin şahsiyetini eğitim-öğretim sorunlarının en başına koyduklarını ifade etmektedir. Pedagoji ile ilgili yapılan bu araştırmalarda başlıca şu sorulara cevap aranmıştır: Öğretmen nasıl bir şahsiyettir? Öğretmenlik mesleği için en gerekli olan nitelikler nelerdir? Öğretmenin nasıl bir mesleki değeri olmalıdır? Öğretmenin kültürü, nicelik ve nitelik olarak nasıl olmalıdır? Öğretime nasıl bir pedagojik ve didaktik hazırlık verilmelidir?

Berklin (1962b), F. H. Wart’ın lise öğrencileri üzerinde yapmış olduğu en iyi ve en kötü öğretmen özellikleri ile ilgili araştırmanın sonuçları hakkında da bilgiler vermektedir. Berklin bu konuda en iyi müfettişin öğrenciler olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Araştırma sonucuna göre en sevilen öğretmenler; okul görevlerine yardım eden, dersini iyi anlatan, şakacı ve neşeli olan öğretmenlerdir. En az sevilen öğretmen özellikleri ise; aksi ve huysuz olması, öğrencilerine yardım etmemesi, derslerini plansız olarak işlemesidir. Er (1950) ise makalesinde iyi bir öğretmenin mutlaka çocuğu iyi tanınması gerektiğini belirtmektedir. Öğretmenin rehberliği ancak onun

psikolojisini, büyüme ve gelişim safhalarını bilmesi ile mümkündür. Bilsel'e (1939) göre iyi bir öğretmen samimiyet, nezaket, neşe, sabır, kıyafet, intibak ve organize etmek kabiliyeti gibi özelliklere sahip olmalıdır.

Dergide iyi öğretmen niteliklerine ilişkin yurt dışı değerlendirmelere de yer verilmiştir. Bunlardan Amerika'da öğretmen yetiştirme problemini inceleyen Aslan (1953), Amerika'da sağlam bir genel ve mesleki eğitimi olan, insanlarla iyi iletişim kuran, beden ve zihni yönden sağlıklı durumda bulunan, eleştirel düşünen, insanlığın menfaatleri için mücadele eden ve demokratik hayatın gereklerine sahip öğretmenlerin iyi öğretmen olarak görüldüğünü ifade etmektedir.

Dergide öğretmenlerin güzel sanatlar alanında kendilerini yetiştirmelerinin yeri ve önemi hakkında bilgilere de yer verilmiştir. Dergiye göre her öğretmen gerçek bir sanatkar olmayabilir. Fakat ilgi duyduğu sanat dallarından birisinde kendini geliştirmeye çalışmalıdır. Çünkü öğretmenlerin öğrencilere yaptıkları bir resmi, bir yazılı ders ödevini gereğini gibi değerlendirebilmesi, onlara uygun fırsatlarda sanat zevk ve anlayışını kazandırarak yetenekli öğrencileri geliştirip önlerini açabilmeleri için sanat dallarından en az birisi üzerinde kendisini yetiştirmesi gerekmektedir (İlköğretim Dergisi, 1961).

Öğretmenlerin rehberlik faaliyetlerindeki yeri ve önemi ele alınan konulardan birisidir. Öğrencilere iyi bir çevre yaratma, onların bedensel, zihinsel, duygusal gelişimlerini engelleyen nedenleri bulma ve bunları ortadan kaldırma konusunda onlarla en yakın temasın öğretmenden geldiği belirtilen dergide bu nedenle iyi bir öğretmenin aynı zamanda başarılı bir rehber olduğu ifade edilmektedir. Bu konuda bir öğrencinin duygusal ve fiziksel dünyası emniyette değilse öğrenmeye ve öğrendiklerini hazmetmeye hazır olmadığı vurgulanmakta, bu konuda öğretmenin çocuk psikolojisini ve ruh sağlığı alanında iyi yetişmiş olması gerektiği belirtilmektedir (Berktin, 1962c).

Öğretmen kişiliğinin öğrenci davranışları üzerindeki etkilerini konu alan makalede çocukların kişiliğinin oluşmasında aileden sonra en önemli etkinin öğretmenden geldiği belirtilmektedir. Öğretmenin bu etkisinin iki açıdan ele alındığı belirtilen makalede bunlardan birincisinin öğretmenin inandığı metot ve araçlarla sistemli bir şekilde yaptığı çabalar ve ikincisi ise öğrencinin davranış örneği olarak öğretmenini alması olduğu ifade edilmektedir. Dergiye göre öğretmenlerde görülen kişilik bozukluklarının öğrenci davranışlarına olumsuz yansımaktadır. Öğretmenlerin kişiliklerinde ortaya çıkabilen bu aksaklıklar; aşağılık duygusu ve sinirlilik gibi ortaya çıkan duygusal istikrarsızlıklardır. Değişik mesleklerde de buna benzer kişilikte insanlar bulunsa da bunların etkileri öğretmenler kadar etkili olmamaktadır. Dergide bu tarz kişilik bozukluklarına karşı alınacak önlemler konusunda da önerilere de yer verilmiştir. Bu konuda ilk alınacak önlem öğretmen okullarına bu kişilik tiplerine sahip adayların alınmaması için iyi bir seçme işlemi yapılmalıdır (Enç, 1949).

Öğretmenin cemiyet içinde oynadığı role dikkat çeken Irmak (1949), onun cemiyeti bir hamur gibi yoğuran ve ona dilediği şekli verebilecek tek kuvvet olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Ona göre bir millet için büyük hamle ve inkılaplara girildiği bir dönemde aynı dünya görüşüne bütün kalbiyle bağlı ve fedakâr bir öğretmen kitlesine sahip olmak büyük bir mutluluk kaynağı olduğu kadar ideale yaklaşmanın tek çaresidir. Bu, öğretmenin görev ve sorumluluğunun diğer mesleklerden daha önemli olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Dergide ele alınan konulardan birisi de yedek subay adayı öğretmenler konusudur. İlk olarak 1960-1961 eğitim öğretim yılında başlayan yedek subay adayı öğretmen uygulamasının intibak sorunu aşıldıktan sonra önemli sonuçlar verdiği belirtilmektedir. Yedek subay adayı öğretmenlerin başarılı olabilmeleri için bazı önerilerde getirilmiştir. Her şeyden önce bu kişilere metot, mesleki bilgi ve idari bilgi yönünden kurslar verilmelidir. Dergiye göre yedek subay adayı öğretmenlerin başarılı olmalarının önündeki en önemli engel metot bilmemeleridir. Bunun yanında kurslarda köy eğitimi ve birleştirilmiş sınıflarda eğitim konularında bilgi verilmesi, milli eğitim müdürlüklerinin bu öğretmenler için birer danışma ve yardımlaşma birimi oluşturması, öğretmeni işbaşında yetiştirme çalışmasının devam ettirilmesi konuyla ilgili getirilen belli başlı öneriler arasındadır (Günden, 1961).

SONUÇ

1939 ve 1966 yılları arasında yaklaşık 27 yıl yayın hayatına devam eden İlköğretim Dergisi'nde dönemin önemli eğitimcileri yanında öğretmen, yönetici ve müfettişlerin yazılarına da yer verilmiştir. Bu makalelerde ele alınan konulardan birisi de öğretmenlik mesleğidir. Öğretmenlik mesleği ile ilgili olarak öğretmen eğitimi ve öğretmenlik mesleğinin nitelik ve özellikleri yanında köy öğretmenleri ile ilgili çalışmalar da ele alınan başlıca konular olmuştur.

Öğretmen okulları, eğitim enstitüleri ve köy enstitülerinin gelişimleri hakkında bilgilere yer verilen dergide bu kurumların yaşamış oldukları tecrübeler konusunda da günümüze ışık tutulmaktadır. Bunun yanında işbaşında eğitimin de sık olarak vurgulanması öğretmenin kendisini geliştirmesi bakımında son derece önemli görülmüştür.

Öğretmenlik mesleğinin özellikleri, iyi bir öğretmenin nitelikleri ve öğretmenlerin görevleri dergide ele alınan bir konu olmuştur. Zor bir meslek olmasına rağmen manevi açıdan önemli yararlar sağlaması, toplumda iyi bir örnek olunması, kendisini sürekli olarak geliştirmek zorunda olması öğretmenlik mesleğinin öne çıkan özellikleri olarak dikkat çekmektedir. Dergide ayrıca köy öğretmenlerinin yaşamış oldukları sorunlar yanında, başarılı olmaları için bazı tavsiyelere de yer verilmiştir. Özellikle öğretmenlerin köyü ve köylüyü sevmesi, sadece okulda değil okul dışında da aktif olarak çalışması onun köyde başarılı olması için şart koşulmuştur.

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Eğitimde Yeni Bir Süreç: Ters-Yüz Sınıf Sistemi

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Özet

Bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin kullanım ve üretiminin hızla yayılması ile birlikte, yeni teknolojilerin eğitim alanında kullanım biçimi de değişmektedir. Bu değişim, öğretme ve öğrenmeye yönelik yeni yaklaşımların ortaya çıkmasına olanak sağlamış ve öğretim-öğrenim sürecinde yeni bir strateji olan Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi'nin eğitimde kullanılabilirliğini gün yüzüne çıkarmıştır. Ters-yüz sınıf sistemi, öğrencilere asenkron sistemler yardımı ile ileriye yönelik çalışacakları konuların bireysel öğrenmeye uygun olan kısımlarını okul dışında erişebilmelerine fırsat sunarken, sınıf ortamında daha çok bu konularla ilgili bireysel veya grup olarak problem çözme aktiviteleri yapma ve bireysel öğrenmelerinde çoğunun karşılaştığı problemlere odaklanma imkanı sunar. Kısaca, ev ödevi ile sınıf içi ders işleyişinin yer değiştirmesidir (Verleger & Bishop, 2013). Literatürde bu yeni strateji ile ilgili deneysel olarak son derece az araştırma bulunsa da, bu çalışmada Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi teknik ve uygulama açısından detaylı şekilde tanıtılacak ve Türk eğitim sistemindeki öğrenme-öğretme kültürüne göre sınıf içi kullanımlarında hangi durumlarda etkili olabileceği incelenecektir. Ayrıca, Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi'nin, çeşitli eğitim seviyelerindeki etkinliğini ve eğitim ortamını nasıl zenginleştirdiğini ölçen çalışmalar değerlendirilecektir. Türk eğitimcilerin bu gibi yeni öğrenme-öğretim sistemleri ve kullanılan teknolojileri tanımları, bu ortamlardan edinilmiş deneyimleri öğrenmeleri açısından bu çalışmanın yol gösterici olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Ters-Yüz Sınıf Sistemi, Eğitim Teknolojisi, Harmanlanmış Öğrenme, Program Geliştirme

GİRİŞ

Hızla gelişen bilim ve teknoloji, toplumların sosyal yapısındaki değişimi ve gelişimi kaçınılmaz hale getirmekte ve eğitim-öğretim kurumlarının da bu değişime ayak uydurma zorunluluğunu ortaya çıkarmaktadır (Davis & Shade, 1994). Diğer yandan teknolojinin sürekli gelişimi, teknolojinin eğitime entegrasyonunu da zorunlu hale getirirken, eğitim sistemleri de —okul öncesi eğitimden üniversiteye kadar— her alanda çağın gereksinimlerini karşılayabilmek ve çağa uyum sağlayabilmek için sürekli gelişim ve değişim mecburiyetindedir. Bu değişikliklere bağlı olarak eğitim sisteminde de “davranışçı” yaklaşımdan “yapılandırmacı” yaklaşıma doğru bir paradigma değişikliği yakalanmaya çalışılmaktadır (Kertil, 2008). Bu değişim, öğretme ve öğrenmeye yönelik yeni yaklaşımların ortaya çıkmasına olanak sağlamış ve öğretim-öğrenim sürecinde yeni bir eğitim stratejisi olan Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminin eğitimde uygulanabilirliğini gündeme getirmiştir. Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi, asenkron sistemler yardımı ile öğrencilere çalışacakları konuların bireysel öğrenmeye uygun olan bölümlerine okul dışında da erişebilme fırsatı sunarken, sınıf ortamında bu konularla ilgili daha çok bireysel veya grup olarak problem çözme aktiviteleri yapma imkanı sunmaktadır. Kısaca, öğrencilere bireysel öğrenmelerinde karşılaştıkları problemlere odaklanma fırsatı veren bu sistem, ev ödevi ile sınıf içi ders işleyişinin yer değiştirmesi olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Verleger & Bishop, 2013).

Bu çalışmada Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi teknik ve uygulama açısından detaylı şekilde tanıtılmış ve Türk eğitim sistemindeki öğrenme-öğretme kültürüne göre sınıf içi kullanımlarında hangi durumlarda etkili olabileceği incelenmiştir. Ayrıca, Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi'nin, çeşitli eğitim seviyelerindeki etkinliğini ve eğitim ortamını nasıl zenginleştirdiğini ölçen çalışmalar değerlendirilmiştir.

Ters-Yüz Sınıf Sistemi

Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi, geleneksel öğrenim-öğretimin aksine öğrenciye teorik bilgiyi evde kendi başına öğrenip, öğrendiklerini okulda uygulama fırsatı sunan bir metot olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Zownorega, 2013). Verleger ve Bishop'a (2013) göre bu eğitim sistemi, sınıf ortamında öğrencinin kendi başına çalıştığı konularla ilgili daha çok bireysel veya grup olarak problem çözme aktiviteleri yapma ve bireysel öğrenmelerinde çoğunun

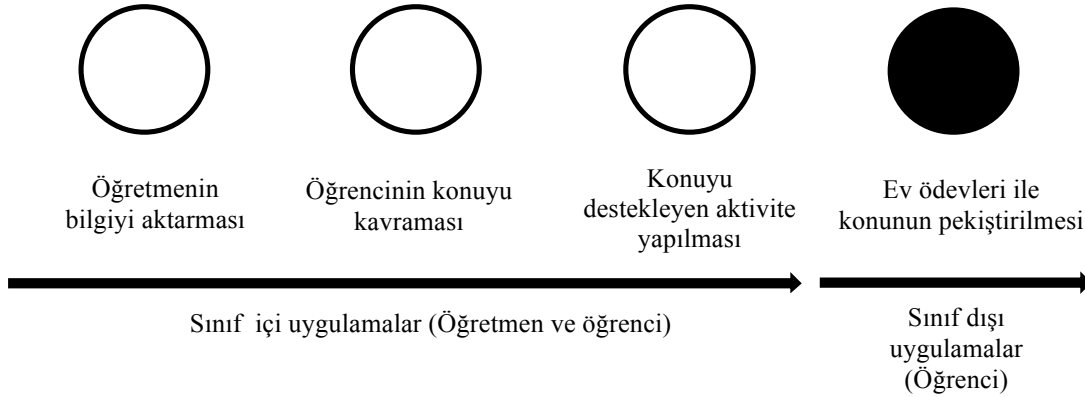
karşılaştığı problemlere odaklanma imkanı sunan, öğretmenin öğrenen ile birebir ilgilenmesine fırsat veren bir öğretim-öğrenim metodudur (Seaman & Gaines 2013). Diğer yandan bu öğretim-öğrenim sistemi, derslerin video kaydının alınması ile öğrenciye istediği bilgiye istediği yer ve zamanda ulaşma imkanı sunarak bireysel öğrenmeyi de desteklemektedir (Talbert, 2012).

Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi, ilk olarak Miami Üniversitesi ekonomi profesörleri tarafından iş, hukuk, sosyoloji, psikoloji ve felsefe alanlarında okuma ödevlerinin çokluğundan dolayı kullanılmaya başlanmıştır (Lage, Platt, & Treglia, 2000). 2007 yılında Woodland Lisesi'nde öğretmenlik yapan Jonathan Bergman ve Aaron Sams'in powerpoint sunularını kaydetmek için bir yazılım üretmesi ve dersi kaçıran öğrenciler için canlı derslerini kaydedip çevrimiçi olarak yayınlamaya başlaması ile eğitim alanında kullanılan bu sistem diğer öğretmenlerin de dikkatini çekmiştir. Bununla birlikte, Northern Colorado Üniversitesi'nde öğretim elemanlarının sınıftaki zamanlarını ortak çalışma ve uygulamalara ayırarak, dersin içeriğini sunmak için çevrimiçi ve indirilebilir videolar kullanmaya başlamaları ile birlikte (Bergmann & Sams, 2012), 3000'in üstünde katılımcı ile birkaç ay içinde yaygınlaşmaya başlamıştır (Talbert, 2012).

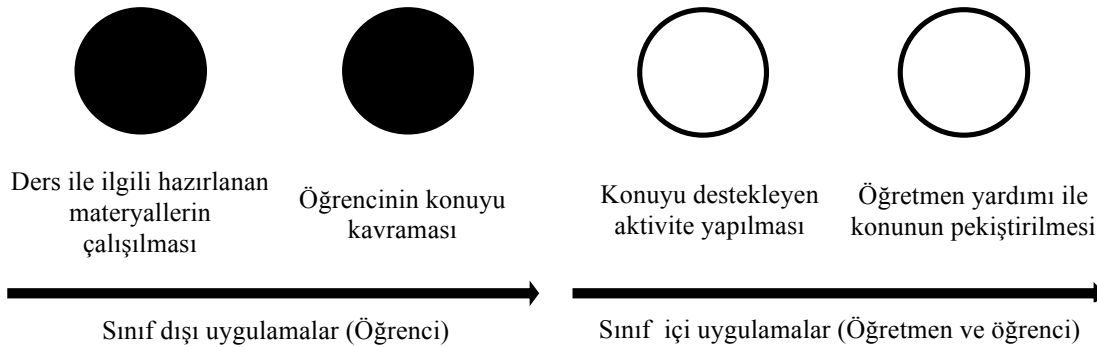
Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi uygulamasında geleneksel öğretim yönteminden farklı olarak, öğrenciler dersin teorik bölümünü çevrimiçi videolar, sunular, öğrenme yönetim sistemleri gibi çoklu-ortam araçları ile evde öğrenmektedirler (bkz. Şekil1). Ayrıca, konuyla ilgili öğretmenin verdiği temel ders materyallerine ek olarak, içerikle ilgili gerekli araştırmaları yaparak bireysel öğrenme sorumluluğunu elde etmektedirler. Sınıf ortamında ise öğrenciler, konu ile ilgili hazırlanan uygulamalar ve öğrendiklerini paylaşmaya yönelik sunulan tartışma ortamları gibi, öğretmenin yardımcı olmak için aktif şekilde rol aldığı çalışmalarla edindikleri bilgileri paylaşma ve pekiştirme imkanı bulmaktadırlar (Seaman & Gaines, 2013).

Öğrencinin öğrenmesi için en iyi yöntemin eskiden kalma yapı olan geleneksel öğretim yöntemi olmadığını savunan Talbert (2012), öğrencilerin, öğretmen yardımına en çok ihtiyaç duyduğu zamanlarda sınıf dışında olduklarını ve onları zorlayan görevleri sınıf dışında yapmak zorunda kaldıklarını belirtmiştir. Bununla birlikte, sınıf içi öğretmenlerin yeteneklerinin en üst seviyede olduğu, ancak öğrencilerin en az yardıma ihtiyaç duyduğu ve bilişsel becerileri en düşük seviyede kullandığı zaman dilimidir (Arslan & Özpınar, 2008). Gelişim olması için geleneksel yapının tersine çevrilmesi; öğrencilerin sınıf dışında dersler, okumalar ve diğer kaynaklarla temel bilgi alması, sınıf içinde ise zorlu ve üst düzey bilişsel aktivitelerle çalışması gerekmektedir.

Geleneksel Model



Ters Yüz Sınıf Modeli



Şekil 1. Geleneksel Eğitim Modeli ile Ters Yüz Sınıf Modelinin Karşılaştırılması (Zownorega, 2013)

Eğitim-Öğretim ve Öğrenme Ortamları

Günümüzde çoğunlukla öğretmen merkezli bir öğretim sistemi uygulansa da, son yıllarda okullarda öğretmenin rolünün sadece yol gösterici bir rehber olarak tanımlandığı öğrenci merkezli eğitim sisteminin uygulanması gerektiği savunulmaktadır. Bu sistem, gelişen teknolojinin sunduğu imkânlar sayesinde öğrencilere, pek çok kaynaktan bilgiye ulaşma imkanı sunmaktadır. Burada öğretmene düşen görev ise öğrencilere ulaşmak istedikleri bilgiye nasıl ulaşabilecekleri konusunda yol göstermektir (Grover & Stovval, 2013).

Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi şu şekilde uygulanmaktadır; (1) öğrencinin sınıf dışında geçirdiği zamanın öğrenciyi sınıfta yapılacak olan aktivitelere hazırlaması (2) öğretmenin, öğrencilerin sınıf dışında gerçekleştirdiği ders hazırlık aşamasını değerlendirmesi (3) öğrenciye sınıf ortamında, sadece dinleyip not tutmanın dışında işbirlikçi ve problem tabanlı öğrenme fırsatı vermesi (4) öğrenciye teorik bilgiyi öğrenmek dışında öğretmen eşliğinde pratik yapma ve anında geri bildirim alma olanağı sunulması (McGivney & Xue, 2013). Bu uygulanma şekli göz önünde bulundurulduğunda Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi, geleneksel yöntemle göre daha öğrenci merkezli, aktif bir öğretim sunmakta ve bu da daha etkili bir öğretim gerçekleştirilmesine yardımcı olmaktadır (Talbert, 2012). Toto ve Nguyen'a göre (2009) Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi öğrenciye öğretmen rehberliğinde, işbirlikçi öğrenme, problem tabanlı öğrenme, aktif öğrenme, grup çalışmaları ve sınıf içi tartışma imkanı sunduğu için öğrenciye kendi bilgisini oluşturma ve öğrendiği teorik bilgiyi uygulama imkanı sunmaktadır.

Bunun yanı sıra, Ters-Yüz sınıf ortamı dijital öğrenme ortamı ile desteklendiğinde öğrenci, işbirlikçi ve ilgi çekici öğrenme ortamında öğrenim görürken, 7/24 bilgiye erişme imkanına sahip olmaktadır. Bunlara ek olarak, dijital ortamlar, öğrencinin pedagojik özellikleri de göz önünde bulundurularak kullanıldığında öğretimi özelleştirdiği ve geliştirdiği için eğitimin verimlilik düzeyini artırarak geleneksel yöntemle göre daha etkili bir eğitim imkanı sunmaktadır (Seamen & Gaines, 2013). Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi bir anlamda bireysel öğrenme becerisini gerektirdiği için, bilgi toplumunda yaşayan bireyler; bilgiye nasıl ulaşım onu nasıl sınıflayacaklarını, nasıl üretip diğer bireylerle paylaşacaklarını ve değişen şartlara nasıl uyum sağlayacaklarını öğrenmek zorundadırlar. Kol'a (2011) göre bilgi çağında başarılı olacak bireylerin; bilgi teknolojilerini rahatlıkla ve verimli bir biçimde kullanabilen, girişimci, üretken, yenilikçi, bireysel sorumluluk sahibi, kendini gerçekleştirmiş ve sürekli kendini yenileyen kişiler olması gerektiğini savunmaktadır. Buna bağlı olarak Chang, Sung ve Lee (2003), bilgi teknolojilerinin, işbirlikçi öğrenmenin aşamalarından olan etkileşim yoluyla öğrenme sürecine aktif katkıda bulunmayı destekleyen bir yapıya sahip olduğu için hem bilgiye ulaştırılan hem de bilgiyi oluşturan bir araç olarak kullanılması gerektiğini savunmaktadır. Ayrıca, teknoloji ile zenginleştirilmiş öğrenme ortamları, daha fazla duyu organına hitap ettiği için geleneksel yöntemin aksine öğrencinin ilgisini daha fazla çekip öğretimi kolaylaştırarak zevkli hale getirip, öğrenmenin hızlanmasını sağlamaktadır (İşman, 2005; Yalın, 2003).

Ters-Yüz Sınıf Sisteminin Avantajları ve Dezavantajları

Jenkins'e (2012) göre eğitim tabanlı teknoloji ve çevrimiçi platformlar büyüme ve gelişmeye devam ederken, eğitim dünyasına giren kavram, program ve cihazların artması sonucu ortaya çıkan Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi, yöneticiler, öğretim üyeleri ve öğretmenler arasında yeni dalgalanmalara sebep olmaktadır. Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi üstüne yapılan tartışmalar neticesinde öğrenciler ve öğretmenler açısından avantajları şu şekilde sıralanabilir (Duerden, 2013; Miller, 2012):

- Öğrenciler açısından;
 - Öğrenciye becerilerine göre farklı sürelerde öğrenme olanağı sağlaması
 - Öğrencinin yorum yapma yeteneğini geliştirmesi
 - Öğrencinin aktivitelere kullanacağı bilgiyi önceden öğrenmesine olanak sağlaması
 - Hasta olan ya da gelmeyen öğrenciye bilgiye istediği zaman erişme imkanı sunması
 - Ailelere dersleri takip etme ve çocuklarına daha fazla yardımcı olma imkanı sunması
 - Öğrenciye öğrenme faaliyetlerinde sorumluluk almasını sağlaması
 - Öğrenciye uygulamalarda yaşlılarıyla aktif olarak çalışmasına olanak sağlaması
- Öğretmenler açısından;
 - Öğretmene sınıfta bilge değil takıma kılavuz olma imkanı sunması
 - Sınıf içi uygulamalarda öğretmenin öğrencilere daha fazla yardımcı olmasına olanak sağlaması

- Öğrencilerle yapılan etkileşimli aktivitelerden dolayı sınıf yönetiminde öğrenci davranışlarıyla ilgili sorunların azalmasına yardımcı olması
- Öğretmene birebir ve küçük gruplarla çalışma olanağı sağlaması
- Öğretmenin konuyu anlatma ve tekrar etme için harcadığı zamandan tasarruf etmesine olanak sağlaması
- Öğretmenin materyal hazırlarken işbirliği içerisinde çalışmasına olanak sağlaması
- Öğretmen ve öğrenci arasındaki iletişimin gelişmesine olanak sağlaması

Jenkins (2012) Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminin öğrenci ve öğretmene sağladığı avantajların yanında dezavantajlarında olduğunu savunmaktadır. Öğrencinin videoları izleyip izlemediğini ve konuyu öğrenip öğrenmediğini kontrol etmenin öğretmenler açısından zor olabileceği bu dezavantajların başında gelmektedir. Bununla birlikte, bireysel öğrenme özelliklerine sahip olmayan öğrencilerin, öğrenme sürecinde sorun yaşaması ihtimali de ortaya çıkmaktadır. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin bilgisayar ile birlikte, güçlü internet bağlantısına sahip olma zorunluluğu da ortaya çıkmaktadır. Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminde, öğrencinin öğretmen ve diğer öğrenciler ile etkileşim kurmadan, sınıf dışında gerçekleştirdiği çalışma sürecinde zorluk yaşayabileceğini savunan Duerden (2013), öğrencinin dersi öğrenirken soru sormadığı, konular arasında anlam ilişkisi kurmadığı için zorluk çekebileceğini ve bunların öğrenme sürecinde kopukluk yaşanmasına sebep olabilecek dezavantajlar olabileceğini belirtmiştir. Miller'a (2012) göre bu sistem kullanılırken eğitim platformunun ihtiyaçlara yönelik olarak hazırlanmaması, öğrencinin dinleme sürecinde aktif olmaması, konuyu öğrenirken konuşabileceği ve tepkisinin ölçülebileceği bir ortamın oluşturulmaması öğrenme etkinliğinin azalmasına sebep olduğu belirtilmektedir. Ayrıca, öğrencinin bilgiyi yanlış öğrenmesi ve yanlış öğrenmesinin anlaşılabilmesi gibi ihtimallerin yanında, yanlış bilgiyi düzeltmek için harcanan ek zaman da bu sistemin uygulanabilirliği açısından dezavantaj olarak görülmektedir.

Örnek Çalışmalar

Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminin, öğrencilerin öğrenme başarılarına etkisi konusunda geleneksel öğretimden farklılığı ve uygulanabilirliğini ölçmek amacı ile Matematik, İngilizce, Biyoloji, Mühendislik, Bilgisayar gibi alanlarda sayıları az da olsa birtakım araştırmalar yapılmıştır..

Detroit'te bulunan bir lisede öğrencilerin eğitimlerinin desteklenmesi ve gelişmesi amacıyla eğitim modelinin değiştirilmesi gerektiği düşünülerek, Matematik ve İngilizce derslerinde Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi uygulamasına geçilmiştir. Öğretmenler her hafta için 5-7 dakikalık üçer video hazırlayarak öğrencilerin evde izlemelerini, evinde internet bağlantısı olmayan öğrencilerin ise okulda izlemelerini istemiş ve sınıf içinde etkileşimli aktiviteler ve uygulamalar ile içeriği zenginleştirmişlerdir. Çalışmanın sonucunda, öğrencilerin ev ödevlerini yapmama problemlerinin ortadan kalktığı, öğretmenin öğrenciye içerikle ilgili daha fazla açıklayıcı örnekler verdiği ve öğretmenin dersi tekrar etmek yerine sadece öğrencilerin anlamadıkları konularda onlara yardımcı olduğu tespit edilmiş ve İngilizce dersinde başarısız olan öğrenci yüzdesinin %19'dan %13'e, Matematik dersinde ise %50'den %44'e indiği gözlemlenmiştir (Strayer, 2011)

Benzer şekilde, Miami üniversitesinde Ters-Yüz sistem kullanılarak gerçekleştirilen yazılım mühendisliği sınıfında öğrencilerin uygulama yazılımı geliştirme ve sorumluluk alma konusunda kendilerini geliştirdikleri tespit edilmiştir (Gannod, Burge & Helmick, 2008). Kaliforniya Üniversitesinde ise "Biyolojiye Giriş" dersinde Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi uygulanarak, öğrencilerin önceden kaydedilmiş videoları sınıf dışında izlemesi ve etkileşimli alıştırmaları takip etmesi sonucu, sınav sonuçlarındaki başarılarında %21 artış olduğu saptanmıştır (Moravec, Williams, Aguilar-Roca & O'Dowd, 2010).

Franklin Üniversitesinde, iki farklı öğrenci grubuna biri geleneksel diğeri Ters-Yüz eğitim olmak üzere iki farklı yöntemin kullanıldığı araştırmada Ters-Yüz eğitim gören grubun geleneksel eğitim gören gruba göre daha yüksek başarı gösterdiği saptanmıştır. Ayrıca "Bilgisayar Bilimlerine Giriş" dersinde bir dönem boyunca uygulanan Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi ile bilgisayar geçmişi az olan öğrencilerin bu sistemle yeteneklerini geliştirerek yüksek düzeyde teknik beceri kazandıkları gözlenmiştir (Talbert, 2012).

Wetterlund (2008), öğrencilerin arkeoloji bilgilerini geliştirmek amacı ile resimler ve çevrimiçi uygulamalar kullanarak elektronik ortamda sanat müzesi oluşturmuştur. Sanat müzesi ve okul öğretmenlerinin birlikte görev aldığı bu çalışmada, Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi ile öğrencilerin sanat müzelerinde kullanılan materyalleri öğrenmesi, okuma-izleme-dinleme aktiviteleri ile yorumlama ve sınıflandırma becerilerinin geliştirilmesi hedeflenmiştir.

Çalışmanın sonucunda, bu yöntemin konunun anlaşılabilirliğini arttırdığı ve öğrencilerin dersi kısa sürede etkili şekilde öğrenmelerine katkı sağladığı gözlemlenmiştir.

SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

Türk eğitim sisteminde doksanlı yıllarda öğrenciyi hesaba katmayan, hiyerarşik ve aşırı katı bir öğretim biçimi olan “Davranışçı” yaklaşım ve eğitim uygulamaları yaygın olsa da, son yıllarda kuram ve uygulama anlamında davranışçı yaklaşımın tam tersine bir öğretim metodu olan “Yapılandırmacı” (constructivist) eğitim ve öğretim metodunun tüm dünyada olduğu gibi Türkiye’de de yaygınlaştığı görülmektedir (Çelen, Çelik & Seferoğlu, 2011). Öte yandan “Yapılandırmacı” yaklaşıma destek niteliğinde öğrenenleri araştıran sorgulayan, yaparak yaşayarak öğrenen ve öğrendiği bilgileri içselleştirip öznel anlamlandırmalar oluşturan bireyler haline getirebilmek için her geçen gün okullarda teknoloji kullanımını yaygınlaştırmayla ilgili çalışmalar da gerçekleştirilmeye çalışılmaktadır.

Ancak eğitim alanındaki bu değişim Türkiye’nin eğitim sisteminde istediği noktaya ulaşmasını tam olarak sağlayamamıştır. Ülkelerin öğretim programlarındaki gerekli düzenlemeleri yapabilmeleri, öğretim sistemlerindeki eksiklikleri giderebilmeleri ve uluslararası düzeyde kendi başarılarını görebilmeleri amacıyla son yıllarda bazı çalışmalar gerçekleştirilmektedir. Uluslararası Öğrenci Değerlendirme Programı olarak adlandırılan, ekonomik İşbirliği ve Kalkınma Örgütü (OECD) tarafından 15 yaş grubundaki öğrencilerin zorunlu eğitim sonunda hayata hazır oluş durumlarını belirlemek için üç yılda bir gerçekleştirilen dünyanın en kapsamlı eğitim araştırması olan PISA 2012 sonuçlarına göre Türkiye, değerlendirilen 65 ülke arasında ilk 40’a giremeyip OECD puanlarının oldukça altında kalmıştır. (Türkiye, yine sınıfta kaldı, 2013). PISA sonuçları eğitim sistemimizin sınıfta kaldığını ve yıllardır reformlarla dönüştürmeye çalıştığımız bu sistemin anlamlı bir ilerleme kaydetmediğini göstermektedir. Türkiye’nin diğer ülkelere göre geri kalmasının sebepleri arasında çok fazla sınav yapılması, yanlış nitelikte ev ödevi verilmesi, eğitim sisteminin öğrencilere bireysel öğrenme ortamı sunmaması ve teknoloji kullanımının yetersizliği yer almaktadır (PISA, 2012). Eğitim-öğretimde pedagojik açıdan doğruluğu tartışılan ev ödevleri çocukların belli konularda önceden bilgi sahibi olmalarını sağlayan veya belli konularda alıştırmalar yaparak bilgilerini pekiştirmeye yarayan bir öğretim tekniğidir (İlgar, 2005). Ancak ev ödevlerinden yeterli faydanın sağlanabilmesi için amaca yönelik ödev haline dönüştürülmelidir (Giasser, 1990). Bu bağlamda, geleneksel eğitimin aksine ev ödevlerinin içeriğinde, Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminde gerçekleştirilmesi istenen konuyu öğrenme aktivitelerinin yer almasının öğrenci başarısını arttıracığı düşünülebilir.

Bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin gelişmesi, her alana büyük yenilikler getirdiği gibi eğitim dünyasına da büyük yenilikler getirmiştir (Odabaşı, 2010). Bu bağlamda, okullarda teknoloji kullanımının yaygınlaştırılması, eğitim ve öğretimde niteliğin artırılması için farklı yöntemler denenmektedir. Türkiye’de son yıllarda farklı ve ilginç öğrenme etkinlikleri içeren eğitsel yazılımlar, oyun tabanlı öğrenme ortamları, web tabanlı öğrenme ortamları, e-öğrenme içerikleri kullanılarak ders içerikleri zenginleştirilmeye çalışılsa da (Çelen ve diğ., 2011), öğretmenlerin bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerini kullanma konusunda ciddi eksikliklerinin olduğu ve bazı öğretmenlerin nadiren bilgisayar kullandıkları, vurgulanmaktadır (Kayaduman ve diğ., 2011). Ters-yüz sınıf sisteminin gereklilikleri göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, Türkiye’de kullanımının yaygınlaştırılması için öğretmenlerin bu sistem hakkında bilgilendirilmesinin ve teknoloji kullanımı konusunda motivasyonlarının artırılmasının önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Özdem (2007) bireyin sınıf ortamı dışına taşındığı ve eğitimini bireysel olarak gerçekleştirdiği uzaktan eğitim sisteminin, eğitim kurumlarına ulaşmada sorun yaşayan hasta, özürlü ve suçlu insanların kendine uygun olmayan ders saatlerinde en iyi eğitimi almasına olanak sağladığını vurgulamaktadır. Bununla birlikte, Türkiye’de de gelişen ve sürekli değişim içerisinde olan bilimin etkisi ile eğitime olan talep artışı, maliyet ve zaman konusunda yaşanan sıkıntılara çözüm olarak uzaktan eğitim sisteminin kullanımının yaygınlaştığı düşünülmektedir (Yadigar, 2010). Öğrencilerin konuyu evde öğrenip, uygulamaları okulda yapması teorisine dayanan Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminde öğrencilerin uzaktan eğitim sistemi ve araçlarını kullanmasının önemli bir yeri olduğu vurgulanmaktadır (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). Bu nedenle Türkiye’de uzaktan eğitim sisteminin Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemine entegrasyonu konusunda çalışmaların artırılması, konuyu öğrenme aşamasında öğrencilerin en üst seviyede fayda sağlayabileceği uzaktan eğitim metodlarının belirlenmesi ve kullanılması gerekmektedir. Literatürde Türkiye’de Ters-Yüz sınıf modelinin kullanımı yaygın olarak görülmesi de, Graham’ın (2006) çevrim içi ve yüz yüze öğrenme gibi iki ayrı öğrenme modelini bir araya getiren sistem, Demirer’in (2009) ise sınıf içi öğrenme ile internet teknolojilerinin birleştirildiği sistem olarak tanımladığı harmanlanmış öğrenme

modelinin uygulanma örneklerine rastlanmaktadır. Bazı araştırmacılar, biyoloji, coğrafya, yabancı dil, bilgi teknolojileri gibi derslerde uygulaması yapılan harmanlanmış öğrenme yönteminin kısa süreli kullanımında öğrencilerin başarısına ve tutumlarına anlamlı bir değişiklik yapmadığını savunmaktadırlar (Çepni, Taş & Köse, 2006; Gönen & Kocakaya, 2008; Maskan & Güler, 2004). Diğer yandan, harmanlanmış öğrenmenin derslerin belirli konularında etkili olduğunu düşünen Yapıcı ve Akbayın'da (2012) harmanlanmış öğrenme yönteminin uzun vadede öğrenci başarısına etkilediğini söylemektedirler. Dolayısıyla, eğitime yeni bir bakış açısı getirmek, eğitim ortamını zenginleştirmek, ders etkinliğini artırmak amacıyla büyük fayda sağlayacağı düşünülen Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminin kullanılabilirliği gün yüzüne çıkmaktadır. Harmanlanmış öğrenmeden farklı olarak Ters-Yüz sınıf modelinde yüz yüze öğrenme yerine sınıf içi öğrenme ortamının uygulama ve aktivitelere ayrılması ile öğretmenlerden maksimum yardım alınabilir ve öğrenciler konuyu daha kolay ve kalıcı şekilde öğrenebilir. Bununla birlikte, Özmen'in (2004) öğrencilerin kendisine ulaşan bilgileri aynen almadığını, bilgileri öğrenirken kişisel özelliklerinin ve öğrenme ortamının büyük etkisi olduğunu savunduğunu düşünüldüğünde de Türkiye de bu sistemin kullanımının arttırılmasının eğitim alanına büyük katkı sağlayacağı fikri ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminin Türkiye'de az kullanımının nedenlerden biri olarak, öğretmenlerin Ters-Yüz sınıf sistemi kullanımı ve faydaları ile ilgili yeterli bilgiye sahip olmamaları söylenebilir. Ayrıca, ulusal ve uluslararası alanyazında Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminin tanımı ve uygulanabilirliğinin ölçüldüğü araştırmaların yok denecek kadar az olması bu sistemin yaygın olarak kullanılmasına engel olabilir. Çoklu ortam araçları kullanılarak materyal tasarlanması ve bu materyallerin öğrenme yönetim sistemleri ile öğrencilere aktarılması becerilerinin gelişmesine dayanan bu sistemde, öğretmenlerin teknolojik araçları kullanma ilgi, istek ve motivasyonlarının az olması da okullarda bu sistemin yaygınlaşması konusunda yaşanan sorunlardan biridir. Eğitim ortamının zenginleşmesi, ders etkinliğinin artırılması ve etkileşimli ders işlenmesi konusunda büyük fayda sağlayan Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminin, öğretmen ve öğrenciye sağladığı kolaylıklardan yararlanılabilmesi için şu şartlar gerçekleşmelidir:

1. Bu sistem ile ilgili gerekli inceleme ve araştırmaların yapılması,
2. Öğretmenlerin bu sistemin faydaları ve uygulanabilirliği açısından bilgilendirilmesi,
3. Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminin hangi alanlarda daha etkin şekilde kullanılabileceğinin araştırılması ve eğitim sistemine sağlayacağı faydaların benimsenmesi,
4. Okullarda bu sistemin kullanılabilmesi için gerekli eğitim platformlarının oluşturulması,

Bu şartların sağlanması durumunda, eğitimde yeni bir süreç olan Ters-Yüz sınıf sisteminin dünyadaki uygulamalarından toplanan verilerin sonuçları da dikkate alınarak, bu sistemin tanınması ve Türk Eğitim sistemine entegre edilmesi durumunda, eğitim sürecinde öğrenci ve öğretmenlere birçok kolaylık sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

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Özet

Eğitimin üçlü ayağında öğretmen öğrenci ve veli birbirini tamamlayan bir bütün oluşturmaktadır. Bu üçlü grup içindeki bilgi alışverişi, iletişimin kalitesi, eğitimin amacına ulaşmasında ve işlevselliği açısından önemlidir. Öğretmen öğrenci ve veli ilişkilerinde öğretmen öğrenci, öğretmen veli, öğrenci veli gibi birbirinden farklı boyutlar ve çözülmesi gereken farklı sorunlar vardır. Her grubun ve o grubu oluşturan kişilerin sorunları çözmeye biçimleri kendine özeldir. Forum tiyatro sorunların çözümünde, sorunlarla ilgili farkındalık oluşturulmasında önemli bir araçtır. Herkesin kendi sorununu kendi bilgisi donanımı ve koşulları elverdiği oranda çözmesi, bulunan çözümleri işlevliliğini görebilmesi açısından Forum Tiyatro önemlidir ve katılımcısına tüm bu olanakları verir. Bu bildirinin konusunu öğretmen veli ilişkilerinin düzenlenmesinde, sorunların çözümünde Forum Tiyatrodan ne şekilde yararlanılacağı İstanbul’da çeşitli liselerde yapılan örneklerle anlatılacaktır.

Anahtar kelimeler:

GİRİŞ

Bir ülkenin geleceğini eğitim sistemi, eğitimin kalitesi belirler. Değişen çağın koşullarına uygun eğitim programları, uygun fiziksel koşullar ve bu koşulları organize edecek ve uygulayacak insan faktörü eğitimin kalitesini belirleyen temel unsurlardır. İnsan faktörü dendiğinde öğrenci, öğretmen ve veliden oluşan üçlü bir grup akla gelmektedir. Bu üçlü grup tıpkı üçayaklı bir masa gibi birbirine destek olan, birbirini tamamlayan bir bütündür.

Öğretmen, öğrenci ve ebeveyn arasındaki bilgi alışverişi, iletişim ve iletişimin kalitesi, eğitimin ve öğretimin amacına ulaşmasında önemli bir etkidir. Öğretmen öğrenci ve veli ilişkilerinde öğretmen-öğrenci, öğretmen-veli, öğrenci-veli ve hatta öğrenci-öğrenci gibi birbirinden bağımsız, farklı boyutlarda iletişim biçimleri vardır. Her grubun kendi içinde ve birbirleriyle olan iletişimleri kendine özeldir. Öğretmen öğrenci arasında gözle görünür biçimde var olan hiyerarşik yapı, öğretmen ebeveyn arasında daha belirsiz, daha dile getirilmemiş alanlara doğru kayar. Her bir grup, diğer gruba karşı taraf olmak durumunda kalır ve bu kendiliğinden gelişen bir süreçtir. Taraflar arasında yaşanan sorunlar, iletişim kopukluğu ya da doğru iletişimin, doğrudan eğitimin kalitesini dolayısıyla öğretmen veli ve öğrenci üçgeninde merkezde olan öğrencinin eğitim ve öğretim durumunu da etkiler.

Etkili insan ilişkileri ve iyi bir iletişim eğitim sisteminin amaçlarına ulaşmasında önemli bir etmendir. Bir eğitim kurumunun örgütsel, yönetsel ve eğitsel amaçları vardır ve bunları gerçekleştirmek için kurulur.

“Okulda insan ilişkilerinin amacı, tüm eğitim iş görenlerini okulun amaçlarını (sosyal, ekonomik ve politik) geliştirmeye yöneltmek ve eğitim iş görenlerinin gereksinimlerini karşılamak için takım çalışması yapmaya güdülemek olarak ifade edilebilir. Okul yönetimi, okulun iç öğeleri (öğretmen, öğrenci, eğitici olmayan personel) ve dış öğeleri ile (aileler, ticari kuruluşlar, baskı grupları ve merkez örgütü) işbirliği yaparak her kesimi tatmin edebilecek sağlıklı ve sürekli insan ilişkileri ile okul kültürü ve iklimi oluşturmaya çalışmalıdır. Okulda insan ilişkilerini “yönetim-öğrenci ilişkileri”, “öğretmen-öğrenci ilişkileri”, “öğrenci-öğrenci ilişkileri” ve “okul-çevre-öğrenci ilişkileri” olmak üzere değişik boyutlarda ele almak mümkündür. Bu beş grup arasında kurulan ve sürdürülen ilişkilerin niteliği, okullarda verilen eğitimin niteliği ve öğrencilerin akademik başarıları üzerinde olumlu etkiye sahiptir.

(dhgm.meb.gov.tr/yayimlar/dergiler/Milli_Egitim_Dergisi/.../cinkir.htm)

Eğitim sistemi içinde özellikle öğretmenler önemli bir rol oynarlar. Çocuklarla gerektiği gibi iletişim kurabilen, onların dilinden anlayan, güvenen ve güvenilen bir öğretmen çocuktaki öğrenme zevki uyandırarak çocuğun gelecekteki yaşamını da şekillendirebilir. Öğretmenin başarısı bu iletişim biçiminde saklıdır. Öğretmenin başarısı ise genel olarak öğrencinin sınav sonucu aldığı not olarak değerlendirilir. Çocuğun ortaya koyduğu bu performansa, başarı derecesine aslında çocuk kadar çevresinde bulunan ebeveyn, öğretmen de sahip çıkar. Ebeveyn ve öğretmen çocuğun başarısını kendi başarısı olarak gördüğü gibi başarısızlığı durumunda da

birbirlerini suçlamakta herhangi bir tereddüt göstermezler. Çocuğun başarısızlığı karşısında “öğretmenin iyi anlatıp anlatamaması”, “ebeveyn’in yeterli ilgiyi gösterip göstermemesi”, “çocuğun dikkatinin dağınık olması” gibi küçük dokundurmalar gündeme gelir. Bu ciddi anlamda baskı oluşturan bir durumdur. Bu süreç, ezen ezilen ilişkisine kolaylıkla dönüşebilen süreçtir. Oysa taraflar arasında kurulacak olan etkili iletişim sorunları ciddi anlamda yok edeceği gibi eğitimin kalitesi de artacaktır.

Forum tiyatro sorunun ifade edilmesi, çözüm arama ve uygulama noktasında önemli bir araçtır. İnsanoğlu kendini gözlemlerken, ne olduğunu fark eder, ne olmadığını keşfeder ve ne olabileceğini hayal eder. Nerede olduğunu, nerede olmadığını kavrar. Nereye gidebileceğini tasarlar. Bu noktada bir üçlü ortaya çıkar: gözlemleyen ben, durum içindeki ben ve ben olmayan ben, yani öteki. Yalnızca insanoğlu, imgesel bir aynada kendini gözleme yetisine sahiptir. Estetik alan bu hayali aynayı sağlar. Bu hayali ayna aracılığıyla insanoğlu kendine yabancılaşır, kendini izler, gözlemler ve bu sırada bazı şeyleri fark eder. Forum tiyatro yapmak için oyun öncesi küçük bir örnek grupla yapılan atölye çalışmaları yaşanan sorunların, baskıların bir başka deyişle ezen ezilen durumunun tespit edilmesi için gereklidir.

Forum tiyatro seyircisine içinde bulunduğu durumun farkına varmasını değerlendirmesine yardım eder. Homojen bir seyirci grubu karşısında sunulan ve seyircinin sahneye çıkarak eylemde bulunmasını sağlayan Forum Tiyatro seyircisini eyleme geçirerek gerçek dünyada benzer bir durumla karşılaştığı zaman ne yapması gerektiği hakkında bilgi sahibi olur. Gerçek dünyanın prova alanıdır sahne. Seyirci sahnede ezilen kahramanın yerine geçerek olaya müdahale eder. Yapabilecekleri şeyleri sahnede deneyerek öğrenir.

Baskının analizi:

“Baskı” kaynaklarda hak ve özgürlükleri kısıtlayarak zor altında bulundurma durumu, bir başka tanımda ise “belirli ruhsal etkinlik ve süreçleri, kişinin isteği dışında bilinçaltına itmesi veya bu itilenlerin bilince çıkmasını önleme durumu” şeklinde açıklanmış. Her iki tanımda da bir kısıtlama, bastırma söz konusu. Ancak ilkinde bilinçli bir kısıtlama, engel olma hali var iken ikincisinde bilinçaltına itilmiş, bilince çıkmasını engelleme durumu söz konusu edilmiş. Buradan şöyle bir sonuç çıkarabiliriz; bizler baskı durumunu her zaman fark edemeyebiliriz. Yani, baskıyı öylesine içselleştiririz ki onu yaşamımızın bir parçası, bir gerekliliği olarak, hatta doğal bir durummuş gibi kabul ederek birlikte yaşamın yollarını ararız. Başta toplumsal bilinç, gelenekler olmak üzere, yazılı ve yazılı olmayan kurallar, dayatılan toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri, başka türlü düşünmemizi engelleyerek bu duruma uyum sağlamaya çalışmamıza neden olur.

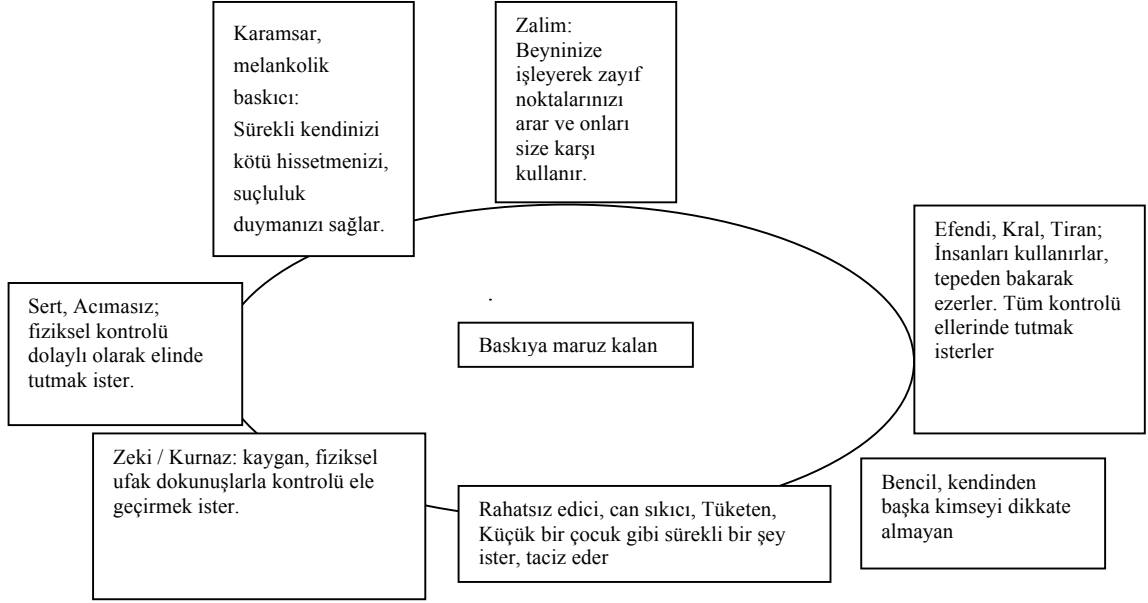
Baskı çeşitli biçimlerde yaşamımızda vardır. Paulo Freire “Ezilenlerin Pedagojisi” adlı eserinde insanın varlık nedenini “kendi dünyası üzerinde eylemde bulunmak, bu dünyayı dönüştüren bir özne olmak, daha zengin bir hayata giden yepyeni olanaklara doğru hareket etmek” olarak açıklamaktadır. (Freire:14) Freire’in deşindiğı bu dünya statik, kapalı, korunması gereken, insanın kabul etmek zorunda olduğı, kendini uydurmak zorunda olduğı, bir dünya değıldir. Bu dünyayı, üzerinde çalışılması ve çözülmesi gereken bir problem olarak kabul etmek gerekir. Bu problem, insanoğlunun tarihi oluştururken kullandığı malzemedir. İnsanın, belirli bir zaman ve yerde birçok sorunu alt ederek, yeni olanı yaratma cesareti göstererek yerine getirdiğı bir görevdir.

Freire ne kadar “cahil” veya “sessizlik kültürüne” gömülü olursa olsun, her insanın ötekilerle diyalog içinde yüzleşerek dünyasına eleştirel bakma yeteneğinde olduğunu düşünür. Böylesi bir yüzleşme için uygun araçlar sağlandığında insan kendi kişisel ve sosyal gerçekliğini de, bu gerçekliğin çelişkilerini de kademe kademe algılayabilir. “İnsanlar dünya aracılığıyla birbirlerini eğitebilirler. Bu olurken “söz” yeni bir güç kazanır. Freire’in ifadesiyle her insan kendi sözünü söyleme yoluyla dünyayı adlandırma ve dolayısıyla değıştirme dönüştürme hakkını yeniden kazanır.

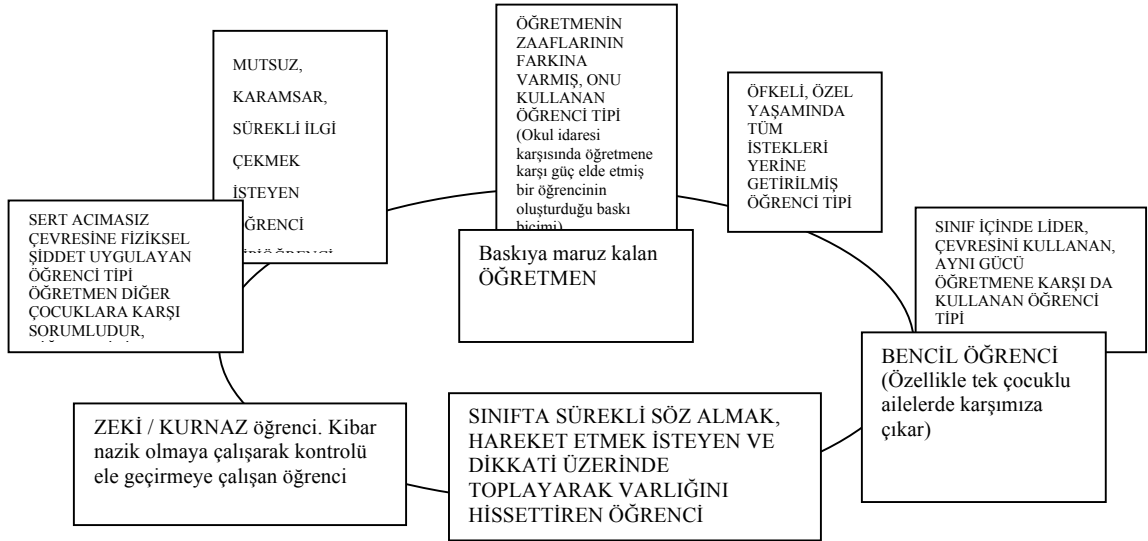
Söz içinde iki boyut barındırır: Düşünce ve Eylem. Her ikisinin bir bütünlük içinde olması gerekir. Bu ikisi öylesine bir bütünlük içindedir ki birinden verilen en ufak bir ödün diğlerinin de zarar görmesine neden olur. Çünkü, *Eylem + Düşünce = söz=iş’dir*. Düşüncenin olduğı ama eylemin olmadığı yerde varılan nokta “Lafazanlık”tır. Düşüncenin bir tarafa bırakılmasıyla ise, söz eyleme dönüştürülmüş olur. Eylem için eylem ise doğru uygulamaya izin vermez. Diyalogu imkânsız kılar. Sözün her biçimdeki bölünüşü özgün/gerçek olmayan düşünce biçimleri yaratır. (Freire:1998:66) Bu nedenle gerçek bir “söz” söylemek söz ile eylemi bir arada kullanmaktır ve ancak dünyayı gerçek bir söz söylediğimiz zaman değıştirebiliriz, dönüştürebiliriz.

Baskı Modelleri:

İnsan sosyal bir varlıktır ve içinde bulunduğu toplumla sürekli iletişim halindedir. Bu iletişim sırasında yazılı olan ve olmayan baskı modelleri hayatımızın her anında yer alabilir. Bu baskı modellerini şöyle gösterebiliriz: Şekil-1 içselleştirdiğimiz baskı modelleri (Malbogut, Iogna: 24)



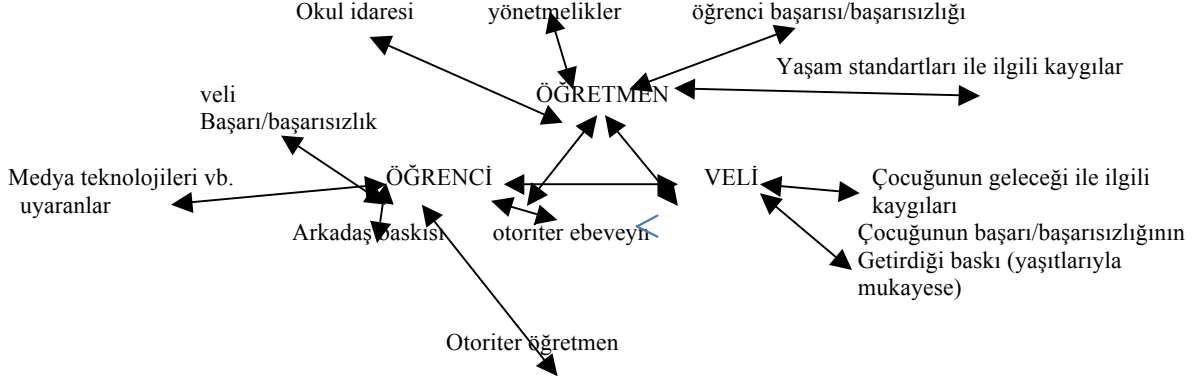
Yukarıdaki şemada görüldüğü üzere merkezde baskıya maruz kalan kişi, çemberin dışında bulunan karamsar melankolik baskıcı modelinde, yaşlı bir yakınının yalnızlığını kullanarak sitemle dile getirmesi o kişi için bir baskı modelidir. Kişinin kendisini suçlu hissetmesine neden olur ve üzerinde baskı oluşturur. Zeki kurnaz baskıcı, nazik kibar hareketlerle o kişinin yapmak istemediği bir şeyi yaptırabilir. Ya da çocuğun sürekli sizden bir şeyler istemesi, mızımızlanması da bir anne ya da baba için karşı koyamadı bir baskı modelidir. Şemada görülen diğer baskı modellerinin her biri tanıdık, günlük yaşam içinde karşımıza çıkan bizde bazı birikimlere neden olan baskı biçimleridir. Aynı şemayı aşağıda görüldüğü üzere öğretmen/öğrenci, öğretmen/veli ilişkileri açısından da ele alarak uyarlayabiliriz. Öğretmenin maruz kaldığı baskı öğrenci ve veli ilişkilerinde ortaya çıkabilir.



Şekil-2 Bir öğretmenin üzerinde bulunan baskı modelleri (Malbogat, Iogna: 24 şemasına göre)

Yukarıda şemada görüldüğü gibi öğretmen öğrencisinin karşısında farklı baskı modelleriyle karşı karşıyadır. Bu baskı biçimleri doğrudan öğrenciden gelebildiği gibi öğrenci aracılığıyla ebeveynden, okul idaresinden de gelebilir.

Bu ilişki biçimi çok yönlü olarak kurulur. Öğretmen Öğrenci Veli karşılıklı olarak her biri tek tek ve ayrı ayrı karşılıklı birbiri üzerinde bir baskı alanı oluşturabilirler.



Şekil.2: Öğretmen, öğrenci ve veli'nin birbiri üzerinde kurduğu baskılar

Forum Tiyatro:

Örnek:1 Öğrenci & Öğretmen, Öğrenci & Ebeveyn ve Öğrenci & Öğrenci ilişkileri:

Öğrencilerle sorun belirleme ve belirlenen sorunlardan oluşan bir oyun hazırlamak üzere günde üç saat olmak üzere dört gün atölye çalışması yapıldı. Çalışmada, donmuş ve canlanan imgeler, iç ses dinleme, ikili üçlü ve grup heykelleri, heykellere öyküler oluşturma, sorun sergileme, yerinde ben olsaydım, empati kurma gibi tekniklerle sorunlar belirlendi. Belirlenen sorunlar gruplandırıldı. Dramatik kurgular oluşturuldu, çatışma noktaları belirlendi ve ön oyunlar oluşturuldu.

Ortaya çıkan sorunlar üç başlık altında toplandı.

-- Öğrenci ve öğretmen ilişkileri: Bu ilişkilerde ortaya çıkan temel sorun öğrencilerin kılık kıyafet yönetmeliğine karşı ortaya koydukları tavır ve idarenin ve öğretmenlerin bu soruna karşı ortaya koydukları ısrarlı sert aşağılayıcı tutumları. Bir diğer sorun sınıfta bulunan bir kız ve erkek öğrencinin arasındaki ilişki biçimi velilere olduğundan farklı aksettirilmesi.

--Öğrenci ve öğrenci ilişkileri: Sınıfta çalışkan öğrencilere karşı diğerleri tarafından sergilenen dışlama tavrının yanı sıra, okul çıkışı ders çalışma yerine bir kafeye gidip oturma, sinemaya gitme, sigara içme konusunda ısrarcı davranışlar ve bunlara karşı olan öğrencilerin dışlayıcı, küçümseyici tavırlarla mücadele etmek zorunda kalmaları

--Öğrenci ve veli ilişkileri: Grup son sınıf öğrencilerinden oluşuyordu ve hepsinin üniversiteye hazırlık senesiydi. Çocuklar ne kadar çok ders çalışırlarsa çalışınlar aileleri tarafından yeterli bulunmuyorlardı. Bir ikinci sorun, üniversiteyi İstanbul dışında okuma isteğine ailelerin çeşitli gerekçelerle karşı çıkmaları. Üçüncü sorun ise kızların erkek arkadaş edinmeleri karşısında ebeveynin sergilediği tavır.

Ön Oyun:

Sabah kontrollerinin yapıldığı saatin canlandırıldığı sahneyle ön oyun başladı. Daha sonra sınıfa girip oturdular. Çalışkan öğrenci ile o günkü sınavın pazarlığı yapıldı. Bu arada bir erkek öğrenci yanındaki kız öğrencinin omzuna elini atmış vaziyette oturmuş kızın gösterdiği ders notlarından bir konuyu takip ediyordu. O sırada öğretmen geldi ve kıza ve erkek öğrenciye bağırarak kızın babasına telefon açıp şikâyet edeceğini söyledi. Üçüncü bölüm ise evde geçiyordu. Kız ders çalışırken tam ara verip biraz müzik dinlenmek istediği sırada annesi odaya giriyor, annesi tarafından çalışmamakla suçlanıyordu. Kız annesini ara verdiği konusunda ikna etmeye çalışıyordu. Ayrıca İstanbul dışında okuma isteği gündeme geldiğinde abi şiddetle karşı çıkarak babayı da etkiliyordu. Oyun 15 dakika ile sınırlandırılarak sergilenmek üzere hazırlandı. Seyirci grubu olarak okulun lise bölümü öğrencileri davet edildi.

Forum:

Önce öğrenciler kendi aralarında çözüm aradılar. Rahatsızlıklarını dile getiren imzasız mektup göndermekten, grup halinde müdürün yanına gidip sıkıntılarını dile getirmeye kadar birçok öneri geldi. Daha sonra okul müdürü ve öğretmenler etkinliğe davet edilerek sahneye çıkarıldı. Önce öğretmen (müdür yardımcısı) öğrencinin yerine geçerek öğrencinin kıyafet kontrolünden geçerken yaşadıkları yaşamı sağlandı. Öğrenciler öğrenci rolündeki öğretmene öğretmenin kontrollerde kullandığı kendi sözcükleriyle karşı çıktılar, bu salonda alkışlarla karşılandı. Öğretmenin itirazları önerileri çıkışsız kaldı. Davet edilen bir başka öğretmen de benzeri durumlar sergilendi.

Müdür sahneye davet edildi. Müdürün bazı itirazları, öğrenciler tarafından aynı müdürün kontrollerde kullandığı sözleriyle kesildi. Bir iki öneriden sonra müdür oyunu keserek aslında kendisi de kıyafetlere bu kadar karışılmasından hoşnut olmadığını, kravat takmayı sevmediğini ama kendisinin de sorumlu olduğu bir Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü olduğunu dile getirdi.

Radikal bir çözüm bulunamadı. Oyunun sonunda sahneye davet edilen rehber öğretmen, öğrencilere açıklamalarda bulundu. Verdiği bilgiler arasında yönetmelikler, uygulanma gerekçeleri, ikili ilişkilerde dikkat edilmesi gereken noktalar, aileleri ile ilgili ilişkilerde çeşitli davranma modelleri, olası sonuçlar, empati ve önemi gibi konular yer alıyordu.

Örnek:2 Öğretmen Veli ve İdareci ilişkileri

Bir devlet okulunda çalışan öğretmen bir velisinden şikâyetçiydi. Veli zengin bir iş adamı ve her fırsatta okula yardımlarda bulunuyor, buna karşılık çocuğuna karşı ayrıcalıklı davranılmasını istiyordu. Öğretmenle çocuğu ile ilgili yaşadığı bir anlaşmazlık durumunda müdüre gitmiş, müdür de veliden yana bir tavırla hafta başında odasına gelmesini istemişti öğretmenin.

Olayı anlatan öğretmenin tarifine göre ön oyun oluşturuldu. Buna göre, müdür masasında oturduğu sırada veli gelir, öğretmenle ilgili şikâyetini dile getirir. Laf aralarında kendisinin okul ile ilgili yardımlarından söz eder ve başka bir ihtiyacınız olursa lütfen bildirin der. O sırada öğretmen girer odaya. Müdür biraz tepeden bakarak öğretmene sorunun ne olduğunu sorar. Öğretmen kısaca durumu özetler, veli sert bir şekilde öğretmenin sözünü keserek itiraz eder, müdür veliyi yatıştırır gibi bir tavır alır. Oyun kesilir, seyirciye dönülür.

Bu çalışma sırasında gözlenen en önemli ayrıntı öğretmenlerin oyun sonunda kendilerini karşısında gerçek müdür ve veli varmış gibi hissettiklerini söyleyeceklerinden emin olduklarını kendilerini daha güçlü hissettiklerini dile getirdiler.

Odak Grup Görüşmesi:

Bu çalışmada örneklem olarak biri İstanbul'da bir meslek lisesinde (12 öğrenci 5K+7E), ikincisi Muğla/Fethiye'de Anadolu Lisesinde (3K+4E) ve diğer üçüncüsü ise yine İstanbul'da bir özel lisede (6K+7E) gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ayrıca iki okulda atölye çalışması ve Forum uygulayan öğrencilerin yanı sıra Forum katılan idareci ve öğretmenlerle de odak grup çalışması yapılmıştır. Görüşme, İstanbul'daki okulda bir müdür beş öğretmen, Fethiye'de ise bir müdür üç öğretmenle gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Nitel araştırma tekniklerine dayanan bu çalışmada yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme ve odak grup görüşmesi aynı anda uygulanmıştır. Odak grup görüşmesi her üç gruba da Forum yapıldıktan bir gün sonra uygulanmıştır. Her bir görüşme yaklaşık 45 dakika sürmüştür. Görüşmeler grupların izni alınarak ses kayıt cihazına kaydedilmiştir. Odak grup görüşmelerinin amacı, belirlenen bir konu hakkında katılımcıların bakış açılarına, yaşantılarına, ilgilerine, deneyimlerine, eğilimlerine, düşüncelerine, algılarına, duygularına, tutum ve alışkanlıklarına dair derinlemesine, detaylı ve çok boyutlu nitel bilgi edinmektir (Çokluk:2011: 98) Odak grup görüşmelerinde önemli olan katılımcıların kendi görüşlerini özgürce ortaya koymalarını sağlayacak ortam oluşturmaktır. Bu nedenle öğretmen ve öğrenci gruplarıyla ayrı ayrı görüşme yapılmıştır.

Bu etkinlikte, Forum sırasında salonda veliler yer almadığı için onlara yönelik bir çalışma yapılamamıştır.

Forum Tiyatro Atölyesine Katılan ve Oyun Sergileyen Gruplarla Yapılan Odak Grup Görüşmesi:

Forum tiyatro çalışması, önceden de dile getirildiği gibi hazırlık, sunum ve forum olmak üzere üç aşamalı bir süreci kapsıyor. Bu sürecin başından itibaren çalışmalara katılan grup üyeleri, özellikle workshop sırasında tartışmalı, bedensel ifadenin önemli olduğu, yani düşüncelerin bedensel ifadeye dönüştürülmesi ve sözsüz ifade ile (sadece ses, jest ve mimiklerle) oluşturulması sürecinin, her üç grupta da yoğun bir farkındalık oluşturduğu ifade edildi. Gençler, okulda kıyafet kontrolü sırasında sergilenen davranışları önceleri doğal gelirken atölye sürecinde yaşadıkları kontroller sırasında daha farklı bir gözle baktıklarını dile getirdiler. Günde üç saat, toplam

dört günlük çalışmada empati duygusu konusunda farkındalık olduğu gözlemlendi. Erkek öğrenciler özellikle kız arkadaşlarının durumunun kendilerinden daha zor olduğunu ifade ettiler. Daha önce birbirleri hakkında bilmedikleri birçok şeyin olduğunu, birbirlerini 3 senedir aynı sınıfta paylaşımlarına karşın yeterince tanımadıklarını, atölye çalışmalarının birbirlerini tanımalarında etkili olduğunu dile getirdiler.

Forum sırasında aileleri ile empati yaptıklarını –özellikle anne ve babayı oynayan çocukların- onların işlerinin hiç de kolay olmadığını daha iyi anladıklarını dile getirdiler. Ancak yine de yapmak istediklerinden vaz geçmeyeceklerini, anne babalar için de böyle bir forum tiyatro çalışması yapılmasının iyi olacağını söylediler. Böylece onlar da çocuklarıyla empati yapabileceklerini böylece kendilerini daha iyi anlayacaklarını ifade ettiler.

Seyircilerle yapılan görüşme:

Forum Tiyatro oturumundan sonra yapılan çok kısa süreli görüşmede salondaki öğrenciler, bu tiyatroyu kesinlikle ebeveynlerine de yapılması gerektiği, onların böyle bir çalışmaya ihtiyaçları olduğunu söylediler. Böylece onlar kendilerini daha iyi anlayacaklarını daha az çatışacaklarını dile getirdiler.

Öğretmenlerle yapılan Görüşme:

Öğretmenlerle yapılan atölye çalışmasında ortaya konan resimleri her biri çok iyi tanıdılar. Müdürün hareketleri, velinin hareketleri çok net anlaşıldı. Bu saptamadan yalnız olmadıklarını, benzer sorunlarla her birinin ayrı ayrı mücadele ettiklerini fark ettiklerini söyleyerek rahatladıklarını dile getirdiler. İçlerinde müdür, müdür muavini gibi görevleri yürütenlerin olması sorunları çok yönlü görmelerini ve tartışmalarda olayları çok yönlü değerlendirme şansı yakaladıklarını ifade ettiler.

Ancak, oyuna müdahale eden öğretmenler içinde, görüşme sırasında eskisi kadar bu olayın onları rahatsız etmediğini söyleyen iki öğretmen vardı. Sanki bir çeşit katarsis yaşamışlardı. Sahnede istediği gibi müdürü oynayana bağırdıklarını, müdürü oynayan kişinin de çok gerçekçi bir şekilde rolünün gereğini yerine getirdiğini söylediler. Bir çeşit psiko-terapi seansından çıkmışçasına rahatlamışlardı. Bu rahatlama üzerine konuşuldu. Oyunun sağladığı bu rahatlama, müdürle yaşadıkları sorunu unutturacak mı yoksa müdürle daha sakin soğukkanlı olarak mı konuşacaklardı? Her ikisi de daha sakin, ne söyleyeceklerini, ne söylemeleri gerektiğini bilerek müdürün karşısına çıkacaklarını dile getirdiler. Bu da onları daha güçlü hissetmelerini sağlamıştı, rahatlama kaynağını bu güçlü hissetmeden alıyordu.

Rahatlama, arınma Ezilenlerin Tiyatrosunun sakındığı bir konudur. Zira bu tarz tiyatronun hedefi kişiyi eleştirel bilinçle birlikte harekete geçecek gücü kazandırmayı hedefler.

SONUÇ:

Ezilenlerin tiyatrosu tekniklerinden biri olan Forum Tiyatro seyircisine gerçek dünyada karşılaştığı ya da karşılaşma olasılığı olan ezilme durumlarıyla başa çıkma olanağı sunar. Tiyatro sahnesi bir prova alanıdır. Seyirci sahneye gelerek yaşadığı sorunlara çözüm arar, dener, olası durumlarda başına gelebilecekleri görür ve ona göre tavır almasını sağlar.

Bu bildiri kapsamında dile getirilen uygulama ve odak grup görüşmeleri göstermiştir ki Forum Tiyatro sorunları belirlemede, sorunlara çözüm arayışında ve çözüm bulmada önemli bir araçtır. Hangi grup içinde yapılırsa yapılsın sahne üstünde oluşturduğu ortamlarla seyircisine empati, eleştirel bilinç ve sorunların çözümünde dinamizm kazandırmaktadır.

Bu çalışmalar bir kez daha göstermiştir ki, Ezilenlerin tiyatrosu tekniklerinden biri olan Forum Tiyatro, her alanda olduğu gibi eğitim kurumlarında da kullanılması iletişimin kalitesini artırarak eğitim hedeflerine ulaşmada daha barışçıl bir ortam hazırlayacak bu da eğitimin kalitesini arttıracaktır.

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Internationalization Status of Selected Teacher Education Institutions in the Philippines

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Abstract

This study assessed the level of internationalization of ten Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the Philippines. These institutions were assessed in terms of their strengths and weaknesses in four domains in teacher education and nine dimensions of internationalization using a 4-pt scale rubric developed by Balagtas & Associates (2012). The results reveal that none from the selected TEIs are internationalized to a great extent in all the four domains of teacher education based on the scale. They were, however, internationalized to some extent in academic standards and quality (domain 2), knowledge creation and appreciation (domain 1), and growth, efficiency, and accountability (domain 4), but internationalized to a little extent in culture of sharing and service (domain 3). In terms of the dimensions of internationalization, they were internationalized to a great extent only in curriculum and instruction but considered weak in all other eight areas of internationalization of HEIs.

Keywords: Assessment, Internationalization, Teacher Education

INTRODUCTION

With the onslaught of technology, the world has shrunk into a global village that people mobility and information generation have increased in unimaginable proportions. Nations needed to reach out to other countries not only for political and economic reasons, but also for educational purposes. This process of reaching out is described in most conferences in education as internationalization.

According to Bernardo (2002), internationalization could be construed as related to educational and development goals. Educational goals are related to assumptions of universal knowledge and the need for collaborative international efforts and perspectives. The development goals, on the other hand, are related to the mission of developed countries to provide assistance and support to less developed countries in their efforts at improving their capabilities in their higher education institutions.

Internationalization is considered a compelling reason for an academic institution to change or modernize its programs and practices in order to compete globally. With the advent of global rankings of countries and universities, everyone in the academe becomes conscious of how one's country or institution can be included in the ranking as such is an indicator of progress, quality and capability.

Internationalization of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) has also been among the challenges of the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) in the Philippines because of the collaboration and intercultural exchanges in the global village. According to Bernardo (2002), there are some opportunities for internationalizing higher education, namely, student and staff mobility; internationalizing curricula through international studies; research collaborations; international networks; transnational distance education; twinning and articulation programs; and international quality assurance. Likewise, Padama et al. (as cited by Balagtas et al., 2012), proposed a framework for internationalization of HEIs with nine dimensions, namely, curriculum and instruction; facilities and support system; cooperation and development assistance; diversity of income generation; research collaboration; international and intercultural understanding/networking; academic standards and quality; mobility and exchanges for students and teachers; and international students recruitment.

To translate these dimensions of internationalization in Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the Philippines, Balagtas et al. (2012) developed an instrument that has the dimensions reflective of specific

indicators to improve the programs and practices as institutions offering teacher education programs. This contextualization of internationalization reflects the areas of commitment of the Philippine Normal University (PNU), being the premier teacher education institution in the Philippines and the National Center for Teacher Education (NCTE). The four areas of commitment include 1) Commitment to Knowledge Creation and Application; 2) Commitment to Quality and Excellence; 3) Commitment to Culture of Sharing and Service; and 4) Commitment to Growth, Efficiency, and Accountability (PNU Administrative Manual, 2005).

As NCTE, the Philippine Normal University is mandated by the government of the Philippines to provide technical support to the CHED and to the Department of Education (DepEd) in their programs and projects that chart policies and recommendation on teacher education, teacher training, teacher education curricula, professional development for teachers and educational leaders in the country (Republic Act No. 9647, Sec 3a, 2009). True to its mandate, PNU envisions national and international responsiveness and recognition as a Teacher Education University (PNU, 2012).

In order to act on its mandate and realize its vision, PNU has set five strategies for internationalization: 1) develop an internationalization program that will increase the number and expand diversity of foreign students and faculty; 2) develop an international relations strategic plan to ensure a strategic position within the global teacher education network and academic community; 3) develop and produce scholarly work and products that attract international audience; 4) position PNU as a hub of academic activities and exchanges relevant to teacher education and basic education to ensure its international presence; and 5) participate in international network of TEIs to promote collaboration and partnership in the conduct of research, extension, and production (PNU, 2012).

One project that PNU spearheaded is the creation of the National Network of Normal Schools (3NS). The network serves as the arm of CHED for its project dubbed as “Save Our Normal Schools” which was conceived to address serious challenges faced by Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the country. As the lead shepherd, PNU is expected to lead or collaborate with the other nine (9) member institutions of 3NS in all efforts to improve the quality of programs, operations and services of TEIs in the country.

Cognizant of these strategies, the researchers felt the need to contribute to the realization of PNU’s vision for internationalization. They started this by assessing the level of internationalization of their institution and then the nine other member TEIs in the network so that it can provide a basis for spearheading development programs in teacher education in the country. Assessment as defined by Balagtas & Dacanay (2013) is the process of gathering information and organizing them into an interpretable form for easy decision making. Assessment is imperative then to have basis in determining the capacity of the institution to compete globally. The results of such assessment could show the strengths and weaknesses of the institutions and define the specific actions they have to take in enhancing their programs and practices towards global competitiveness. Internationalization of the institution is one possible concrete action towards global competitiveness.

In this study, internationalization refers to the process where two or more foreign institutions collaborate in the delivery of academic, research, social and economic activities for their mutual benefits and understanding. According to Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry (1997), any activity that involves a cross-country collaboration contributes to the internationalization of the activities of the partners. Examples of such internationalization activities include international students in undergraduate or postgraduate courses; internationalization of the curriculum and comparative curricula studies; international research conferences; international publications; collaborative and/or comparative cross-country research projects; professional development programs; and international consultancies.

Through the examination of the strengths and weaknesses of the 10 normal schools in each of the domains and dimensions of internationalization, the researchers believe that the member institutions of the 3NS will have basis in improving their own internationalization efforts. The analysis will also help them as they synergize with other member institutions in their network to sustain their identified strengths and to improve on the areas they are weak at.

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive research describes the level of internationalization of the 10 surveyed institutions belonging to the Network of Normal Schools (3NS) as assessed by their own internal stakeholders to have basis for the

improvement of their efforts at internationalization. Each institution has 23 to 36 internal stakeholders for a total of 308 who served as assessors. About 27% of these are students, 52% are faculty, 7% are staff, and 12% are officials. About 2% of the respondents did not indicate their identity in the instrument. To assess their level of internationalization, the 4-pt scale rubric in assessing the internationalization level of TEIs developed by Balagtas, Atweh, Papangao, Reyes, & Ubiña (2012) was used. This instrument has been content validated and subjected to test of reliability using Cronbach's Alpha ($r=0.88$), in which results indicate high internal reliability coefficient, also high intra-rater reliability ($r=0.88$) as well as high inter-rater reliability ($r=0.76$). For data gathering, the consent of the institution's President was first sought, and those s/he identified as participants mostly from the college offering education programs attended a forum where they were introduced to the framework of internationalization. The forum participants also served as the assessors who gathered a set of documents (e.g. curricular programs with syllabi, technical reports, list of foreign students and faculty, President's reports, annual reports, memoranda of understanding/agreement, etc.) that could gauge the institution's level of internationalization. Descriptive statistical procedures were used to describe the strengths (areas with average rating from 2.5 to 4) and weaknesses (average rating is below 2.5) of the institutions, which served as basis for the proposed developmental program. The average ratings also classified the institutions into five (5) levels, namely, not internationalized (0-0.49); internationalized to a little extent (0.5 to 1.49); internationalized to some extent (1.5 to 2.49); internationalized to a high extent (2.5 to 3.49); and internationalized to a very high extent (3.5 to 4).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Strengths and Weaknesses on Internationalization of the 10 Member Institutions in the 3NS

Institution 1: A Normal School in Manila. Among the nine (9) areas of internationalization, this institution is seen strong in the area of *academic standards and quality* having been rated as 3.14 out of 4, which means **internationalized to a high extent**. The assessment on the level of internationalization of this institution in this area seems to conform to the high performance of its graduates in the Licensure Examination for Teachers (LET), because it has been consistently at the top among those TEIs that have the most number of teacher applicants who passed the examination. Other areas that this institution is seen as strong include the dimension on *curriculum and instruction* (2.69) and *facilities and support system* (2.58). Such results can be attributed to the University leadership's vision of becoming internationalized; hence, its curriculum and instruction including its facilities and support system are designed to be at par with other top rank universities in Asia and in the world. This institution, being the NCTE is also expected to lead reforms in teacher education. An evidence of its leadership is in its curricular programs which are considered alternative to what the CHED provides. These curricular programs are equally effective as those prescribed by the CHED since they also produced graduates with high performance in the LET. The institution, however, is viewed weakest in *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (1.32) and on the dimension of *research collaboration* (1.42). This explains why this institution has been assisted in these areas in an applied research grant by the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade Australian Aid Project through the efforts of the University of New England (UNE) SIMERR, National Research Centre, an institution in Armidale, Australia that has led the development of the Australian National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST). This grant established a national research center called Research Center for Teacher Quality (RCTQ), which was envisioned to provide evidence-based inputs to policy formulation that could improve teacher quality in the Philippines. The other dimensions of internationalization that the institution is also weak at include *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (2.36), *international students' recruitment* (2.23), *cooperation and development assistance* (1.92), and *diversity of income generation* (1.61). As a whole, the institution is considered **internationalized to some extent** (2.29). This means that this institution should continue developing itself "to level up teacher education for a quality nation...as it moves along with global demands" (Ogena, 2013).

Institution No. 2: A Normal School in Palawan. The member institution of 3NS in Palawan is seen strongest in the area of *curriculum and instruction* (2.59) and *facilities and support system* (2.54) since both are interpreted as internationalized to a high extent. However, the institution is viewed as weak or rated as internationalized to a little extent in *cooperation and development assistance* (0.98), *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (1.15), and *research and collaboration* (1.17). Other dimensions such as *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (1.52), *international students' recruitment* (1.51), and *diversity of income generation* (1.71) are rated internationalized to some extent, which area dimensions still considered as also a weakness. As a whole, the institution is considered of **internationalized to some extent**. This means that

the institution has to develop internationally benchmarked programs and practices to continue to be “leaders in Philippines education” (Sespeña, 2013).

Institution No. 3: A Normal School in Bicol. The stakeholders of a normal school in Bicol assess their institution strong in the area of curriculum and instruction (3.21), facilities and support system (3.03), international student recruitment (3.88), and academic standard and quality (2.84) with all these dimensions interpreted as internationalized to a great extent. It can be noted that the institution is strong in four areas of internationalization compared to the first two normal schools in Luzon. This strength of the institution could be explained by the international accreditation it has gone through since it is the only ISO certified institution among the 10 member institutions under the 3NS. However, just like other normal schools, the institution is viewed weak in diversity of income generation (0.05) and mobility and exchanges for students and teachers (1.2). This can be explained by the fact that the budget of a state university is mostly dependent only on the appropriation in the national budget. The other dimensions that the institution is known weak or rated internationalized to some extent include international and intercultural understanding and networking (1.9), cooperation and development assistance (1.61), and research collaboration (1.69). As a whole, the institution is considered of **internationalized to some extent**. This means that the institution still needs some development programs to continue to help “steer the country towards progress and development” (Lauraya, 2013).

Institution No. 4: A Normal School in Leyte. Stakeholders from a normal school in Leyte rated their institution **internationalized to some extent** with a 1.92 overall rating. Such rating reflects the objective evaluation of the stakeholders of the institution as they see this assessment as input to its improvement. Cruzada (2013) quotes “know thyself; the unexamined life is not worth living.” – an inscription at the Temple of Delphi, a concept that holds true for a person, as it does for the society, and may also be true to an institution. In so doing, respondents from the institution evaluated their *facilities and support system* (3.28) and *curriculum and instruction* (2.8) internationalized to a high extent, which shows that its curricular offerings, its strategies in teaching and the facilities that support its delivery of the programs can well compete with standards overseas. Meanwhile, in regard to *academic standards*, they rated their institution internationalized to some extent (2.05). This means that at least 25% of its programs are level 3 accredited by nationally/internationally known accrediting bodies; at least 20% of the faculty and administrators are recognized for their expertise here and abroad; at least 25% of the administrators and staff have special trainings or exposures abroad; the institution is cited by only 2 recognized international societies or publications as a good institution for learning; and at least 25% of the faculty and administrators are recipients of scholarships, fellowships or grants abroad. However, the stakeholders viewed *research and collaboration* (1.22) and *international/intercultural understanding/networking* (1.22) internationalized to a little extent since the institution has had few researches and twinning programs at the international level. Such perceptions support the stakeholders’ views on mobility of students/faculty and income generation. The institution’s faculty rated their institution poorly in terms of *mobility and exchanges of students and teachers* and in terms of *diversity of income generation* which both got 0.63. Such ratings prove that there have been very few student and faculty exchanges between this institution and foreign institutions. This also means that less than 3 % of the faculty members taught, received trainings, or served as consultants abroad.

Institution No. 5: A Normal School in Iloilo. Stakeholders’ ratings on the level of internationalization of a normal school in Iloilo reached an overall rating of 2.68 interpreted as **internationalized to a high extent**. The institution was evaluated highly for its *curriculum and instruction* (3.43), *academic standards and quality* (2.95), *international students’ recruitment* (2.95), and *facilities and support system* (2.9) – all internationalized to a great extent. Whereas, in terms of *cooperation and development assistance*; *diversity of income generation*; and *mobility and exchanges for faculty and students*, the stakeholders evaluated it internationalized to some extent. These evaluations can well be supported by the fact that the institution has had some of its programs accredited at level 4 by the Accrediting Association of Chartered Colleges and Universities of the Philippines (AACUP). Such evaluation also confirms what this institution has been consistently doing, i.e. “living up to its core values” one of which is “excellence” (Subong, 2013).

Institution No. 6: A Normal School in Zamboanga. The level of internationalization of a normal school in Western Mindanao in the dimensions of *curriculum and instruction* (2.48), *facilities and support system* (2.13), and *research collaboration* (2.07) garnered the highest means and interpreted as internationalized to some extent. The faculty, students, and staff of this university perceived these dimensions as their strength since these are the very reasons why they were awarded as the Center of Development (COD) in Teacher Education. On the

other hand, the dimensions on *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (0.47), *diversity of income generation* (1.11), and *international students' recruitment* (1.26) had the lowest means. The data imply that these dimensions are the weak areas of this normal school since they are the very areas interpreted as internationalized to a little extent or not internationalized at all. This is easily explained by their geographic and socio-political conditions. The university is located in Mindanao, the southernmost island in the Philippines. Peace and order is problematic in the area, thus, most foreign embassies issue travel advisories to their citizens not to travel to the area. Since many cases of kidnapping of foreigners and locals including conflict situations are often sensationalized abroad, very few foreign nationals go to Mindanao. Overall, this university however, has a mean score of 1.78, which means **internationalized to some extent**. Therefore, the 3NS should gather all its efforts to help this institution “to improve and transform teacher education in the country to meet the challenges posed by globalization” (Ho, 2013).

Institution No. 7: A Normal School in Bukidnon. The stakeholders from the normal school in Bukidnon gave their institution an overall rating of 1.58 with a corresponding description of **internationalized to some extent**. This means that the institution needs development programs in its “journey towards excellence driven by substance and not form” (Barroso, 2013). For a closer look at the areas for development, the respondents rated the institution’s *curriculum and instruction* highest at 2.45, followed by *facilities and support system* at 2.07 and *academic standard and quality* at 1.87, which were both rated internationalized to some extent. Meanwhile, *international and intercultural understanding and networking* had 1.43 rating; *international students' recruitment* had 1.01; *cooperation and development assistance* had 0.95; and *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* had 0.71 – all interpreted internationalized to a little extent. In contrast, the respondents rated *diversity of income generation* the least at 0.39 which reveals that in terms of creating projects and programs that will help the university gain revenues, this institution cannot yet compete with internationalized benchmarks.

Institution No. 8: A Normal School in Cebu. The top two dimensions of internationalization of a Normal School in Cebu are the *academic standard and quality* (2.76) and *curriculum and instruction* (2.55) which are interpreted as internationalized to a great extent. This indicates that the Normal School is strong in these dimensions. They were able to strengthen these dimensions, thus, the CHED named it as the Center of Excellence in Teacher Education. However, this Normal School was rated weak in three dimensions, namely, *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (0.84), *cooperation and development assistance* (1.19), and *diversity of income generation* (1.19), which are all interpreted as internationalized to a little extent. Like the other Normal Schools which rely on the national government for its meagre appropriations, this Normal School has to strengthen its income generating projects. In addition, this institution was built primarily to educate teachers in the province. In 1902, this Normal School was established as a “tributary school of Philippine Normal School in Manila” (Lopez, 2013). From then on, it has been a strong producer of quality teachers in the Visayas province of Cebu. Recent efforts on internationalization, however, are on their way. Overall, this institution has a mean score of 2.03, which is interpreted as **internationalized to some extent**.

Institution No. 9: A Normal School in Ilocos. The stakeholders of a normal school in Ilocos assessed their institution’s level of internationalization highest in the area of Facilities and Support System having been rated as 2.58 out of 4, which means internationalized to a great extent. The institution is viewed as weak in *diversity of income generation* (0.09) and *cooperation and development assistance* (0.24), both interpreted as not internationalized at all. The other dimensions interpreted internationalized to a little extent are *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (0.54), *research and collaboration* (0.75), *international students' recruitment* (0.84), and *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (0.99). Meanwhile, the dimensions on *curriculum and instruction* and *academic standard and quality* were considered internationalized to some extent. As a whole, the institution is considered **internationalized to a little extent**. This level indicates that there is really a need for development programs for a higher level of internationalization of this TEI as it continues to be “a bastion of tradition and excellence” in the northern part of the Philippines (Pascua, 2013).

Institution No. 10: A Normal School in Pangasinan. The stakeholders of a normal school in Pangasinan assessed their institution’s level of internationalization as needing improvement in almost all areas of internationalization although it is now working on its Level 4 accreditation status for its teacher education program. Nevertheless, the assessors see their institution as having potential in *facilities and support system*, *academic standards and quality*, and in *curriculum and instruction* since these dimensions were all rated

equivalent to level 2 in internationalization, which is interpreted as internationalized to some extent. The institution is viewed as weak in *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers, cooperation and development assistance, diversity of income generation, and international students' recruitment* as these dimensions were rated not internationalized at all. Moreover, assessors also see their institution internationalized to a little extent in the dimensions of *research collaboration and international and intercultural understanding and networking*. As a whole, this institution sees itself as **internationalized to a little extent**. This means that it needs development programs in all areas of internationalization to have a successful “journey towards global excellence” (Estira, 2013).

Across Institutions. Figure 1 shows the areas of strengths and weaknesses of the 10 normal schools in the 3NS along the nine (9) areas of internationalization. As shown in the figure, the stakeholders of the 3NS see the network as strong or **internationalized to a great extent** in only two (2) areas – *curriculum and instruction* and *facilities and support system*. They have the potential to be strong in *academic standards and quality, international and intercultural understanding and networking, and international students' recruitment* as these dimensions are interpreted **internationalized to some extent**. On the contrary, the network needs to strengthen its *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers, cooperation and development assistance, diversity of income generation, and research collaboration*. As a whole, the institutions in the network are internationalized only to some extent; thus, explains the need for development programs for internationalization.

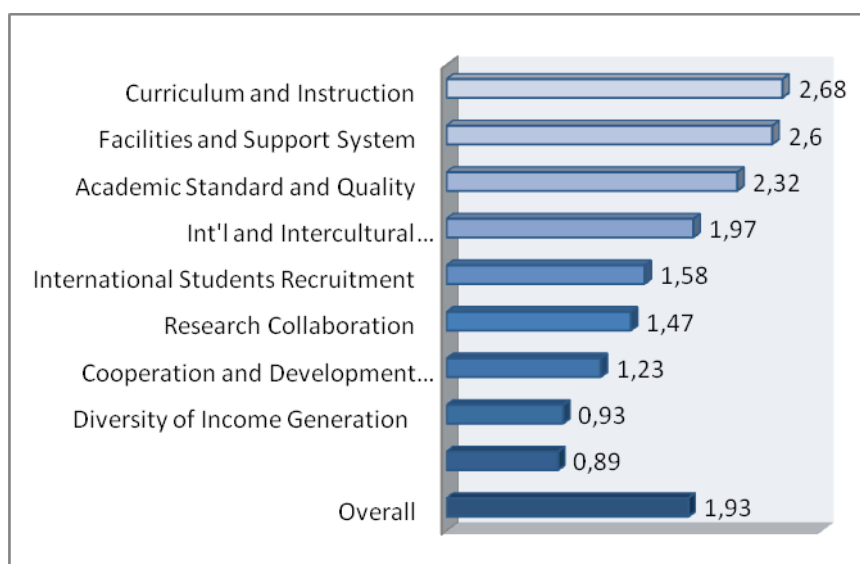


Figure 1: Over-all Level of internationalization of selected TEIs in the Philippines

The results pointed to almost the same deterrents to internationalization of higher education institutions in the Philippines which Bernardo (2002) discussed: programs cost, research capability, lack of involvement in international networks, and inability to comply with quality assurance process.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The analysis made on the strengths and weaknesses of the 10 member institutions of the 3NS in the Philippines gives a picture of the needed development programs in teacher education in the Philippines. Likewise, the results also reveal the capacity of the surveyed institutions to be the country's resource that could be shared with other countries in terms of the preparation and development of teachers at least in Asia if not beyond it. Apparently, among the nine areas for internationalization, the country's *curriculum and instruction* could be a potential area for internationalization. As the country prepares for the ASEAN 2015, the government could promote the country's TEIs particularly their curriculum and instruction in producing teachers for the ASEAN community. The present teacher education curriculum in the Philippines can be considered internationally benchmarked; hence it can also develop teachers in the other countries in the ASEAN region. The *facilities and support system* of these TEIs particularly those belonging to the 3NS are also being improved to effectively deliver the curriculum for teachers. The *standards and quality of their programs and services* are also potential strength including initial efforts for *international and intercultural understanding and networking* as

well as *international student recruitment*. However, to help strengthen TEIs as a country's resource, the government can also facilitate the *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers*; establish *cooperation and development assistance* at least with the ASEAN countries; *diversify the sources for income generation*; and establish *research collaboration*. Since the member institutions of the 3NS are all government institutions created basically to produce teachers for the Filipino people, government efforts and resources should be appropriated for them to produce teachers who are at par with those teaching in top rank universities in Asia. Since ASEAN 2015 is one year away, efforts need to be doubled for TEIs in the country to be of help in making the Philippines a country to consider when it comes to the preparation or development of teachers at least in the ASEAN community.

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Development Programs for the Internationalization of Teacher Education Institutions in the Philippines

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Abstract

This paper proposes some development programs for the internationalization of ten (10) Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the Philippines that constitute the National Network of Normal Schools (3NS). The internal stakeholders of these institutions served as the assessors of the internationalization level using a 5-pt rubric, which highlights four (4) domains of Teacher Education and nine (9) dimensions of internationalization of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). The four domains are: 1) Knowledge Creation and Application; 2) Quality and Excellence; 3) Culture of Sharing and Service; and 4) Growth, Efficiency, and Accountability. The nine (9) dimensions of internationalization in Higher Education Institutions are: 1) Curriculum and Instruction; 2) Facilities and Support System; 3) Cooperation and Development Assistance; 4) Diversity of Income Generation; 5) Research Collaboration; 6) International and Intercultural Understanding/Networking; 7) Academic Standards and Quality; 8) Mobility and Exchanges for Students and Teachers; and 9) International Students Recruitment. The proposed development programs are recommended for consideration by the individual institutions sampled, the network that they belong, and all the other TEIs in the country for the advancement of teacher education in the Philippines to merit the recognition by the global community.

Keywords: Assessment, Internationalization, Development Program

INTRODUCTION

In this era of fast changing technology, the world has shrunk into a global village where people mobility and information generation have increased in unimaginable proportions. One nation reaches out to other countries not only for political and economic reasons, but also for educational purposes. This kind of interaction among nations particularly for educational purposes is referred to as internationalization in this paper. According to Bernardo (2002), the educational goals of internationalization are related to assumptions of universal knowledge and the need for collaborative international efforts and perspectives while its development goals are related to the mission of developed countries to provide assistance and support to less developed countries in their efforts at improving their capabilities in their Higher Education Institutions (HEIs).

Internationalization of HEIs has been among the challenges of the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) in the Philippines because of the collaboration and intercultural exchanges between and among HEIs in the global village. The Philippine Normal University (PNU), is not excused in this challenge of internationalization in HEIs. PNU, as the National Center for Teacher Education (NCTE), is mandated “to provide technical support to the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) and to the Department of Education (DepEd) in their programs and projects that chart policies and recommendation on teacher education, teacher training, teacher education curricula, professional development for teachers and educational leaders in the country” (Republic Act No. 9647, Sec 3a, 2009). One area of concern to realize its mandate as the NCTE, is to lead pioneering projects on teacher education in the Philippines through the National Network of Normal Schools (3NS), that it leads. PNU, as the lead shepherd of 3NS sets the over-all directions of the network with the other nine (9) member institutions (Defensor, 2013). This network has then become an arm of CHED for its projects that aimed at improving the quality of programs, operations and services of TEIs in the country. Given PNU’s commitment of producing excellent teachers for a better world and its vision to be a nationally responsive Teacher Education University and an internationally recognized leader in Teacher Education, it has set five strategies for internationalization, such as: 1) to develop an internationalization program that will increase the number and expand diversity of foreign students and faculty; 2) develop an international relations plan to ensure a strategic

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position within the global teacher education network and academic community; 3) develop and produce scholarly work and products that attract international audience; 4) position PNU as a hub of academic activities and exchanges relevant to teacher education and basic education to ensure its international presence; and 5) participate in international network of TEIs to promote collaboration and partnership in the conduct of research, extension, and production (Philippine Normal University, 2012).

Likewise, Bernardo (2002) also identified some opportunities for internationalizing HEIs, which include (1) student and staff mobility; (2) internationalizing curricula through international studies; (3) research collaborations; (4) international networks; (5) transnational distance education; (6) twinning and articulation programs; and (7) international quality assurance.

Cognizant of these strategies for internationalization, the researchers felt the need to contribute to the realization of PNU's vision and mission and the purpose of the synergy of "normal schools" or the 3NS by providing evidence-based advice for the internationalization of TEIs in the country. Thus, the researchers conceived of analyzing the level of internationalization of the member institutions of 3NS using a validated rubric developed by Balagtas and Associates (2012). Specifically, this research aims to involve the teachers, students, administrators, and staff of 3NS in the assessment of their own institution's level of internationalization and use such information in proposing development projects that could help improve programs and practices of TEIs in the country to gain international recognition.

In this study, internationalization refers to the process where two or more foreign institutions collaborate in the delivery of academic, research, social and economic activities for their mutual benefits and understanding. According to Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry (1997), any activity that involves a cross-country collaboration contributes to the internationalization of the partners. Examples of such internationalization activities include: international students in undergraduate or postgraduate courses; internationalization of the curriculum and comparative curricula studies; international research conferences; international publications; collaborative and/or comparative cross-country research projects; professional development programs; and international consultancies.

In internationalizing HEI in the Philippines, Padama et al. as cited by Balagtas et.al (2012), proposed a framework for internationalization with nine (9) dimensions: 1) Curriculum and Instruction; 2) Facilities and Support System; 3) Cooperation and Development Assistance; 4) Diversity of Income Generation; 5) Research Collaboration; 6) International and Intercultural Understanding/Networking; 7) Academic Standards and Quality; 8) Mobility and Exchanges for Students and Teachers; and 9) International Students Recruitment. To translate these dimensions of internationalization in HEIs in the Philippines, Balagtas et. al (2012) developed an instrument to measure the level of internationalization of TEIs using the dimensions, which were defined using specific indicators on how TEIs could improve their programs and practices. This contextualization of internationalization in a TEI also reflects the areas of commitment of PNU, being the premier TEI in the Philippines and the NCTE. PNU Administrative Manual (2005) stipulated the four (4) areas of commitment, which were incorporated in the framework for the internationalization of a TEI. The four areas of commitment which were considered domains of internationalization in this study include 1) Commitment to Knowledge Creation and Application; 2) Commitment to Quality and Excellence; 3) Commitment to Culture of Sharing and Service; and 4) Commitment to Growth, Efficiency, and Accountability.

Figure 1 shows the framework of internationalization in teacher education and how this could be used in making institutions more globally competitive. The development programs hope to further strengthen the institutions in the areas they are strong at and capacitate them in areas where they needed help.

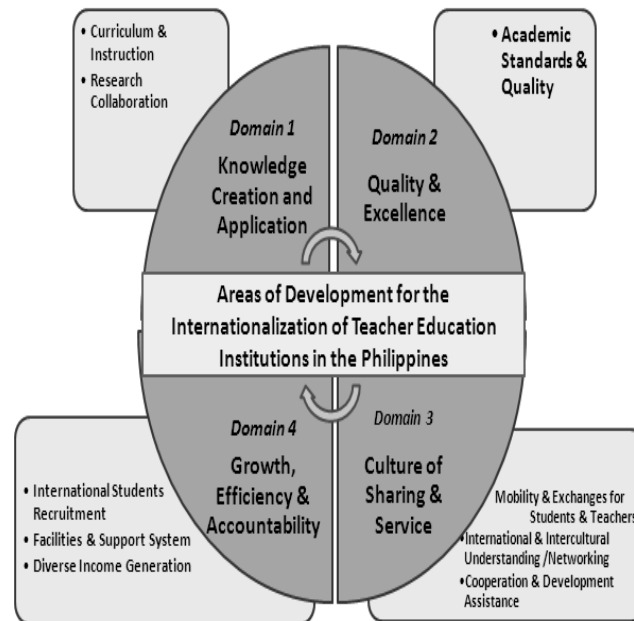


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of Internationalization in Teacher Education Institutions in the Philippines

As shown in Figure 1, the nine (9) dimensions of internationalization identified by Padama et al. (2010), were classified into four (4) domains by Balagtas, et.al (2012) in their instrument that has been adopted in this study. The researchers believed that the development programs for internationalization of a TEI could be drawn from a careful examination of the domains and indicators, which became strategies for internationalization. The analysis could also help the TEI to synergize with other member institutions in their network to sustain its identified strengths and to improve on the areas it is weak at. Knowing the institution's strengths in internationalization will also enable the stakeholders to see what they could offer to other TEIs in the region to contribute as well to the global competitiveness of the country.

METHODOLOGY

The study employed the descriptive research in describing the development programs proposed to the TEIs in the Philippines based on the assessment done on the strengths and weaknesses of 10 selected institutions in a prior study done by the researchers. These institutions belonged to the National Network of Normal Schools in the Philippines, which are all state universities that started as a teacher training institution. Each institution had 23 to 36 internal stakeholders for a total of 308 assessors of their strengths and weaknesses using a 4-pt scale rubric in assessing the internationalization level of TEIs developed by Balagtas, Atweh, Papango, Reyes, & Ubiña (2012). This instrument has been content validated with high internal consistency reliability using Cronbach's Alpha ($r= 0.88$), high intra-rater reliability ($r=0.88$) and also high inter-rater reliability ($r=0.76$). Descriptive statistical procedures were used to describe the strengths (areas with average rating from 2.5 to 4) and weaknesses (average rating is below 2.5) of the institutions, which served as basis for the proposed developmental program.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Development Program for the TEIs in the Philippines

Based on the data on the level of internationalization of each member institution of the 3NS in a prior study conducted by the researchers, several schemes in the design of a development program for the areas each

institution is weak at are hereby proposed. The following schemes are named to capture the proposed development programs for the internationalization of the individual institutions or the whole network.

Self-development. This scheme could be done by the institution itself in order to increase its level of internationalization along the nine areas identified in this study without the assistance of a member institution in the network. This model of development jibes with the philosophy of education of PNU, which is educating for personal renewal and social transformation. Warner (1992, cited in Qiang, 2003) describes this model for internationalization as self-development and social transformation. The framework for development using this scheme is based on the indicators of internationalization that were given in the instrument used for data gathering, which were transformed into strategies for development. It requires the institution to examine the area it is weak at and exert extra efforts to improve on it to reach the highest level on internationalization to gain the recognition not only in one's country but also beyond it. Below are the suggested strategies for development highlighting the highest level in each domain and dimension of internationalization, which individual institution should aim to implement within the period of a teacher education program, which is normally for four (4) years, or for a maximum of five (5) years to accommodate the irregular schedule of students who are working while studying for the enrolled teacher education program.

Domain 1: Knowledge Creation and Application. In terms of the dimension on *Curriculum and Instruction*, which is under this domain and is recognized as strength of the member institutions of the network, some possible strategies for further development are as follows:

- design courses that allow different race/ethnicity, religion, culture, class and gender, social class and people with disability to learn together;
- offer at least five (5) courses on foreign languages in the institution;
- offer at least eight (8) courses that may serve as a venue for understanding and appreciation of the culture of other countries e.g.: Multicultural Education, Global Education, International Education, World Geography, World Literature, Peace Education, Ecology, Environmental Education, Education for Indigenous People, Comparative Education;
- design at least five (5) customized programs that are responsive to the demands of different sectors, agencies or organizations here and abroad;
- design at least five (5) programs delivered in different modalities that could allow students from other countries to take courses at their own time and place (e.g.: Distance Education, Correspondence Education, Open University, University in the Air, Virtual Classrooms);
- provide functional information and communication technologies that could facilitate efficient and effective learning (e.g.: internet connection, e-library, teleconferencing technologies, e-journal, e-testing, webinar, video conferencing, and social networking sites);
- establish at least seven (7) laboratories functional to test theories or theorize from experiences (e.g.: laboratory school for pre-school, elementary, high school learners; a computer laboratory; multimedia room; speech laboratory; a science laboratory; and other laboratories for teaching and learning);
- design at least ten (10) special learning experiences within one's country and/or across countries where students could appreciate the culture of other tribal groups/classes or races. (e.g. : home stays, cultural field trips, mission work e.g. spiritual, school-based, church-based), literary immersion, feeding program , cultural shows, film festivals, photo exhibit/galleries, cultural exchange programs, school visits, community works/immersion;
- create at least two (2) joint full program/s or course/s curriculum with foreign institutions/universities; and
- update at least 85% of the syllabus of course offerings to integrate the new trends and address pressing issues around the globe that have implications to education.

On the dimension, *Research Collaboration*, which is an area that the institutions or the whole network is weak at, some strategies that individual institutions could work on are as follows:

- lead at least four (4) research activities done in collaboration with other educational institutions, agencies or industries in other countries;
- encourage at least 40% of the faculty, students or administrative staff to participate in international studies as researchers;
- involve at least 40% of the faculty, students or administrative staff to participate in international studies as respondents within the period of 5 year;
- conduct at least four (4) studies on international comparative education to understand differences between and among nations;
- organize at least four (4) international conferences where research studies are presented or disseminated; and
- contribute at least ten (10) ideas to the growing body of knowledge recognized abroad in a year.

Domain 2: Quality and Excellence. Under this domain is the dimension on *Academic Standard and Quality* with the following proposed strategies for development:

- have at least 75% of the institution's programs at least level 3 accredited by nationally known accrediting body;
- benchmark at least 5% of the institution's curricular or extra-curricular activities with national and/or international standards;
- be cited as benchmark by at least five (5) institutions in one's country or abroad;
- obtain recognition of at least 40% of the faculty and administrators for their expertise here and abroad;
- expose at least 75% of the administrators and staff to special trainings or experience abroad;
- be cited by at least four (4) recognized international societies/publications as a good institution for learning; and
- have at least 75% of the faculty and administrators who are recipients of scholarships, fellowships or grants abroad.

Domain 3: Culture of Sharing and Service. Under this domain is the dimension on *Mobility and Exchanges for Students and Teachers*, which offers the following strategies for development:

- encourage at least 10% of the students to study in other institutions abroad for some of their courses delivered online or face-to-face;
- target to have at least 15% of the total number of students from foreign countries;
- encourage at least 5% of the faculty members who are trained/taught abroad to serve as consultants; and
- have at least 3% of the faculty members as visiting professors from other countries doing academic works in the institution.

Below are the strategies for development on the second dimension, *International and Intercultural Understanding/Networking*:

- have a Memorandum of Agreement or Memorandum of Understanding with at least 4 institutions from other countries for any international or intercultural understanding/networking;
- establish twinning programs with at least 4 foreign institutions;
- participate in at least ten (10) international assemblies or activities for the promotion of one's culture;
- establish at least four (4) of the given identified centers for multicultural education/ foreign students' organization that serve as venue for the understanding of the culture of different nations such as International Center, Center for Multicultural Education, Center for Gender & Peace Education; and Foreign Students' Organization;
- organize at least four (4) multicultural activities both curricular and/or extra-curricular in nature; and
- involve at least 40% of the faculty, students or administrative staffs as active members in international organizations.

Below are the strategies for development on the third dimension, *Cooperation and Development Assistance*:

- partner with at least five (5) universities and/or colleges in other countries for international academic networks/alliance, consortia, or leagues;
- collaborate with at least four (4) government or non-government institutions or organizations abroad on education in formulating policies to achieve academic, scientific, economic, technological or cultural tie;
- source out funding to offer at least 4 programs for the promotion of cultural understanding/ mutuality/ international learning/ecumenical or inter-religious activities;
- conduct at least four (4) international development projects commissioned by international agencies;
- accommodate at least ten (10) foreign students from less developed countries that have satisfied the entry requirements of the institution
- offer scholarship/grant for at least 1 foreign student a year who comes from less developed countries; and
- innovate projects in partnership with at least 4 foreign agencies or institutions.

Domain 4: Growth, Efficiency and Accountability. Under this domain is the dimension on *International Students Recruitment*, which offers the following strategies for development:

- make at least 90% of the institution's educational programs, course offerings, syllabi and policies for admission and retention of students available online;
- provide responsive computerized or online system in recruiting and enrolling international students, including the screening prospective students, enrolling international students; and payment of fees.
- provide 24/7 responsive system to address inquiries of prospective students for the whole week including weekends;

- provide a library with the convergence of complete and updated facilities both print and non-print such as document camera, learning station, open access cataloguing, instructional materials development center, etc.);
- procure at least ten (10) local and foreign updated reference materials per course published in the last ten (10) years both in print and non-print forms;
- observe the ratio of at least one (1) licensed full-time librarian to at most 500 local and/or foreign students to ensure that there are sufficient number of licensed fulltime librarians in all its sections;
- provide a dormitory for local and foreign students with at least 10 of the following amenities, namely: student lounge, visitors' receiving area, kitchen, dining area, laundry area, drying area, internet connection (Wifi), prayer room, and function room among others;
- observe the ratio of at least one (1) licensed full-time guidance counselor to at most 500 local and/or foreign students to ensure that there is sufficient provision for guidance and counseling services to the number of local/and foreign students
- provide at least ten (10) of the following amenities/support system for foreign students, faculty and visitors, student lounge, faculty lounge, visitor's lounge, tutorial center, ecumenical chapel, foster parent, etc.;
- provide the medical and dental support and facilities/materials for the local and foreign faculty members, staff and students (i.e: receiving room; stretcher; wheel chair; state-of-the-art medical equipment; and state-of-the-art dental equipment).

The following are the strategies for development on *Diversity of Income Generation*:

- generate alternative sources of income like offering educational programs or creating publications patronized by at least 4 international institutions and industries; and
- allocate specific budget coming from at least 4 partner educational institutions from other countries.

Sisterhood thinking. This principle describes a relationship where one (1) strong member of the family of the network nurtures one or more member institutions of the network considered weak in the area of internationalization as they work on one development program for internationalization. The strategies for development that these institutions could implement using this kind of thinking are those pertaining particularly to research collaboration, mobility for exchanges of teachers and students, international and intercultural understanding, cooperation and development assistance, and diversity of income generation.

Collective thinking. In the event that no institution is considered strong in a certain indicator of internationalization, then 3NS through its Steering Committee or Lead Shepherd should create an internationalization committee that could scout for possible foreign university as partner in a development program. One case that could be cited to illustrate this scheme is what the Philippine Normal University (PNU) has done when it forged partnership with the University of New England (UNE) in Armidale, Australia. UNE established a Research Center for Teacher Quality (RCTQ) in partnership with PNU through the support of the Australian Government to conduct applied research to provide evidence-based policy advice directed at strengthening teacher quality in the Philippines. Since PNU is the lead shepherd of the network, this research center can then become the link not only of PNU to UNE but also with its network with nine other member institutions.

Service-oriented thinking. This principle describes a relationship where one (1) strong member of the family of the network adopts for a development program one or more member institutions not belonging to the network but also offering teacher education programs in the region. The program could be organized and conducted in partnership with any other member institutions in the network or another foreign institution.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The proposed development programs for the internationalization of the TEIs in the Philippines are based on the indicators in each of the nine dimensions of internationalization in a measure developed by Balagtas and Associates (2012).

The first scheme, which is for self-development, could be done by the individual institution through the efforts of its own stakeholders without reliance on the network. The strategies include those in the domain of 1) Knowledge Creation and Application; 2) Quality and Excellence; 3) Culture of Sharing and Service; and 4) Growth, Efficiency, and Accountability. More specifically, the strategies describe processes for internationalization in the nine (9) dimensions to include: 1) Curriculum and Instruction; 2) Facilities and Support System; 3) Cooperation and Development Assistance; 4) Diversity of Income Generation; 5) Research

Collaboration; 6) International and Intercultural Understanding/Networking; 7) Academic Standards and Quality; 8) Mobility and Exchanges for Students and Teachers; and 9) International Students Recruitment. Considering the intention of the measure, which is for self-assessment and then self-improvement, the recommended strategies for development in this study could also be utilized by other TEIs in the Philippines and in other countries specially those who are offering teacher education programs.

The other three development programs such as sisterhood thinking, collective thinking, and service-oriented thinking are schemes that would require the efforts of the members of the network to address the areas that an institution is weak at. Most strategies where development is needed with the help of other institutions in the network are those pertaining particularly to research collaboration, mobility for exchanges of teachers and students, international and intercultural understanding, cooperation and development assistance, and diversity of income generation. The development of these programs is based on the assumption that those institutions, whose internal assessors assessed their institution as internationalized to a high extent, will assist another member institution in the 3NS identified as weak in the same area. This development model is actually highlighted as strategy for oneness in ASEAN 2015. ASEAN 2015 promotes cooperation among ASEAN University Network (AUN) members to increase mobility for both students and staff within the region (ASEAN Secretariat, 2009). However, if no institution is considered strong in a certain dimension of internationalization, then the whole network has to synergize to establish a network with other institutions in other countries that are considered strong in the specific area of internationalization.

Since the member institutions of the 3NS are all government institutions created basically to produce teachers for the Filipino people, support and resources should be provided to them by the government and other funding agencies to produce teachers who are at par with those teaching in top rank universities in Asia. Since ASEAN 2015 is one year away, efforts should then be doubled to enable TEIs in the country to be of help in making the Philippines a country to consider when it comes to the preparation or development of teachers at least in the ASEAN community.

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Akran Öğretim Modelinin Voleybol Becerilerini Öğrenmeye Etkisi

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to determine the effect of peer teaching model that was applied by the lower and higher skilled student teachers in volleyball and in teaching proficiency on performance in volleyball skills of the students. The quasi-experimental design (pre-post without control group) model was used in this study. The study involved twenty two first and second grade students who took volleyball course at AIBU, The School of Physical Education and Sport during the educational year 2012-2013. 11 students from third class (experimental group I) and 11 students from first and second classes (experimental group II) participated in this study. The forearm pass, tennis serve and spike observation forms and AHPERD tests which included forearm and serve tests developed by Barlett and et. all. (1991) and spike test developed by Stanley (1967) were used to collect the data. The Kappa analysis, Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test and Mann Whitney U test were used to analyze the data. The significance level was taken 0.05 in this study. The results revealed that there were significant differences between pre and post test scores of the students who were taken volleyball course by both novice and experienced student teachers. On the other hand, the comparison of the two groups' achievement scores in AHPERD tests (forearm pass, tennis serve and spike) was showed that no significant difference between the two groups. In addition, no significant difference was found on the volleyball skills' achievement scores that were taken by using observation forms between both groups.

Keywords. Peer teaching, volleyball, physical education.

GİRİŞ

Etkili beden eğitimi derslerinin nasıl olması gerektiği ile ilgili son yıllarda pek çok araştırma yapılmış, konu ile ilgili farklı görüş ve öneriler sunulmuştur. Yapılan bu çalışmaların sonunda etkili beden eğitimi dersleri için beden eğitimi öğretmenlerinin öğrenme-öğretme ortamlarında her öğrencinin farklı öğrenme taleplerini karşılayacak şekilde derslerini desenlemeleri gerektiği ortak görüş olarak kabul edilmiştir. Bunu gerçekleştirebilmek için de, beden eğitimi öğretmenlerinin öğrencilerinin tüm özelliklerini geliştirebilecekleri uygun öğretim stratejileri ve modelleri kullanarak (Cervantes, Lieberman, Magnesioue Wood, 2013; Metzler, 2005) ve öğrenci merkezli öğretim yaklaşımları ile öğretimi daha etkili hale getirebilecekleri pek çok araştırmada rapor edilmiştir.

Metzler (2005)'e göre beden eğitimi öğretiminde kullanılan sekiz model vardır. Bunlardan biride akran öğretim modelidir. Akran öğretim modeli öğretmenin rehberliğinde, eğitim almış yetenekli bir öğrencinin aynı sınıf düzeyinde bulunan bir ya da birkaç öğrenciye bir kavramı ya da bir beceriyi öğrettikleri bir süreçtir (Doğanay, 2007). Akran öğretiminin başarısı yaş, öğrenci ve öğretici öğrencilerin yetenek düzeyi, öğrencilerin işbirliğine olan motivasyon düzeyleri, görevin doğası, işbirliğine kurumsal ve kültürel destek gibi pek çok faktöre bağlıdır (Hogan ve Tutge, 1999). Ancak bunlar arasındaki en önemli faktör akranlar arasındaki iletişim ve öğrencinin yeterliğidir. Eğer öğrenci olan öğrenciler daha yeterli öğretici öğrenci ile çalışıyorlarsa, genellikle daha yüksek kazanımlar elde ederken, eşit ya da daha alt seviyede yeterliği olan öğretici öğrenci ile çalışıyorlarsa daha az seviyede kazanım elde etmektedirler (Hogan ve Tutge, 1999).

Beden eğitimi derslerinde konu ile ilgili yapılan çalışma sonuçlarına göre akran öğretimi öğrencilerde istenilen motor beceri düzeyinde artışa neden olurken (Houston-Wilson ve diğ., 1997; Ayvazo ve Ward, 2009; Iserbyt ve diğ., 2011), özellikle engelli öğrencilerdeki fiziksel etkinlik düzeyini arttırmaya (Lieberman, 1996), öğrenci katılımını ve sosyal etkileşimi geliştirmeye ve başkalarına güven duyma alışkanlığı kazandırmaya (Lund, 1997; Iserbyt ve diğ. 2011), sorumluluk özelliğini geliştirmeye (Ayvazo ve Ward, 2009), orta ve yüksek seviyede engelli bulunan öğrencilerde olumlu akademik öğrenme zamanına da etkili olduğu (Webster, 1987)

belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca, Longueville ve ark. (2002) farklı yüzme becerisine sahip olan ve akran öğretimi yapan öğretici öğrencilerin yüzme becerisi düşük olan öğrencilerin beceri performanslarına ve başarı motivasyonlarına etkisini incelemişler ve beceri seviyesi yüksek öğreticiler erkekler için daha iyi yüzme becerisi sağlarken, beceri seviyesi yüksek ve orta seviyedeki öğreticiler kız öğrenciler için deneyimsiz öğreticilere göre daha iyi öğretim sağladıklarını rapor etmişlerdir. Beceri düzeyi yüksek olan deneyimli öğretici grubu acemi öğretici grubuna göre daha fazla gösterim ve sözel bilgi sunmuşlardır.

Bu noktadan yola çıkarak, gelecekte öğretmen ve antrenör olacak üniversite öğrencilerinin yetiştikleri bölümlerde aldıkları derslerin ülkemiz Milli Eğitim felsefesinin ve insan yetiştirmenin temelini oluşturan öğrenci merkezli anlayışa uygun olarak desenlenmesi yoluyla onlardaki bu anlayışın geliştirilmesi gerekmektedir. Ancak yapılan incelemeler sonucunda ülkemizde beden eğitimi alanında farklı modellerin etkilerini inceleyen çalışmaların sınırlı olması nedeniyle, bu çalışmanın amacını üniversitede deneyimli ve acemi öğretici öğrencilerle yürütülen akran öğretim modelinin voleybol dersindeki becerilerin öğrenilmesi üzerindeki etkisini incelemek oluşturmaktadır.

YÖNTEM

Bu çalışmada yarı deneysel araştırma modellerinden, kontrol grupsuz öntest-sontest deseni kullanılmıştır.

Çalışma Grubu

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

Tablo 1. Deney Grubu I ve II İçin Yaş ve Spor Yılı İstatistikleri

	DENEY I (Deneyimli Öğretici)		DENEY II (Acemi Öğretici)	
	N	X \pm ss	N	X \pm ss
Yaş	11	20,82 \pm 2,44	11	20,91 \pm 3,54
Spor Yaşı	11	7,64 \pm 4,52	11	4,36 \pm 4,06
Akran Öğretici Yaş	7	21,29 \pm 2,98	7	20,71 \pm 2,63
Akran Öğretici Spor Yaşı	7	9,00 \pm 4,80	7	3,71 \pm 4,31

Çalışmanın yapıldığı iki grupta yer alan öğrencileri araştırma öncesi belirli nitelikler bakımından denkleştirmek için araştırmalar tarafından geliştirilen psikomotor alan gözlem formları (manşet pas, tenis servis ve smaç) ve Bartlett ve diğerleri (1991) tarafından geliştirilen manşet pas ve tenis servis testleri, Stanley (1967) tarafından geliştirilen smaç testi kullanılmıştır.

İki grupta (BEÖ-ANE) yer alan öğrencilerin voleybol becerilerine ait hazır bulunuşluk seviyelerinin eşit olup olmadığının belirlenmesi amacı ile farklı gruplarda yer alan öğrencilerin öntest puanları Mann Whitney U testi ile karşılaştırılmış ve gruplar arasında hiçbir beceride anlamlı farklılık bulunmamıştır (manşet pas $z=-.427$, $p=.669$; tenis servis $z=-.362$, $p=.717$; smaç $z=-.890$, $p=.374$, beceri testleri manşet pas $z=-.364$, $p=.716$, tenis servis $z=-1.557$, $p=.120$ ve smaç $z=-.600$, $p=.548$). Bu sonuçlara göre, iki farklı grubu oluşturan öğrencilerin voleybola ait beceri düzeylerinin birbirine benzer olduğu söylenebilir. Daha sonra BEÖ bölümü öğrencileri daha önceden aldıkları öğretim dersleri nedeniyle deneyimli öğretici öğrenci grubu (deney I), ANE bölümü öğrencileri ise öğretim dersleri almadığı için acemi öğretici öğrenci grubu (deney II) olarak belirlenmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Araştırmada verileri toplamak için araştırmacılar tarafından geliştirilen manşet pas, tenis servis ve smaç ile ilgili gözlem formları kullanılmıştır. Oluşturulan bu formlar için, iki voleybol antrenörü ve iki voleybol hakeminden görüşler alınmış ve uzmanlardan gelen öneriler doğrultusunda gözlem formları üzerinde düzenlemeler yapılmıştır. Hem ön test hem de son testte psikomotor alana ait yapılan uygulamalar kameraya

çekilmiş ve üç voleybol antrenörü tarafından gözlem formları kullanılarak değerlendirmeler yapılmıştır. Gözlemciler tarafından verilecek olan puanlar; 1 –“Hiçbir Zaman”, 2 – “Nadiren”, 3 – “Bazen”, 4 – “Sık sık” ve 5 – “Her Zaman” şeklinde derecelendirilmiştir. Kritik davranışın gözlenmesi sırasında verilen “5” puan, o davranışın tekniğe uygun şekilde kazanıldığını veya gözlendiğini; “1” puan ise, davranışın kazanılmamış ya da gözlenmemiş olduğunu ifade etmektedir.

Voleybol becerilerine (manşet pas, tenis servis ve smaç) ait gözlem formlarını dolduran üç uzmanın verdiği ön test ve son testteki puanları arasındaki güvenilirlik ve tutarlılığı test etmek için Fleiss kappa analizi yapılmış,uzmanların hem ön test hem de son testlerde öğrencilerin manşet pas, tenis servis ve smaç becerilerine verdikleri puanlar istatistiksel olarak tutarlı bulunmuştur.

Araştırmada öğrencilerin voleybola ait seçilen becerilerdeki performanslarını belirlemek amacı ile ayrıca Bartlett ve diğerleri (1991) tarafından geliştirilen manşet pas ve servis testi ve Stanley (1967) tarafından geliştirilen smaç testi kullanılmıştır.

İşlem Süreci

Çalışmaya katılan öğrencilerin voleybol becerilerine ait gelişimini belirleyebilmek için çalışmaya başlamadan önce manşet pas, tenis servis ve smaç becerilerine ait gözlem formları, Bartlett ve diğerleri (1991) tarafından geliştirilen manşet pas ve tenis servis testleri ve Stanley (1967) tarafından geliştirilen smaç testi kullanılarak ön test verileri elde edilmiştir.Ön test verileri elde edildikten sonra Beden Eğitimi Öğretmenliği Bölümü’nde voleybol dersini alan öğrenciler I. grup, Antrenörlük Eğitimi Bölümü’nde voleybol dersini alan öğrenciler ise II. grup olarak adlandırılmıştır. Her iki grupta da akran öğretimi modeli kullanılarak dersler planlanmıştır. I. grupta ön test puanlarına göre voleybol beceri düzeyleri (öğretim yeterliliği) yüksek öğrenciler (deneyimli öğretici grubu), II. grupta ise voleybol beceri düzeyleri (öğretim yeterliliği) düşük olan öğrenciler (acemi öğretici öğrenci) sınıflarında akran öğretim modelini uygulamışlardır. İki grupta da her ders saati 50 dakika ve haftada 4 ders saati olmak üzere (80+80 dak.) toplamda altı hafta boyunca (öntest-sontest 2 hafta, beceri öğretimi 4 hafta) voleybol dersleri işlenmiştir. Her iki grupta da akran öğretimi yapması için seçilen öğrenciler dersleri işledikten sonra, iki grup öğrencilerine de manşet pas, tenis servis ve smaç becerilerine ait gözlem formları ve Bartlett ve diğerleri (1991) tarafından geliştirilen manşet pas, tenis servis ve Stanley (1967) tarafından geliştirilen smaç testi kullanılarak son test verileri elde edilmiştir. Ön ve son test uygulamaları ve öğrencilerin işledikleri tüm dersler kamera ile kayıt altına alınmıştır.

Verilerin Çözümlemesi

Araştırmada elde edilen verilerin çözümlemesinde Kappa analizi,Wilcoxon işaretli sıralar testi ve Mann Whitney U testinden faydalanılmıştır. İstatistiksel işlemlerde anlamlılık düzeyi 0.05 olarak alınmıştır.

BULGULAR

Araştırmada elde edilen bulgulara göre, deneyimli ve acemi öğretici öğrencilerin akran öğretimi yaptığı her iki grupta da bulunan öğrencilerin ön test ve son test puanları karşılaştırılması için Wilcoxon işaretli sıralar testi yapılmış ve tüm becerilerde son testler lehine istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir farklılıklar olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Çalışmada ayrıca deneyimli öğretici öğrencilerin akranlarına öğretim yaptığı I. grup (BEÖ) ve acemi öğretici öğrencilerin akranlarına öğretim yaptığı II. grup (ANE) öğrencilerinin manşet pas, tenis servis ve smaç becerilerine ilişkin erişim değerleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını belirlemek için Mann Whitney U testi yapılmış ve yapılan analiz sonucunda her iki grupta bulunan öğrencilere uygulanan manşet pas ($z=-1.151$, $p=.250$), tenis servis ($z=-1.288$, $p=.198$), ve smaç ($z=-1.283$, $p=.199$) testleri erişim puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır. Benzer şekilde, iki grubun gözlem formları kullanılarak belirlenen voleybola ait manşet pas ($z=-.665$, $p=.506$), tenis servis ($z=-.637$, $p=.524$) ve smaç ($z=-.100$, $p=.920$) becerilerine ait erişim puanları karşılaştırıldığında ise yine iki grup arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir farka rastlanmamıştır.

TARTIŞMA VE SONUÇ

Çalışmada elde edilen bulgulara göre, akran öğretimi uygulanan her iki grupta da öğrencilerin voleybolu oluşturan manşet pas, tenis servis ve smaç becerilerini dersin sonunda verilen eğitime bağlı olarak dersin başındaki seviyelerine göre daha yüksek oranda öğrendikleri belirlenmiştir. Bu sonuç, ister deneyimli öğretici öğrencilerle isterse de acemi öğretici öğrencilerle yürütülmüş olan akran öğretiminin üniversite düzeyinde

voleybol becerilerinin öğretiminde etkili olduğunu göstermektedir. Akran öğretimini farklı branşların öğretiminde kullanan ve bu çalışmanın bulgularını destekleyen pek çok çalışma bulunmaktadır (Houston-Wilson ve diğ., 1997; Ayvazo ve Ward, 2009; Iserbyt ve diğ., 2011). Bu çalışmalardan Ayvazo ve Ward (2009)'ın yaptıkları çalışmada 6. sınıf öğrencisinde voleybol becerilerinin öğretiminde akran öğretiminin bir çeşidi olan tüm sınıf akran öğretiminin (CWPT) etkisine bakılmış ve veriler tüm sınıf akran öğretiminde öğrencilerin 4'de 3'ünün toplam ve doğru deneme performanslarını geliştirdiklerini göstermiştir. Ayrıca bu yaklaşım ile kız öğrencilerin doğru performans sayılarında ve sorumluluk alma özelliklerinde artışa neden olduğu belirlenmiştir. Ward ve diğ. (1998) bir dakikalık sürede voleybol becerilerinin denenmesi süresince grup öğretiminin, akran çiftleri ve akran aracılığı ile yapılan eğitimin (eğitim sorumluluğunun) deneme performans sayıları ve doğru performans sayıları üzerindeki etkisini incelemişlerdir. 24 öğrenci üzerinde yürütülen bu çalışmada öğrenciler grup öğretimi ve akran çiftleri durumuna göre akran destekli sorumluluk yaklaşımında daha fazla deneme yapmışlar ve daha fazla başarı elde etmişlerdir. Johnson ve Ward (2001) yaptıkları çalışmada 3. sınıflardaki 20 ders saatlik akran öğretimin bir türü olan CWPT'yi vuruş ünitesinde uygulamışlar ve çalışmanın sonucuna göre öğrenciler daha az toplam deneme yapmışlar, fakat doğru deneme oranı öğretmen merkezli öğretime göre daha yüksek bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, Iserbyt ve diğ. (2011) yaptıkları çalışmada öğretmen merkezli uygulamalar ile içerisinde görev kartlarının kullanıldığı akran öğretiminin motor becerilerdeki etkisini karşılaştırmışlar ve görev kartları ile işlenen akran öğretiminin motor becerilerin geliştirilmesinde en az öğretmen merkezli öğretim kadar etkili olduğunu belirlemişlerdir.

Çalışmada deneyimli ve acemi öğretici öğrenci gruplarındaki öğrencilerin voleybol becerilerindeki performans değerleri karşılaştırılmış ve tüm voleybol becerilerinde iki grup arasında fark bulunmamıştır. Bu sonuca göre, farklı öğretim yeterliliğine ve beceri düzeyine sahip olan öğretici öğrenciler, arkadaşlarının voleyboldaki becerileri öğrenmede benzer etkiyi yaratmışlardır. Çalışmada araştırmacılardan biri sınıf uygulamalarından önce o derste akran öğretimi yaklaşımını uygulayacak olan öğretici öğrencilerle toplantı yaparak, onlarla derste uygulayacakları ders planını birlikte yapmışlardır. Yapılan bu plan her iki sınıfta da aynı şekilde uygulanmıştır. Her iki grup arasında beceriler açısından fark çıkmamasının bir nedenini bu durum yaratmış olabilir. Ayrıca bu duruma etki eden faktörlerden bir diğerinin de her ne kadar bir grupta öğrencilerin öğretim güçleri diğer gruba göre daha düşük ise de, voleyboldaki becerilerin öğretimi için bir şekilde kendilerine özgü yolları bulmaları ve becerileri öğretirken tam olarak gösteremeyecekleri beceriler için teknolojik destek kullanmaları olduğu söylenebilir. Halbuki, Longueville ve ark. (2002) yaptıkları çalışmada, farklı yüzme becerisine sahip olan ve akran öğretimi yapan öğretici öğrencilerin yüzme becerisi düşük olan öğrencilerin beceri performanslarına ve başarı motivasyonlarına etkisini inceledikleri çalışmada, beceri seviyesi yüksek öğreticiler erkekler için daha iyi yüzme becerisi sağlamışlar, beceri seviyesi yüksek ve orta seviyedeki öğreticiler kız öğrenciler için deneyimsiz öğrencilere göre daha iyi öğretim sağlamışlardır. Beceri düzeyi yüksek olan öğretici grubu acemi öğretici grubuna göre daha fazla gösterim ve sözel bilgi sunmuşlardır. Ancak bu çalışmanın farklı bir spor branşında yapılması ve öğretimdeki süre farklılıkları bu iki çalışma arasında fark çıkmasına neden olmuş olabilir.

Çalışmadan elde edilen bulgulardan yola çıkarak benzer çalışmaların kontrol gruplarının da yer aldığı farklı spor dallarında ve farklı sınıf düzeylerinde uygulanması elde edilen verilerin daha sağlıklı olarak yorumlanmasına katkı getireceği düşünülmektedir.

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Modern Method of Teaching Piano and its Importance in the Development of Performance Playing Skills

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to identify the modern teaching methods to learn to play the piano during the parade of the most important of these modern methods and innovative in performance on the piano. And how to develop the playing skills and performance overcome the difficulties of the student from beginner through them and take advantage of them in the preparation of the graduates of the College of Education to develop their performance and quality. The importance of this paper is that it may contribute to the development of performance playing for students, including contents of the methods and techniques play unfamiliar.

This research is based on the use of the descriptive approach through review of the most important methods of teaching and research sample illustrate how to take advantage of them on the piano, and to overcome the difficulties of the student play novice and then the results.

Keywords. Teaching methods - Piano - Beginner student – Playing skills.

INTRODUCTION

The piano instrument one of the most important musical instruments, especially for its essential role in the field of music learning in all its stages. The piano teachers relied upon the traditional methods (The special style is that which every teacher uses for learning music art in different countries. They enriched Arts and flourished upon their hands. They left notes / exercises and books explain in details every current) (Bayoumi, A. 1992, p.251) in teaching it for a long period. No changes but some simple ones took place, concerning the method and content. Studying playing on the piano, is the which we cannot do without especially for the beginners (who studies the piano for the first time. He/she is the first year student in the specific educational colleges at the age of 16-18 years). It is one of the most important playing scholastic subjects which musical education syllabi include in the colleges and specialized institutions. In the current age, different ways and several schools which take care of finding modern methods for educating students and beginners, playing on the piano, appeared. Their aim targeted providing easiness to the student, attracting him/her raising level standard, of performance in a short time, and in a frequent gradual way get him to learn what we aim at without distress or hardness. By showing these means, we find what are similar in dealing with and graduality and find which integrates each other. This of course, is without intention on the side of the authors. This, is discovered by the way teach, hoping for getting known of all new in the field of learning "playing skills on the piano instrument to enable the student get to the level of "playing goodness".


Looking at *Teaching Styles*, we find that teacher way in acting with the educational situation and which show his personal characteristics and in which teaching methods are reacting, so as to have this leads to the appearances of the individual differences among the teachers themselves.(S. Amal & AH. Fouad, 1990, p.406)

All teaching methods contain advantages and disadvantages. Not every style acts in a good manner for every student. These styles should be valued / estimated in the light of the special needs of every student. So, the burden falls upon the teacher in using these ways, either separated intermediated, or integrates each other. The she researcher will show some of these modern and creative methods and their roles and importance in developing: -

John. Thompson Method, It is one of the old methods styles and which's still going on till today. It introduces to the student simple arrangements based upon the international melodies which were styled in an educational-manner. J. Thompson is considered the pioneer of C middle. It is one the methods which proved its success, in which the two hands thumbs are alternatively, used in playing the tone of C middle. He concentrated

on the importance of leaving playing by the way of numbering the fingers blew the noted-tones. In addition, he gave importance to putting instructions when learning a new tone or skill with assurance upon the teacher's accompaniment to the student, especially, in the first stages of learning. As well, with the importance of graduating the exercises in the rhythmical types with increasing the musical tones, one after the other.(Thompson J., 1934, p.134-138)

Bella Bartok's method gave importance to studying "solfege principles" and the basic musical rules as a base for acquiring the skill of playing performance on the piano. This method depended upon on the Hungarian folklore songs and putting it in educational exercises in gradual exercises of the primitive principles to works of more difficulty, in addition to the "solfege" singing trainings.

The student has to sing it first, and then plays it. Bartok assured the importance of having the student play the first sound and the teacher plays the whole exercise. With giving importance to all accurate details, written down in the musical note. These details should be explained at the beginning of every note. Bartok's educational style in its six parts (Micro Kosmos). Includes "speed change melodies". In addition to the scales, religion pitches and using the different ends, he as well composed educational melodies for the five fingers, using the same sound tone at the distance of one octave or two, and using the melodic different length arrow for the one exercise. As well, he used time signs () and the stops opposite to them and the graduating of melodies from the easy ones to the more difficult together with using the pedal and hands crossing.(Rakhawi N., 1979,p.100)

Clark's method known by the name "the music tree" is interested in learning the basics of piano playing for the scholar whether young or adults. It takes an interest in evaluating the phrases, the musical style, the general type, and music expressions. The scholars in the shape of music tree, we see them good at reading music distances from the first day as she is very specialized in music terms and sight reading which endue them the force for starting studying in the higher stages (masters).(Zaghoul, N., 1981)

Michael Aaron's method, His style was based on the music of some popular songs and remolding it to be performed on the piano with the possibility of singing it, as well, during playing. His way is based on performing (from the beginning) by the way of exchanging alternating the two hands, and writing the tone name by letters on each musical tone on the scale, with giving importance to finger numbering. He made writing for the explanation guidance's, necessary before training. His melodies are easy and simple. They are cute to attract the beginners. He used the simple harmonies, the simple coloring, and expressional performance from hearing start, as well. (El Sawi, H.2006, P171)

Suzuki's method, it is one of the most important styles which sprang in Japan but it has got a large popularity in the USA. This method is of great success with the Japanese students, more than the Americans. The Japanese students, showed cleverness in "solfege reading", listening training, and playing techniques. Though the American students followed the same method, they missed a lot of these skills. They in most cases cannot read the notes and depend on their playing on ears and free playing. This method handles music bases and playing gradually slow at the beginning, then, going on in speed steps positive and accurate; to get to the desired level. (Suzuki, S., I, 1976, p.23)

Mr. Kern's method, Play by choice is one of the best methods available for learning the beginners. Mr. Kern has organized a teaching method by which he could deal with the beginners and the adults. He wrote down one syllabus with multi-faceted for learning the fundamental bases and the sound is educationally required. He decided that "*No two persons are found learn the same concepts in the exact same way*". There are no flashy graphics or associated bells or whistles attached to them; only, there are facts and a lot of suggestions for how to mix these facts and having them in the position of application "training" into your practice. This method assured the reading of individual tones, chords, and the relationships between distances and the melodic corners, not merely playing setting. The music pieces in this book are a good collection of pop, religious, Broadway musicals, and arrangements of some classical pieces. The beginner student has the freedom of choosing a piece of them for playing and studying. The book text pointed to the pieces which need to be studied for assurance and learning. Then the rest pieces in every act and that can be played by choosing.

Play by Choice method was and is still one of the most successful methods which students can use. All students who study by means of this style can be able to read music without relying on the position playing to get them through a composition. They become functionally literate music students in reading and writing music.

Bastian's method, this style assures on the five finger position-playing method. This method was used in a large type in the past. It found that the students had a very frustrate time to get out of the mode of position-

playing. Their note reading is slowed down tremendously, to the point none-existence and progress is very slow. Unfortunately, most of the units in Book One deal with the different five finger positions of playing, instead of having multi-faceted for the syllabus of reading the note.

Rote's method, it is an effective method in teaching the piano. It focuses on teaching students the basics of piano playing. In this way, the students became aware of the keyboard first before starting in reading the notes from the staff. The student learns hearing, thinking, sight reading and harmony on the keyboard. So, it is in the very beginning easier and better. Concentrating on the keyboard opens before the student several chances for extemporization and melodizing. As a result, a concept for a better piano, and music as a whole, develops.

Pace's Method is of the right style, educationally for teaching the beginners. It introduces the scientific subject in a summed up way and in specific points. This way of piano teaching prepares the students for an early classic store. Note reading and strong playing skills are great benefits of the Pace Method. Moreover, he avoids the position playing method, which limits the basic skills for students' from the very beginning. Although this method is difficult, the student's only complaint was that the music had been from the old style. The method can use more sight reading exercises and material. It requires a lot of effort on the part of both the student and the teacher, in spite of its effectiveness.

Hanz Hoiman's Method depended for teaching the piano to the beginners upon removing fear far from them and relying on a fast playing for the piano and not on training. He was interested in writing down all his compositions in an educational way, going from easiness to the more difficult gradually, to what suits the student's educational level. As well he gave importance to coping with the modern age in composing such as; the Jazz, Rock, Pop and Folk but in graduation in difficulty level. His style relied upon specifying music period time, only on playing the piano but in a daily manner with concentration and mixing information in a short period to defect students' fear. He used excitement style in learning in his musical notes whether by means of a teacher or without to be a powerful base in playing practically and theatrically. (Yassen. A., 2006, p.97-99)

Many of the research methods of teaching piano, was conducted. Including, for example, (Leila Zidan, 1972) study in which she made a comparison for the piano playing methods in the 19th c., and knowing their effect on the piano playing teaching. She collected between "matte's style" which relied upon showing the theoretical and physiological bases, necessary for playing the piano with "kurto's way" which is based upon the practical applications for theses bases. She got out a method collects between the two methods. She introduces exercises for training on the varied technical kinds with an explanation, fits the beginning scholar. Has been reported (El Rakhawy N., 1979) to the importance of putting the correct technical base in singing playing which is of well expression, and encouraging students in studying the piano instrument. (Gomaa G., 1992) study in which he dealt with the most important different modern attitudes in teaching the piano in the second half of the 20th c. , and how to get use of these attitudes and the range of its fit for the Egyptian student. (Koutb M., 1996) study which targeted towards student's wishing for training on playing on the piano and guiding him to the correct way of training till getting his fruits through some of exercises to break down some of performance difficulties. As well, giving the student a chance for taking part in choosing a piano instrument syllabus which fits his individual abilities.

Method and procedures

The current study is based upon using the descriptive syllabus which lies an registering and describing what is being, and the experimental syllabus through running a questionnaire for the misers experts and specialists in the field of piano playing in the items which is suitable for the suggested presented method and which is based on constructing a scientific theoretical content, includes a theoretical background about the methods and styles. The beginner student is exposed to, when starting to learn playing on the piano. Its idea depended upon collecting between Rote's method and all methods and styles which are used currently for the students of the specific educational faculty Alex University.

The Questionnaire items came to include:- 1) A hint about the piano instrument constructions. 2) The instrument mechanism and how to get sound out of it. 3) The correct sitting to the piano instrument. 4) The bases of playing on the piano. 5) The most important performance of playing skills intended to be acquired and development (Subject Search) and includes "The Technique - The Musical sentence and phrase - The constant playing - The intermittent playing - The Melodic line - The Short expressional bow - The Musical scale - The Arpeggio - The Ornaments -The Strong pressure - The Pedal. The researcher presented the most important points, which are: -

Sitting right in front of the piano, Attention must be paid to sit in front of the piano session right until the student gets used to hearing right from the beginning of training.











Figure (1) shows the correct setting in front of the piano
The arms can move freely and the head balances easily on top of the spine, easing the load on the neck, shoulders, and arms.

The setting determined the correct specification of the previous figure as follows: A) sit in the middle seat of the rectangle so that the rectangle occupies two-thirds of the surface of the seat. B) The Body straight and torso fixed in standby mode, and the weight of the body rests on the torso and feet. C) The head in a normal situation with no parts of the front or back and shoulders and put them in with the natural lack of raising them up. D) Arms and forearms to be obtuse angle.

The performance of playing skills wanted to be acquired for beginner students:-

- 1) *The technique* is one of the most important skills which mean knowing the correct way for the fingers on the instrument. And discovering its route through the touch sense. The technique is technical exercises of fingers. The student performs them on the piano instrument every day, with a sense mind and complete concentration for acquiring elasticity, skill and the correct mental physical habits which are stored in the unconsciousness as a result of daily training till it becoming an automatic spontaneous habit and getting to the best by means of this technique. It is a most to avoid strong physical settings. There should not be a high pressure above the two arms in the body and the two elbows should be to the outside and the two wrists to the inside with not bending the two shoulders. The two elbows should be lowered down, the arm directs the hand and the hand directs the finger. As long as the forearms muscles move the fingers, make the hand and the arm at a single straight. (Al said, N. Hanim, 1998, p.21)
- 2) *The musical sentence and the phrasal one*: music is a special language and has its sentences; parts and pronunciation and the musical phrase is a part at the parts from which the musical passage is composed. And, in turn it consists of several parts. Each of them divides into small parts; melodic or harmonic. Everyone is called the melodically photo or the melodic drawing. By collecting these photos, we get a certain idea or a certain meaning named the sentence. We acknowledge the musical sentence and its parts by the ending or separating each from the other by a stop for the plan periodical, similar to the punctuation marks in the language for the phrases, the sentences and their parts. The simplest kind of the musical sentences is that which is formed of eight musical octaves, divided into two phrases or two drawn parts, each of them of four octaves. The first on the shape of a question and the second on the shape of an answer. The first section usually ends in a minus stop (not complete) but the second one usually ends in a complete stop. (Bayoumi, A.1992, pp. 308-309).
- 3) *Play legato* is intended to contact playing tones for piano to each other, and this kind of performance does not come except by good listening on the part of the student. He must listen to the end of the sound by listening to his debut completely, and when the music is slow he must take every sound right to help connect the sounds together while pressing the keys to take into account the rapid disappearance of sound and noting that there are sentences (interconnected) sound are not connecting because they are not equalled in terms of rhythm and melody. (Zaghloul N., 1981,p.4) The related performance - skills that sometimes cause difficulty and often cause refraction in the continuity of the sound while performing the melody if a student is not fully aware of the treatment manner manipulated.
- 4) *The Portato*; playing intermittent, it is one of the different skill in playing on the piano, and is intended to perform in a way tones are not tied or separate, but are as close as to be to the tones and referred to the development of a short clause above or below these tones (-).
- 5) *The Melodic line* is a playing skill. lies in how to control the quantity and quality of the audio output of music and its association with the sounds before, and the sounds that followed and this is the playing of musical phrase, so care must be taken in the time your melody as a whole and not of interest by clicking strong the beginning of each Measures so as not to lose the wholesale musical flow of goods. The most important points to be observed while performing wholesale musical interest is the beginning of the melody,

- especially when student's playing Anacroz, Observed without pressure on the first tune, but the pressure starts on the first unit in order not to give a different expression. (Zaghloul, N. 1981,p.2)
- 6) *The Slur* (Sagittarius expressionist short), It is a bracket combines two tons or more gathered in the playing of musical fine the same in one whisper , which is one of the elements of shading melody and intended to move from a powerful notepad to anther weak one. It's the disappearance of sound in the notation. Second this disappearance depends on the rhythm and character of the music melody. (Willi, A.1987, p. 234) Leads this expressive bow by throwing the weight of the tone arm on the first and then lift the hand after playing second tone, lightly in preparation for playing the tones that followed.
 - 7) *The musical Scales* is a group of notes certain played, smoothly to know the beginning and the end of the specified key. They are sequential in steps and are considered, scientifically, arrangement acoustically or mechanically literature or musical paragraphs, while retaining the time value of these steps. The scales are of particular importance in the technique to play, and during training on the scales music must be taken into account as follows: A) Training on each hand separately at first, even playing every touch tone strongly equaled and equal in time. B) Familiarity with all the tones that make up the peace as well as the directory , so as to be determined by placing the hand and using the thumb and its relationship to the third and fourth finger where it is of great importance in the easiness of performance of the musical scale. C) Focus on the full looseness of muscles after playing each tone and the use of finger touch with freedom of movement of the shoulder. D) Gradient in the speed at which training on scales depend to be up to the speed performance required from the student.
 - 8) *Arpeggio* tones consist of the scales first, third and fifth tones , the same combination of first-class ladder , but plays in quick succession , and to acquire the skill to perform playing arpeggio entails several points , followed by the student during the training , namely: a) Training arpeggio tones in the style of continues playing and in one sentence. B) Training on arpeggio tones of one strong touch and a time of one. C) Training by using fingers number of the right tones in your hands. D) Training on arpeggio tones with no tightening fingers during performance.(Al said, N. Hanim, 1998, pp.49-52)
 - 9) *The Accent* is a pressure force of a sudden - action on a notepad or harmonic one , it takes its character from the character of the music, located where and referred to by the symbol \wedge or $>$ leads accent more strongly when playing melodic line hard, but if the melodic line is played weakly, the accent should be played strongly . (Willi, A.1987, p. 773)
 - 10) *Ornaments* are small notes or special symbols recorded in the artwork and the student performs to increase the richness of musical composition and  Among the most important and most commonly used ornaments as follows: - a) "Acciaccatura"  a mini notepad divided by a line in the tail, and so be quick and deducted replied from the beginning of the note key followed in most cases and it is located as strong bits on Acciaccatura, or sometimes deducted from Acciaccatura replied from the end of the time of the note, which was accepted in this case is located, as a powerful bits on the basic notation and not Acciaccatura.  "Mordent" is a  changing fast, starts and then the sharpest note and the core if it is with the same format,  but if it was  so basic  begins the note somewhat cruder and the core agene. C) "Trill" meaning decoration shortened to a (tr.)  the signal extends until the end of its time, and be its reference above basic tone is composed of Al trill notation and basic notation the sharpest, including a regular basis and quickly and without strong bits in the run off until the basic notation-time ends. D) "Arpeggio" This ornament is referred to so often, leads to the tone of the crudest manner to the sequential sharp tone (Hassanein, s. 1987.pp.170-179)
 - 11) *Pedaling skill*, is the term given to the multiple forms of levers which are powered by the foot and cause, when you press them either strengthen or weaken the sound. The piano contains two pedals, except the big pianos which contain three each of them has its own position. A) The right pedal (muffler) Forte Pedal or Sustain Pedal. B) The left pedal (Pacific) Soft Pedal or Una Corde. The right pedal and powers when pressed raises stops for tendons completely. This allows an increase of ringing sound as a result of vibration tendons so -called "Sustain" means the continuation and extension of tones and lengthen them continue as long as the pressure is on pedal. It is the goal of pedal to give beauty to playing and enrich the tone and deepen it. The left pedal is a soft pedal "Una Corde" because it leads to methods of tendon and only bait. This pedal works to reduce the size of the sound of the tone, plus it gives the tone the special color coded (Ali, S., 1994, p 35: 36). The meddle pedal is found in large pianos and is called "Sustain Pedal" (pedal for lengthening the melody) and the basic function is to install an extension tones as long as the pressure continues pedal. Requiring a good use of the pedal as a skill needs to exercise and many organizations from the beginning until the student gets used to it and becomes a permanent part played automatically in all senses of the eye, ear, and a sense of conscious thinking and foot muscles. So, it is on the teacher to draw students' proper guidance from the beginning towards the use of pedal, function and usefulness till he

finishes his training, perfectly and easily. He acquires that skill and knows how to move his foot on the pedal at the right time. (Abu Auf B., 1986 pp. 279-292) The use of pedal - art is based on some simple basic rules: The first rule; pedal change must be followed directly fiddle harmony, new note, or new melodic. The second rule: pedal differing treatment depends on the layers of instrument sound, whenever we turn on the sounds of acute pedal its use must be free and as we head for the big sounds shall it renews the pedal slowly. The third rule: Renewal of the pedal with every change of Harmony, a base of great importance in the expression of the mysterious sounds, thin and modern inside harmonies. The rule must take into account the full accuracy in the application of the basic rules, rather because of its great importance. (Nassif, H., 1977, P.31-32)

The researcher prepared a list of items and basic skills through a questionnaire, and the attention of the experts and professors who specialize in playing the piano. The result of the survey, as shown in the following table, with some modifications in those items.

TABLE I. The items and basic skills in a questionnaire

Number	Points	Value
(1)	A hint about the piano instrument constructions.	100%
(2)	The instrument mechanism and how to get sound out of it.	100%
(3)	The correct sitting to the piano instrument.	100%
(4)	The bases of playing on the piano.	100%
(5)	The most important musical skills intended to be acquired:-	
(5-1)	The Technique.	100%
(5-2)	The Musical sentence and phrase.	100%
(5-3)	The constant playing.(legato)	100%
(5-4)	The intermittent playing.(portato)	100%
(5-5)	The Melodic line.	100%
(5-6)	The Short expressional bow.(slur)	100%
(5-7)	The Musical scale.	100%
(5-8)	The Arpeggio.	100%
(5-9)	The Strong pressure.(accent)	100%
(5-10)	The Ornaments.	70%
(5-11)	Pedal skill	100%

DISCUSSION

Through the previous table that demonstrates opinion questionnaire items and the percentage of approval of the points to be included in the proposed method of teaching the skills of piano performance We note that all the agreed views of professors who specialize on the validity of all the items, except for item differed in some ornaments to the difficulty of their performance at the beginning of the learning of the student novice.

The data showed that the proposed method of researcher interest in teaching piano skills. These findings agreed with Study for Yassin A., (2006) which exposed to collect between the modern style of both "J. Thomposon and H. Hoiman " for learning adults playing the piano. It informed that both styles integrates each other and it easy for the piano teacher to use a new style and method for playing on the piano. The findings of the current study were also supported by several studies, such as (El Sawi H., 2006) study in her presentation and analysis of "Michael Aaron" for learning playing on the piano for the beginners which help the student get to the good performance through using some of scales with raising and lowering marks. But this is made for each passage alone. His use of alternative hands style when performing for the first time and by the opposite way of the two hands by the same numbering of finger. (Saleh S., 1994) this study targeted at studying "Francis Clark's method" for learning beginners playing on the piano and showing the followed up method in a group of books "look and listen". And the distinguished points of him as this has an effecting in enlarging the scopes of music teacher and providing him with some of the modern styles in learning playing on the piano. She pointed out her findings for Clark's method is different concerning learning beginning, tones, fingers used and added the guidance's, necessary for model performance

CONCLUSION

From the previous showing of this paper, it appears the modern teaching methods to learn to play the piano, and the most important of these modern methods and innovative in performance on the piano. As well, how to develop the playing skills and performance overcome the difficulties of the student from beginner through them

and take advantage of them in the preparation of the graduates of the College of Education to develop their performance and quality.

RESULTS

After having the experts' questionnaires in field of Western musical (piano specialization), results appeared to point out their acceptance and approval for the points Suggested for teaching piano playing skills. The different piano teaching methods are essential tools in developing students' abilities and performance skills in playing the piano. Because of the diversity in learning abilities, personalities and skills of students, such methods will greatly help in mastering each piano lesson.

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Issues of Access and Equity: Academic and Social Integration for Students in STEM and Liberal Arts

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Abstract

First-generation, low-income, and underrepresented students (FGLIU) face multiple challenges adapting to academic and social expectations on university campuses, particularly elite institutions, where these challenges greatly impact students' sense of belonging and overall retention. Tufts University, an elite private university, is uniquely positioned as one of the smallest research universities in the United States, while remaining, at its core, a liberal arts teaching college. Tufts is also committed to assisting FGLIU students through the implementation of two bridge programs (BLAST and BEST), aimed at supporting and retaining liberal arts and engineering FGLIU students, respectively. Utilizing a single site case study, programmatic and student data reveals how these students are enrolling, experiencing, and succeeding at Tufts. In addendum to the data, this paper will also address fundamental access and equity issues for FGLIU students within higher education and how these issues directly impact the everyday experiences of BLAST and BEST scholars at Tufts.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Scholars have urged higher education institutions to be more purposeful in their recruitment of first generation, low-income, and underrepresented students (FGLIU) (Kaufman, 2001), especially at elite and Predominately White Institutions (PWIs), which enroll a small percentage of students from this population (Astin & Oseguera, 2004). Even with acceptance to elite PWIs, however, inherent challenges await FGLIU students, particularly if they are also students of color (SOC). Factors such as race, gender, and/or ethnicity are inseparable from class and economic features (Swartz, 1997); thus, individuals from FGLIU backgrounds are in fact often operating at the junction of numerous counts of oppression due to the "intersectionality" of their minoritized backgrounds (Delgado & Stefancic, 2012).

Furthermore, adjusting to college involves exploring and mastering multiple transitions within academic, social, and cultural realms, often requiring that students possess the skills and knowledge (or cultural capital) to understand the higher education system and its expectations in order to successfully acclimate to college life. Frequently though, FGLIU students do not possess the preset cultural capital expected by elite higher education institutions (Valadez, 1993). This lack of cultural capital creates an intimidating process for low-income students, particularly first generation students (Terenzini et al., 1994). As a result, FGLIU students find themselves at a disadvantage when navigating their transition to college. They are often left to navigate the institutional system on their own (Hornak, Farrell, & Jackson, 2010), while also experiencing "profound" sentiments that they do not belong (Ostrove, 2003). Ultimately, due to the myriad of challenges these students face during their transition, they are subsequently less likely to persist to graduation (Berger, 2000; Walpole, 2003; Ostrove & Long, 2007; Wells, 2008a).

Because of these challenges, Tufts University is committed to assisting FGLIU students through the implementation of two bridge programs (BLAST and BEST), aimed at supporting and retaining liberal arts and engineering FGLIU students, respectively. As an elite private university, Tufts is uniquely positioned as one of the smallest research universities in the United States, while remaining, at its core, a liberal arts teaching college. The purpose of this paper is to present student data from the BLAST and BEST programs, revealing how these FGLIU students are enrolling, experiencing, and succeeding at Tufts. In addendum to the data, this paper will

also address fundamental access and equity issues for FGLIU students within higher education and how these issues directly impact the everyday experiences of BEST and BLAST Scholars at Tufts.

BACKGROUND LITERATURE

FGLIU Students and Inequity within Higher Education

FGLIU students face three major inequities in higher education: they go to college in fewer instances than others, they complete college at lower rates, and they attend four-year colleges generally, and selective schools particularly, with substantially less frequency (Kahlenberg, 2004). Of all college first-year entrants, almost half of low-income students attend two-year community colleges, in contrast with just one in ten high-income students. At top-tier colleges, “students in the highest socioeconomic quartile take up 74 percent of the available slots, compared with three percent from the bottom quartile” (Bowen & Bok, 1998, p. 341). The under representation of low-income students at elite colleges is many times greater than it is for under represented students of color, who are still the subject of debate in relation to access and equity.

Inequality in access to higher education has historically been, and continues to be, a significant problem in American society due to the growing wage premium provided by a college education and the particular advantages of attending a selective university. As Gladieux (2004) notes, the median annual household income in 1999 was roughly \$36,000 for those with a high school degree, \$62,000 for those with a bachelor’s degree, and \$100,000 for those with a professional degree. While community colleges are seen as a gateway to four-year colleges, less than one-tenth of community college students ultimately receive a bachelor’s degree. Carnevale and Rose (2004) point out that there are three major advantages to attending a selective four-year college. Controlling for test scores, students in selective colleges are more likely to graduate, enroll at and attend a postgraduate school, and receive an increased wage premium of 5-20 percent post graduation, representing the value added from attending a competitive school.

The Impact of “Capital” on the Transition Issues FGLIU Students Face

Although elite four-year institutions offer many tangible benefits for students, not all students access these benefits easily or equitably. Because of their minoritized position within the institution in terms of their race, ethnicity, and/or socioeconomic background, many FGLIU students face inherent challenges in their transition to colleges and in establishing a sense of belonging within the community. For example, with a history of racial exclusion, and a lack of role models, racial and ethnic minorities often experience initial sentiments of alienation, feeling like “outsiders within” at elite institutions (Datnow & Cooper, 2009, p. 197). Ostrove (2003) also notes that, “class plays a large role in constructing the markers that define ‘belongingness’ on [elite] college campuses” (p. 771). Moreover, FGLIU students often lack the social capital, cultural capital, and human capital valued within higher education, particularly elite institutions (Massey, 2003). Social capital is the tangible benefits and resources that people accrue by virtue of their inclusion in a social structure (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992), cultural capital refers to an individual’s knowledge of the norms, styles, conventions, and tastes that pervade specific social settings and allow individuals to navigate them in ways that increase their odds of success (Swindler, 1986; MacLeod, 1995), and human capital refers to the skills, abilities, and knowledge possessed by an individual (Schultz, 1963).

Subsequently measurable differences in academic preparation clearly exist between FGLIU and majority students by the time they graduate from high school. DiMaggio and Ostrower (1990) and Roscigno and Ainsworth-Darnell (1999) have documented clear differences in capital possession, also finding that these differences among students were substantially explained by differences in socioeconomic background. The capital deficiency theory posits that cultural information passed on informally from one generation to the next helps to perpetuate social stratification. Wealthy children inherit a substantially different body of cultural knowledge compared with working class children, especially when the latter are members of a racial or ethnic minority. Furthermore, academia in particular is a rarefied social niche with its own customs, traditions, and expectations in terms of cultural capital. Exposure to and prior knowledge of the social conventions of academia can be critical in preparing students for achieving success in a school environment (Farkas, 1996, p. 5). As translated by Swartz (1997), “Bourdieu sees the educational system as the principal institution controlling the allocation of status and privilege in contemporary societies” (p. 189). And, although all students enter higher education with some type of cultural capital, only certain students “will be able to exchange this cultural capital for something of value” (Winkle-Wagner, 2010, p. 8). In essence, certain types of cultural capital, particularly those belonging to underrepresented or nontraditional students (such as FGLIU students) remain unvalued by

higher education, leaving them at an elevated risk for lower success rates in school (Valdez, 1993; Berger, 2000, Walpole, 2003, Wells, 2008b).

Similar to national trends, FGLIU students at Tufts were also historically at risk for transition and persistence difficulties impacting their retention rates. Therefore, in recent years institutional attention was directed toward their lower retention rates and transition challenges, and as a result, the Bridge to Engineering Success at Tufts (BEST) program and Bridge to Liberal Arts Success (BLAST) program were created in 2010 & 2012, respectively. The purpose of these programs is to support, develop, and retain engineering and liberal arts students who may be first in their family to attend a four-year college, and/or have attended an under resourced high school, and/or have worked with a college access agency. Through these programs Tufts aims to address this gap in capital possession, sense of belonging, and retention for FGLIU students.

METHODS

Purpose of the Case Study Approach

To explore how FGLIU students were experiencing, and succeeding at Tufts, we utilized a single-site case study approach, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data on the Bridge to Liberal Arts Success at Tufts (BLAST) program and the Bridge to Engineering Success at Tufts (BEST) program, our two summer bridge programs that provide continued support through graduation. Our approach utilized case study methodology as we conducted an “in-depth and detailed exploration” of both programs (Rossman & Rallis, 2012, p. 103). As Rossman & Rallis (2012) further note, case studies are often complex and multilayered, utilizing a variety of techniques to collect data over time. Furthermore, case studies are context-dependent, as exemplified in our single-site case study, in which we are examining both of these programs within the broader context of the Tufts environment. Moreover, as referenced above, case studies are multilayered; as such, we have collected quantitative data in the form of student surveys, demographic information, and institutional data (such as grade point averages and retention rates), along with qualitative data in the form of written student narratives and student interviews. The triangulation of this data has provided us with a rich description of the student experience of FGLIU BLAST and BEST Scholars at Tufts.

Overview of BLAST and BEST

The BLAST program

Implemented in 2012, The Bridge to Liberal Arts Success (BLAST) vision is to develop a strong cohort of scholars from diverse backgrounds who demonstrated academic excellence in their secondary education. The purpose of the program is to support and retain students who may be first in their family to attend a four-year college, and/or have attended under resourced high school and/or have been affiliated with a college access agency; the majority of BLAST scholars are also FGLIU students. Supported by a strong and varied Tufts network, BLAST Scholars begin their experience with a six-week intensive, residential summer program. In this segment of the program, Scholars find themselves immediately immersed into the “Tufts experience.” BLAST Scholars take two courses that will allow them to fulfill requirements toward their Tufts degree. This program prepares students for a rigorous college curriculum, orientates them to the Tufts culture, and provides the resources for a successful transition. Although preparatory, rather than remedial, students are required to demonstrate success in their summer courses in order to matriculate to Tufts in the fall.

The goal of the program is to make certain that BLAST Scholars begin their college experience empowered and ready to take advantage of everything that Tufts has to offer. As the four-year program progresses, the BLAST program provides the scaffolding to support Scholars for the variety of opportunities, challenges, and experiences that characterize a Tufts undergraduate education. A focal point is building a strong sense of community within the program and to the larger Tufts community. A number of teambuilding activities and events bring the Scholars together as a group, creating a cohort that they can turn to throughout the course of their continuing years together. In addition, the program strives to provide students with the capital to understand the academic culture inherent to any college or university. As the BLAST Scholar ends the six week session, s/he will be ready to make a seamless transition from any type of secondary school setting to Tufts’ rigorous and exciting undergraduate environment.

An overview of the demographic breakdown of the two BLAST cohorts is as follows:

BLAST Cohort	Size	Gender % Male	% Female	Economic Financial Aid Recipients	College status First Generation
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C1	22	54%	46%	100%	90.9%
C2	23	44%	56%	96%	54.5%

BLAST Cohort	Race/Ethnicity				
	% Latino/a	% Black	%Asian	%White	%Multiracial
C1	46%	36%	9%	9%	N/A
C2	26%	26%	17%	13%	17%

The BEST program

The Center for STEM Diversity (CSD) at Tufts University is an umbrella organization that develops best practices and creates new programming designed to increase the recruitment and retention of underrepresented students in the STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) majors. The Center interfaces with undergraduates, graduate students, faculty, and staff across the campus. Currently, the Center operates two internal programs, the Bridge to Engineering Success at Tufts (BEST) and Promoting Retention in Science and Engineering (PRISE) aimed at assisting FGLIU students at Tufts. For the purpose of this paper we will focus our attention on the BEST program.

The BEST program began in 2010 with the goal of ensuring first-generation college students from low income backgrounds were given the tools (both academic and social) to successfully graduate from the School of Engineering. BEST Scholars attend at six-week summer program and take two foundational engineering classes (Calculus and Physics) for credit, while also attending various workshops on engineering and campus resources during the summer. This program allows students to experience college level academics in a supportive environment, and introduces them to the numerous co-curricular support services on campus. In addition, the BEST program is also preparatory, rather than remedial, because most BEST students have not had formal physics or calculus due to the fact that these courses are typically not offered at their particular high schools, or offered, but not at the AP level. Subsequently, admission to the School of Engineering is contingent on completion of the program. Once admitted, students receive academic and social support through their first year (and until graduation) via weekly meetings, tutoring, and program sponsored social activities.

An overview of the demographic breakdown of the four BEST cohorts is as follows:

BEST Cohort	Size	Gender		Economic Financial Aid Recipients	College status First Generation
		% Male	% Female		
C1	8	75%	25%	100%	88%
C2	10	50%	50%	100%	90%
C3	11	64%	36%	100%	73%
C4	9	56%	44%	100%	100%

BEST Cohort	Race/Ethnicity				
	% Latino/a	% Black	%Asian	%White	%Multiracial
C1	25%	63%	N/A	12%	N/A
C2	40%	20%	20%	20%	N/A
C3	55%	27%	N/A	18%	N/A
C4	56%	33%	N/A	11%	N/A

FINDINGS & DATA

As documented in the literature section of this paper, FGLIU students are often at a greater risk for transition issues, which directly impacts retention. However, both the BLAST and the BEST scholars appear to be academically thriving at Tufts and are maintaining close to perfect retention rates. To begin, every BLAST and BEST scholar has successfully completed their summer bridge program and matriculated to Tufts. In addition, all the BLAST and BEST scholars are currently scheduled to graduate within the standard four year time period. Lastly, the retention rates for the BLAST and BEST cohorts often surpass the overall retention rates for the schools of Arts and Sciences and Engineering at each respective class level. Retention rates were not included for BLAST cohort 2 and BEST Cohort 4 as they have only completed the Fall 2013 semester at Tufts and have yet to finish their freshman year; however the retention rates were calculated for the rest of the cohorts. The retention rates are as follows:

	BLAST C1	Arts & Sciences: Sophomore Class	BEST C1	Engineering: Senior Class	BEST C2**	Engineering: Junior Class	BEST C3**	Engineering: Sophomore Class
Retention rate	100%	94.3%	100%	92.3%	100%	90.5%	91%	94.3%

**For BEST cohorts 2 & 3, one student from each cohort did transfer out of the school of Engineering into Arts & Sciences, but they remain at Tufts and are on track to graduate within four years.

In addition, data was collected from students in BLAST cohort 1 in comparison to three separate student groups. The first group, Control Group 1, is composed of 27 students who matriculated in Fall 2011, and had BLAST existed at this time, many students from this group would have been chosen to participate in BLAST. The second control group, Control Group 2, consists of 12 students who matriculated in Fall 2012 and share similar characteristics to the BLAST group, but were not chosen to participate in the program. The randomly sampled group, or the Comparison Group, is comprised of 59 students from the greater Tufts freshmen population who matriculated in Fall 2012 and has no affiliation with the BLAST program. To determine whether there were significant differences across the control, BLAST, and comparison groups, we analyzed the data by measuring differences in mean rank scores for various academic and social engagement variables (such as academic preparedness, confidence in academic skills, engagement with the Tufts community, and so forth). Overall very few significant differences existed, with the exception that BLAST students were more familiar with academic resources than the Controls and Comparison group, and BLAST students were also more willing to access academic resources than the Comparison group. However, the Comparison group still felt more academically prepared at the end of spring semester than the BLAST group.

In terms of academics, both BLAST and BEST scholars maintain competitive Grade Point Averages (GPAs) similar to, or within close range of, their peers. In fact, BLAST scholars maintained a higher cumulative (CUM) GPA than both of the control groups. The overall freshman year cumulative GPA for BLAST cohort 1 was a 3.26 out of a 4.0 scale; while the GPAs for control group 1, control group 2, and the comparison group were 3.0, 3.09, and 3.46 respectively. Presently the GPA information for BLAST cohort 2 and the control/comparison groups are still being collected.

Freshman Year GPA Comparison: BLAST Cohort #1 vs. Control and Comparison groups			
BLAST C1	Control Group 1	Control Group 2	Comparison Group
3.26	3.0	3.09	3.46

For the BEST cohorts, the CUM GPAs for the four cohorts in comparison to the overall class averages were calculated out of a 4.0 scale. When translated to a letter grade, only a half grade difference exists between the CUM GPA for each BEST cohort and the CUM GPA for each respective class (the difference between a B and a B+). The CUM GPAs are as follows:

GPA Comparison: BEST Cohorts vs. Class Averages (CUM GPA)							
BEST C1	Senior Class	BEST C2	Junior Class	BEST C3	Sophomore Class	BEST C4	Freshman Class
2.95	3.35	2.95	3.29	2.94	3.31	***	***

*** Still collecting the data for BEST cohort 4 and the current freshman class for the school of Engineering.

DISCUSSION

This case study provides a tangible example of how carefully designed access programs aimed at recruiting and retaining diverse talent from underrepresented populations can be successfully implemented at elite, private institutions such as Tufts. The research literature clearly identifies challenges that FGLIU students face in terms of their transition, feelings of belongingness, and possession of multiple types of capital. However, the goal of these programs is to immediately address those issues by engaging students in a six-week (pre-matriculation) summer experience while being inherently thoughtful of each students' unique experiences, their background, and their skill set. Doing so allows students to build upon and expand their social, cultural, and human capital, thereby establishing a greater sense of belonging. Undoubtedly a number of our students are coming from school districts that have not provided the optimum academic preparation for success at Tufts. However, our aim is not to provide remediation for these students, but rather to build a community of learners that better understands the expectations and intricacies of higher education, while creating a safe space for their exploration, growth, and development.

The success of these programs is largely due to key factors, such as support from the university's administration (e.g. Deans of Arts & Science and Engineering), BLAST and BEST program staff, the office of admissions, and other student support services available on campus. The collaboration between these entities forms the critical infrastructure needed to cultivate an ecosystem of dedicated faculty and staff attuned to the needs of FGLIU students. In addition, significant financial resources from both the university and alumni have been committed to ensure the sustainability of these programs and to provide students with a wide array of financial support opportunities so that they may focus on their academics, participate in co-curricular activities,

and pursue other interests that may have been otherwise impeded due to financial constraints. In essence, a supportive infrastructure in the form of institutional “buy in” and financial commitment make it possible to design and implement the BLAST and BEST programs.

These programs are also exemplary in that they provide students with an opportunity to earn credits towards their college degree prior to matriculation in classes taught by faculty known for the quality of their teaching, thereby ensuring an optimal learning experience. Participation in the BLAST and BEST programs also include networking opportunities, skill workshops, and an exploration of the surrounding community. Furthermore, both programs place an emphasis on disseminating knowledge about the academic and personal support resources available to students (cultural centers, tutoring, counseling, and so forth). Beyond their initial introduction and acclimation to Tufts, students are also heavily supported during their four-year experience until graduation. Lastly, BLAST and BEST rely on a strong cohort model coupled with peer-to-peer mentorship. This creates a sense of community, or as some students describe, a “family,” which provides the necessary academic and social reinforcement needed to persist and complete the rigorous liberal arts and engineering programs at Tufts.

Ultimately, we believe that the opportunities and resources provided by the BLAST and BEST programs, as outlined above, help FGLIU students to thrive and succeed at Tufts. The strong four-year persistence and retention rates for FGLIU students participating in the BLAST and BEST programs (as documented in the data section) are well above the national averages. For example, in a report produced by the Pell Institute regarding college success for first-generation, low-income students, we see that FGLIU students are four times more likely (than non FGLIU students) to leave higher education after their first year. In addition, only 43% of FGLIU students attending private four-year institutions graduate with their bachelors degree within a six year time period, in comparison to 80% of their non FGLIU peers who graduate with their bachelors in that same time period (Engle & Tinto, 2008). In summation, we believe the distinctive approach and support provided by the BLAST and BEST programs at Tufts lead directly to increased retention and graduation rates. As such, we offer a few recommendations for practice applicable to similar institutions looking to implement comparable bridge programs in order to better assist their FGLIU students in their transition to college:

- 1) Incorporate as many, and as often as possible, senior administrators in the planning and decision making process to ensure institutional support and “buy in.”
- 2) Clearly define program goals and expectations for participants so that they are empowered to achieve academic success.
- 3) Keep students involved in the program’s progression as mentors to incoming students to create a continued and cohesive sense of community.
- 4) Also keep students involved through assessment and feedback measures to inform future policy and practice.
- 5) When structuring the overall programmatic goals and opportunities, take into account each student’s unique strengths, needs, and talents, while still valuing the common good of the larger group.

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Designing Simple Voltage/Current Processors in Orcad-PSPICE for Simulation Based Practical Education

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Abstract

In this paper, simple voltage and current based processor parts are constructed in Orcad-Pspice medium. The intrinsic differential characteristics of the primitive capacitor and inductor models in Pspice are utilised in the construction of the,so-called here, processor parts. The designed compact parts are shown to be effective in taking integral and derivative of input signals, either voltage or current form, simultaneously. This study will help students to understand the fundamentals of simple voltage/current processors.

Keywords. Orcad, PSpice, simulation, voltage/current processors

INTRODUCTION

Pspice has been extensively used as an CAD [1-8] tool of both analog and digital parts, circuits and systems. On the other hand, it is well known that, by using Pspice models, many mathematical equations, including both linear and nonlinear differential equations, can be solved.

In the simulation of differential equations several different approaches may be followed. For example, the differential equation is transformed into Laplace domain and Pspice 's' parameter are used as part of the simulation circuit, or the differential equation is first arranged in a special order and integrator (plus summer) blocks are realized with some operational differential device models.

In this work, the intrinsic differential characteristics of the primitive capacitor and inductor models in Pspice are utilised in the construction of the designed compact, so-called here, processor parts. Although processing range of them is limited to integration and derivation, they can perform both functions simultaneously, one on voltage and the other on current input signals.

The performance of the processors are tested successfully with exemplary signals.

Processor circuitry

The voltage processor circuit is given in Figure 1. Both integral and differential stages provide a high enough input resistance. Shunt resistor for the integral stage is also very high and used as the consequence of a Pspice connection rule.

The current processor circuit is given in Figure 2. Both integral and differential stages provide a low enough input resistance. It can be made much near to zero but must take a nonzero value.

Test run

The processors are tested, one with a squarewave input signal the other with a trianglewave input. The results obtained are provided below.

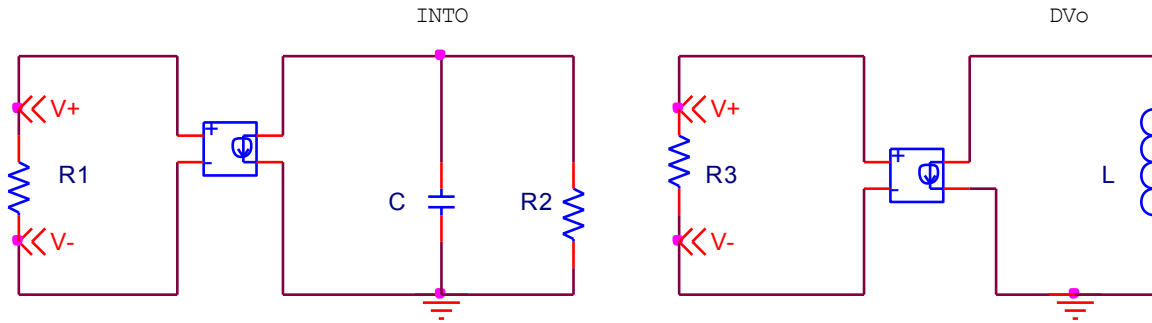


Figure 1. Inside view of the voltage processor. All resistors have a value of 1 G Ohm. Capacitor and inductor both have unity element value. Gain of the voltage controlled current sources is (-1).

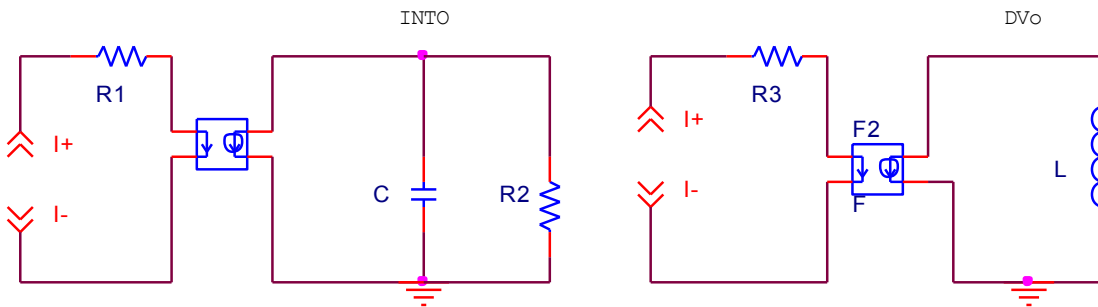


Figure 2. Inside view of the current processor. Input resistors have a value of 1 N Ohm. Integral stage output resistor is of 1G Ohm. Capacitor and inductor both have unity element value. Gain of the current controlled current sources is (-1).

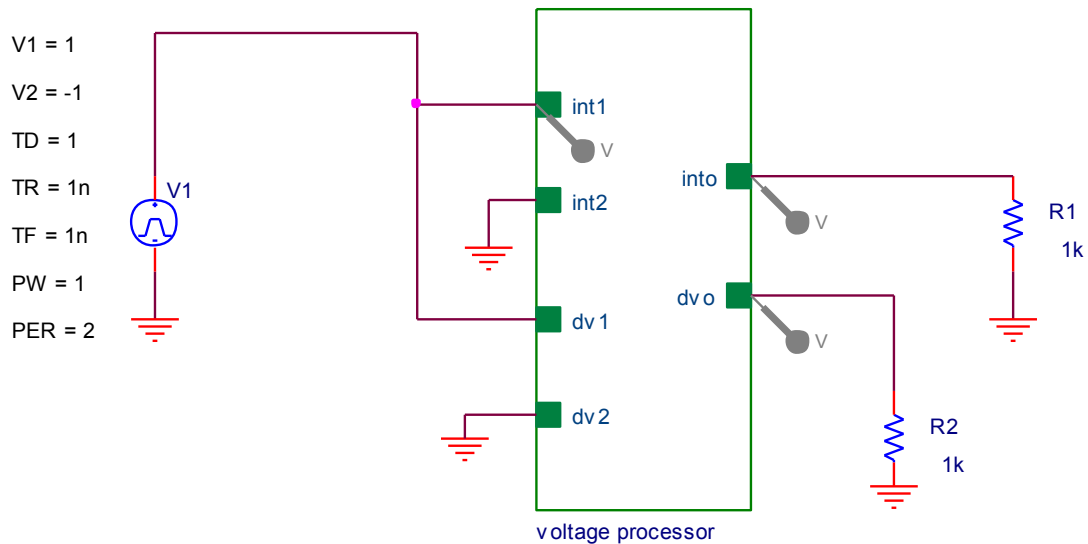


Figure 3. Test connection for the voltage processor. Compact model is used.

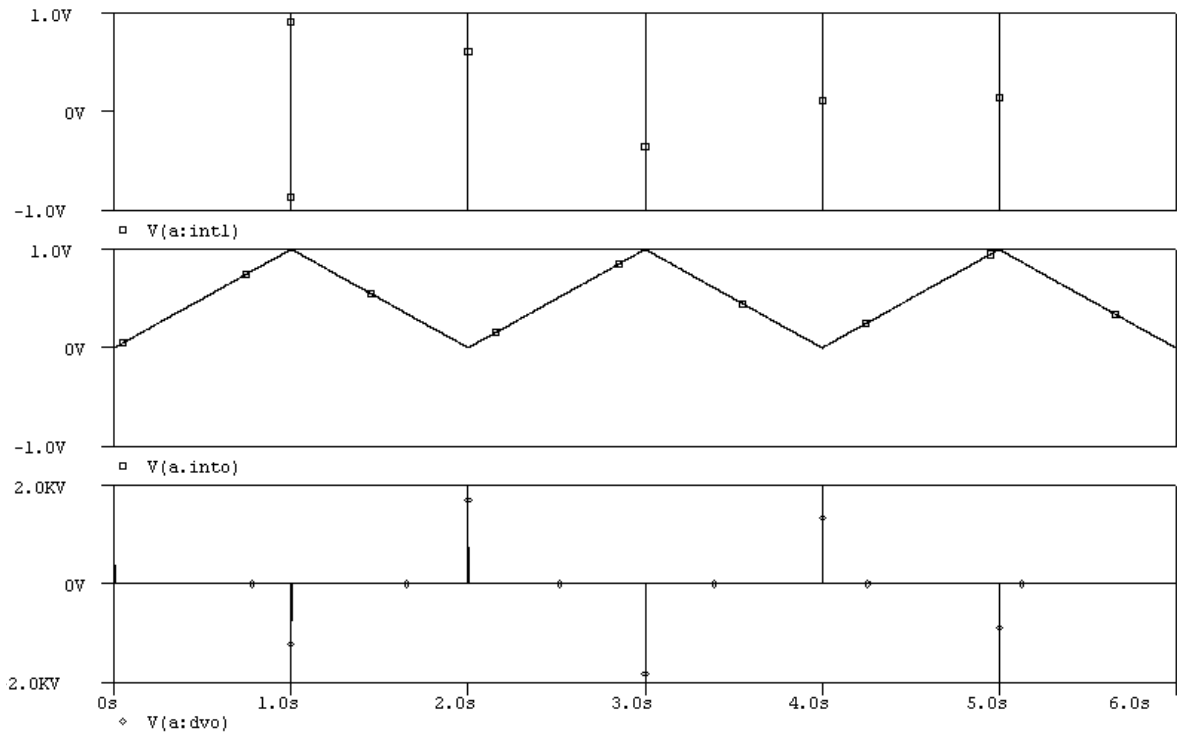


Figure 4. The test run results for the voltage processor. Input voltage signal (the toppest curve), integrator output (the middle curve) and derivator output (the lowest curve).

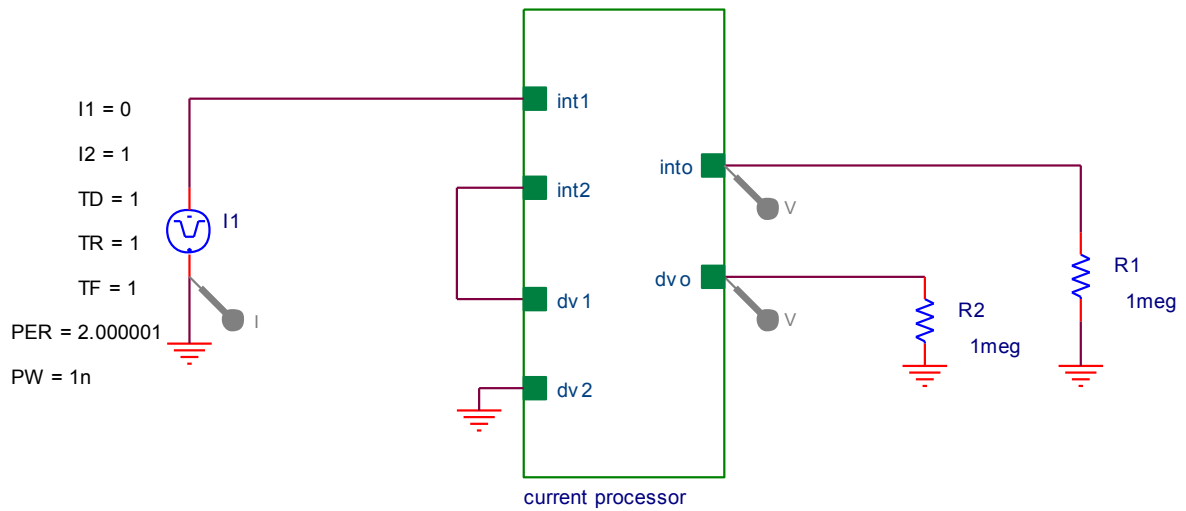


Figure 5. Test connection for the current processor. Compact model is used.

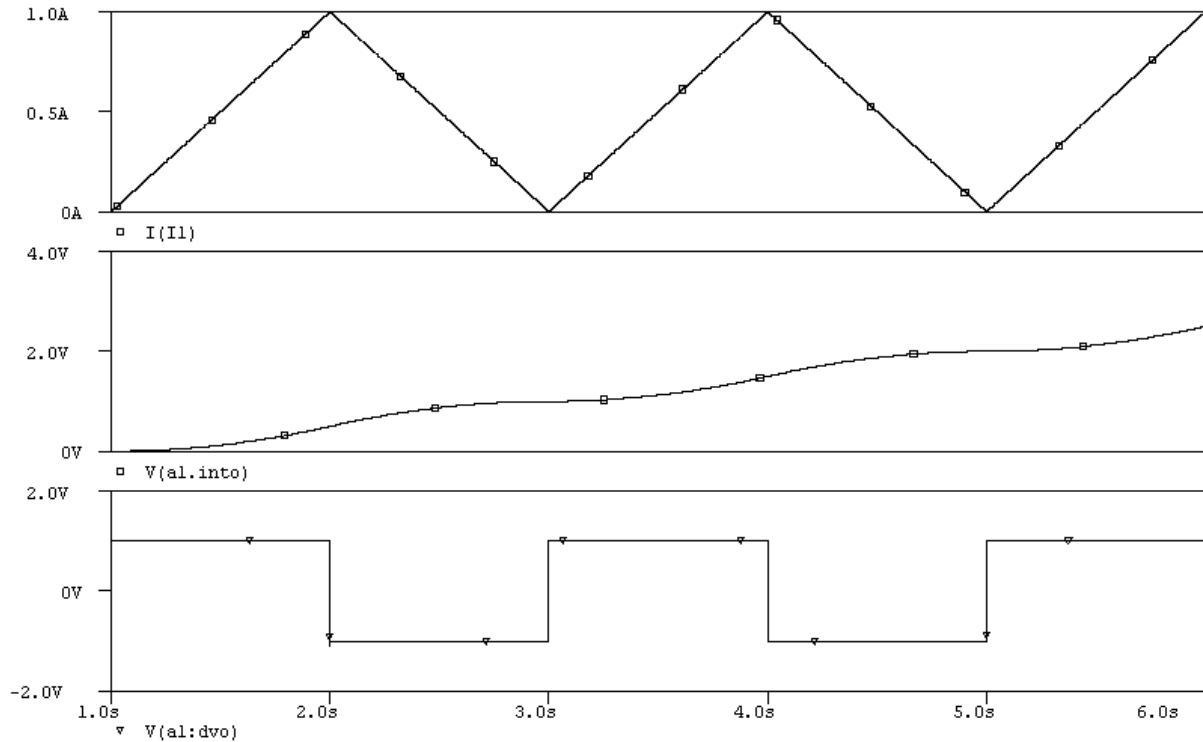


Figure 6. The test run results for the current processor. Input current signal (the toppest curve), integrator output (the middle curve) and derivator output (the lowest curve).

Conclusion

In this work, simple voltage and current based processor parts are constructed in Orcad-Pspice medium and tested successfully. The designed parts are considered functional and user friendly in a simulation medium especially for educational purposes.

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Meeting Teacher Competence Standards Through A Construction of an Outcome-Based Field Experience Framework: A Case of Hong Kong

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Abstract

The Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd) as one of the five Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) as well as the largest TEI in Hong Kong, it concerns very much on meeting the teacher competence standards to uphold a high standard of teacher education for benefiting the whole education community and maintain a high level of quality assurance for teacher education programme. As Field Experience (FE) is a cornerstone of any teacher education programmes that could interlock with other domains and content areas of the programme to achieving the most effective learning outcomes, HKIEd recently reviewed and constructed a new outcome-based framework for student teachers to actively engage in learning activities of FE in order to meeting the standards. This paper aims to (1) review the literature on teacher competence standards and its implication on teacher education, (2) demonstrate how HKIEd review and construct a new outcome-based framework, (3) critically analyse the quality of the new outcome-based FE framework from the latest literature and trends in teacher competence standards, and (4) conclude and recommend how the FE framework can be further developed for meeting and upholding teacher competence standards through a series of studies.

Keywords:

INTRODUCTION

The Hong Kong government has been keen on relying external sources from United Kingdom, United States and Australia on policy advice in shaping its education policy (Kennedy, 2011). The idea of OBL emerged in the first round of Teaching and Learning Quality Performance Reviews (TLQPR). It was suggested that “a focus on universities’ processed to assure quality of learning outcomes” should be highlighted for further discussion. However, it did not draw enough attention from the local academics. It was until a local academic report that emphasized students’ learning outcomes as part of education quality work. Along with the ongoing pressure on quality assurance, Quality Audit Council (QAC) was established in 2006 and one of its major tasks is to monitor the implementation of OBL approaches to teaching and learning in institutional levels (Stone, 2005). Whereas student learning presents one face of teaching and learning, the other face is accountability. It means that “outcomes” become a focal concern and a tool to justify public expenditure on higher education. Those higher education institutions should strive to produce “outcomes” in order to holding accountability for public funding.

In the teaching profession of Hong Kong, the Committee on Professional Development of Teachers and Principals (COTAP), recently renamed from the former Advisory Committee on Teacher Education and Qualifications (ACTEQ) is the highest Government advisory body that approves policies on teacher education and development, and advises on the supply of and demand for teachers with the necessary professional qualifications, skills and competencies. In 2003, the ACTEQ published a set of Teacher Competency Framework (TCF) (Appendix I) for the reference of the community in the teaching professional competencies. The Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd) as one of the five TEIs as well as the largest TEI in Hong Kong, it concerns very much on meeting the teacher competence standards as the learning outcomes in all the teacher education programmes. This concern relates to preparing professional teachers for benefiting the whole education community but also to maintaining high quality teacher education programme for public accountability. Therefore, over the past few years, all the teacher education programmes were revamped under the OBL approach to ensure the student learning outcomes are lined up with the teacher competence standards. As Field Experience (FE) is a cornerstone of any teacher education programmes that could bridge theory and practice to achieve the most effective learning outcomes, a new outcome-based FE framework was also

developed at HKIED to actively engage students into FE learning activities and meeting the teacher competence standards.

This paper aims to (1) review the literature on teacher competence standards and its implication on teacher education, (2) demonstrate how HKIED review and construct a new outcome-based framework, (3) critically analyse the quality of the new outcome-based FE framework from the latest literature and trends in teacher competence standards, and (4) conclude and recommend how the FE framework can be further developed for meeting and upholding teacher competence standards through a series of studies. It is expected that readers can gain a better understanding of the latest teacher education development in Hong Kong from the competence- and outcome-based perspectives.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The term 'competence' including its derivatives 'competent', 'competency' and 'competencies' may have different meanings to different people within a consideration of a social context (Thompson, 1998, p. 15) and Bartlett (1992) defined competence as follows:

Competence is "The ability/capacity to work (act) effectively as judged against established or known standards and encompassing intellectual, cognitive and attitudinal dimensions. Competence is based on knowledge in a specific field (for example, teaching) and context, and is constituted of a set of separate competencies, units or domains considered at once and/or globally ..." (p. 10).

Competence-based education (standards) originated in the performance-based teacher education movement in the United States in the 1960s due to the public concern on accountability and control of the teachers' certificate issue (Hyland, 1994). Throughout the 1970s, the teacher training programs had clearly defined standards and pre-specified outcomes under competence-based approach (Hyland, 1994; Wolf, 1995, pp.3-4). The development of competency-based curricula and assessment was further applied in education and a variety of occupations (Wolf, 1995, p.4). Competency-based education was then widely used throughout the United States, United Kingdom, Australia and Europe over the past few decades despite the approach and degree of usage differ between countries (Velde, 1998). Even though competence standards had been used widely in teacher education in different countries over the past few decades, there is controversial discussion about the teacher competence standards and its implications on teacher education, as a result of different perspectives in its constitution, implementation process and assessment that need to be thoroughly investigated.

Teacher competence standards (TCSs) is a set of documents that reflects '*the shared commitment of the teaching profession*' viewed by the stakeholders in the teaching and education community in order to uphold the highest quality of the teaching professional (Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, 2003). The TCSs also provides clear guidelines on the professional knowledge and skills necessary to developing high quality professional teachers in difference aspects and at different stages. For example, emphasizing on a mastery of pedagogical content knowledge and a possession of sincere attitude towards teaching in equipping the teachers who are at threshold stage. Most TEIs would develop their teacher education programmes in light of those TCSs proposed by their respective country or nation despite there is no conditional commitment to meeting those TCSs. The quality assurance of graduate teachers' learning outcomes of teacher education programmes would largely depend on the TCSs as they describe the key features of high-quality teachers and provide the performance indicators of high-quality learning outcomes.

In general, TCSs draws significant impacts on teacher education in few major aspects including about teaching and learning, about student development, about working at schools and about a professional (Task Force on Initial Teacher Education, 2009; Queensland College of Teachers, 2009). Some TCSs may refer these major aspects to professional knowledge, professional practice, professional relationship or engagement (AEEYSOC National Standards Expert Working Group, 2010; New Zealand Teachers Council, 2007). In Hong Kong, the TFC builds around four similar core domains: (1) teaching and learning, (2) student development, (3) school development, and (4) professional relationships and services. Each of the four domains is extended by four dimensions, each of which highlights an important aspect of teachers' work. The stages of professional maturity are differentiated by Threshold, Competent and Accomplished on a continuum of growing professional achievement. The criteria under the THRESHOLD that refers to beginning teachers are the basic competences of teachers - sufficient for them to be able to perform their daily duties smoothly and independently (Appendix II). These are the competence standards that graduates from the Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) are expected to meet too.

PROCESS OF CREATING AN OBL FE FRAMWORK

As informed by the TCF (Threshold stage) and situated in HKIED's Generic Intended Learning Outcomes (GILOs) and Programme Intended Learning Outcomes (PILOs), a conceptual framework for guiding the review process with the use of the backward-mapping approach was developed (see Appendix III). The whole review process was based on the mapping of the intended outcomes of individual FE courses and activities with TCF, GILOs and PILOs from the perspectives of strategic, organizational and operational levels. Then, a set of Field Experience Intended Learning Outcomes (FEILOs) have been drawn up guiding further development of Course Intended Learning Outcomes (CILOs) of individual FE courses by using the backward-mapping curriculum design approach. A Field Experience Task Force comprising four academic/teaching staff from all the three faculties, representatives from the Field Experience Office (acting as Chairperson) was established with the aims of developing the new OBL FE framework, preparing for the launch of it and ensuring a smooth transition during the implementation. The Task Force met regularly to review and oversee preparatory tasks.

Then, a proposed FE framework has undergone many rounds of rigorous discussions and consultations conducted by external and internal parties. Externally, two external consultants were firstly engaged in developing and reviewing the framework. One consultant who suggested a general direction of the development and pointed out the direction for change and the required key features and elements that should be incorporated, thus setting the scene for the development that followed immediately. Another consultant was invited to review the proposed framework in its developing stage, who strongly recommended the use of a FE ePortfolio as a tool to gauge the overall development of students in relation to professional standards for beginning teachers. Both of them were very pleased with the overall development but added some minor points in fine-tuning the implementation. Their points were discussed and considered by the task force team thereafter. A group of recently retired and renowned principals were also consulted and they supported the development and complimented on the direction the framework was moving to. In addition, a meeting with 13 vice-principals from both primary and secondary schools was conducted to consult their views on the revised framework, as well as the feasibility and demand of student teachers completing the FE ePortfolio with the assistance from schools.

Internally, the development was first reported to the three faculties and thereafter, the draft documents were circulated among the faculties to collect feedback from all faculty members. At the same time, in the meetings with Associate Dean (programmes), Programme Leaders, Assistant Registrars and FE Coordinators from all faculties, the FE framework proposal and its implementation direction were fully discussed. The comments were taken and incorporated into the revised proposal. Moreover, some relevant committees at Institute level received and reviewed the reports of the new FE framework in its meeting. Faculty and Committee members provided comments on the number of FEILOs, technical terms used in FE supervision form, clarity of the grade descriptors and demanding activities in the teaching portfolio I and II were received. All these comments were addressed and revised.

At the same time, a series of two-cycle pilot study were carried out in the existing cohort of undergraduate and postgraduate teacher education programmes. The pilot studies aimed: (1) to examine the effects of the new ten FEILOs and their related activities and assessment tools in the new FE framework on the learning performance of some selected subject groups, and (2) to identify the good practices and activities that support the implementation of the new FE framework. The study included questionnaire survey, focused group interviews and double marking.

Review Results on the New OBL FE Framework Proposal

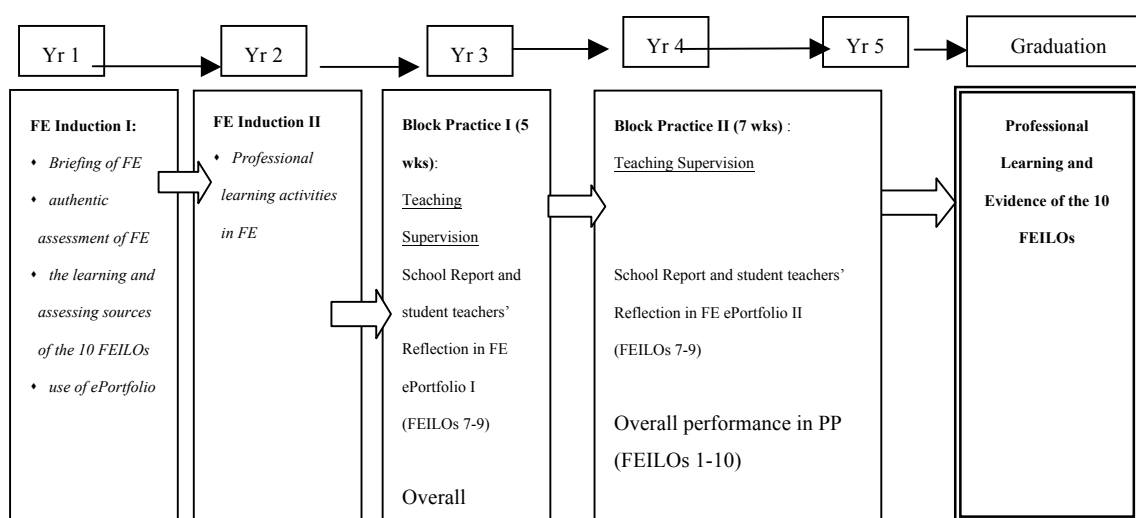
The proposed outcome-based framework for FE aims to provide the opportunities for student teachers to actively engage in learning activities and to demonstrate their abilities to:

- a) Command content knowledge of the subject(s) they study and are assigned to teach;
- b) Use pedagogical content knowledge appropriate to the pupils' needs when planning and teaching;
- c) Employ diversified modes of teaching strategies, skills, materials and technology to create a learning environment to engage pupils' learning;
- d) Design and apply formative and summative assessment strategies and practices to provide feedback on pupil's learning and inform ongoing teaching;
- e) Cater for pupils' individual diversified needs through applying knowledge of learner development;
- f) Recognize the role of teachers in schools in providing discipline, guidance and counseling to foster pupils' learning and personal development;

- g) Develop an understanding of the school as a social and cultural institution responding to local and global educational development;
- h) Develop an understanding of the school's educational philosophy, goals, policies and practices and the impact on teachers' professional responsibilities ;
- i) Develop cordial and co-operative relationships with peers and/or school supporting team(s) and participate in school's professional development responsibilities as part of teachers' professional responsibilities and practice; and
- j) Review and evaluate their professional practice as part of continuous professional learning.

Under the new framework, ten new FE Intended Learning Outcomes (FEILOs) (Appendix IV) were firstly developed with a thorough consideration of the existing four domains and sixteen dimensions in the TCF as well as a mapping to the current GILOs and PILOs of undergraduate and postgraduate teacher education programmes. A set of Grade Descriptors based on 10 FEILOs were further developed to guide the teaching practice and assessment items (i.e. teaching supervision and portfolio). Three assessment modes are proposed to be used for collecting evidence about student teachers' teaching competence and capacity. They are: (1) classroom observations that link to the TCF for beginning teachers, (2) a FE ePortfolio documenting student teachers' professional knowledge and practice and their reflection on both, and (3) performance in other FE related-course(s) like FE induction programme. Based on the review rationale, framework and process, FEILOs, individual FE courses CILOs, related assessment forms, grade descriptors and evaluation tools are being developed too. Figure 1 shows the learning and assessing sources of the ten FEILOs in the new FE framework.

Figure 1: Learning and Assessing Sources of the Ten FEILOs in the New FE Components and Courses



CRITICAL ANALYSIS ON THE NEW OBL FE FRAMEWORK

The new FE framework comprises 10 FEILOs and relevant tasks or activities designed for student teachers to understand teachers' work in the aspects of: (1) Teaching and Learning, (2) Learner Development, (3) School Development, and (4) Professional Services and Development. After completing the proposed tasks or activities in FE, student teachers are expected to demonstrate their understanding of, proficiency with and critical reflection on the four specific aspects of teachers' work:

1. Context for learning (link with teachers' work in (3) School Development)
2. Planning for teaching and assessment (link with teachers' work in (1) Teaching and Learning)
3. Supporting learner learning (link with teachers' work in (2) Learner Development)
4. Reflecting on and evaluating professional practice (link with teachers' work in (4) Professional Services and Development)

The new framework has been prepared for meeting two important changes in current FE practice: (1) adopting the outcome-based approach to emphasis the specific learning outcomes in FE, and (2) taking into

consideration the holistic professional teachers' work in the school context rather than solely focusing on the teachers' teaching performance in a decontextualized way.

Moreover, the framework emphasises authentic assessments of student teachers' actual performance of professional practice in their placement schools, incorporating multiple measures, and focusing on the impact of their professional knowledge and practice on student learning. A main feature for assessing FE in the new framework would be achieved through the use of a FE ePortfolio in Block Practice I & II. The proposed FE ePortfolio components and assessment tasks form a capstone assessment to enable student teachers to provide evidence of their consolidated professional practice and reflection on their teaching practices including theory building during their progressive study in FE. Such outcome-based, technology-based and progressive learning design provides an opportunity for student teachers to interlock with other components and content areas of the programme to achieve the most effective learning outcomes. Their professional judgement can also be enhanced throughout the process of learning in FE ePortfolio.

However, at the operational level, the provision of professional and administrative support to facilitate the implementation of the proposed changes is essential. With the adequate FE resourcing, full support from faculties and departments, accountability on academic and teaching staff's professional contributions, and support from local schools is necessary. The trainings and workshops to be provided to FE supervisors, student teachers and school supporting teachers, and communications with them for the continuous refinement of the tools and framework are necessary at the first place. Moreover, continuous dialogues with stakeholders for supporting a smooth implementation will be maintained internally and externally. Internally, all the faculties, departments and relevant committees in the Institute will be fully informed and invited to support the changes. Externally, scholars, school principals, teachers, graduates and current student teachers will be consulted regularly too.

For ensuring a smooth and proper large-scale implementation, more research work on measuring the effectiveness of attaining the objectives of the framework in particular with the 10 FEILOs, identifying problems and difficulties in carrying out the framework and preparing action plan for full-scale implementation needs to be set out. In addition, a number of FE evaluation tools like student evaluation of FE and feedback from school should also be fine-tuned to measure the effectiveness of the framework.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

With the increased focus on learning outcomes of how student teachers prepare for their professional teaching and growth, a new OBL FE framework was developed through an intensive consultations and a number of pilot studies. In the framework, one of the most critical elements is the development of ten FEILOs which are based on current standard requirements in the 'threshold' level of the TCF (that is, the beginning teacher level), and the Institute's GILOs and PILOs. A number of learning activities/tasks and a set of grade descriptors based on 10 FEILOs were further developed to guide the teaching practice and assessment. Moreover, a FE ePortfolio is used as an effective tool to capture evidence for assessment of 'threshold' or beginning teacher standards from multiple sources. Related assessment forms, grade descriptors and evaluation tools are being developed accordingly.

The proposed outcome-based framework provides opportunities for student teachers to demonstrate a wider scope of learning outcomes through the 10 FEILOs and in turn demonstrate their achievement in teachers' holistic work at the exit point. The FE ePortfolio also provides opportunities for student teachers to develop and sustain their continuous professional in a systematic evidence-based way of learning. It is expected that through a provision of necessary research work, trainings and communications with relevant stakeholders, the framework is able to implement smoothly and refine continuously. More studies could be put on the implementation and measurement of the student learning outcomes in the new FE OBL framework.

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Appendix 1. An Overview of the Generic Teacher Competencies Framework

TEACHING AND LEARNING	STUDENT DEVELOPMENT	SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT DOMAIN	PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Subject Matter Knowledge - command of subject matter knowledge - updating of subject matter knowledge and search for new subject knowledge - sharing and exchange of subject teaching practice ★ Curriculum and Pedagogical Content Knowledge - command and application of pedagogical content 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Students' Diverse Needs in School - understanding students' diverse needs - identifying and supporting students' diverse needs - collegial collaboration in identifying and supporting students' diverse needs ★ Rapport with Students - awareness of the importance of establishing rapport with students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ School Vision and Mission, Culture and Ethos - adaptation to the school vision and mission, culture and ethos - actualisation of school beliefs, vision and mission - cultivation of a caring and inviting school climate - contribution to reviewing the school vision and mission, as well as promoting the school culture and school image 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Collaborative Relationships within the School - working relationships with individuals - working relationships with groups - working relationships within formal structures ★ Teachers' Professional Development - sharing of knowledge and good practices with others - contributions to teachers'

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge - curriculum design, implementation and improvement - updating and sharing of pedagogical content knowledge ★ Teaching Strategies and Skills, Use of Language and Multi-Media <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge and application of teaching strategies and skills - language proficiency - motivation of student learning through different teaching methods and multi-media - research and dissemination on teaching strategies and skills ★ Assessment and Evaluation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - student assessment methods and procedures - use of student assessment results - evaluation and review of teaching and learning programmes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - building trust and rapport with students ★ Pastoral Care for Students <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - providing pastoral care for students - collegial collaboration in providing pastoral care ★ Students' Different Learning Experiences <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - participation and implementation - planning and organization - whole person development of students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Policies, Procedures and Practices <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - understanding school goals and policies - implementation of school policies, procedures and practices - formulation of school policies, review of procedures and practices for continuous school development ★ Home-School Collaboration <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - understanding students' family backgrounds - communication with parents - involvement in parent-related activities - building trust with parents for further school development ★ Responsiveness to Societal Values and Changes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - awareness and knowledge of societal changes in relation to their impact on school - responsiveness to societal changes and issues related to social values 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> professional development ★ Involvement in Policies Related to Education <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - awareness and knowledge of policies related to education - responsiveness to policies related to education - contributions to policies related to education ★ Education-related Community Services and Voluntary Work <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - interaction with the broader community - participation in education-related community services and voluntary work 		
SIX CORE VALUES THAT UNDERPIN THE WHOLE FRAMEWORK					
belief that all students can learn	love and care for students	respect for diversity	commitment and dedication to the profession	collaboration, sharing and team spirit	passion for continuous learning and excellence
BASIC PREMISE: THE PERSONAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS					

Appendix 2. Competency Descriptors in the Teaching and Learning Domain (THRESHOLD)

Subject Matter Knowledge	Command of subject matter knowledge	Displays a basic command of content knowledge of the subjects assigned to teach, but may not be aware of gaps and misconceptions in the basic subject content. Has sporadic and infrequent updating of subject knowledge.
	Updating of subject matter knowledge and search for new subject knowledge	
	Sharing and exchange of subject teaching practice	
Curriculum and Pedagogical Content Knowledge*	Command and application of pedagogical content knowledge	Displays basic knowledge of the current curriculum objectives, pedagogy and subject content; able to impart basic, core subject matter to students, but may not be able to anticipate student misconceptions. Makes sporadic attempts to strengthen or update own knowledge base for teaching and to share pedagogical content knowledge with colleagues.
	Curriculum design, implementation and improvement	
	Updating and sharing of pedagogical content knowledge	

Teaching Strategies and Skills, Use of Language and Multi-Media	Knowledge and application of teaching strategies and skills	Employs a limited range of teaching strategies and skills in delivering lessons to students, adhering mainly to the original lesson plan. Displays an acceptable command of language(s); aware of the importance of appropriate use of language as a medium of instruction. Makes sporadic attempts to update him-/herself with current research in teaching and learning with a view to improving own teaching methods.
	Language proficiency	
	Motivation of student learning through different teaching methods and multi-media	
	Research and dissemination on teaching strategies and skills	
Assessment and Evaluation	Student assessment methods and procedures	Able to follow the statutory assessment and reporting requirements and knows how to prepare and present informative reports to students; recognizes the level at which a pupil is achieving and assesses pupils against attainment targets, where applicable, with guidance from an experienced teacher.
	Use of student assessment results	
	Evaluation and review of teaching and learning programmes	

Competency Descriptors in the Student Development Domain (THRESHOLD)

Students' Diverse Needs in School	Understanding students' diverse needs	Has basic understanding of students' characteristics at different developmental stages, students' different learning styles and intelligences, family backgrounds and interests. Shows awareness of the impact of students' diverse backgrounds on their learning processes.
	Identifying and supporting students' diverse needs	
	Collegial collaboration in identifying and supporting students' diverse needs	
Rapport with Students	Awareness of the importance of establishing rapport with students	Recognizes the value of establishing rapport with students; demonstrates evidence of belief that individual students deserve respect and trust, and that teacher-student relationships should be grounded in rapport and mutual respect. Interacts with students in a generally appropriate manner, showing general care and consideration for them.
	Building trust and rapport with students	
Pastoral Care for Students (Discipline, Guidance & Counselling, Further Studies & Career Guidance)	Providing pastoral care for students	Has basic understanding of the nature of the different areas of pastoral care work. Participates in the provision of pastoral care for students as assigned. Efforts made are mainly on an individual basis, with a vague idea of the spirit of a whole school approach to pastoral care.
	Collegial collaboration in providing pastoral care	
Students' Different Learning Experiences*	Participation and implementation	Recognizes that learning takes place both inside and outside the classroom, and that students should have all-rounded development besides academic performance. Participates in the planning, organization and implementation of students' learning activities as specifically assigned.
	Planning and organization	
	Whole person development of students	

Competency Descriptors in the School Development Domain (THRESHOLD)

School Vision and Mission, Culture and Ethos	Adaptation to the school vision and mission, culture and ethos	Has general understanding of the school's vision and mission statement and recognizes the significance of the school vision and mission for own daily work; aware of the need to adjust to the school environment and recognizes the importance of a pleasant school climate for students' development and their learning outcomes.
	Actualization of school beliefs, vision and mission	
	Cultivation of a caring and inviting school climate	
	Contribution to reviewing the school vision and mission, as well as promoting the school culture and school image	
Policies, Procedures & Practices	Understanding school goals and policies	Has general understanding of own professional responsibilities in relation to school goals and policies; has general knowledge of the school's established procedures and practices; shows interest in the process of formulation/ review of school policies.
	Implementation of school policies, procedures and practices	
	Formulation of school policies, review of procedures and practices for continuous school development	
Home-School Collaboration	Understanding students' family backgrounds	Has general understanding of students' family backgrounds and is aware of their impact on students' learning process. Able to adhere to the school's required procedures for communicating with parents. Participates in parent-related activities when required
	Communication with parents	
	Involvement in parent-related activities	
	Building trust with parents for further school development	

Responsiveness to Societal Changes	Awareness and knowledge of societal changes in relation to their impact on school	Pays attention to and has general understanding of what happens outside the school; shows concern for societal changes and issues related to social values.
	Responsiveness to societal changes and issues related to social values	

Competency Descriptors in the Professional Relationships and Services Domain (THRESHOLD)

Collaborative Relationships within the School	Working relationships with individuals	Maintains cordial relationship with colleagues to fulfil duties assigned by the school. Shows willingness to work and contributes as a member of a team in the school. Has general understanding of the division of work as well as the duties and responsibilities of the various departments, committees and teams within the school.
	Working relationships with groups	
	Working relationships within formal structures	
Teachers' Professional Development	Sharing of knowledge and good practices with others	Prepared to share knowledge and good practices with colleagues when invited to do so. Participates in school-based staff development activities/other professional development activities when assigned to.
	Contribution to teachers' professional development	
Involvement in Policies Related to Education	Awareness and knowledge of policies related to education	Has a basic grasp of current education policies and pays attention to the possible implications of these new initiatives on own teaching work.
	Responsiveness to policies related to education	
	Contribution to policies related to education	
Education-Related Community Services & Voluntary Work	Interaction with the broader community	Aware of the importance of establishing links with the broader community for improved learning outcomes as well as the development of students' positive social values. Ready to participate in district projects, voluntary work committees and so on when invited.
	Participation in education-related community services and voluntary work	

Appendix IV. Ten FEILOs for FE Courses

Upon successful completion of the FE courses, student teachers will be able to:

I. Teaching and Learning

1. Display adequate command of subject content knowledge, processes of inquiry and the concepts and skills of the subjects assigned to teach.
2. Demonstrate the ability to use pedagogical content knowledge in planning, developing and implementing appropriate aspects of the subject curriculum.
3. Employ diversified modes of teaching strategies, skills, materials and technology to create a learning environment to enhance pupils' learning.
4. Design and apply a variety of formative and summative assessment strategies and practices in order to provide relevant feedback on pupils' learning and to inform ongoing teaching.

II. Pupil (Learner) Development

5. Demonstrate an understanding of learning styles, interests, intelligences and ways to cater for individual diversified needs of pupils in the learning context.
6. Recognize the role of teachers in schools in providing discipline, guidance and counseling to foster pupils' learning and personal development.

III. School Development

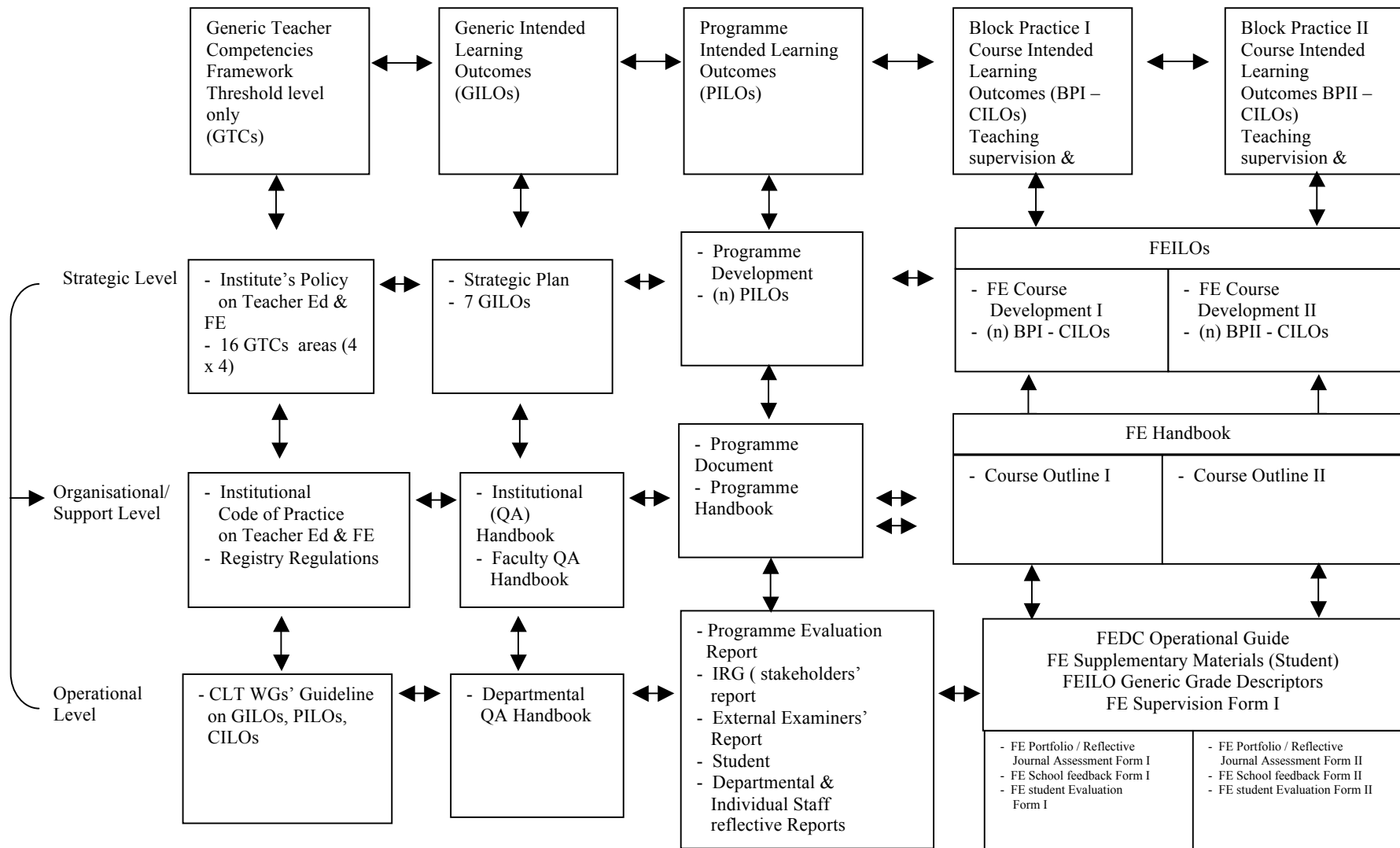
7. Demonstrate an understanding of the school as a social and cultural institution responding to local and global educational development.
8. Develop and demonstrate an understanding of the school's educational philosophy, goals, policies and practices and the impact on teachers' professional responsibilities.

IV. Professional Services and Development

9. Develop and demonstrate cordial and cooperative relationships with peers and/or school supporting team and participate in school's professional development activities.
10. Review and evaluate their teaching in the pursuit of continuous professional learning.

Appendix II

Appendix III. Conceptual framework for Guiding OBL Assessment on FE



Impact of the Mass Media Tools on Students at the High School Level

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ABSTRACT

Aim of this research is to investigate the impact on and feedback of the students to the use of mass media tools who attend at the 10th grade secondary education within the formal education system in North Cyprus. The specific objective is to determine the role and importance of mass media tools on students at the secondary level who reside at relatively rural areas and find the opportunity to attend at standardized education system. Observations, interviews and survey methods were used in this study. Observations were made in classrooms and interviews administered with teachers. Total of 95 questionnaires were administered for the students in three different schools during the survey and results of the survey were analyzed by using SPSS 11.5 software. Results of the research reveal that the students are in relation with the mass media tools. Besides, it is observed that students use the knowledge gained from mass media tools in different fields of their lives. In general, it is seen that the mass media tools have positive impact on students, the most needed tools in schools are computer and internet, families and teachers play an important role and the most educative tool is evaluated to be the internet.

INTRODUCTION

In our world, a new day, simply perceived as 'sunrise'. The most common phrase to sustain life "to continue communication activities" are required. The birthday of individuals communicating with the environment to affect the surrounding, and still consciously or unconsciously influenced to change, to adapt itself to the environment or are trying to create their own rules. Formed in the process of personality, development is demonstrated by the way people communicate. Everything that learned, heard and performed by the behavior of all communication. Communication is a tool for relationship between people. People use communication to understand, to know, to express and to reach to others (Usluat, 1995)

French language through our "communication", in Latin the word "communication" is the same word and the word 'communis' as the concept of several individuals or objects, and means common with (Kuzu, 2003). Communication, which is a natural part of human life, is a social activity in the history of mankind. There is a difference between the definition of communication used in the past and in today's era. A simple definition of communication, is the process of transferring from the source to the receiver. According to Masterson and Watson 'through communication we make sense of the world and this means that we share with others is a human process' (Merry, 1994).

Nowadays, increasingly sophisticated information and communication technologies required to enter into the existing social relations and helped to modernize, but they are understood to be affected by economic, political and such factors. (Bernard, 2008). In this case affecting mass communication there is a need to examine more closely.

MASS COMMUNICATION

Mass media tools are aimed at those with media technology products. With a clearer explanation, communication is done by the press, cinema, film, radio and television. With these tools, a message from one place (individuals, organizations, communities, etc.) to be transferred to a wide audience in the process or activity falls within the scope of mass communication (Kaya, 1985).

Mass communication, is a fairly recent phenomenon of our civilization. Mass media has helped not only the socialization of individuals, but also to society, because it help in human development is necessary and inevitable (Reddi, 1991). Contact the socialization size, occurs through the mass media. Especially mass media is widely used to transfer information from the central area of the nation to the rest of the population.

According to Arklan and Taşdemir (2008), in order to reach for the information, especially the mass media and the Internet began to be considered a part of the social structure. Although there are negative aspects to reach target group, these tools are very important to spread information for the community. They are easy and cheap, making the possibility of access to information for different targets, the various obstacles and limitations

due to features such as disposal a resource that emphasizes the dissemination of information (Arklan and Taşdemir, 2008).

With new methods of communication all over the world, more and more people stay clear of the mass media and devote more time to these vehicles. Thus, the mass media to become an integral part of social life, increased what has been mentioned, written and done about them. The impact of mass media on individuals for a long time is one of the issues discussed and interested (Şimşek, 1995; Gökçe, 1993). Moreover, in recent years this debate has gained a new dimension...

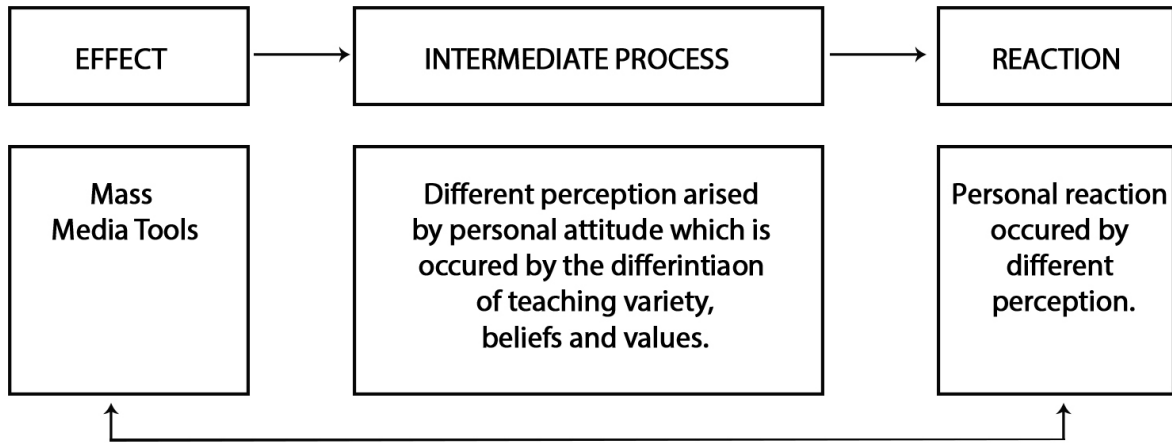


Figure 1. Linear Exposure-Response Model (Gökçe, 1993)

In figure 1 according to Gokce (1993) the location of linear exposure-response model has been replaced by a two-step information flow models. But agenda setting and detection model, have led to a revival of the view that the impact of the mass media has the power.

Contact effects model, built on the the classic action-reaction model, although this varies from model pretty. For example, contact effects model on the impact process model, is not as simple as it assumes as in the classic action-reaction model, on the contrary, it is a highly complex phenomenon. Accepting or rejecting a passive recipient is not in the position. Recipients are actively involved in the process of mass communication and the recipient's activities can be observed in the whole communication process (Moemeka, 1998). In addition,

the linear exposure-response model (Figure 1), one of the major shortcomings of individual differences is not emphasized. Whereas, a group of people are significantly different from each other in personal psychological organization (Figure 2). These differences are partly begins biological; but the real learning environment originates from the differences. This case has also appeared between profile of the students in the center which have access to all facilities and the students near the rural areas.

Westley and MacLean (2010) alerts sent many to be the result of the selection process, ie, the sender of the message wants to select the topic you and the recipient messages sent from him again corresponding sites in emphasizing and various messaging channels of different selectivity functions caused by to determine that.

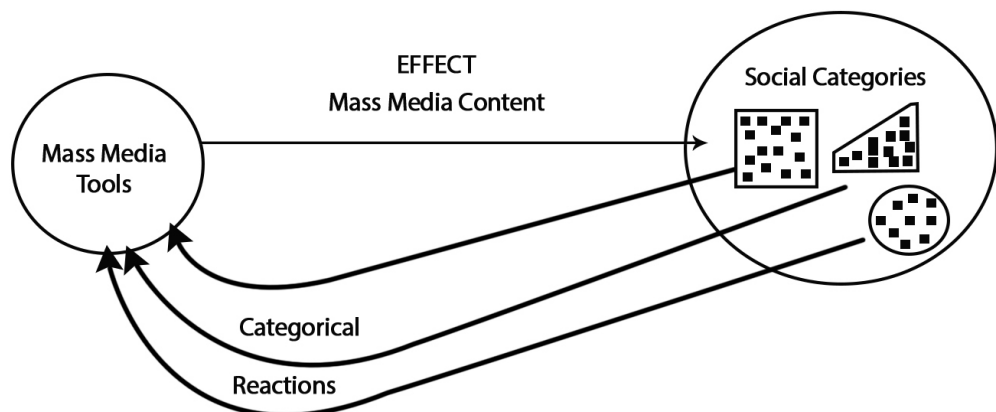


Figure 2. Theories of Mass Communication Process according to differences (Fluer, 1982)

Thus, the classic action-reaction model also social factors are also ignored. Whereas the mass media, the impact of social factors in isolation must require and influence processes involved in the social factors of the buyer's resources, its relationship with the buyer's belongs to the group, the recipient's social communication status and opinion leaders and multi-stage communication should be noted that (Gokce, 1993). Many studies conducted in the town or city views communication on the interest shown is limited and mass media showing this limited interest, because of the subject in detail, critical and analytical in a way that should be addressed is stated that (Inal, 2007). Therefore, the study of the students live and study the differences between the regions should also be considered.

EDUCATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES AND THE EFFECT OF MASS COMMUNICATION

With the developing technology giant has reached dimensions of communication technology, not just technology for the production of society, has also affected the developing societies. In communication technology, speed, reaches a giant-sized features, technology transfer and effective means of communication when bringing widespread in all societies; development has further increased the interest of society aimed. Nowadays, economic, social and cultural fields, go to the level of developed countries, changes and improvements have been the main wish of the whole society. Social change and the adoption of technological innovations of recent research on the relationship between technology factor in the change, but may be a dependent variable showed that. Oskay (1978) as other technological tools and possibilities of mass media in social change also not be regarded as an independent variable has emphasized many years ago. Therefore, today a fast-growing technology and it brings that knowledge production and transfer, our era's most salient characteristic, and therefore also the era we live "information age" was the name (Knoll, 2002). In formal education, mass media, the role and importance of the community by enough can not be detected and the computer, the internet and new emerging technologies of knowledge for teaching, for transferring and for delivering great benefits would be 90 years from an uncovered and the said vehicles, especially used in schools to begin training a new aspect to (Scannelli, P., Schlesinger, P., Sparks, C., 1992). Karas (2004) affected by the rapid development of communication technology in the education sector in infrastructure improvements to be robust adaptation of these technologies in education by way of the concepts and practices that are connected to adoption is good. Get educated on the rote learner rather than learning, debate and discuss characteristics of individuals who are cultivating long-standing debate is an important issue and researchers in formal education through mass media should be utilized and the mass media when used well give good results that twenty years previously stated (Scannell, P. Schlesinger, P., Sparks, C., 1992). Today, social development, especially in developing countries, and depending on him to ensure progress in education, are trying to take advantage of these tools. Kirschen (2001) for training of technological tools, educational benefits, as well as the student's scanner, CD burner, such as printer sharing, outdoor tools and equipment with the use, interoperability, and social relations have the ability to win and also networks with the student's knowledge, producing areas and critical structure refers would have. Cinema, radio, television, video, computer, internet, CD tools such as classic today has brought new dimensions to education, especially in rural areas, and public education efforts have been attempted to use effectively.

Television and video usage in education is very effective in putting abstract subjects on concrete grounds. For example, television and video usage in geography education makes it possible in providing a long standing education through targeting visual and sensorial senses, and this makes lectures even enjoyable rather than being monotonous. (Demirkaya ve Tokcan, 2006).

Kaya and Tuna (2008) argues that, primarily families, teachers, education institutions, insitutions and departments related to publication policy should show an effort in taking measures against negative effects of television on children due to the fact that children are prone to effects of television in young age.

Senturk (2009), despite all theoretical substance since 1960s until recently for televisions, argues that still there are basic problems which are not solved, and puts forward the fact that relationship between media experience and other experiences should be clear by media research.

According to Karasar (2004), since the usage of internet in education, traditional student and teacher concepts has changed, and they have become educated and facilitator. Role of the student is not to adopt information provided, but to make research, to adopt them in real life and make it possible to be used in daily life, and benefit from that information.

Tuncer and others (2005), after making a research on environmental consciousness of students from urban-rural areas, found out that students in rural areas are not conscious how industrialization has effects on environment, and specified this to the life style and consumption trends on rural areas.

Utilization of mass media become widespread after 2000s, however, targeted level is not achieved due to lack of infrastructure and resources. Setting computers and internet connection to schools is being continued though the help of government, private sector, and the non-governmental organizations (Milli Egitim Bakanligi, 2011). Some schools are granted by outside resources such as the EU and settled smart boards, projection, computers, internet, etc but education is still based on books and the usage of those equipments are done according to the subject of lectures and in informatics classes (Avrupa Komisyonu, 2010).

METHOD

In this study, observation, interview, and survey methods are used as a research method. Target of the research are comprised of 10th year students of Turk Maarif College in three large cities of TRNC. 10th year students in large cities besides Lefkosa, which are close to rural areas comprise the target of the research. This research is a study about Turk Maarif College, which is known for its continual education standard and educational quality. Turk Maarif College is a leader school in English IGCSE (International General Certificate of Secondary Education) for many years, and acceptance of students to this school is held through the Educational Ministry examinations. High proportion of graduates of this school continue their higher education in overseas schools. Therefore, reason of determining these schools is the fact that they have equivalent education standards and student levels from different regions. This makes the research more meaningful, valid and trustworthy. Number of these students is approximately 200. In each target school, observation has been made in 1 class for three lecture hours. Open ended technique has been used in the observation. According to the results of observation, semi structured interview questions have been prepared. Interviews have been made with five teachers in three schools. Total interview amount is 15. In order to support the results of the study, surveys have been done with students. Sample amount (0,4 confidence interval and 0.5 selection confidence) is calculated for the survey (Survey Design, 2010). According to this, sample amount = $266/1 + [(266-1)/200] = 114$ students.

DATA GATHERING AND ANALYSIS

Observation results of the study are recorded in the observation form. In observation form, date, place, time, lecture name, school name, class subjects of that day, environment and utilized information technology equipments are recorded. Confidentiality of meetings are confirmed by related experts. Observation study was done between November 2010 and February 2011. Event, fact and behaviors observed are directly recorded in forms, subjective observations and comments of researcher are recorded in a different document.

Results after analyzed observation forms are categorized and each question in the interview question form are designed as different codes. Interview study was held in March 2011. Each participant was given different code number. Codes of GY for Guzelyurt TMK, GG for Girne 19 Mayıs Turk Maarif Koleji, and GM for Gazimagusa Turk Maarif Koleji are used.

For instance, Number 3 teacher in Girne 19 Mayıs Türk Maarif Koleji is written as G:G(ogt 3). Answers to the questions are determined under themes and in presenting, these themes are used to make it easy for readers to understand (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005).

Survey form is detailed and prepared according to the results of semi structured interview. Pilot test of the survey has been held with 10 students, and after making necessary amendments, survey application has been done in April 2011. Stratified random sampling is applied to students in separated schools according to quota, and 35 students from Guzelyurt, 40 from Girne, and 20 students from Magusa participated in the survey. Survey question form is prepared according to the literature review, and is comprised of 17 questions. In the introduction of the survey form, a summary of information and the aim of the survey is prepared. Questions are prepared as closed ended in regards to the usage of mass media (television, internet, computer, radio etc) in education, effects of them on students, relationship with daily life, and behaviors of families. SPSS 11.5 (Statistical Package for the Social Science) package program is used in survey analysis. Significance level is taken as 0.05 in this research.

Confidence level of 95% (k^2 -square) and higher results are analyzed in comparative results. 95 student participants comprise the 84% of the sample amount and the alpha confidence coefficient is 0.92.

FINDINGS

OBSERVATION

Observations were done during lectures within classes, behaviors of teacher and students, technical infrastructure, class conditions are considered while filling forms. Aim of using observation technique is to make observations from first hand during lectures and making evaluations by an expert. According to the observations, problems of teachers are gathered under four main pillars.

First pillar is about basic infrastructure needs. Technical infrastructure is comprised of; number of computers in schools, number of students per computer, architecture of schools, and class structures. Observations put forward the need for computers and infrastructure in classes, and continuation of current system. For instance, it is determined that two computers are not working in the Gazimagusa Turk Maarif Koleji 10th class in informatics lecture and although school administration is aware of this condition, the problem is not solved yet. Therefore, two students had to share a computer with their classmates. It is also determined that informatics teacher tried to solve the problem but due to lack of hardware parts, the problem is not solved. Another case is that some equipments that are used in classes are out of date and problems are stemming as a result of these lacks. Teachers and students are having serious problems during lectures due to technical problems related to infrastructure and computers. At this point, individual and institutional inadequacies are seen, and even easy problems are solved in long time periods. Also, lack of computers in classes when compared to number of students is another problem. For example, Chemistry teacher at 19 Mayıs Turk Maarif Koleji wanted to show some reactions on computer by using CD but due to lack of computer in class and the lack of capacity in the laboratory, teacher had to keep teaching through books. Lack of computers in classes results in students' not being able to concentrate and having educated in effective ways. Bored students find lectures unattractive due to these reasons.

Another interesting case is that internet and computer are major mass media instruments. For example, 10th year students in Guzelyurt Turk Maarif Koleji are advised to learn more through internet in their geography class, and this application is well responded by the students. Students remarked to their teacher that they individually searched through search engines and they made researches. Both teachers and students are determined for generally using computer and internet, and not using radio, tv etc. It is understood that Office programs are being used in computers. For example, in Girne 19 Mayıs Turk Maarif Koleji informatics class, it is determined that students mostly use excel, word, and powerpoint programs. Also, it is determined that newspapers, and journals are preminent in minimum levels. During informatics classes in Gazimagusa Turk Maarif Koleji and 19 Mayıs Turk Maarif Koleji, students are advised to learn more through information technologies journals but schools are seen not to have such journals available for students. Third main pillar is the effect of teachers on mass media tools. It is observed that tools are generally used during informatics class, and in other lectures they are used in minimum levels. In three schools, it is observed that except informatics lectures, computers are not used in other lectures, but in normal classes projection is used for presentations, therefore, this situation is considered as not providing minimum levels of benefits for students. Computer laboratories are not being used if not necessary, and lectures are depended on books in all three schools. As the fourth case, communication between student, teacher and administration is not effective, and due to usage of mass media tools by students out of school, and the lack of teachers knowledge for students' problems in this fields are observed to be stemming from the lack of communication between teacher and administration in planning and application. For example, students complained due to usage of 2003 office programs at school, while they are using 2007 office programs at their houses and the need for updated versions, and teacher mentioned that they informed the administration but they could not get an answer yet.

INTERVIEWS

According to the semi structured interview analysis results, main research subjects that are coded by questions, it is determined that three main themes are chosen. In this respect, below mentioned observations are summarized.

1. *Theme – Administration and infrastructure:* Teachers mentioned that mass media tool usage is the responsibility of school administration, and in terms of planning and investment, they are dependent on school administrations. A teacher (G:G(ogt 2)) in Girne 19 Mayıs Turk Maarif Koleji answered as “school principal is responsible for all lack of computers in the school” to the question of mostly faced problems. It is understood from this answer that teachers find school administration responsible for infrastructure needs of their school. Nonexecution of annual investment planning in schools and leaving these terms to the ministry is problematic. A teacher (G:M (ogt 5)) answered to the question of suggestions for solving problems, as “ministry is not making enough investments to schools”, while a teacher (G:Y(ogt 1)) answered as “we should be contented with investments of our ministry”. In this respect, being totally dependent on investments of ministry, and the fact that investments shares are less than expected, mass media tool investments and recruitment applications are delayed. A teacher in Gazimagusa Turk Maarif Koleji (G:M (ogt 4)) mentioned that “each year we are preparing needs for recruitment but there is no results”, and said that school administrations are not doing their part of work in

establishing mass media tools and their usage. A teacher (G:Y (ogt 3)) from Guzelyurt Turk Maarif Koleji mentioned that “we demanded projection and a laptop from the school principality to be used in lectures but we did not have a reply yet”. In this respect, it is understood that a general acknowledgement in usage of mass media tools during lectures is not enough; school administration should be supplying these needs.

2. *Theme – Used Mass Media Tools:* Teacher also mentioned that mostly used mass media tool is computer in schools. Teacher (G:G(ogt 2)) answered to the question regarding mostly used mass media tool as “we are using computer and internet especially in informatics lectures”. However, lack of these tools for each students’ usage is also mentioned. Informatics class teachers in all three schools mentioned that “computers are less than number of students”(G:G(ogt 1)), “there is not enough computers for each class”(G:Y(ogt 5)), “number of computers per student should be increased for the sake of computered lectures”(G:M(ogt 2)). It is seen that benefits from mass media tools should be calculated according to amount of lectures and applications for each class. Also, it is determined that video or cd usage in visual basis can be used but that this is not a valid application for all classes. It is understood that in class education, written material are mostly used educational method.

3. *Theme – Student Profile and Competence:* Teachers mentions the importance of relationship between students and mass media tools and the effects of those tools on students’ lives. It is understood that teachers have a critical role and families’ behavior in this respect are important in providing a pathway for students. A teacher (G:Y(ogt 4)) from Guzelyurt Turk Maarif Koleji mentioned that “attitude of students who live away from school are much different towards computers and internet”. In this respect it is mentioned that these tools might both have negative and positive effects, and especially for students from rural areas should be directed more significantly. Two teachers (G:Y(ogt 2)) and (G:M(ogt 5)) from Guzelyurt Turk Maarif Koleji and Gazimagusa Turk Maarif Koleji mentioned that “families are complaining for over internet usage of their children” and “students are pretending as movie series characters”. Also, it is stated that students are more interested in using these tools out of school and for social sharing. A teacher from 10 Mayis Turk Maarif Koleji answered to the question regarding mostly used tool as “students are more interested in television programs and internet pages such as facebook” (G:G(ogt4)).

SURVEY

DEMOGRAPHIC SHARE

Demographic features of student participants of survey are shared as gender, region, and age.

As seen in Table 1, 56 female and 39 male students participated in the survey, and in terms of gender, a balanced share is featured.

According to regions, 35 students from Guzelyurt, 40 from Girne, and 20 from Magosa participated. .

Table 1.Share based on gender and region

		Region			
		Güzelyurt	Girne	Magosa	Total
Gender	Female	21	25	10	56
	Male	14	15	10	39
Total		35	40	20	95

If we look at gender distributions, students are generally between 15 and 17 years old, and there are 3 students who are 14 years old, 38 students who are 15 years old, 21 students who are 16 years old, 31 students who are 17 years old, and 2 students who are 18 years old.

MASS MEDIA AND TOOLS

Firstly, when students are asked how they are affected from mass media tools, 62 students answered positive, 25 students both positive and negative, 4 students negative and 5 students had no idea. At this point, although some students had no idea, it is understood that majority of students are affected positively.

When the mostly used mass media tool is asked, Television is seen as mostly used tool by 90 students. As a second tool internet is seen as mostly used by 87 students. Followingly, Newspapers 65 students, Books and radio 37 students. In this respect, television and internet are seen to be mostly used mass media tools.

As a similar to previous answer, students replied as television (76 students) and Internet (86 students) to the question on which tool is used for a long time during the day. Book (30 students), newspapers (27 students) and journals (22 students) are the following. Least used mass media tool is determined as radio (13 students).

Afterwards, students are asked how they would see formal education through mass media tools, and 80 students answered positive, while 15 students did not find this idea beneficial.

When students are asked how often they watch educational programs in Radio and television, and 13 students replied always, 52 sometimes, 6 in previous years, 18 students replied as negative and 6 replied as they never heard of such programs. At this point, a small decrease is seen between availability and watching for educational purposes.

When students are asked if they find radio and television programs educational, 57 students finds it educational sometimes, 34 finds educational, 4 does not find it educational. The fact that most of the students find it educational shows the reason of various usage of mass media tools.

At this point, question asked to the student is to learn which tool should be used during education. 42 students chosen all tools, 42 students computer, 34 students internet, 9 students video, and 4 students chosen television usage. In this respect, 82% of students chosen computers to be used during lectures.

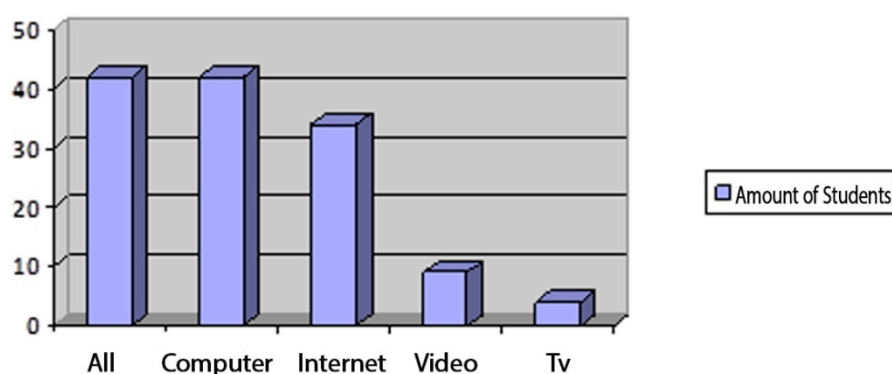
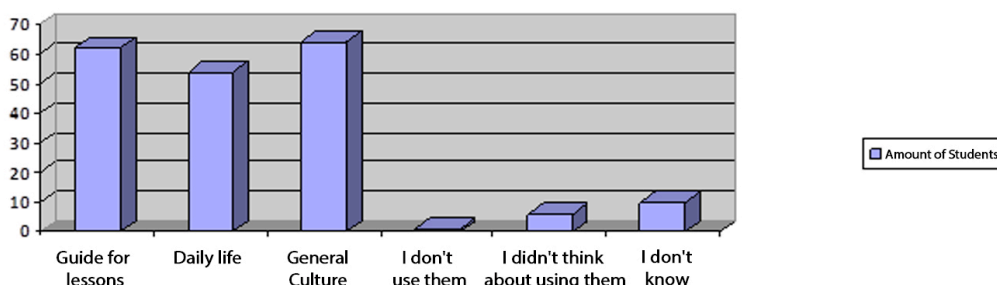


Figure 3 Answers to the question regarding which mass media tool should be used in formal education

When students are asked how can mass media tools be beneficial for formal education, 62 students answered as it can be supporting lectures, 54 students mentioned that they can be used in daily lives, 64 students mentioned that they can be beneficial for general knowledge, 1 student finds it not beneficial, 6 students replied that they never thought this, and 10 students replied as they have no idea.

Afterwards, when students are asked for their teachers' attitude towards their lectures and educational programs, 15 students replied that their teachers are willing, 10 students replied that teachers are willing and showing in relevant lectures, 28 students replied that some of their teachers are willing, 17 students replied that teachers are not willing, and 25 students replied that they do not know. In this respect, 25.5% of students mentioned that teachers are willing to use those tools.

Figure 4. How can we benefit from mass media tools ?



When students are asked if they used mass media tools in school or any place that they have been with school, 13 students replied as often, 41 students sometimes, 36 students very few, and 5 students answered as none. This shows that mass media tool usage is low in schools.

Students were also asked what the benefit of using education mass media tools would be. 50 students stated that educating positive individuals, 43 students stated that using tools would make them responsive individuals towards family, societal and environmental norms, 35 students stated that this would help them to be more informative for their families and for themselves and lastly, 26 students stated that they do not have an opinion. Moreover, students were asked to state one of the mass media tools as their aid to learn. 77 students chose internet, 71 students chose computers, 61 students rated slideshows, 49 students chose films, 43 students stated photography, 30 students chose television and 28 students mentioned VCDs. Only 5 students stated no opinion. These results indicate that approximately 70-75% of the respondents find the internet and computers beneficial media tools for their education.

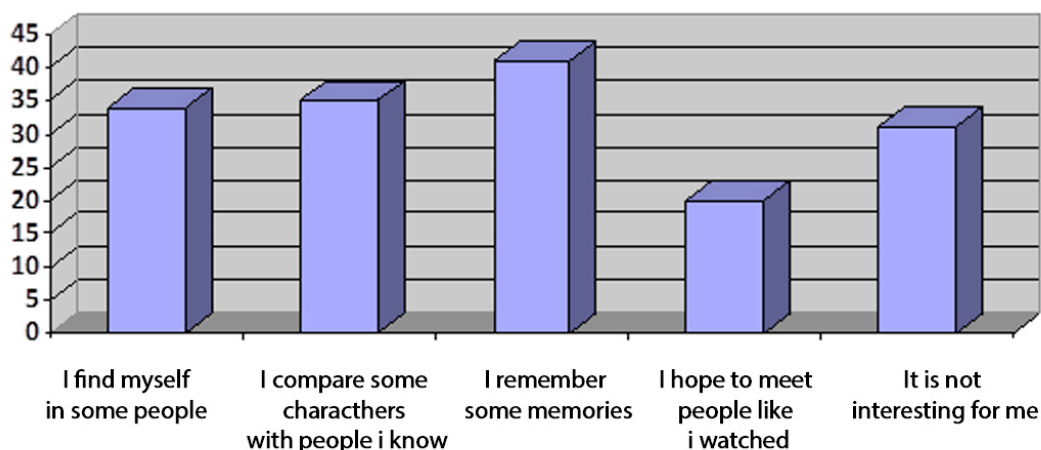
Another question in this research was how educational the students find the mass media tools. According to the results, 58 students found internet, 25 students found VCDs, 23 students found television, 7 students found radio and 22 students found all the mass media tools educational. 5 students stated no opinion.

Students were asked whether they use one of the mass media tools if they find something educational for their specific topic. 42 students stated that they use any tool, 44 students stated that they use it often and 9 students mentioned that they do not use any tool for this purpose.

In the questionnaire, the attitudes of parents were measured as well. 19 families of the respondents stated that they find mass media tools very beneficial, 57 families found the tools both beneficial and disadvantageous. In addition, students were asked to rate their parents' reactions towards the usage of the mass media tools. The results show that 36 students stated that their parents warn them often; 46 students stated that they get a warning occasionally and 15 students stated that they do not get any warning against the tools.

Lastly, the research aimed to measure the affect of the characters on TV and radio on students. 34 students stated that they find some characters familiar to themselves, 35 students mentioned that they compare the TV characters with other people they know, 41 students stated that some programmes remind them some events they have gone through in their lives. Moreover, 20 students mentioned that they want to meet some people like the ones they watch on TV and 31 students stated that they are not interested in TV or radio programmes.

Figure 5. Affects of TV and radio



COMPARATIVE RESPONDS

The comparisons for multiple choice questions consist of 95% accurate responds. Due to high accuracy, below results show statistically meaningful results. Below are the comparisons of the demographical results:

The surroundings of the schools were compared and as a result the number of newspaper suppliers was measured. According to the results, Morphou (Guzelyurt) has 65%, Kyrenia (Girne) has 75% and Famagusta (Magosa) has 35% newspaper suppliers around the schools. The results show that students have less access to newspapers in Famagusta than other cities.

A similar question was posed to students about the books and their age range was compared. According to the results, 70% of 15 year old students, 56% of 16 year old students and 33% of 17 year old students were found to have books with them. The results indicate that as the age increases, the usage of books decreases.

Among the ones who do not have access to newspapers, the participants who use newspaper as media tool seem to be more boys than girls. Similarly, the presence of radios was observed and according to the results; Morphou (Guzelyurt) is 49%, Kyrenia (Girne) has 40% and Famagusta (Magosa) has 10% around the schools. This indicates that the radio usage is the most in Morphou.

When gender difference of newspaper usage was measured, it is indicated that 19% of girls read newspapers, where 37% are boys.

Moreover, the amount of time spent on magazines was researched. According to the age range of students it was measured that 34% of 15 year old students, 0.4% of 16 year old students and 15% of 17 year old students have magazines with them. This indicates that as the age increases, the usage of magazines decreases. .

According to the results of a question about the benefits of using mass media tools, the age range differences were measured. The results show that 74% of 15 year old students, 78% of 16 year old students and 93% of 17 year old students found the tools beneficial. The results indicate that the age difference does not have an impact on the opinions of respondents.

Furthermore, according to the results, it was indicated that 44% of 15 year old students, 30% of 16 year old students, 21% of 17 year old students found the tools beneficial for educational purposes. The results show that as the age increases, benefiting from the tools for educational purposes decreases.

The results of a research question about general knowledge and mass media tools were compared to different regions in Cyprus. According to the results, Morphou has 54%, Kyrenia has 70% and Famagusta has 80% of the responds. This indicates that Kyrenia and Famagusta has higher percentage of contribution on general knowledge through mass media tools.

The results of a research question about using mass media tools in their education lives were compared to different regions. 46% of Morphou, 28% of Kyrenia and 70% of Famagusta students stated that they have very little or no benefit of tools for education. The results indicate that Famagusta being in the first place, all city schools have low usage of mass media tools for educational purposes.

The usage of media tools for subjects at schools was compared with the cities. The results show that in Morphou 86%, in Kyrenia 60% and 50% in Famagusta students stated that they want to benefit from computer usage.

When the results of using the tools as aid for lessons were compared with gender differences, it was shown that 78% of boys and 86% of girls want to use the internet as a media tool. This shows that there is no significant difference between genders in relations to internet usage.

The age differences of students who found radio educational were compared as well. The results show that 5% of 15 year old students, 4% of 16 year old students and 6% of 17 year old students found radio educational. This shows that there is no significant difference between ages in relations to benefits of radio for education.

Similarly, the age differences of students who found television educational were compared. The results show in Morphou 20%, in Kyrenia 15% and in Famagusta 60% of students find television educational. This can be interpreted as television might be used more for entertainment purposes than educational reasons.

The amount of students who would prefer to use television if they find something interesting was compared with the cities. In Morphou, it is 80%, in Kyrenia it is 97% and in Famagusta it is 90%. This shows that the content of TV shows are dependent on participants' preferences.

Parents' attitudes towards mass media tools and the age differences of respondents were compared. According to the results, 25% of 15 year old students, 22% of 16 year old students and 17% of 17 year old students mentioned that their parents find the tools beneficial. This shows that the responded parents have some worries about using media tools. Moreover, the parents who found the tools both beneficial and disadvantageous and the age differences of students show that 51% of 15 year old students, 74% of 16 year old students and 55% of 17 year old students' parents express their worries.

The answers of questions that were separated in terms of their demographical features are as below with 95% accurate results:

Table 2. The effect of mass media tools when teachers makes students use it.

	Does your teachers want to show you educational programs?					Total	
	Yes	They use it when its need	Some of them	No	I don't have any idea		
How does Mass Media Tools effect you?	Positive	11	8	21	11	10	61
	Negative	1	0	0	0	4	5
	Both	3	2	8	4	8	25
	No idea	0	0	0	1	3	4
Total	15	10	29	16	25	95	

When the willingness of teachers to show the educational programmes was compared to the results of students being affected by them, 64% of the positively affected students stated that all or some of their teachers are willing and do let them watch the programmes. Students who were both positively and negatively affected by the programmes, which are 53%, seem to have similar teachers as above. This might be interpreted as there is a correlation between the willingness of teachers and the positive affect of students by the programmes.

Table 3. The effects of the Mass Media Tools and the characthers

	How does the characthers and cases effect you after you watch T.V. or listen to Radio ?		Total	
	No	I remember some memories i have been through		
How does Mass Media Tools effect you?	Positive	34	27	61
	Negative	5	0	5
	Both	14	11	25
	No idea	4	0	4
Total	57	38	95	

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The impact of mass media on the students understanding of the scope of work performed for observations, interviews and questionnaires obtained from the analysis of the results and recommendations are presented below. The majority of students were affected positively from the mass media , but a significant portion is also understood that both positively and negatively affected . Most regularly found mass media tools are television and the Internet , and in addition the most common tools used by students of television and the internet is seen that again . This situation with the availability of mass media might indicate a direct correlation between the use and availability. Students to be given formal education through mass media is largely find useful but the vast majority of them occasionally watched training programs from the radio and television. This is because the majority of the students stated that they found the tools to be educational sometimes. The majority of students has emphasized the need to use computers in education. If a significant proportion of students stated they preffered to use all means of mass communication. Most students are able to take advantage of mass media in public life and explain what is involved and the general culture of mass media and occasionally at school and very little was said could benefit .. The majority of students stated they take advantage of computers and the Internet , while another part is understood to prefer slide and movie preferences . In addition, most of the students stated that they find more tutorials on the internet . Internet and computer usage that can provide access to all of the students to disseminate the school administration, parents associations and the relevant ministries to develop joint projects and removes the lack of this infrastructure will improve the quality of the training is evaluated . Students of the subject followed by the mass media and that they constantly emphasized that they do not . The majority of students of the mass media family is both beneficial and find objectionable . Most of the families of the children is still appropriate subject is understood that the constant or occasional fits . Kaya and Tuna (2008) stated that after watching the program, students indicated that they are affected in different ways . In this case, students need to be correctly routed to the appropriate programs and in its establishment of effective communication between teachers and parents can lead to positive result.. A portion of students said they related

to the person in the programmes and some said it reminded of other people and things they had been through. Kaya and Tuna (2008) stated in their study that some students took of heroes for real-life models for themselves. This rate of television in the socialization process of children suggests that it may bring alongside many positive effects, some negative effects in terms of personality development. Therefore, the ministry of education through visual communication with other interested parties with regard to the publication of educational programs consultations and sample applications for these issues might be considered beneficial to the development of the project. Famagusta in the school newspaper that difficulties in accessing, age increases the availability of books has fallen, radio availability is understood that more in the Morphou area. Newspapers of the time allocation is relatively higher among male students and the availability of magazines fell with increasing age are analyzed. There are useful tools vary according to age, but the age increases, the rate of utilization has decreased in the course. The use of the mass media contribute to the overall culture in Kyrenia and Famagusta region is relatively higher. Famagusta tools mainly utilized in all city schools are understood to be at a low level. For this union representatives, school management and ministry officials should ensure coordination between and the lack of effective use of existing mass media joint work can be done to remedy is considered to be more appropriate. Students claimed by the high rate of computer use and internet use did not differ by sex of the request is indicated. Karasar (2004) states this situation on new technologies in education makes use of the Internet as determined in other studies that show gender differences are similar to the results. The radio did not differ between the age of not less instructive and relevant to the topic of the use of the mass media are pointing to vary. The use of the mass media in terms of families that reservations of the majority of the families of students of all ages and they are seen as both beneficial and may find objectionable. On the other hand, teachers' and students' willingness to use the tools of positive interaction is understood to be affected. Positive and negative impact, both positive and a significant portion of the students of mass communication program is understood to remember the events of their own. This phenomenon Senturk (2009) in his article the theory of television, especially television created by people affected by several factors that can be attributed to sign. Found it helpful to be given by mass media education media in large scale programs of most of the students sometimes, but a significant portion is also always find trainers. In this case, the purpose of the mass media awareness campaigns done for proper use and schools, families and students in the three sections, the positive results can be achieved is recommended. Therefore, in our age of mass media in a positive as well as negative impacts are understood to be also. Researchers to remain away from this negative effect is of individuals, more selective, qualified, unique, equipped with the ability to think creatively and healthy, intuition and may be able to be much more responsive. Desired behavior expected of individuals and features, but all of these can be given to them with a good education can take place. The best way to benefit from the mass media culture assessment to individuals, apprehension, and his qualifications to take responsibility which can provide contemporary education. Formal education and science to us, and to interpret the law in the world that we will use to watch the lens offers an important insight. Adequate and properly balanced children who can not get a formal education, a well established education is not to say that they received an excellent education and these children are also being excluded (Ozsoy, 1998). By means of mass communication student's interest, perception, and increasing knowledge; express itself could contribute to. Atay (2010) Most of the students spent time at the computer more than 6 hours a day, but the office using the program that allocated less than 1 hour of time looking at the majority stressed that time was seen to separate. Formal education of students and teachers on the use of the mass media in promoting the efficient use of computers and the Internet in schools and for the creation of the necessary environment and resources are considered to be helpful. In non-school environments will contribute to the education of the children of families in monitoring programs of the positive results that router could be anticipated. Means of mass communication students in school and outside of school interaction should be noted that psychological factors play a role. From this perspective, students' age, gender, social status, familial status, region and so on. matters to be considered and shown simultaneously in both programs and educational content must be carefully selected according to the characteristics of such students. Teachers encourage the use of mass media for educational purposes will be transferred to the students while at the same time plays a major role in the selection of programs. In this context, in-service training of teachers in these matters of education and training by the Ministry of Education to be organized with the support of outside experts could lead to more effective results suggested. Learning the use of the mass media and their effects play an important role in the psychological development of students. Close to rural areas in a standard way for students to be trained and supported by mass media it is important to raise the efficiency. What effect only to individuals and not only depend on the properties of the mass media is not to act, on the contrary, is in their mutual relations and interactions (Moemeka, 1998). Of the mass media be used in education, both form and content, in terms of students' social and psychological structure resulting from the inhibiting factor exceeded carefully and attitudes, empowering convictions developer and information-enhancing way that would be more appropriate is evaluated.

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Computer Education Example: Chaotic Secure Communication Simulations

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Abstract

In this work nonlinear dynamics, synchronization and secure communication by synchronization of Rucklidge Attractor is investigated and matlab simulation results are given for engineer students.

Keywords: Rucklidge Attractor, chaos, synchronization, chaotic masking.

1. Introduction

The human has continuously researched the ways of transmitting information beyond normal borders for thousands of years. With enhancement of technology, researches have focused on secure and private information transmission. Secure and private transmission of information with chaos/chaotic signals has become an interesting subject due to dynamical, tender dependency to introduction, nonlinear structure of chaos/chaotic signals. In order to demodulate the transmitted information -modulated with chaotic signals- at receiver, chaotic synchronization concept has occurred. With observation of synchronization at subsystems of chaotic systems, communication system design, using chaotic signals as carrier, has become one of the significant research areas of recent years.

Chaotic Rucklidge dynamical system model was built up at 1991 to derive models for two-dimensional convection in a horizontal layer of Bössness fluid with lateral constraints with hypothesis that “In certain parameter regimes, it is possible to derive third-order sets of ordinary differential equations that are asymptotically exact descriptions of weakly nonlinear double convection and that exhibit chaotic behavior.” [1]

This paper is organized as follows. In section 2, the nonlinear equations of Rucklidge and its dynamical behavior are introduced with matlab simulations. In section 3, synchronization of Rucklidge attractors with pecorra-carroll method was simulated. In section 4, secure communication by using Rucklidge attractor with chaotic masking was simulated. Finally we summarize our work in the Conclusion [2].

2. Rucklidge attractor and It's chaotic behavior

Rucklidge systems equations are;

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{X} &= -KX + LY - YZ \\ \dot{Y} &= X \\ \dot{Z} &= -Z + Y^2\end{aligned}\quad (1)$$

Where K and L are system constants.

If equation (1) is solved by using Runge-Kuntta method on Matlab with initial values $X(0) = 1, Y(0) = 0, Z(0) = 4.5$ and for system constants $K = 2, L = 6.7$ as could be seen over Figure-1 and Figure-2 Rucklidge system equations shows chaotic behavior for the given conditions.

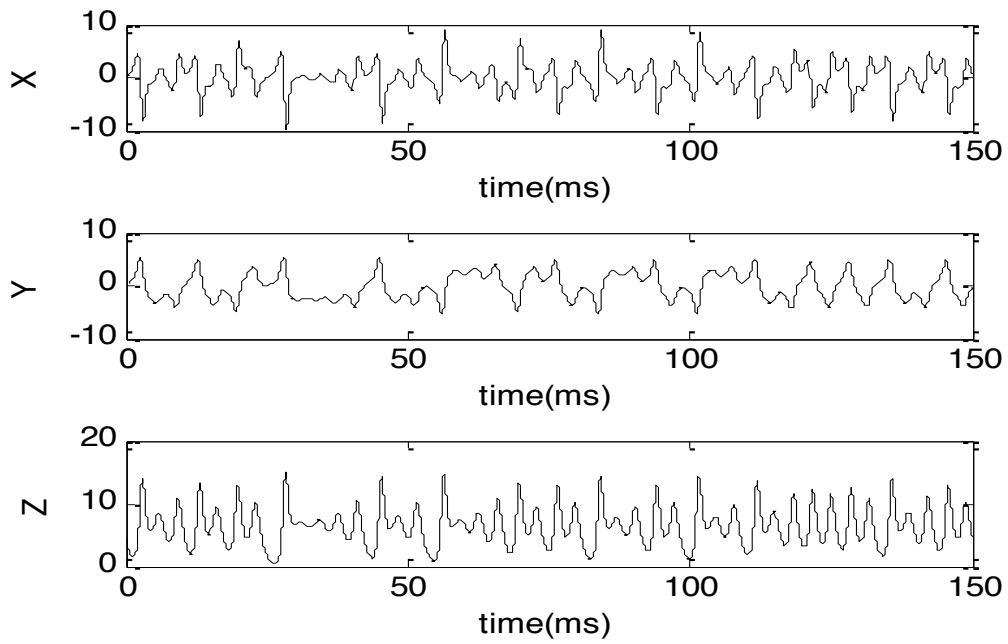


Figure 1. Chaotic Time Series of X-Y-Z

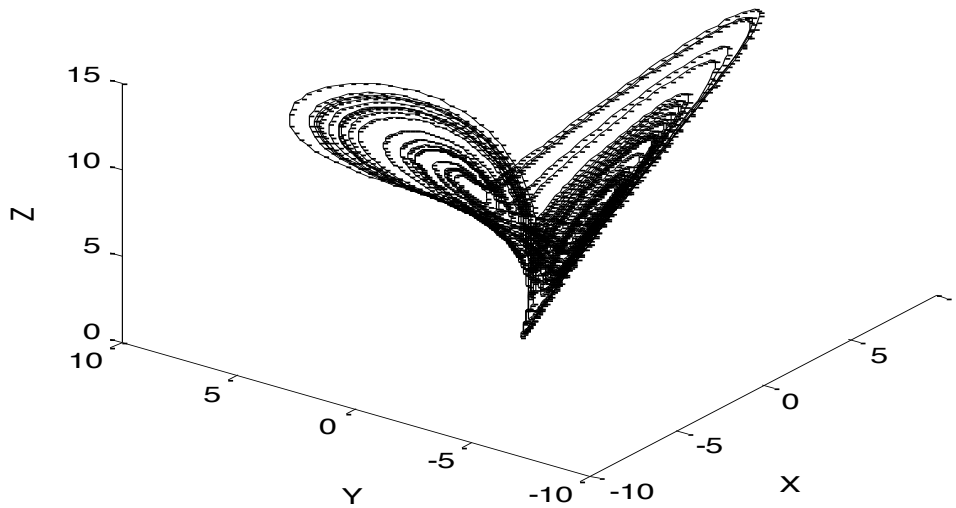


Figure-2- Chaotic Phase Portrait of X-Y-Z

By Modeling equation (1) via simulink as shown at Figure-3- for the same initial conditions and system variables we are able to get similar results of Figure 1, as shown at Figure 4, Figure 5.

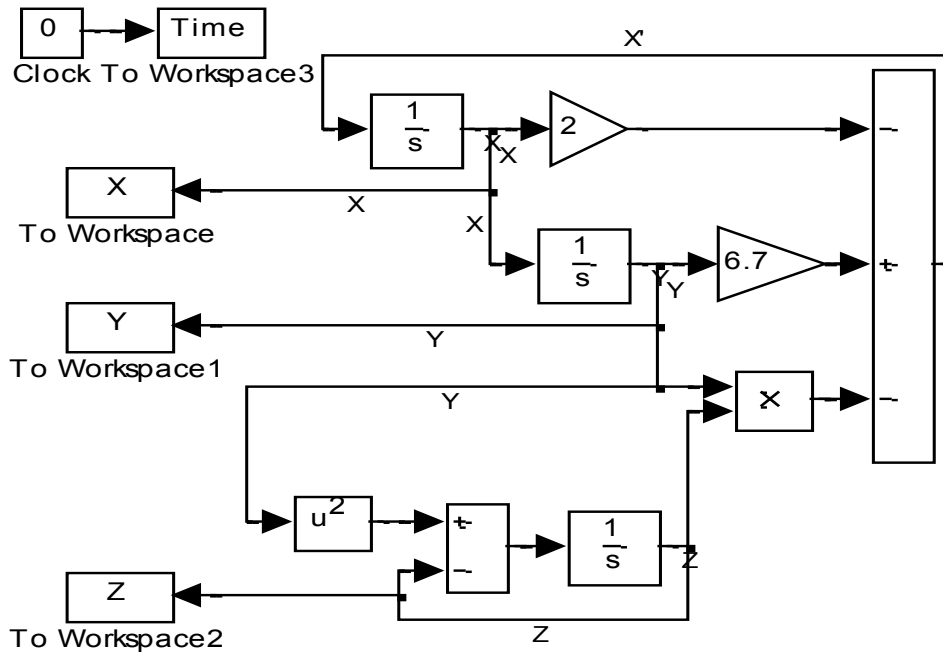


Figure 3. Simulink Model of Rucklidge Equations

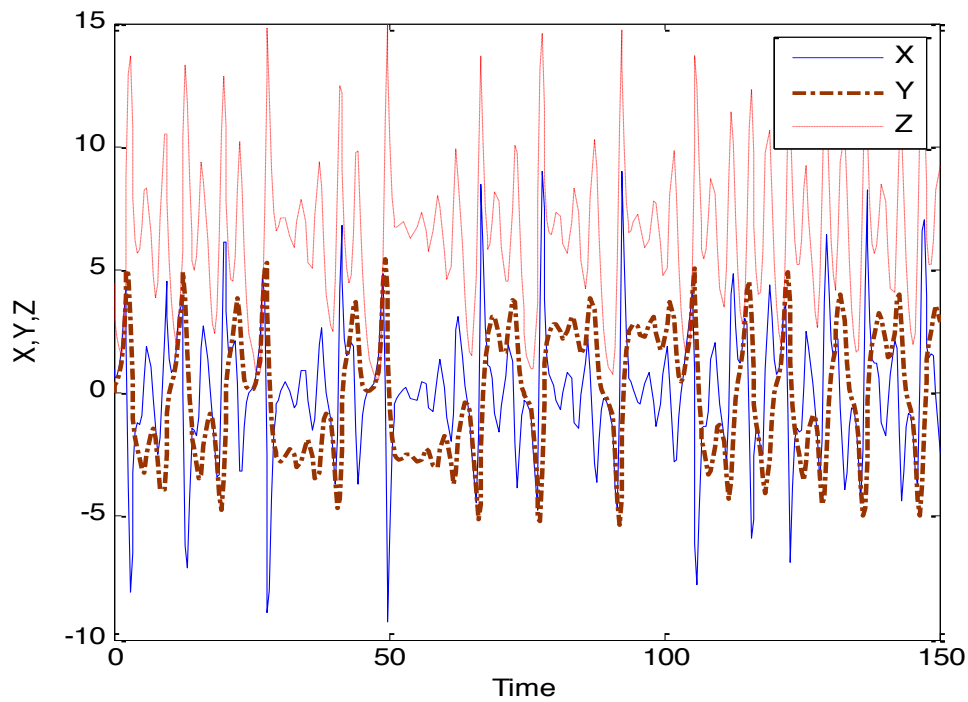


Figure-4- Chaotic Time Series of X,Y,Z

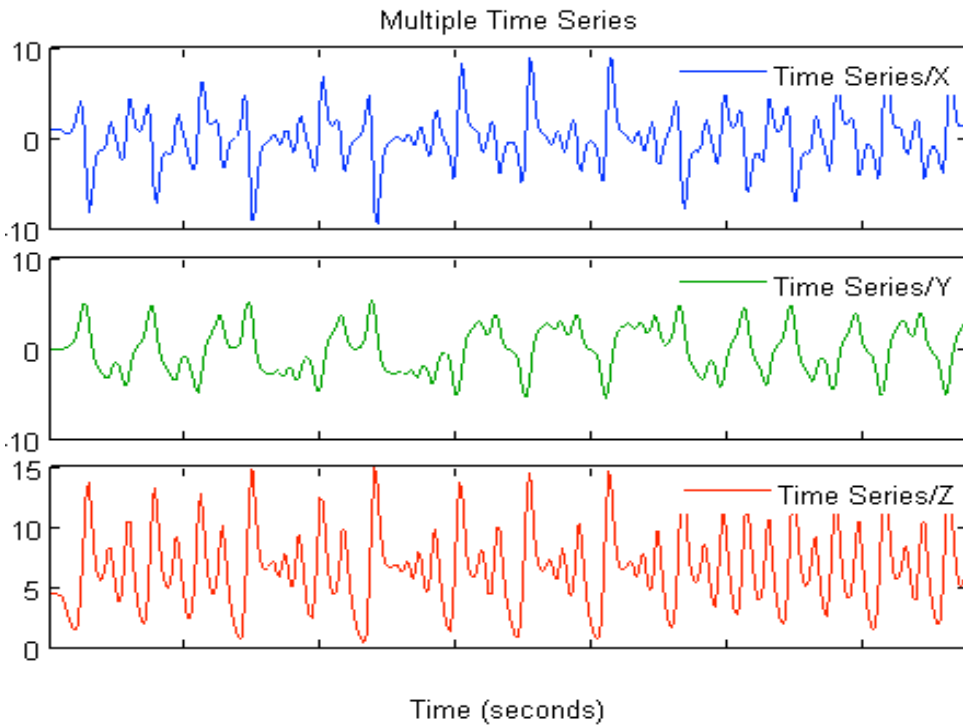


Figure 5. Chaotic Time Series X,Y,Z

3. Synchronization of Rucklidge Attractor

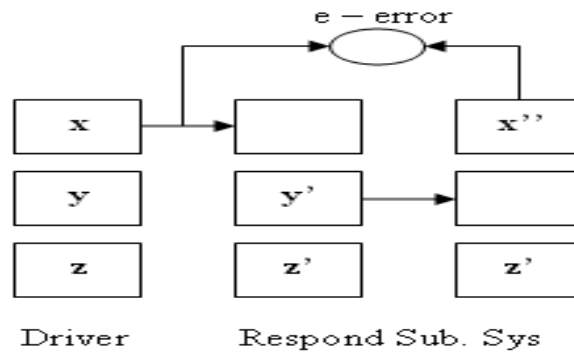


Figure 6. Block Diagram of Pecora-Carroll Synchronization [3-4]

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y, z) & \longrightarrow & \frac{dx'}{dt} = f(x', y', z') \\
 \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y, z) & \longrightarrow & \frac{dy'}{dt} = g(x', y', z') \\
 \frac{dz}{dt} = h(x, y, z) & \longrightarrow & \frac{dz'}{dt} = h(x', y', z')
 \end{array}$$

Driver / Master
Sub-Sys1
Sub-Sys2

Dinamical Equations for pecora-carroll synchronization of two chaotic rucklidge attractor can be structured as,

Drive/Master Sys. Equations :

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{X} &= -KX + LY - YZ \\ \dot{Y} &= X \\ \dot{Z} &= -Z + Y^2 \end{aligned} \right\} (2)$$

Sub Sys.1 Equations :

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{Y}' &= X \\ \dot{Z}' &= -Z' + Y'^2 \end{aligned} \right\} (3)$$

Sub Sys.2 Equations :

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{X}'' &= -KX'' + LY' - Y'Z'' \\ \dot{Z}'' &= -Z'' + Y'^2 \end{aligned} \right\} (4)$$

By modeling the equations (2), (3), (4) via simulink shown as Figure-7- pecora-carroll synchronization model can be investigated.

The variables of the rucklidge oscillators(Master&Sub) are; $K = 2$, $L = 6.7$

Initial Values of rucklidge oscillators are; Drive/Master Sys.(Oscillator1) $X(0) = 1, Y(0) = 0, Z(0) = 4.5$

Sub Syst. (Oscillator2), $X(0) = 1.1, Y(0) = 0, Z(0) = 4.6$

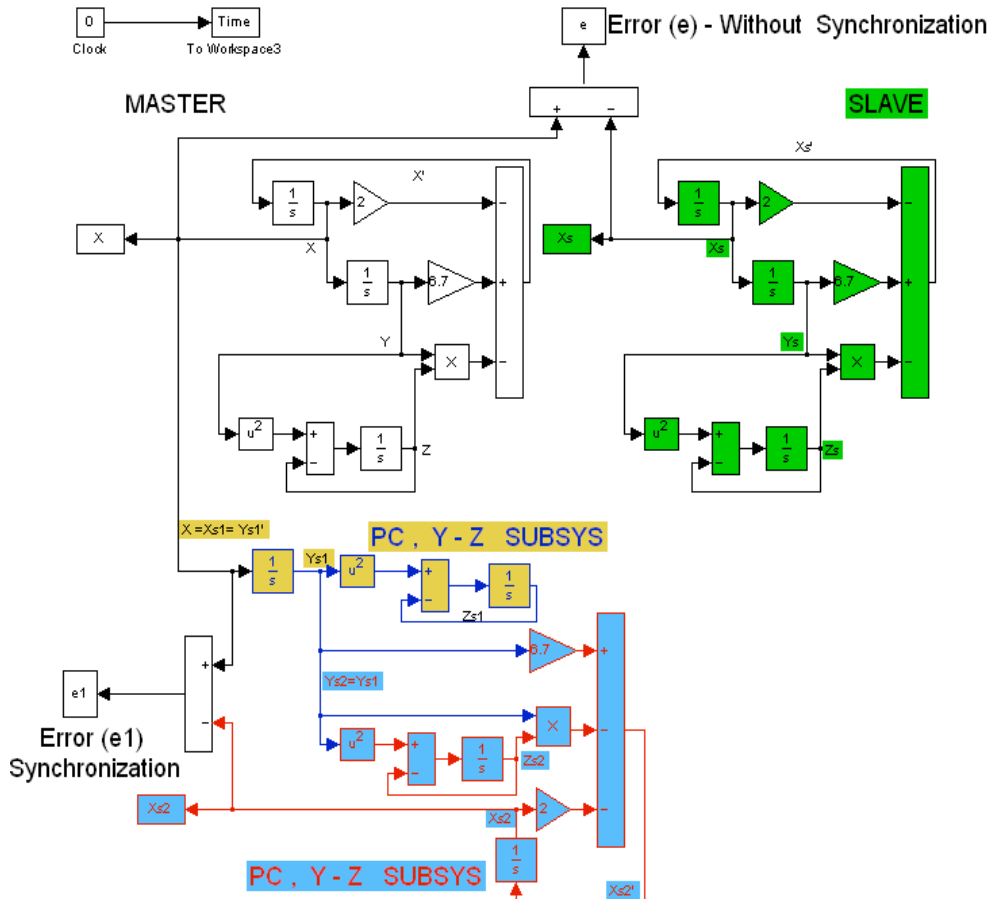


Figure 7. Synchronization Simulink Model of Rucklidge Equations

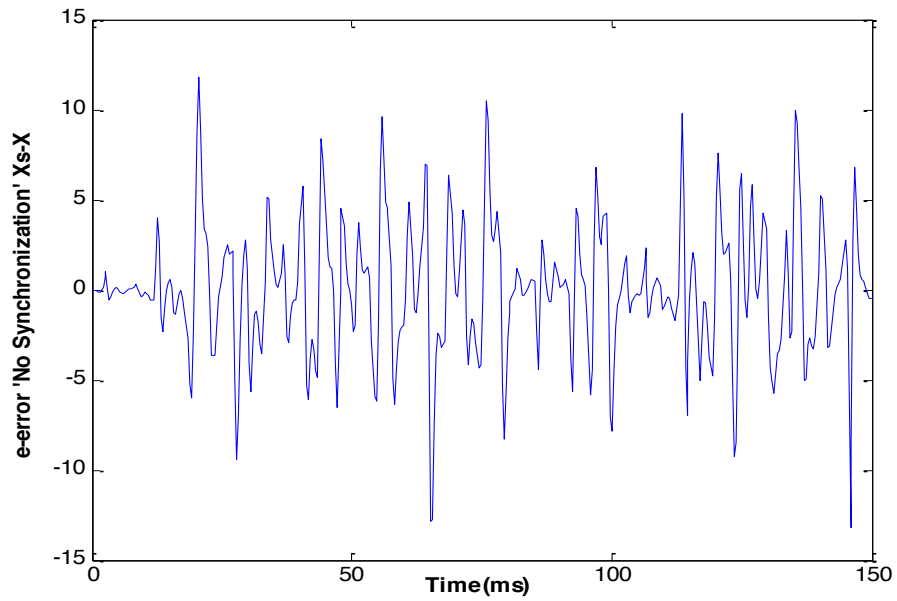


Figure 8. Error No-Synchronization at Attractor

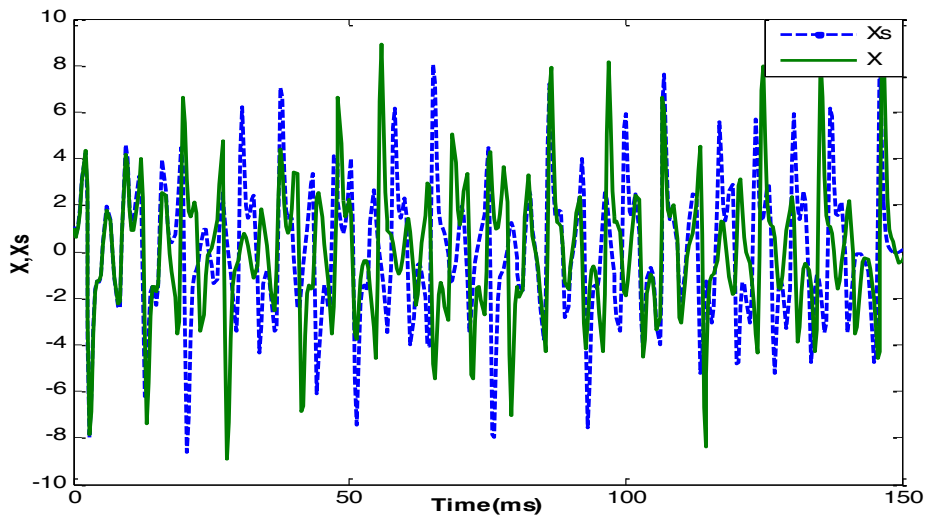


Figure 9. Time Series of non synchronized attractors's X values

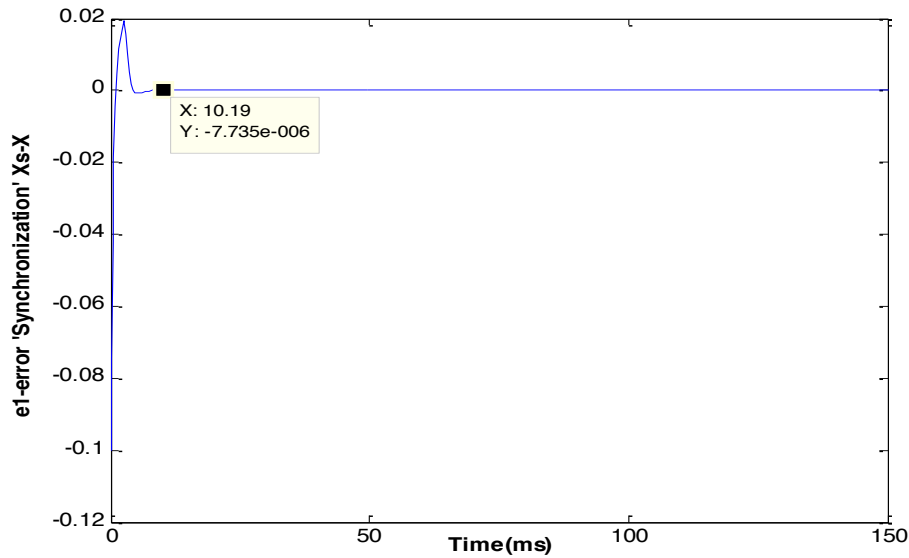


Figure 10. Error at Synchronized Attractors

By using simulink if we check the error(X_s-X) we can follow the synchronization between two chaotic attractor.

Unsynchronized two rucklidge attractors's(With different initial conditions) error(X_s,X) and time series of X_s-X is shown at Figure 8 and Figure 9. Synchronized two rucklidge attractors's error(X_s,X) with Pecora-Carroll method is shown at Figure 10. Two rucklidge attractor with chaotic behaviour is being synchronized within 10 milliseconds.

3. Communication with Chaotic Masking.

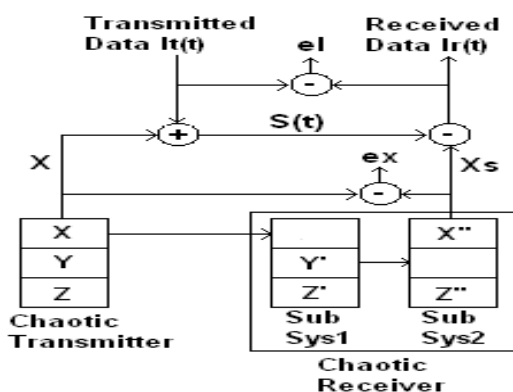


Figure 11. Block Diagram of Communication with Chaotic Masking

Communication with Chaotic Masking is based on a simple logic as could be seen over Figure-11, driven by masking I_t (Transmitted Data) with Chaotic X to have the transmitted/masked data as $S(t)$ over Transmitter and de-masking of $S(t)$ with X_s to have I_r (Received Data) at receiver where the success of communication can be followed by checking e_1 (Error between I_t and I_r).

It is obvious that “eI=0” case could be gathered only when “ex=0”(X=Xs) with other words when synchronization between Receiver – Transmitter realized.

Which basically defines the pre-requirements of communication with chaotic masking as;

- 1- Transmitter and Receiver circuits should be equivalent.
- 2- Chaotic Transmitter needs to be utilized as well master for synchronization.
- 3- The amplitude of Transmitted Data selection should be in line with Chaotic X sign, to secure/mask data correctly.

By using the simulink model shown as Figure 12. Communication with Chaotic Masking can be investigated for Rucklidge equations.

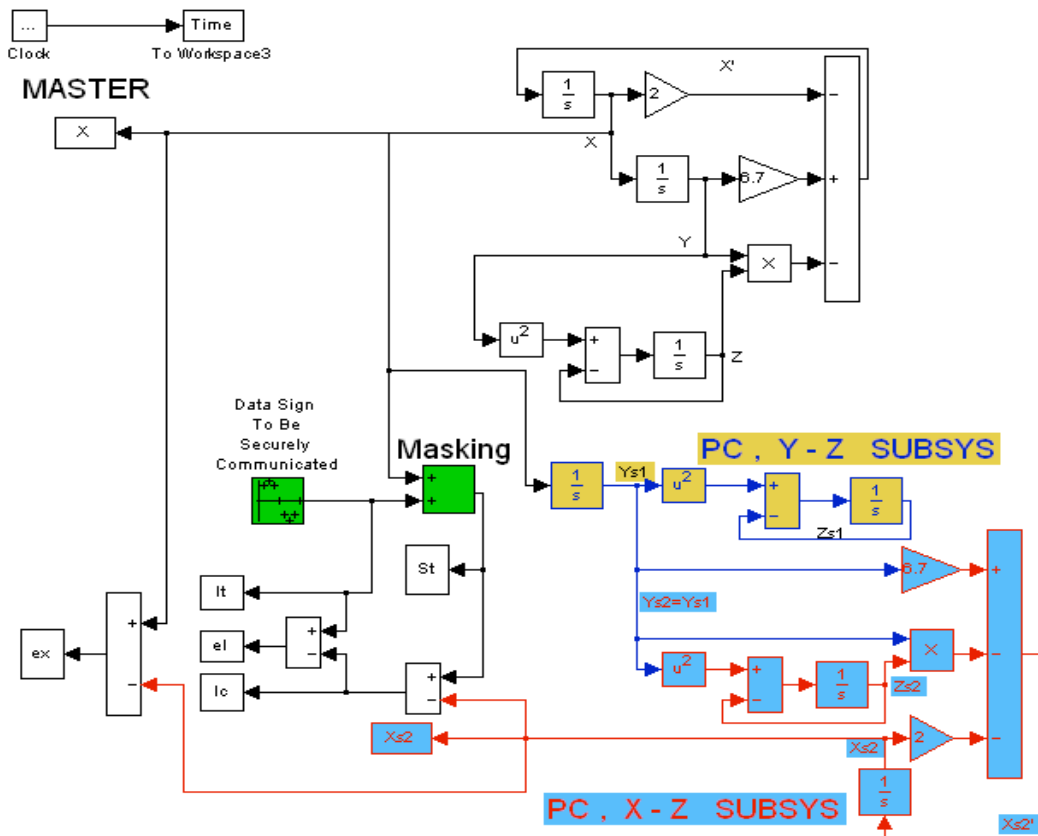


Figure-12- Simulink Model of Rucklidge Equations for Communication with Chaotic Masking

The variables of the rucklidge oscillators (Master&Sub) are; $K = 2$, $L = 6.7$. Initial Values of rucklidge oscillators are; Master Sys.(Transmitter) $X(0) = 1, Y(0) = 0, Z(0) = 4.5$, PC-Sub Sys's (Receiver), $X(0) = 1.1, Y(0) = 0, Z(0) = 4.6$. It (Transmitted Data) is a sine wave with 5V amplitude. Time series of “It”(Transmitted data), “X”(Chaotic Masking Wave) shown at Figure 13, as amplitude of “It” is less than amplitude of X, “It” could not be easily seen over generated “S”(Transmitted/Masked Data Wave) by 3rd parties as shown at Figure 14 which supports the aim of secure communication. Synchronization between Master and Sub Sys Rucklidge oscillators is being taking place within 10 ms as shown at Figure 15 and Figure 16 which as well the start point of success at de-masking at receiver side as could be seen at Figure 17 and Figure 18.

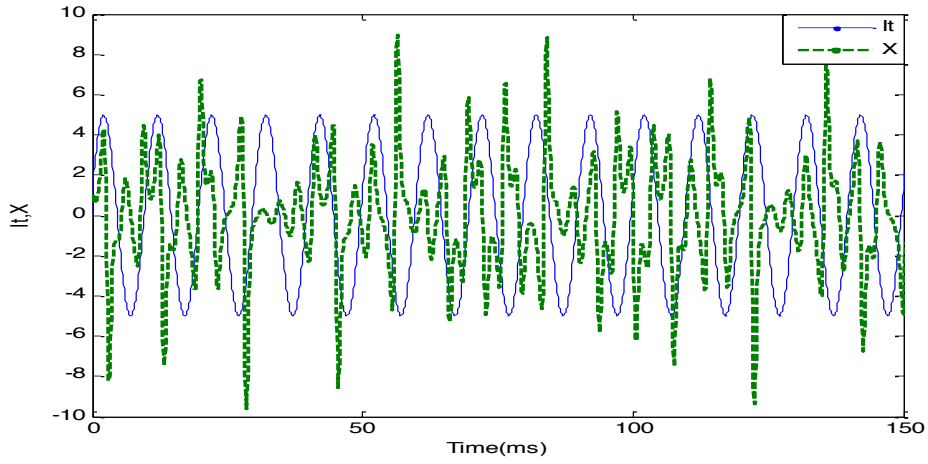


Figure 13. Time Series of It (Transmitted Data) of X

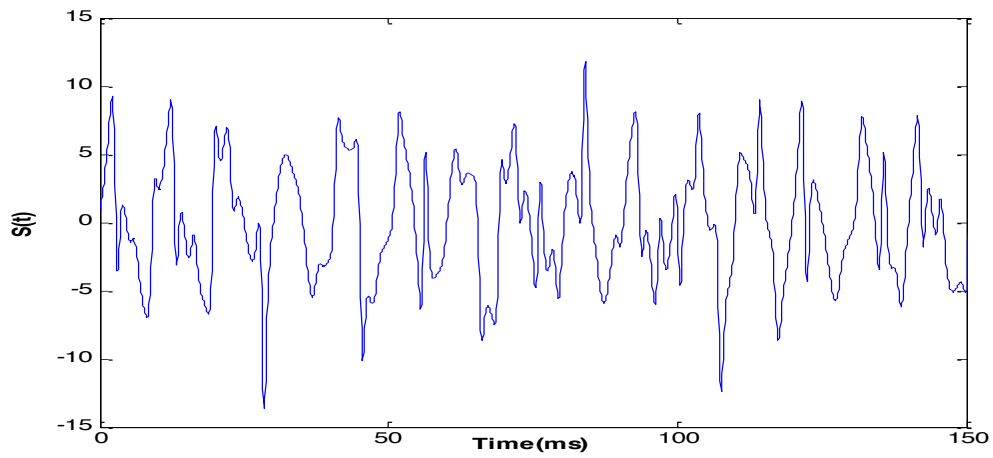


Figure 14. Time Series of S (Transmitted/Masked Data Wave)

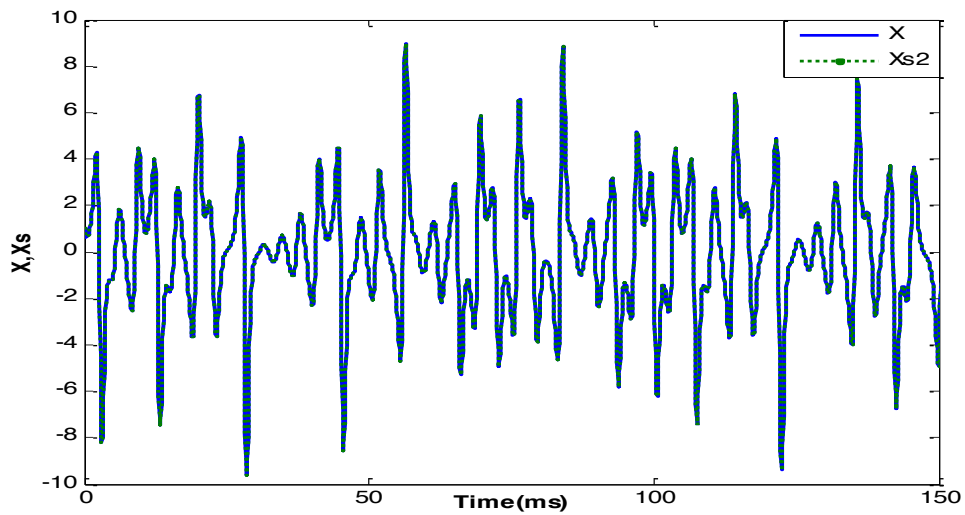


Figure 15. Time Series of X values. (X Master Sys, Xs₂ Sub Sys Respond)

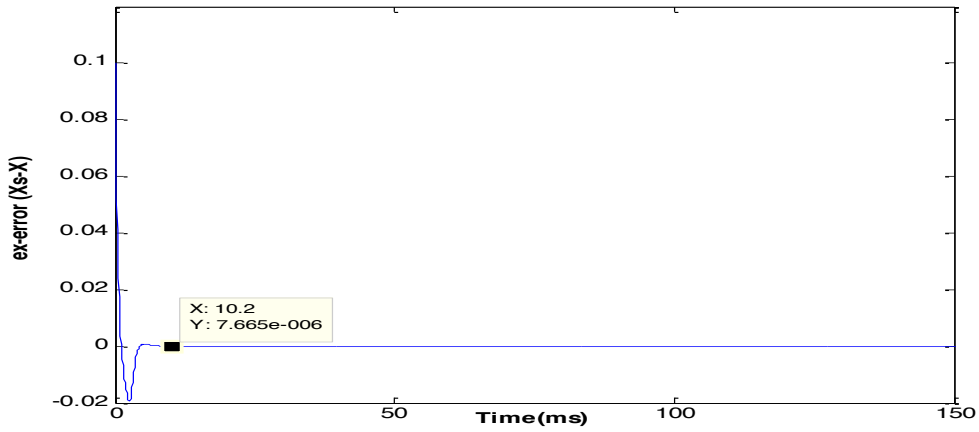


Figure 16. ex-error at Synchronized Attractors

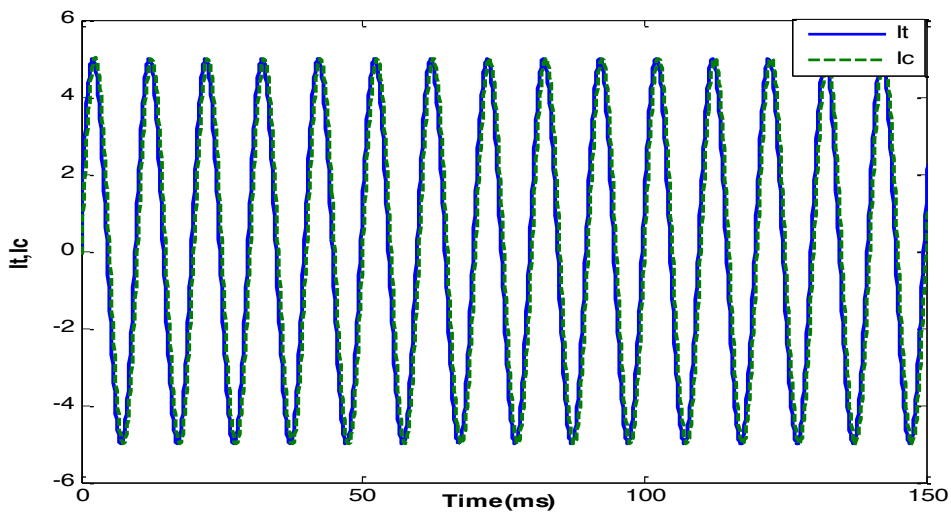


Figure 17. Time Series of It(Tranmitted Data), Ic (Received Data)

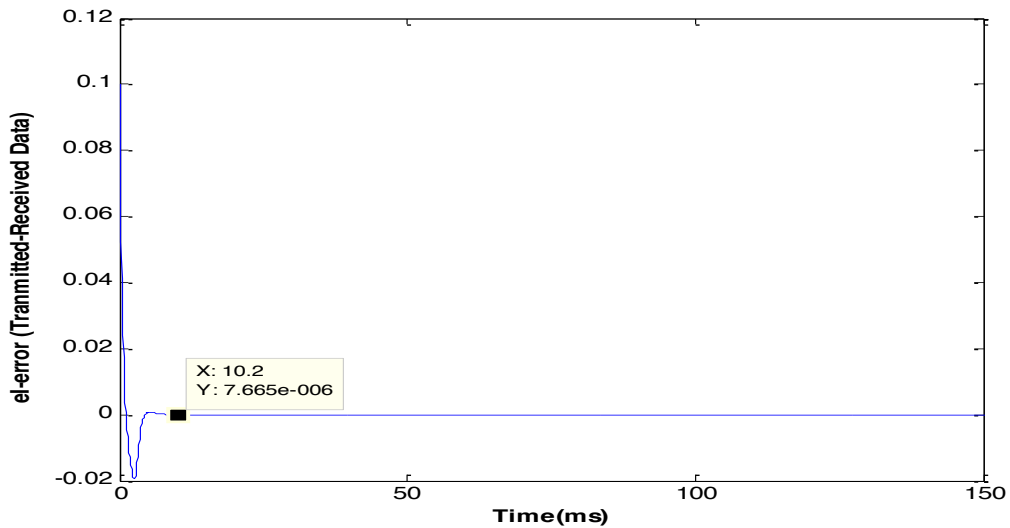


Figure 18. eI-error between It(Tranmitted Data) and Ic (Received Data)

As indicated, selection of amplitude of I_t (Transmitted Data) is a pre-requirement of secure Communication with Chaotic Masking as “ I_t ” is going to be masked into X (Chaotic Masking Wave) therefore amplitude of “ I_t ” should preferably be less than amplitude of “ X ”.

In case the amplitude of “ I_t ” is greater than amplitude of “ X ” S (Transmitted/Masked Data) is mostly consist of “ I_t ” values as shown at Figure 20 therefore unfortunately I_t could be easily seen by 3.rd parties, Where security of communication can be increased by selecting smaller amplitude values as an example shown at Figure 19.

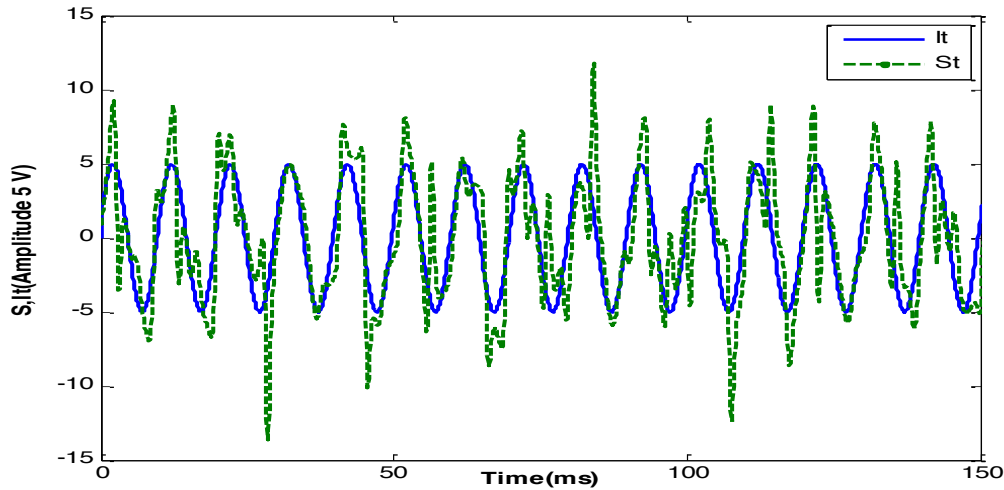


Figure 19. Time Series of S (Transmitted/Masked Data Wave), I_t (Transmitted Data). Where $I_t = 5$ Volt

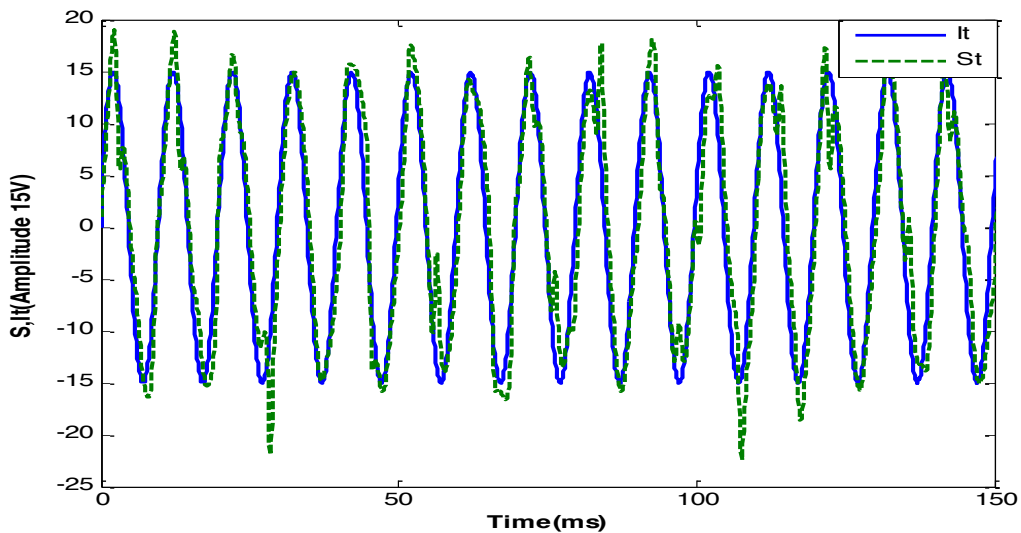


Figure 20. Time Series of S (Transmitted/Masked Data Wave), I_t (Transmitted Data). Where $I_t = 15$ Volt

4. Conclusions

In this work, we studied secure communication by synchronization and chaotic masking of Rucklidge attractors, as first step we investigated the nonlinear equations of Rucklidge and its dynamical behavior by using Matlab

and Matlab Simulink Model (Figure 3). Where rucklidge equations show chaotic behavior with a certain initial condition and variable set. (Shown at Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 4, Figure 5)

Secondly we investigated synchronization of Rucklidge attractors by using Pecora-Caroll method by using the Simulink Model (Figure 7) where the results shows that two equivalent rucklidge attractor with different initial conditions can be synchronized within 10 ms (Figure 10).

After synchronization of two rucklidge attractor we investigated Communication with chaotic masking by using the Simulink Model (Figure 12) where we do manage to get the Transmitted Wave back at receiver side shown at Figure 13 to Figure 18 with a small remark in regards with selection of amplitude of I_t (Transmitted Data) less than amplitude of X (Chaotic Masking Wave) to improve security of communication as shown with Figure 19 and Figure 20. As a summary, rucklidge attractor can be used at chaotic masking and communication applications for engineer education.

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Elektrik Mühendisliğinde Trafo Merkezleri için Yeni Bir Topraklama Ölçümü Eğitimi: Selvaz Yönetimi

ÖZET

Elektrik Enerjisi ve Elektrik Projelerinin Kalitesi, Çağımızda her geçen gün önemli artan bir konu haline gelmiştir. Meydana gelebilecek bir hata durumunda oluşacak adım ve dokunma gerilimlerinin insan hayatını tehlikeye sokacak mertebede olmasını önlemek veya bu tehlikeli gerilimleri tamamen ortadan kaldırmaktır. Elektrik sistemlerinin devamlılığı ve insan hayatını güvenceye almak için elektrik sistemlerinde, gerilim altındaki kısımlar yalıtılırlar. Toprağa karşı yalıtımda, çeşitli sebeplerle, her zaman bozulma meydana geldiği görülmüştür. Topraklama ağının iyi tesis edilmiş olması her tesiste önemlidir, orta ve yüksek gerilimli trafo merkezlerinde tesis edilen topraklama ağının empedansının selvaz yöntemiyle ölçülmesi gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmanın hem sahada çalışan Elektrik Mühendisleri hem de mezun olacak elektrik Mühendisliği öğrencileri için faydalı olacağı hedeflenmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Elektrik Enerjisi, Tesis Topraklaması, Toprak Direnç Testleri, Toprak Empedans Ölçümü, Selvaz Yöntemi

1.GİRİŞ

Toprak, sonsuz büyüklükte iletken bir kitledir ve bütün elektrik tesislerinin bulunduğu yapıları bünyesinde barındırır. Toprak direncinin doğru ölçülmesi, sağlıklı çalışan bir topraklama sistemi düzenlenmesinde önemli bir yer tutar. Enerji tesislerinin topraklanmasındaki genel amaçlar; [1]

- İnsan ve hayvan ölümlerinin önüne geçmek,
- Teçhizat ya da aygıtların elektrik arızalarında hasar almasını önlemek,
- Enerjinin güvenilirliğini ve sürekliliğini arttırmaktır.

2.AMAÇ VE HEDEFLER

İnsanların ve hayvanların bulunduğu alanlarda toprağa geçiş direncinin mümkün olduğunca küçük tutulması önemli ve hayati bir meseledir. Topraklama direncinin mümkün olduğu kadar küçük olması atmosferik elektrik boşalmalarında yıldırımdan korunma tesislerinde meydana gelecek yan atlamaları ve tehlikeleri azaltacağından bu hususa önem verilmelidir. [2]

Topraklama direncinin azaltılması için mümkünse aşağıdaki toprak tiplerinden biri seçilmelidir;

- Islak bataklık zemin
- Kil, balçıklı toprak, sürülebilir toprak, killi toprak, az miktarda kum ile karışık killi toprak veya balçık
- Değişik oranlarda kum ile karışık kil veya balçık, çakıl ve taşlar
- Rutubetli ve ıslak kum seçilmeli
- Kuru kum, çakıllı tebeşir, kireç taşı, granit ve çok taşlı zeminler ve genç kayaların zemine çok yakın olduğu alanlardan kaçınılmalıdır.

Elektrik güç sistemlerinin etkin olarak topraklanmaya başlamasıyla beraber topraklama direncinin doğru olarak belirlenmesi birçok çalışmaya konu olmuştur. Topraklama direncinin ölçümünde son yıllarda selvaz(selected voltage amper -z) yöntemi ön plana çıkmaktadır

SELVAZ YÖNTEMİ

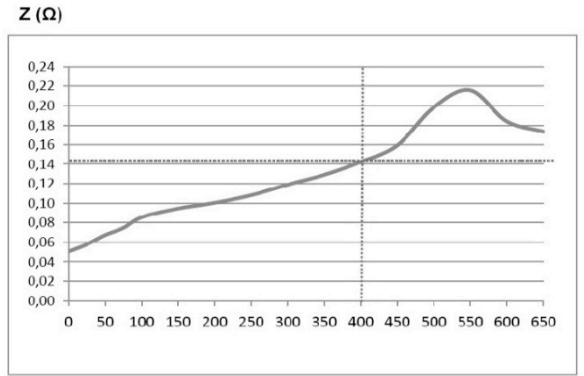
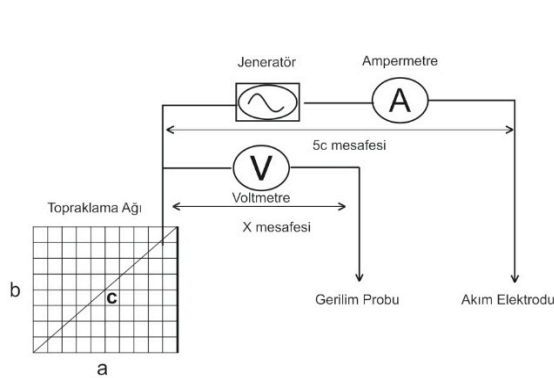
Ölçüme başlanmadan önce trafo merkezinin şalt kısmının etrafı kontrol edilir ve kenar uzunlukları tespit edilir. Testlere başlanmadan önce ise şalt sahasının tüm enerjisi kesilir ve şalt sahası çıkış ve giriş fiderleri hem merkezden hem karşı taraftan açılır.



Şekil 1. Akım Kazıklarının Toprağa Çakılmış Hali

(Çanakkale Akçansa TM)

Hesaplanan c uzunluğunun 5 katı mesafede seçilen uygun zemine 5-8 adet akım kazığı 70 cm derinliğinde daire



oluşturacak şekilde çakılır. Çakılan kazıklar uygun noktalarından birbirlerine halka şeklinde kısa devre edilir. Akım elektrodu olarak kullanılan kablo bu kazıklara bağlanır. Akım ve gerilim elektrodları arasındaki açı 90 dereceden küçük olmalıdır.

Şekil 2. Selvaz Ölçüm Şeması

Cihazlar fens telinin hemen yanına kurularak şalt sahası toprağı ile akım elektrotu arasında 5-10 amper aralığında akım akıtılmalıdır. Mesafenin uzunluğuna göre 25m ya da 50m aralıklarla gerilim elektrotundan V_0 - V_1 - V_2 değerleri okunur. Her ölçümde V_p ve Z değerleri hesaplanır. [3]

Bu işlem 5c uzunluğunun birkaç işlem sonrasına kadar devam eder. Toprak potansiyeli test formülü aşağıda verilmiştir.

$$V_p = \sqrt{\frac{V_1^2 + V_2^2}{2} - V_0^2} \quad Z = \frac{V_p}{I}$$

V_p : Toprak Potansiyeli

V_0 : Test akımı yokken okunan gerilim

V_1 : Test akımında okunan gerilim

V_2 : Test akımını 180 derece ters bağladığımızda okunan gerilim

Z empedans değeri şu şekilde bulunur;

- Yapılan ölçümler ile empedans-uzunluk grafiği oluşturulur.
- Grafiğin tepe noktasına denk gelen L mesafesinin 3/2 mesafesinde okunan direnç değeri Z empedans değerini verir.
- Şekil 3. de tepe noktası 550m'ye denk gelmektedir. $550 \times \frac{3}{2} = 366m$ 'dir. 366m den sonra en yakın ölçüm noktası 400m olduğu için 400m ye karşılık gelen 0,14ohm değeri sonuç olarak alınır.

Şekil 3. Yapılan Ölçümlere Ait Örnek Grafik

ADIM VE TEMAS GERİLİMİ

Adım Gerilimi Ölçümü

Şalt içerisinde herhangi bir noktada, 1 metre ara ile iki kazık çakılarak kazıklar arasında okunan gerilim bize adım gerilimini verir. Adım gerilimleri ölçülürken sistem kurulu vaziyette olmalıdır. $V_0-V_1-V_2$ gerilim değerleri alınır ve kaydedilir. Bu testler

0-1, 1-2, 2-3, 3-4 ve 4-5 metrelerde tekrarlanır.

Temas Gerilimi Ölçümü

Şalt sahası içerisinde bulunan teçhizatlar (Akım trafosu, KGT, Kesici, Parafudr, Trafo vb.) ile onlara dokunan insan arasında, insanların zarar görmemesi için ve kriter olarak belirlenen 42 Volt ya da daha altında bir gerilimin belirlenmesi için temas gerilimleri ölçülür. Temas gerilimlerinde sistem kurulu vaziyette ölçülür. Akım akıtılmak suretiyle $V_0-V_1-V_2$ gerilim değerleri alınır ve kaydedilir. Numune olarak bazı teçhizatlar seçilir. Seçilen teçhizat ile onun 1 metre ilerisine kazık çakılarak arasındaki gerilim okunur.

Şalt alanına bağlanan koruma tellerinin şaltın topraklama ağından ayrılması şarttır, aksi takdirde şalt topraklamaya paralel girerek değeri düşürür. Ölçümlerin yapılması için gerekli olan enerji jeneratör vasıtasıyla temin edilir. Teste başlarken akım akıtılmıyorsa toprak direnci büyük demektir. Bu durumda toprak direncini küçültmek için akım kazıklarının dibine tuzlu su dökme gibi yöntemler uygulanabilir. Bu testlerde ölçüm yapılırken filtre devresi kullanılarak 50Hz dışındaki kaçak gerilimlerin okunması engellenir. Hataları minimuma indirmek için polarite değiştirilerek ölçümler her iki polaritede de yapılmalı ve ortalaması alınmalıdır.



Şekil 4. Selvaz Metodu ile Toprak Empedans Devresi

SONUÇ

Z empedans değeri yeni yönetmeliğe göre 380 kV şahtlarda 0,5 ohm ve daha aşağısı, 154 kV şahtlarda 1 ohm veya daha aşağısı olmalıdır. Şayet bu değerlerin üzerinde ise şahttaki teçhizat ve insanlar için tehlike arz edeceğinden şaltın topraklama ağının artırılarak direncin düşürülmesi sağlanır. [4]

Bütün boyutları ve iletkenliđi önceden bilinen bir iletkene karşılık toprak, birçok özellikleri bilinmeyen çok karışık bir iletkendir. Bu nedenle insan ve hayvanların güvenliđi için toprak yapısı iyi incelenmeli ve test edilmelidir. Bu inceleme ve sonuçlar doğrultusunda daha kaliteli topraklama projeleri tasarlanmalıdır.

KAYNAKLAR

[1] Christopher Carr, Handbook On Soil Resistivity Surveying,

[2] John Howard, Soil Resistivity Testing and Grounding System Design

[3] Prof. Dr. İsmail Kaşıkçı, Yüksek Gerilim Tesislerinde Topraklama

[4] Tedaş, ENH ve OG – AG Elektrik Dağıtım Tesislerinde Topraklamalara Ait Uygulama ve Esasları

Türkiye’de Yabancı Dil Öğretmeni Yetiştirme Koşulları ve Fransızca Öğretmeni Yetiştirmede Yaşanan Sorunlar

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Özet

Bilindiği üzere genel olarak öğretmen yetiştirmede olduğu gibi yabancı dil öğretmeni yetiştirme süreçlerinin de pek çok bileşeni ve paydaşı vardır. Yeni nesilleri erken yaşlarda okullarda öğretmenlere emanet ettiğimiz düşünüldüğünde, bir ülkede ihtiyaçlar doğrultusunda ekonomist, hukukçu, doktor yetiştirmek kadar, gerekli ve yeterli donanım, bilgi ve becerilere sahip eğitici, öğretmen yetiştirmek de son derece önemlidir. Ülkemizde öğretmen yetiştiren kurumların en başında eğitim fakülteleri yer alır. Öğretmen adayları eğitim fakültelerinde dört yıllık bir eğitiminin sonunda aldıkları lisans diplomasıyla öğretmen olmaya hak kazanırlar. Ancak yabancı dil öğretmeni adayları için söz konusu eğitim-öğretim süresi hazırlık sınıfıyla birlikte genellikle beş yıldır. Hazırlık sınıfında yaklaşık 400-600 saat arası yabancı dil dersi alan öğrencilerin çoğu zaman öğrendikleri yabancı dilde temel becerilere istenen seviyede sahip olamadan birinci sınıfa geçtikleri ya da yönetmelikler gereği iki yıldan fazla hazırlık sınıfını tekrar edemedikleri için otomatik olarak birinci sınıfa geçtikleri gözlemlenmektedir. Bu sorun bir yandan ileriki yıllarda lisans programında başka sorunlara yol açarken, öte yandan pek çok açıdan bir zaman ve emek kaybına da işaret etmektedir.

Başarı ve başarısızlıkta tüm paydaşların belirli oranlarda katkıya sahip olduklarını düşünecek olursak, öğrenci profilinin, eğitim-öğretim sistemi ve koşullarının gözden geçirilerek başka sistemler onların işleyiş biçimleriyle karşılaştırılması fayda sağlayacaktır. Yabancı dil öğretmeni yetiştirme süreçleri, gerek eğitim yılı sayısı gerek alınan eğitimin kapsam ve içerikleri ve aday profilleri açısından ülkelere göre farklılıklar göstermektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı gerek ülkenin ve toplumun ihtiyaçları gerekse Fransızca öğretmeni adaylarının ihtiyaçları açısından ve zaman kaybetmeksizin eğitimde azami kaliteyi sağlayacak kısıtları saptamak amacıyla, öğretim süreçleri ve öğretmen adayları profillerini bazı Avrupa Birliği ülkelerinininkilerle karşılaştırmak olacaktır.

Giriş

Türkiye’de öğretmenlik mesleğine aday olabilmek için zorunlu eğitim süresi dört yıl olmakla birlikte yabancı dil öğretmenliği için bu süre genellikle hazırlık sınıfıyla birlikte beş yıldır. Aday öğrenci profillerinin çeşitliliği, yanlış ve eksik bilgi ve algıdan dolayı bu süreç daha da uzun olabilmektedir. Geniş ölçekte bu sürecin uzaması bireyler, toplum ve genel olarak da ülke için zaman, enerji kaybıyla birlikte maddi bir kayıptır. Öğrencilerin motivasyonlarının tercih ettikleri meslek eğitimiyle örtüşmemesi profil sorunun bir parçasıdır. Eğitim sürecinin başarı ve başarısızlığında tüm paydaşlar eşit ölçüde sorumlu olsalar da süreci iyileştirme yolunda ilk sorgulanması gerekenin öğretmen adaylarının hangi koşullarda öğretmenlik mesleğine yöneldikleri gibi görünmektedir. Her meslekte olduğu gibi yabancı dil öğretmenliğinde de motivasyon ve mesleğe yatkinlik son derece önemlidir. Ancak özellikle Fransızca öğretmenliği bölümlerini tercih eden adaylarının aslında çoğu zaman gönüllü bir tercihte bulunmadıkları gözlemlenmektedir. Doğal olarak da bu durum eğitim-öğretim süreçlerine yansımakta ve nitelikli öğretmen adayları yetiştirmeyi güçleştirmektedir. Asıl profile uygun adaylar yetiştirme hedefine ulaşmak için öncelikle var olan aday profilinin gözlemlenmesi ve tanımlanması oldukça önemlidir. Bu nedenle bu çalışmada öncelikli olarak özellikle Fransızca öğretmenliğine aday öğrencilerin profilleri tartışılacaktır. Ayrıca sisteme bağlı sorunlar irdelenecek ve çözüm önerilerini tartışabilmek için de bazı karşılaştırmalar yapılacaktır.

Avrupa Birliği çerçeve programı ve öğretmen profili metni zerine

Öğretmen profili ile öğretmen aday öğrenci profilini karıştırmamak gerekir. Bu çalışmada söz konusu edilen özellikle lise eğitiminin ardından Fransızca öğretmenliğini tercih eden öğrencilerin profilidir. Ancak öğretmenlik mesleğine aday öğrencilerin profiline geçmeden önce kısaca yabancı dil öğretimi için hazırlanmış ortak kısıtların önerildiği Avrupa Birliği çerçeve metni ve Avrupa Birliği öğretmen profilinden söz etmekte fayda var. Son derece ayrıntılı ve kapsamlı biçimde sadece kısıtlardan oluşan Avrupa Birliği ortak çerçeve metninde aslında yöntem ve içerik konusu muğlaktır. Söz konusu metinde önerilen kısıtlar içinde bulunduğumuz çağın tüm gereksinimleri göz önünde bulundurularak oluşturulmuş olmakla birlikte özellikle de Avrupa Birliği ülkelerinde eğitim birliğine de gidişin çok önemli bir adımını oluşturmaktadırlar. Önerilen kısıtlar ne kadar ideal olurlarsa olsunlar mantıksal olarak ortak kısıtların uygulanması ancak ortak eğitim-öğretim sistemi, ortak toplum, ortak öğrenci ve ortak öğretmen profilleriyle gerçekçi olabilir. A. Işık Türkiye’deki yabancı dil öğretimi

sorunlarını irdelediği makalesinde benzer bir saptamada bulunmaktadır: “Bir yabancı dil programının başarısı, toplumun iyi incelenmesi ile elde edilen veriler üzerine kurulmasına bağlıdır. Dolayısıyla, yabancı dil eğitiminin başarısı da, toplumu göz önüne alması ile orantılıdır. Bu nedenle, bütün ülkelere ve durumlara hitap eden bir ortak yabancı dil programından bahsedilemez” (2008: 22-23). Her şeyden önce ardışık ve eşzamanlı olmak üzere iki farklı eğitim sistemi olduğu bilinmektedir. Avrupa Birliği Ülkelerin de bile bu bağlamda farklılıklar söz konusudur. Örneğin Fransızcanın yabancı dil olarak öğretiminde genellikle örnek alınan Fransa'nın hem genel eğitim sistemi buna bağlı olarak da öğretmen yetiştirme sistemi Türkiye'ninkinden oldukça farklıdır. Fransızcanın yabancı dil olarak öğretimini meslek olarak seçen adaylar için dil zaten anadilleridir. Dolayısıyla ne öğrenci ne de öğretmen aday profilleri Türkiye'ninkilerle aynı değildir. Fransa dışındaki diğer Avrupa Birliği ülkelerinde de profiller aynı şekilde farklıdır. Örneğin Avrupa'da öğrenci hareketliliği daha ikinci öğretimde başladığı için öğrencilerin daha erken yaşlarda anadilin konuşulduğu ülkelerde bulunma olanakları dilde temel becerileri geliştirmelerine büyük katkıda bulunmaktadır. Bu nedenle ortak kıstaslarla belirlenen dil düzeyleri Türkiye'de sağlanmış gibi gözükse de sonuçlar göreceli olabilir. Kısaca, yabancı dil öğretiminde kıstaslar öğretim yöntemleri, içerik ve işleyiş belirlerken ülkenin ve toplumun kendi ortam ve koşullarının göz önünde bulundurulması başarının sağlanmasında önemli rol oynayacaktır. Avrupa Birliği öğretmen profili ortak çerçeve metnine gelince, genel hedefler, toplumlarda yabancı dil öğrenme konusunda hassasiyet yaratmak, yabancı dil eğitim-öğretimi programlarının sayısını, yabancı dil öğrenen sayısını, yabancı dil öğretiminde kaliteyi artırmak ve daha küçük ölçekte öğrenilen ve öğretilen dillerin promosyonunu yapmak, yabancı dil öğrenmeye erişimi kolaylaştırmak olarak sıralanmaktadır. Bu hedefle Avrupa Birliği üyesi olsun olmasın her toplum için geçerli sayılabilecek hedeflerdir. Ancak yine de bu profilin de

Öğrenci profilleri sorunu

Türk üniversitelerinde Fransızca Öğretmenliği bölümleri sayısı ihtiyaç duyulanan üzerinde olduğu gibi bölümlerin öğrenci kontenjanları da ihtiyaç duyulanan üzerindedir. Bu durum pek çok açıdan nitelikli öğretmen yetiştirme hedefinin gerçekleştirilmesini güçleştirmektedir. Türkiye'de özellikle Fransızca öğretmeni yetiştirmede en önemli sorunlardan biri, öğrenci profillerinin çeşitliliğidir. Bu çeşitlilik dilsel yeterliliklerin geliştirilmesi güçleştirmektedir. Fransızca öğretmenliğini tercih eden adaylar için genel olarak üç tip profilden söz edilebilir. En önemli grubu daha önceki eğitimlerinde yabancı dil olarak Fransızcanın dışında yabancı dil eğitimi almış dolayısıyla da üniversite sınavında başka dillerden özellikle de İngilizceden sınava girerek aldıkları puanlarla kayıt yaptıran adaylar oluşturmaktadır. Bir diğer grup ise Fransızca eğitim yapan liselerden mezun olanlar yer alır. Son olarak da göçmen ailelerin çocukları yer aldığı gruptan söz edilebilir.

Fransızca öğretmenliği bölümlerini tercih eden öğrencilerin profilleri, algı ve hedefler açısından Almanca ve İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümlerini tercih eden öğrenci profillerinden farklıdır. Fransızca öğretmenliği bölümlerine girebilmek için gerekli puanın nispeten düşük oluşu bir motivasyon teşkil etmekle birlikte bu öğretmenlik mesleğinin kendisi için gerçek bir motivasyon değildir. Öte yandan gerekli puan ile eğitimin güçlük düzeyi arasında bir paralellik kurma eğilimi de yanlış algıya dayanmaktadır. Bir başka deyişle bir kısım aday öğrenci kitlesi aslında hiç arzu etmediği, hedeflemediği halde sırf herhangi bir üniversite diplomasına sahip olabilmek için zorunlu bir tercih olarak görmektedir. Bu gruptaki öğrenciler de genellikle üniversite sınavına başka yabancı dillerden girip o dilden aldıkları puanlarla Fransızca öğretmenliği bölümlerine aday olmaktadır. Fransızca eğitim-öğretim yapan kolejlerden gelen aday öğrenciler de bu gruba dahil edilebilirler. Bu öğrenci kitlesi ise asıl hedefleri bölümlere girmek için yeterli puanı sağlayamadıkları için Fransızca öğretmenliği bölümlerini son çare olarak görmektedirler. Bu durumda en önemli sorun öğrencilerin önemli bir kısmının gerçekten öğretmen olmayı hedeflemeyişleridir. Sonuçta Fransızca öğretmenliği bölümlerinin Fransızca öğrenilen bir dil kursu olduğu algısı ve temel becerilerde ortalama bir seviyeye sahip olmanın da öğretmenlik eğitiminde kesin başarının garantisi olduğu algısı aday öğrencileri büyük ölçüde yanıltmaktadır.

İdari sorunlar

Hazırlık sınıfında başarısız olan öğrenciler genellikle yanlış algı ve bilgi dayalı yanlış tercihte bulunanlardır. Bu öğrenciler arasında iki yıl hazırlık eğitimi alıp yine de başarısız olanlar vardır. Söz konusu öğrenciler yönetmelikler gereği iki yıldan fazla hazırlık sınıfını tekrar edemediklerinden başarılı sayılmakta ve doğrudan birinci sınıfa kayıt yaptırabilmektedirler. Bu da sınıflarda heterojen bir yapı oluşumuna neden olmaktadır. Öte yandan, idari anlamda hazırlık sınıflarının bünyelerinde barındıran yabancı diller yükseköğretim bölümlerine yerine doğrudan rektörlüklere bağlı oluşları idari bakımdan eşgüdümlü çalışmaları ve denetimi olanaksız kılmaktadır.

Sonuç ve Öneriler

Bölümlerin misyon, vizyonları, müfredat ve ders kapsamlarının adaylara yeterince tanıtımının sağlanması, bölümlerin toplam beş yıllık bir dil kursu olduğu algısının ortadan kalkmasına ve öğrencilerin üniversite sınavına girerken uygun tercihi yapmalarına katkıda bulunacaktır. İstenen ve beklenen niteliklere ve donanıma sahip Fransızca öğretmeni yetiştirebilmek için her şeyden önce alanda arz talep dengesi göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır.

Her yıl Fransızca öğretmenliği bölümlerine toplamda ihtiyacın çok üstünde öğrenci alınmakta ve yine ihtiyacın çok üstünde mezun verilmektedir. Bölüm sayısı ile birlikte kontenjan sayısının azaltılması, giriş puanının yüksek tutulması, gerçek öğretmen aday sayısının ortaya çıkmasını ve bu doğrultuda gerekli motivasyona sahip nitelikli öğretmen adayları yetiştirebilmeyi sağlayacaktır. Bu önerilerin gerçekleştirilmesinin çeşitli nedenlerle oldukça güç olduğunu da kabul etmek gerekir. Çünkü bölüm veya anabilim dalı sayısının azaltılması Fransızca bölümlerinde görev yapan öğretim üyelerini de doğrudan ilgilendirmektedir. Öte yandan kontenjan sayısının azaltılması ve puanlarının yüksek tutulması ise bu defa da yeterli öğrenci sayısını sağlayamama riski nedeniyle yine bölümlerin kapatılmasına neden olacağından ve bölüm ve anabilim dallarının hemen hemen hiç birinin bu çözümü kabul etme ihtimali olmayacağından bu çözüm yolları şimdilik bir çıkmazda gibi görünmektedir. Ancak hem toplumsal hem de bireysel bağlamda zaman ve enerji kaybının önüne geçmek ve nitelikli öğretmen adaylarının yetiştirilmesi için bu sorun çözülmek zorundadır. Yabancı dil öğretmenliği bölümlerinde, teknolojik yenilikler ve yükselen değerler doğrultusunda düzenli olarak derslerin ve içeriklerin düzenlenmesi, söz konusu bölümlerde görev yapan öğretim üyelerinin de bilgi ve becerilerini güncellemelerini gerektirdiği açıktır. Bu nedenle yabancı dil öğretmenlerini yetiştirenlerin de düzenli olarak hizmet içi eğitim almaları gerekli olabilir. Hizmet içi eğitimle birlikte iç denetimin mekanizmasının geliştirilmesi aynı şekilde istenen profile uygun adaylar yetiştirmede fayda sağlayacaktır.

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Bionic Architecture Course For Architecture Students

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Abstract

There is a growing list of academic institutions that are integrating bionic subjects into their educational programs. Bionics is an applied science that studies fundamental principles of biological systems to be used for solving environmental issues or inspiring new design processes. The combination of bionics and architecture is just like the combination of bionics and other disciplines, which already has made a remarkable development in different research areas. Consequently, architecture students are inspired by living organisms and their adaptive interactions with nature. The main purpose of this work is to propose a theoretical framework for bionic architecture course in architectural programs which provides the appropriate knowledge to analyze different bionic structures. This derives from the importance of bionics understanding for architecture students to open new approaches for creativity. The analysis and conclusions shed light on bionics is not only as a bio-inspired architectural style that can emphasize ways of thinking and designing, but also is as a process of more unique and sustainable design process.

Keywords: Architecture students; Bionic approaches; Bionic architecture; Bionic classification; Design process; Sustainable thinking

Introduction

Bionics is an applied science that studies fundamental doctrines of nature, structural, technical and forming in order to be used in solving the problems that human faces. In this context, bionics is an interdisciplinary field on the way to establish itself a science which incorporates all areas of biological science and technology. This applied science will continue to grow in the future with continuous innovative models which also will shape the architecture of the twenty-first century. Bionic architecture belongs to all buildings and structures which have been built with the help of enormous nature's role models (Gruber et al., 2011; Huang, et al., 2011). Architecture students need to be aware of bionics and its innovative applications in architecture. The proposed course aims to provide the architecture students with the basic knowledge and skills of how to clarify the interactive relation between architecture and nature through the philosophy of bionic thinking. In addition, give the students the ability to analyze a range of bionic structures, differentiate between different bionic approaches and illustrate how to create new bionic architecture which sustains nature in a unique bio-design process.

Bionic Architecture Course

Throughout the context of the proposed course, a set of relevant bionic disciplines is presented and explained since they are important for the understanding of bionic architecture. The development of bionic architecture can be divided into direct and indirect approaches which shape the current philosophy of bionic architecture. In addition, the course illustrates the classification of bionic architecture according to the percentage of mimicking or imitating nature and its living organisms. Within the course the students are encouraged to present and analyze various bionic projects and models.

Direct and Indirect Approaches

Nature is very smart in optimizing the shape, material and form so the comprehensive understanding of how nature handles such tasks is a key issue to many researchers nowadays. Furthermore, there is a major shift in architectural thinking towards nature and the use of applications through natural rules. In the beginning of the course, the students learn to differentiate between direct and indirect bionic approaches which are used in old and recent architectural history.

Direct approach

This is also known as the formal approach, where is no deep attention to the fundamentals of structure, behavior and process. It depends only on the surface imitation of natural models after some changes accordance in their structure to match new functions. The remarkable architecture in this approach is including in Antonio Gaudi's works.

Indirect approach

This is also known as the metaphoric approach where an abstract form from nature is used thus keeps metaphor from being a superficial approach towards a creative one. The challenge of successful bionic architecture is going beyond the mere translation of form to the deepest insight into the all common features that connect architectural elements with nature and technology. Analogies serve as a starting point for bionic translation which means similarity, correlation, and equivalence in terms of function or behavior. Similar functions require similar structures, and inspirations by this approach can deliver new insights within interactive innovations in architecture (Gruber et al., 2011; Pourjafar et al., 2011).

Classification of Bionic Architecture

Bionic architecture has a wide range of levels, scales and applications, from the city in general to the single building, from the mega structure to the nanotechnology can be covered. It gives the architecture students the inspiration that must follow and pay attention to many of nature laws, environmental, economic and ecological benefits. For a long time and so far, bionics still be a source of architectural innovation and ensures the environment an important means of sustainability. The course intends to illustrate bionic architecture that takes inspiration from nature through different perspectives and analogies that consisting bionic architecture classification. The following classification is reviewed according to the complexity of the use of bionics within architecture which begins from using only the characteristics of biological materials to imitate the overall process of living organism and its surrounding environment.

Structural bionics

The classic example of structural bionics is the "*Lotus Effect*", which enables buildings to be self-cleaning. The surface of plants, especially the outer layer of the surfaces of plant leaves, is covered with fine wax excretions, which make the surface hydrophobic. This fine fractal structure is also responsible for the weak adhesive forces of dirt particles, which can easily be removed with water. The same effect appears on the surfaces of insect bodies and wings. Structural bionics could be also called materials bionics which engaged with biological materials that have common characteristics used to solve many expected challenges that face architecture. Biological materials are often: a) highly specialized and build in many layers; b) each layer has its own specific structural and functional specification; c) strictly functional and still structured in a hierarchical order; d) ultra-light construction and finally e) self-repairing or can be easily recycled (Gruber et al., 2011; Roudavski, 2009; Zari, 2007). These common characteristics when applying to architecture play main role in sustaining the environment and help in making more sustainable architecture especially when combined with the other bionic approaches.

Constructional bionics

It is the most promising field of bionic architecture especially in the field of light constructions through using cable constructions, membranes, shells and transformable constructions. Constructional bionics works depends on the understanding of the organisms' construction and mechanism of the forms, bones and plant stems, which are among the natural surfaces that serve as potential sources for new construction systems. Organisms often reach to the best structural form with the least amount of materials; the shell is interesting form as a role model inspiration for architecture. Structural and constructional bionics together had made many extraordinary achievements to create a series of unique bionic architecture. Living organisms choose their geometry on the basis of performance and coordination with their other parts as well as to respond the functional, economic and stability challenges. Examples of this bionic architecture can be seen also in the Geodesic Dome, which are optimal for the relationships between volume and weight, efficient use of material and floor area (Gruber et al., 2011; Jian, 2007; Mojdehi & Mehr, 2011; Pourjafar et al., 2011; Selcuk, 2005). The proposed course illustrates the pioneers in this field from the investigations of d'Arcy Thompson to Frei Otto and Heinz Isler works.

Climatic bionics

The idea of bionic architecture, in which buildings are not only self-sufficient but also eco-friendly, is growing nowadays especially with the sustainable concerns. Architects can develop architectural ideas without the punishment of natural environment. Climatic bionics or energy bionics is about energy issues through ventilation, cooling and heating systems. The best example of climatic bionics in natural world is found in termite mounds. The termite mound serves as a role model for an effective passive ventilation system to control of the internal climate. Also, the mound itself is designed to catch the breeze as the wind blows. Cool air is sucked upwards from subterranean channels, cooling the mushroom shaped nest below the mound. Efforts have been made to translate termite mound principle in architectural world; Green Building in Zimbabwe is a good example (Mojdehi & Mehr, 2011; Rezaei & Zare, 2011). Most of climatic bionics approaches will get higher results when integrated and combined with the procedural bionics. The architecture students are imitated throughout the course to discover more related examples in architectural world and analyze the bionic applications.

Procedural bionics

Procedural bionics depends on the deep imitation of biological organisms and research on biological process; material, function, structure and energy conversion. Then applying the whole process to a technology system, in order to improve or create a new process technology through architectural configuration. Procedural bionics is

the most complicated approach which may augment many of other bionic approaches in architecture. Thus, until recently the clear methodology of procedural bionics in architecture is only roughly described. However, scientists have long tried to mimic photosynthesis process through harness the sunlight energy and turn it into a usable fuel, just as plants do by green leaves. In addition, new solar cells were investigated and developed by printing thin films of organic solar cells instead silicon solar ones, the new technology can be integrated into all kinds of products as well as architectural elements (Gruber et al., 2011). One of the pioneer works of procedural bionics is the bionic photovoltaic tree construction. It is proposed by Zähr et al., (2010), to carry lightweight flexible and moveable solar panels, with a property to keep cooler than conventional photovoltaic panels or silicon solar panels.

Bionic Architecture Course to Increase Students' Sustainable Thinking

It has become part of the accepted wisdom to say that the twentieth century was the century of physics while the twenty-first century will be the century of biology. However, biology has been bigger than physics, as measured by the size of finance, by the size of the workforce, or by the output of major innovations. In addition, living organisms are the outcome of million years of gradual perfection, so inspiration from biological world can be useful in achieving more sustainable architecture. Nothing in nature disappears nor comes into existence after changing in shape, form or function. Every part in living organism is provided to being used in another shape after consumption (Mojdehi & Mehr, 2011; Pourjafar et al., 2011; Salingaros, 2003). In architecture, thinking within bionics will encourage using of biological materials and recycling concepts that emphasizes sustainable thinking. This thinking begins from structural and constructional bionics and increasingly achieved in climatic and procedural bionics by more applications based on termite mounds and green leaves.

In this context, architecture students should pay attention to improve their projects and look more for biology to inspire, imitate and to take many lessons to learn. They should recognize bionic approaches from the first years of their study to be aware with the interactive relationship between nature and architecture. It's obvious that the models inspired from nature have been more economical, and more useful than the models arising from pure human thoughts. This may be improved if bionic thinking are included from the initial design process and used as a measure, model or as evaluation criteria throughout the design process by different bionic architecture approaches.

The paper presents a theoretical framework of the proposed bionic architecture course which illustrates different methods and approaches to achieve unique architecture from a sustainable viewpoint (Fig. 1). The course tries to highlight bionics attention because it is still able to achieve a new major shift in architectural thinking. The idea of back to nature and seeks the related biological elements to solve design and architectural problems, is not a new one, but it has been only reevaluated through innovative ideas and environmental awareness in recent years. Architecture students should be focused on understanding of the biological roots of bionics than surface imitation of nature. In addition, architecture students should recognize that bionics is a tool but is not a universal tool for all solving problems in architecture, it just a brilliant assisting tool for increase students' thinking or biological observations.

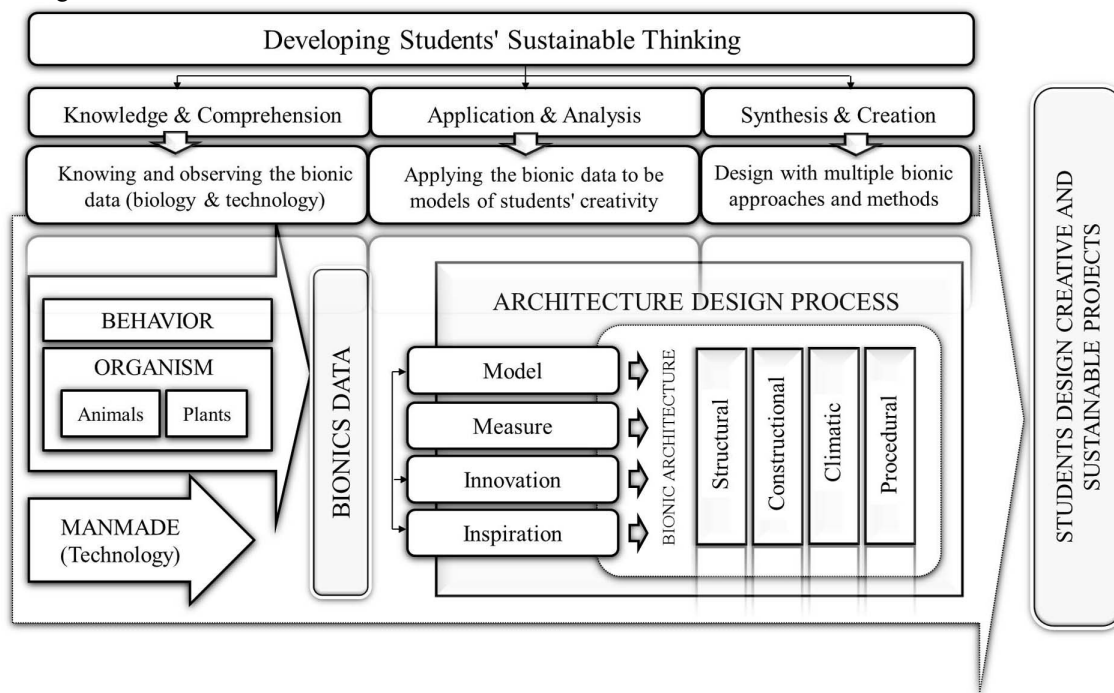


Figure 1: Bionic architecture course to increase students' sustainable thinking.

Conclusions and Perspectives

The growing intermediate of biological terminology in the context of architecture delivers new perspectives towards innovation in architecture and its design process. Moreover, the idea of bionic architecture, in which buildings have eco-friendly approach, began to mature to solve the increased problems of our built environment. However, we could say that bionic architecture is an old topic, but in the same time, one of the latest research topics (Gruber, 2008; Mojdehi & Mehr, 2011; Roudavski, 2009; Salingaros, 2003).

Bionic thinking in architecture considers being as an innovative architectural style that takes all the best from biology and technology. Thus, bionic architecture is increasingly drawing attention and one might say that architecture linked to biology to support any innovative architectural style. Nature world is full of various forms of living organisms, and they can often become inspiration's role models for bionic architecture. Finally, nature has devoted its countless gifts and resources kindly to architecture students to be a readily available example to learn from. The work with bionics opens a unique source of inspiration and enlarges the catalogue of design methods. In this context, bionic architecture is something that opens students' eyes to be more focus on responsive and sustainable design approaches in order to emphasize the students' ways of sustainable thinking.

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KİTLE İLETİŞİM ARACI OLARAK TELEVİZYONUN EĞİTİM VE ÖĞRETİM İŞLEVİNDEN YARARLANILMASI: PROGRAM ÇEŞİTLİLİĞİ İLE ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ TELEVİZYONU TVA ÖRNEĞİ

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ÖZET

Günümüz bilgi toplumlarında bilgiye ulaşmak ve paylaşmak için teknolojiden yararlanmak gerekmektedir. Günlük yaşamın her alanına girerek, vazgeçilmez olmayı başaran kitle iletişim araçları, teknolojik olanaklardan yararlanarak varlıklarını sürdürebilmektedir.

Kitle iletişim araçlarının genel yapıları ve sundukları içeriklerle, toplum üzerinde etkili olan geniş alanlardaki faaliyetleri kapsadıkları düşünülmektedir. Bu nedenle medyanın farklı işlevleri ve etkileri hakkında sürekli tartışıldığı gibi, araştırma konusu olarak çekim alanı oluşu da devam etmektedir.

Kitle iletişim araçları arasında özellikle televizyon, toplumsal yaşamın belirleyici unsuru haline gelmiştir. Televizyonun toplum üzerinde olumlu ve olumsuz etkilerinin bulunduğu savunulmaktadır. Bu yaklaşımlar değerlendirilirken araç olarak televizyonun karmaşık yapısıyla birlikte, kapsamlı potansiyeli de göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır.

Televizyon; aynı anda göze ve kulağa hitap edebilen bir teknolojik araç olmanın ötesine geçmiştir. Geniş izler kitlesinin gereksinimlerini karşılayabilmek için, kültürel ve eğitsel yönleriyle karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Kitle iletişimi istenildiğinde hangi düzeyde olursa olsun, eğitim ve öğretime katkı sağlamak amacıyla fonksiyonel olarak kullanılabilir.

Bu çalışma genelde kitle iletişim aracı olarak televizyon ve eğitim arasındaki bağlantılar ortaya çıkarılmak istenmektedir. Çalışmanın özelinde ise, Anadolu Üniversitesi televizyonu TVA'nın programları incelenerek, eğitime ve öğretime sağladığı katkı belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler; kitle iletişimi, kitle iletişim araçları, televizyon, eğitim televizyonu

TAKING ADVANTAGE OF THE EDUCATION FUNCTION OF TELEVISION AS A MASS MEDIA: PROGRAM VARIETY AND ANADOLU UNIVERSITY TELEVISION TVA EXAMPLE

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ABSTRACT

In the information societies of today, taking advantage of technology is necessary for reaching and sharing information. Mass media which enter all fields of daily life and succeed in becoming indispensable are able to continue their existence by taking advantage of technological availabilities.

It is considered that mass media cover the activities in wide areas that are effective on society with their general structures and the contents they introduce. For this reason, different functions and effects of media are continuously being discussed and at the same time it continues to be a field of interest as research topics.

Among the mass media, especially television has become the determining factor for social life. It is supported that television has both positive and negative effects on society. While these approaches are being evaluated, the complex structure of television as a medium and its extensive potential has to be taken into consideration.

Television has gone beyond just being a technological tool which appeals to eyes and ears at the simultaneously. In order to fulfill the expectations of vast mass of audience, it occurs with its cultural and educational aspects. Mass communication, if requested, can be used functionally to provide contribution to education in every level.

Throughout this study, the relations between education and television as a mass medium are intent to be revealed while the specific objective is to examine TVA, television of Anadolu University, and to determine its contribution to education.

Key words; mass communication, mass media, television, educational television

KİTLE İLETİŞİMİ VE KİTLE İLETİŞİM ARAÇLARI

Thompson'a göre; kitle iletişimi dört karakteristik üzerinde odaklanarak daha teorik bir şekilde çözümlenebilir: Simgesel malların kurumsallaşmış üretim ve yayımı; üretim ve alımlama arasındaki kurumlaşmış kopuş; zaman ve mekanda elde edilebilirlik kaplamı; ve simgesel biçimlerin kamusal dolaşımı (Mutlu, 2005, s. 212).

Kitle iletişimi, iletinin, bir veya daha fazla kitle iletişim aracı (gazete, dergi, kitap, radyo, televizyon, sinema, internet, vb.) aracılığıyla geniş ve bilinmeyen bir hedef kitleye (okuyucu, dinleyici, izleyici kitlesi) iletilmesidir. Kitle iletişimi sürecinde kullanılan aracın, iletinin içeriğini de etkilediği görüşünü vurgulayan Harold Laswell'e göre; "kim, kime, hangi araçla ve nasıl bir etkiyle, ne söylüyor?" sorularının cevapları önem taşımaktadır.

Oskay'a göre (2011, s. 42) bireylerarasındaki iletişimden farklı olarak kitle iletişiminde kaynak tek kişi değil, bir kuruluş, kurumlaşmış bir kişiliktir.



Şekil 1: Kitle İletişimi ve Kitle İletişim Araçları

Kitle iletişiminde:

Kitle iletişiminin hedef kitlesi görece geniştir, çeşitli toplumsal gruplardan oluşur.

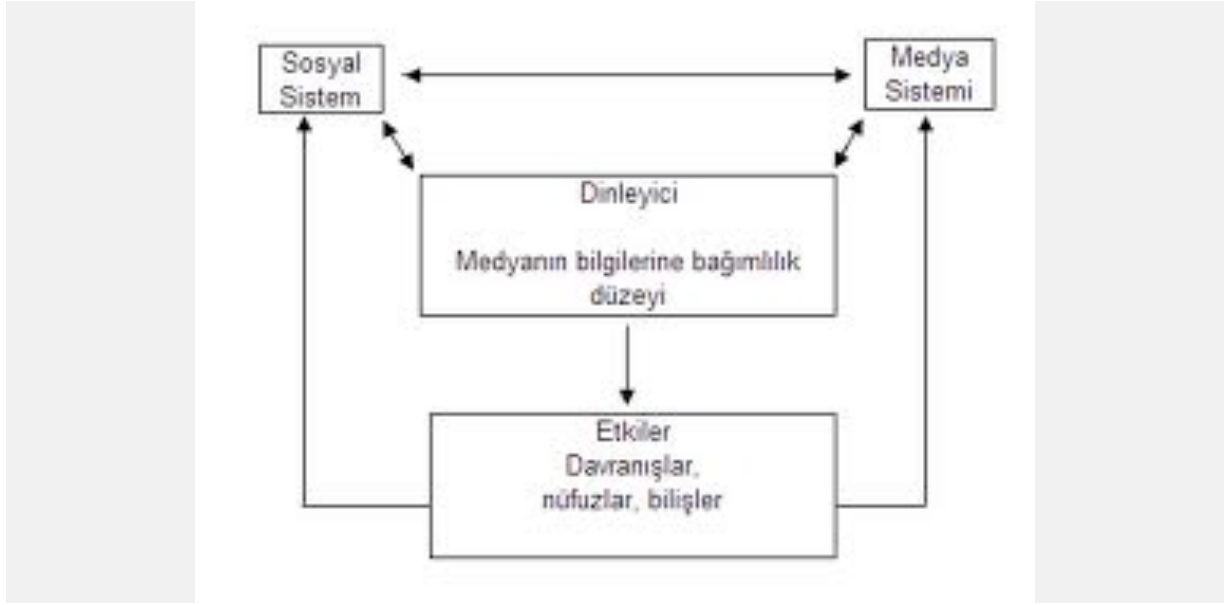
Hedef kitleyi oluşturan bireyler birbirlerini tanımazlar.

Kitle iletişim profesyonelleri de hedef kitleyi oluşturan bireyleri tanımaz.

Kitle iletişim araçları vasıtasıyla, birbirinden ayrı mekânlardaki kitle ile aynı anda iletişim kurulabilir.

Kitle iletişimi karmaşık biçimsel kurumları gerektirir.

Çağımızın yeni olgusu olan kitle iletişimi, iletişimin kurumsal bir yapıya dönüşmüş şeklidir. Kitle iletişim araçları hedef kitlesiyle iletişim kurduğunda karmaşık bir süreç başlatılmaktadır. Kaynak; tek kişi değil, biçimsel bir kurum (gazete, dergi, televizyon kanalı, sinema vb.) veya profesyonel iletişimcilerdir (gazeteci, yapımcı, çeşitli kademelerde çalışan kitle iletişim uzmanları vb.). Kitle iletişimi aynı zamanda süreci içinde, hedef alıcının sayısını toplum düzeyine çıkartan iletişim yönetimidir. Hedef alıcı sayısındaki artış, kitle kavramını da beraberinde getirmektedir.



Şekil 2: Kitle İletişim Süreci

Kitle iletişim araçlarının gönderdiği mesajlar toplumdan soyutlanmış tek tek bireylere değil, şu ya da bu grubun üyesi olan gruplar içinde yaşayan insanlara yöneliktir. Bu nedenle kitle iletişim aracından (medya), grup bağlılıkları ve normları ile donatılmış birey ile karşılaşır. Eğer etki söz konusu ise, bu bağlılıkların ve normların süzgecinden geçmek zorundadır (İnceoğlu, 200, s. 155).

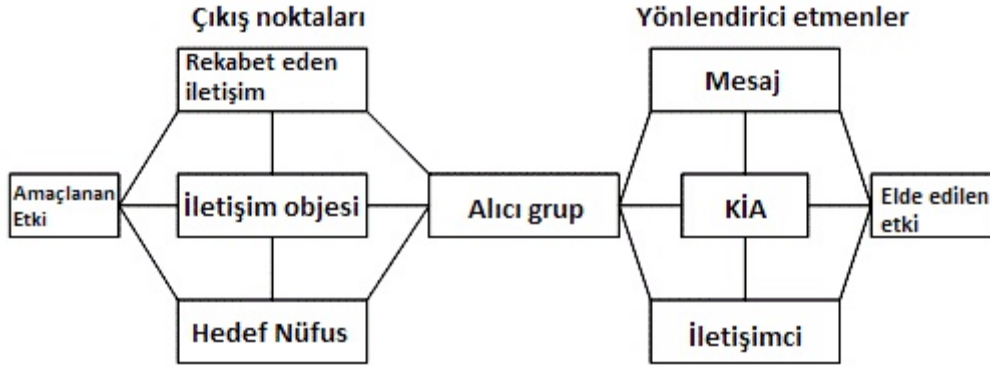
Medya öncelikle halkın haber alma hakkını sağlamakla yükümlüdür.

- Medya; mesaj üreten ve dağıtan iletişim araçlarıdır,
- Medya aynı zaman ticari bir işletme olduğundan, piyasanın rekabet kurallarına göre yönetilmektedir. Kullanıcıları olan okuyucu, dinleyici ve izleyici kitlesini “rating” ölçümleri ile belirlemeye çalışır.
- Yerine getirdiği hizmetin niteliği itibarıyla medyanın mesleki etik kuralları ve sosyal sorumlulukları gözetmesi beklenir.
- Çok boyutlu ve çok işlevli araçlara sahiptir.
- Sürekli ve sınırsız iletileriyle her türlü bilgilendirici, eğitici, eğlendirici ve tanıtıcı içerikler sunmaktadır.
- Kitle iletişim araçları halkın çoğunluğu için kolay ulaşılabilir konuma sahiptir.

Medyanın işlevleri; eğlence, enformasyon, kültürel, toplumsal ve politik işlevlerdir. İşlev sözcüğü, medyanın ne yapması gerektiği, gerçekte ne yaptığı ve amaçlarının ne olarak görüldüğü konularını kapsar (Burton, 1995, s. 87).

Kitle iletişim araçları toplum için dört temel işlev sağlamaktadır. Bunlar; haber ve bilgi verme işlevi, toplumsal gözetim, denetim ve kültür aktarma işlevi, eğlendirme işlevi ve eğitim işlevleridir. Medyanın toplumsal sorumluluk anlayışıyla hareket etmesiyle birlikte; kamuoyu oluşumuna, gündem belirlemeye, kültürün geliştirilmesine, farkındalık yaratmaya ve toplumsal bütünleştirmeye öncülük etmektedir.

Kitle iletişim araçları, bireylerin ufuklarını genişleterek evrensel boyutta düşünmeyi, toplumun geniş kesimlerini eğitmeyi sağlayabildiği gibi, birey ve toplumun bilincini de oluşturabilmektedir. Böylelikle etkilerinin avantajını kullanan medya, modern bir toplumsal yapıya geçişi de kolaylaştırabilmektedir.



Şekil 3: Kitle İletişim Araçlarının Etkileri

TELEVİZYON

Televizyonun toplumsal kullanımının birçok farklı biçimi ve karmaşık tarzını keşfedebilmek için, yıllardır sayılamayacak kadar çok araştırma tekniğinden yararlanılmaktadır.

Televizyonu sadece siyasal güç ya da eğlence aracı değil, tüm kültürü yaratan devasa bir sosyalizasyon aracı olarak görmenin zamanı gelmiştir (Batmaz, 1998, s. 3).

Kitle iletişim araçları arasında özellikle televizyonda, ideolojik egemenliklerin sürekli olarak yinelenen sunumu söz konusudur. Televizyon, var olan düzeni sorgulamaksızın kabul eder. Sosyalizasyon aracı görevini yerine getirirken, kültürel değerleri koruma, pekiştirme ve sürdürme yönünde hizmet sağlar. Kültürel işlevini gerçekleştirirken, toplumun kültürel yapısını kendi isteği özelliklerle şekillendirebilir.

Televizyon çok popülerdir. Böylesi heterojen bir seyirci topluluğuna, böylesine çok çeşitte haz sunabilmektedir. Çünkü televizyonun metinsel karakteristikleri ve alılmama kipleri “kültür” olarak adlandırdığımız anlam üretme sürecine etkin bir katılımı olanaklı kılmaktadır (Fiske, 1987, s. 19).

Televizyona yönelik kuramsal yaklaşımlar çeşitlilik göstermektedir:

“**Temsil Kuramları**”, geleneksel kitle iletişim araştırmalarının televizyon programlarının simgesel, metinsel karmaşıklığını göz ardı etme eğilimine karşı özellikle 1970 başlarından itibaren ivme kazanan araştırmaları kapsayan bir çerçeve oluşturmaktadır. Kuramların gelişmesinde esas dönüm noktasını toplumsal kuramda yapısalci/göstergebilimsel eğilimlerin ağırlığını koyması oluşturur. Çalışmalarda Birmingham Üniversitesi’ndeki Çağdaş Kültür Çalışmaları Merkezi’nin önemli yer tuttuğu görülür (Mutlu, 2005, s. 81).

“**Araç Kuramları**”, televizyonu kültürel bir teknoloji olarak ele almaktadır. Bu kurumlar televizyonun toplumsal etkisinin daha çok bir teknoloji olarak genel özellikleriyle ilgili olduğunu öne sürmektedir. Program türlerinin bu etki konusunda hiçbir önemi olmadığını belirtmektedir. Televizyona ilişkin temsil kuramlarından, araç kuramlarına kayış kuramsal etkinlikteki Marksist gündemden, modernizm sonrası gündeme yönelik tedrici, seçici bir hareketin sonucudur (Mutlu, 2005, s. 82).

“**Kurum Kuramları**” esas olarak televizyonun örgütsel yapısıyla ilgilenmekte ve bu yapının özgül siyasal ve ekonomik sistemler içindeki yerini, konumunu sorunsallaştırmaktadır. Bu kuramlara göre televizyonun, ne simgesel/anlatımsal boyutu ne de kültürel/teknolojik profili özel önem taşımaktadır. Kavramsallaştırılması gereken, kitle iletişim örgütünün üretim, dağıtım, mevzuat işleriyle, devletin etkinlikleriyle ve/veya piyasa yapılarıyla olan bağıdır (Mutlu, 2005, s. 83).

“**Süreç Kuramları**” diğer kuramlardan farklı olarak doğrudan doğruya izleyici ile televizyon arasındaki ilişkisel konulara, etkileşim ve karşılıklı bağımlılık konularına yönelik kavramlaştırmaları içermektedir. Televizyon üzerine geliştirilen anlamlı ve önemli bir kuramsal çalışma, süreçsel nitelikten kendisini uzak tutamaz. Daha açık bir ifadeyle; televizyon metnini konu alan temsil kuramları, televizyonun teknolojik niteliklerini konu alan araç kuramları ve televizyon endüstrisinin işleyişini ele alan kurum kuramları, ancak televizyonun bir bütün olarak izleyiciyle olan ilişkisini ele alan ve irdeleyen bir kuramsal yaklaşım çerçevesinde bir araya gelebilirler (Mutlu, 2005, s. 83).

Kaplan'ın ifadesiyle, (1993) en yaygın ve en etkin “kültür üretme makinesi” olan televizyon, hem eğlendirmekte hem de bilgilendirmekte ve bunu belli bir öyküleme/anlatım tekniği ile yapmaktadır. Bir sanat ve kültürel dışavurum aracı, çağdaş kültürün somut bir örneği olan televizyon, karmaşık bir kültürel formdur.

Televizyonun genel özellikleri şöyle sıralanabilir:

- 7 gün 24 saat yayın yapar ve günün her saatinde kolaylıkla takip edilebilir.
- GörSELLİĞİN etkili dili ve sonsuz görüntü akışı ile insanları ekrana bağlar. Bu özellik, televizyon bağımlılığı sorununa da neden olabilir.
- İzleyicileri ekranda tutabilmek için genellikle profesyonelce kurgulanmış müzikli, hareketli görüntüler ve canlandırma (drama) tekniği kullanılır.
- Farklı program türlerine yer vererek, her yaştan izler kitleye hitap edebilir.
- Araç olarak bilinçli ve amacına uygun kullanıldığında, televizyon programları toplumun eğitimine katkı sağlayabilir.
- İzler kitlesine farklı işlevleri ve rolleriyle ulaşabilir.
- Ekran başında izler kitlesinin en fazla serbest zaman geçirdiği araç haline gelmiştir.

Kitle iletişim araçları içinde televizyonun önemli bir yeri vardır. İletişim bir bilginin, bir görüşün ya da bir davranışın yayınlanması süreci olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Televizyonun önde gelen işlevleri arasında eğlendirici ve öğretici nitelikleri sayılabilir. Bunun yanında, televizyon bireylerin kendilerini tanıyabilmelerine, kişiliklerini geliştirebilmelerine ortam hazırlayan, zaman zaman onlara düşünme ve eleştirme fırsatı veren önemli bir araçtır (Oktay, 1999, 293).

Televizyonun kapsamını genişleten teknolojik olanaklar, izler kitlesi ile arasındaki zaman ve uzam üzerindeki ilişkilerini de farklılaştırmıştır. McLuhan “evrensel köy”e doğru gidişin kaçınılmaz olduğunu ileri sürmektedir. Televizyon, zaman ve uzamı dünya çapında yeniden düzenlemekle kalmaz, var olan bütün sınırları ortadan kaldırarak, aynı zamanda ev içi alanların kültürel olarak konumlandırılma tarzlarını da belirler. İzler kitlesini oluşturan bireylerin dış dünyayı algılayışlarını da dikkat çekici biçimde etkileyebilmektedir.

Livigstone’a göre televizyon; (1990, s. 49) izleyiciye ne düşünmesini, ne düşünmemesini, ne söylemesini ya da ne hakkında söylemesi gerektiğini anlatan bir şekilde kavramsallaştırmıştır. Abercombiye göre; (1996, s. 200) Ayrıca televizyon bireyleri, toplumun bakış açısını ve toplumdaki yerlerini kabul etmeleri konusunda ikna eder ve bu bağlamda toplumdaki hiyerarşik yapıyı destekler.

Yirmi birinci yüzyılda görsel ve işitsel medya, yalnız bireyleri değil, toplumları da şekillendiren bir yapı olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. İzler kitle televizyondan; çevrelerini düzenlemek, bireylerarası iletişimlerini kolaylaştırmak, toplumsal rollerini ve davranışlarını öğrenmek, kişisel becerilerini geliştirmek, kararlarını gözden geçirmek, eğitimlerine katkı sağlamak amacıyla da yararlanabilmektedir.

TELEVİZYON VE EĞİTİM

Diğer kitle iletişim araçlarının özellikleriyle karşılaştırıldığında, televizyonun eğitim açısından önemli bir yere ve öneme sahip olduğu, televizyonun bireyin birden fazla duyu organına uyarak algılama, hafızada tutma ve öğrenmede kolaylık sağladığı ve bireyde öğrenme isteği uyandırdığı görülmektedir (Aziz, 1982).

Uzaktan görme anlamı taşıyan televizyonun, olumlu etkilerinden yararlanarak verimli bir eğitim aracı olarak kullanılabilmesi sağlanmalıdır. Televizyon izlemenin tek yönlü ve pasif bir etkinlik olduğu unutulmamalıdır. Bir kitle iletişim aracı olan televizyonun eğitim işlevini yerine getirebilmesi için, program içeriklerinin amacına uygunluğu dikkate alınarak yayınlanması gerekmektedir.

Televizyonun eğitim televizyonu ve okul televizyonu olarak kullanılması, değişik ülkelerde farklı uygulamalarla yapılmıştır. Bu uygulamalar, ülkelerin politik, sosyal ve eğitim ile ilgili koşullarına ve özelliklerine, televizyon sisteminin yönetimine ve olanaklarına bağlı olmaktadır. Söz konusu televizyonla eğitim uygulamalarında, televizyonun sınırlılıklarını ve olumsuz yönlerini tamamlayıcı yöntemlerden yararlanılmaktadır (Berwanger, 1979; Sözer, 1979).

Televizyon ve eğitim arasındaki bağlantıları ortaya koyan önemli örnekler bulunmaktadır. Dünyada İngiltere başta olmak üzere, Amerika Birleşik Devletleri, Finlandiya, Kanada, Hindistan, Japonya, Singapur gibi ülkelerde kamu ve özel televizyon kanallarının, farklı programlarında eğitim içeriklerine günün her saatinde yer verilmektedir.

Televizyonla eğitim; değişik ölçütlere göre, farklı şekillerde sınıflandırılabilir. Bu sınıflamalar açısından, televizyonun haber ve bilgi vermeye yönelik programları, “tamamlayıcı eğitim” grubunda yer almaktadır. Televizyon programları arasında, mesleklerle ilgili bilgi ve becerileri aktaran; bireyi belirli alanlara yöneltmeyi amaçlayan; teknolojik gelişmelere ve gelişmelerin sonucunda ortaya çıkan duruma uyum göstermeye yardımcı

olan; bireyin ufkunu genişletmeyi amaçlayan, bireyin demokratik yaşayışta yerini almasını sağlayan, temel bilgileri aktaran ve bireyleri çeşitli konularda aydınlatan programlar, “yaygın eğitim” kapsamına girmektedirler (Aziz, 1982).

İzleyici de; bilgi, beceri, duygu, düşünüş, kanaat ve tutumlar açısından, var olanı pekiştirmeyi veya değiştirmeyi, yenilerini kazandırmayı amaçlayan programlara, “eğitim fonksiyonlarını yerine getiren” veya “eğitici” programlar denilebilir. Bu programlar, çocuk, genç ve yetişkin olmak üzere değişik yaş gruplarında, farklı cinslere, farklı meslek gruplarına, farklı yerleşim birimlerindeki izleyici kümelerine yönelik olabilir (Özgen, 1985).

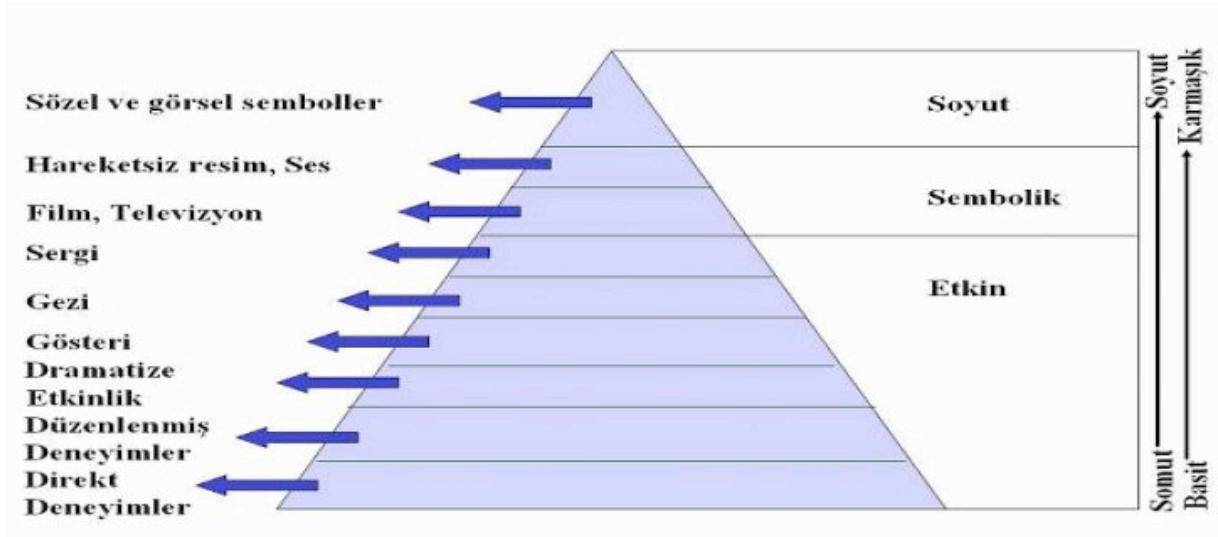
Televizyonun genel yayın programları içerisindeki, belirli izleyici kümelerini, belirli amaçlar doğrultusunda eğitmeyi amaçlayan programların yanı sıra, televizyonun doğrudan doğruya örgün eğitime yönelik “eğitim programları” da söz konusudur. Bu tür programlar, öğretim programlarıyla uygunluk gösteren, okul derslerine paralel olarak hazırlanan ve örgün eğitimi destekleyici programlardır. Televizyonun eğitim amacıyla kullanılışı, doğrudan eğitim veya zenginleştirici eğitim olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır (McQuail, 1973; Swallow, 1973; Türkoğlu, 1983).

Televizyon yayınları, ister genel yayın programı içerisindeki eğitici yayınlar; isterse okul programlarına paralel, okuldaki öğretimi destekleyici, tamamlayıcı ve doğrudan örgün eğitime yönelik eğitim yayınları olsun; temelde davranış değiştirmeye ve izleyici açısından öğrenmeye, televizyon açısından öğretmeye dayanmaktadır (Groombridge, 1976).

Gelişmiş, eğitilmiş ve modern toplumlar seviyesine ulaşabilmek için her kurum yapması gerekenleri belirlemelidir. Bu bakış açısıyla televizyonlar, halkı bilinçlendirme, yönlendirme, eğitim ve öğretim işlevlerinden yararlanma anlamında önemli görevler üstlendiklerini fark etmelidir. Kitle kültürünü geliştiren televizyonun kitle iletişim aracı olarak insanlar üzerindeki eğitici rolünden sınırlı yararlanılmaktadır. Televizyon, eğitim televizyonu olarak bilinçli ve amaca uygun kullanıldığında faydalı bir araç olabilir. Televizyon programları da eğlendirmenin yanı sıra, eğitim ve öğretim gibi farklı amaçlara hizmet edebilmelidir.

Televizyonla eğitim uygulamaları bireylerin hayatın gerektirdiği temel bilgi, beceri ve alışkanlıkları kazanmalarına yardımcı olacak ve örgün eğitimle sağlanamayan temel eğitimi gerçekleştirecek şekilde kullanılmaktadır. Televizyonun bu şekilde kullanılması “fonksiyonel eğitim” olarak adlandırılmaktadır. Fonksiyonel eğitim ile ilgili uygulamalar, okuma-yazma eğitiminden mesleklerle ilgili eğitime, sağlık ile ilgili eğitimden toplum kalkınmasına ve üretime yönelik eğitime varıncaya kadar, çok çeşitli konu ve alanlarda gerçekleştirilmiştir (Topuz, 1985; Türkoğlu, 1984; Aziz, 1982).

Televizyonu, diğer eğitim araçları arasında belirgin hale getiren ve onu iletişim ve öğrenme süreçleri yönünden önemini arttıran üç önemli özelliği bulunmaktadır. Bunlardan birincisi ve en önemlisi, çok uzaklarda oluşan olayları ve olguları, oldukları anda, oldukları gibi, sesleriyle ve hatta doğal renkleriyle gösterebilmesidir. İkincisi ise, olay ve olguların görüntü ve seslerini çok geniş bir alana yayılmış insan kitlelerine ulaştırabilmesidir. Televizyonun üçüncü önemli özelliği ise, Dale’in yaşantı konisinde sıralanmış olan bütün eğitim araç ve yöntemlerini ayrı ayrı ya da bir arada kullanarak göz ve kulak yoluyla edinilebilen bütün yaşantı çeşitlerini kazandırabilmesidir. Bu üç özellik televizyona hiçbir eğitim aracının erişemediği bir değer kazandırmıştır (Çilenti, 1982).



Şekil 4: Edgar DALE'in Yaşantı Konisi

Yaşantı konisi ile bireylerin yaşantıları ve öğrenmeleri arasındaki bağlantılar gösterilmeye çalışılmıştır. Öğrenmenin kalıcı olabilmesi bazı koşullara bağlıdır. Bunlar:

- Öğrenme; basitten karmaşığa, somuttan soyuta yönelerek gerçekleşmelidir,
- Öğrenme süreci ne kadar çok duyuya hitap ederse, öğrenme de o kadar kalıcı olur,
- Öğrenme için en etkili ve yardımcı organ gözdür,
- İletişim ve öğrenme süreçlerine dâhil olan bireylerin aktif katılımlarının sağlanması ile, kalıcı öğrenme daha yüksek oranda gerçekleşebilir.

PROGRAM ÇEŞİTLİLİĞİ İLE TVA



TVA'da Yayınlanan Program Adı	Anadolu Haber'deki Yayın Tarihi	Anadolu Haberinin Sayı Numarası
Fuaye: Programda, Eskişehir ve kampustaki kültür, sanat etkinlikleri konu ediliyor.	17 Kasım 2006	394
7 Gün Spor: Hafta boyunca Eskişehir'de gerçekleşen spor etkinliklerinin panoraması veriliyor.	24 Kasım 2006	395
Hukuk Günlüğü: Hukuk alanının bilinmeyen yönleri araştırıyor ve değerlendiriliyor.	1 Aralık 2006	396
Açık Kapı: Anadolu Üniversitesi'nin sosyal, kültürel, sanatsal ve sportif etkinliklerinin yapıldığı mekânlar tanıtılıyor.	8 Aralık 2006	397
Bilim Sohbetleri: İleri teknolojiye yönelik olarak bilimdeki gelişmeler ve uygulamaların anlatıldığı programda, Anadolu Üniversitesi'nin kaydettiği gelişmeler de inceleniyor.	15 Aralık 2006	398

Kent ve Kültür: Eskişehirlielerin yaşamları ve halkın günlük hayatını ilgilendiren gelişmeler anlatılıyor.	22 Aralık 2006	399
Metronom: Daha çok film müziklerine yer verilen programda, yerel gruplarla gerçekleştirilen söyleşiler de yayınlanıyor.	29 Aralık 2006	400
Kampusun Ritmi: Her hafta bir Üniversite kulübü ele alınıyor.	12 Ocak 2007	401
Ekonomi Gündemi: Türkiye’de ekonomide yaşanan son gelişmeler tartışılıyor.	19 Ocak 2007	402
Yaşayan Hukuk: Yurttaşların günlük hayatta karşılaştıkları çeşitli hukuki problemler, uzman konuklarla değerlendiriliyor.	26 Ocak 2007	403
Kalemin Dili: Her hafta farklı uzmanlık alanlarından gazetecilerin konuk oldukları programda, Türkiye’nin sorunları ve bu sorunların çözümleri masaya yatırılarak konuşuluyor.	2 Şubat 2007	404
Sağlık Saati: Her hafta uzman bir doktor eşliğinde, bir sağlık problemi tartışılıyor.	9 Şubat 2007	405
Özgün Düşünenler: Programda her hafta seçilen bir yazar, eserleriyle tanıtıyor.	16 Şubat 2007	406
Soruyorum: Farklı Fakültelerden öğrencilerin konuk olduğu programda öğrencilerin ve ileride çalışacakları sektörlerin sorunları ele alınıyor.	23 Şubat 2007	407
Senkron: Popüler şarkılar ve kliplerle ilgili bilgilere yer veriliyor.	2 Mart 2007	408
Yaşamın İçinden: Programda, Türkiye’de yaşayan yabancıların, Türkleri nasıl değerlendirdikleri ele alınıyor.	9 Mart 2007	409
Herkes İçin Spor: Alternatif sporların tanıtıldığı programda, izleyicilerin spora yönelmeleri ve spor hakkında bilgi sahibi olmaları amaçlanıyor.	16 Mart 2007	410
Girişimcilik Saati: Uzman kişilerin konuk olduğu programda, girişimcilikle ilgili bilgiler veriliyor.	23 Mart 2007	411
Genç Olmak: Üniversite öğrencilerinin; fiziksel, bilişsel ve psikolojik sorunlarına yer veriliyor.	30 Mart 2007	412
TVA’da Yayınlanan Program Adı	Anadolu Haber’deki Yayın Tarihi	Anadolu Haberin Sayı Numarası
Sigortalı Yaşam: Programda, sigorta sektöründeki gelişmeler masaya yatırılıyor.	6 Nisan 2007	413
Sanat Dönencesi: Sanata dair bilinmeyenlerin paylaşıldığı programda, farklı sanat dalları tanıtıyor.	13 Nisan 2007	414
Tercih Zamanı: Üniversite sınavı sonrasında tercihte bulunacak öğrenciler için, her hafta farklı bir Fakülte tanıtılıyor.	20 Nisan 2007	415
Fragman: Vizyona giren filmler tanıtılıyor.	27 Nisan 2007	416
İz Televizyon Kuşağı: İz televizyonunda yayınlanan belgesellerden seçme yapımlara yer veriliyor.	4 Mayıs 2007	417
Sanat Dönencesi: Sanata dair bilinmeyenlerin paylaşıldığı programda, farklı sanat dalları tanıtıyor.	11 Mayıs 2007	418
Haber Bülteni: Kampustaki gelişmeler ekranlara geliyor.	18 Mayıs 2007	419
Girişimcilik Saati: Uzman kişilerin konuk olduğu programda, girişimcilikle ilgili bilgiler veriliyor.	25 Mayıs 2007	420
Sine düş Kuşağı: Her hafta sinema tarihinde, beyaz perdede önemli yeri olan bir filme, ekranlarda yer veriliyor.	1 Haziran 2007	421
Fuaye: Programda, Eskişehir ve kampustaki kültür, sanat etkinlikleri konu ediliyor.	8 Haziran 2007	422
Sağlık Saati: Her hafta uzman bir doktor eşliğinde, bir sağlık problemi tartışılıyor.	15 Haziran 2007	423
Özgün Düşünenler: Programda her hafta seçilen bir yazar, eserleriyle tanıtıyor.	22 Haziran 2007	424
Yaşayan Hukuk: Yurttaşların günlük hayatta karşılaştıkları çeşitli hukuki problemler, uzman konuklarla değerlendiriliyor.	13 Temmuz 2007	425

Sine düş Kuşağı: Her hafta sinema tarihinde, beyaz perdede önemli yeri olan bir filme, ekranlarda yer veriliyor.	20 Temmuz 2007	426
Anadolu'da Arkeoloji: Anadolu Üniversitesi'nin gerçekleştirdiği arkeoloji çalışmaları başta olmak üzere, bölgedeki arkeolojik çalışmalar ve kazılar hakkında bilgi veriliyor.	27 Temmuz 2007	427
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Şekil 5: Anadolu Haberde Tanıtılan TV A'da Yayınlanan Programlar

SONUÇ ve ÖNERİLER

Sahip oldukları işlevlerle birlikte geniş bir sunum alanı olan kitle iletişim araçlarının toplumsal yararları dikkate alınmalıdır. Teknolojik olanakları sayesinde sürekli değişme ve gelişme eğiliminde olan medya, dinamik toplumsal kurumlardır.

Televizyonun eğitim ve öğretim işlevlerini yerine getirip, getiremediği, televizyon yayınlarının ve programlarının eğitim amacıyla kullanılıp, kullanılmaması gerektiği akademik çevreler başta olmak üzere, televizyon yayınlarını üreten ve yayınlayan kurumlar tarafından da tartışılmaktadır. Kuramcılar ve araştırmacıların bir bölümü televizyonu eğlendiren, görsel bir kitle iletişim aracı olarak değerlendirerek, eğitici nitelikten uzak bir araç olduğu görüşünü savunmaktadır. Diğer bölümü ise planlı, programlı ve uygun koşullarda eğitim amaçlı kullanılabilen görüşünü öne sürmektedir.

Farklı görüşlere rağmen televizyon, toplumsal eğitim ve öğretim faaliyetlerine doğrudan veya dolaylı olarak katkıda bulunma eğilimindedir. Televizyon, eğitim ve öğretim işlevini yerine getirirken, sorumluluklarını da üstlenebilmelidir. Televizyon aracılığıyla eğitim yapılması, ülkelerin gelişmişlik düzeyleriyle orantılı biçimde kullanılmaktadır.

Kitle iletişim araçları arasında radyo ve televizyona eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerinde Açık ve Uzaktan eğitim sisteminde yer verilmektedir. 1969 yılında kurulan İngiltere Açık Üniversitesi'nin, kamu televizyonu BBC ile birlikte gerçekleştirdiği eğitsel televizyon programları bu alanın ilk ve başarılı örneğini oluşturmaktadır. Türkiye'de 1982 yılında kurulan Açıköğretim Fakültesi'nde, eğitim-öğretim aracı olarak yararlanılan ders kitaplarının yanı sıra, ETV'de çekilen, derslere yönelik televizyon programlarından da yararlanılmıştır. Önceleri TRT 4 kanalında yayınlanan Açıköğretim televizyon programları, günümüzde Anadolu Üniversitesi ve kamu televizyonu TRT tarafından birlikte yürütülen TRT Okul kanalında yayınlanmaktadır. TRT Okul kanalı, 31 Ocak 2011 tarihinde yayın hayatına başlamış ve halen devam etmektedir.

Radyo ve Televizyon Üst Kurulunun 3984 sayılı kanun çerçevesi içinde verdiği izinle Anadolu Üniversitesi Televizyonu TVA (Televizyon Anadolu) kurulmuştur. TV A 27 Eylül 2004 tarihinde, Anadolu Üniversitesi'nin 2004-2005 Öğretim Yılı açılış törenini canlı yayınlarken, yayın hayatını başlatmıştır. Açıköğretim Fakültesi ile İletişim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nin uzun yıllarla dayanan yayıncılık, eğitim ve öğretim deneyimini kullanarak yayın yapan TVA, kimliğini "eğitim, kültür ve sanat" programları çerçevesinde oluşturmuştur. TVA, kaliteli kamusal yayıncılığı kendine hedef olarak belirlemiştir. Bu doğrultuda tüm fakülteleri ve birimleriyle birlikte çalışan TVA, aynı zamanda sahip olduğu profesyonel, modern ve nitelikli yayıncılık teknolojisi ile öğrencilere profesyonel hayatta karşılaştıkları bir eğitim ortamını da sunmuştur.

Televizyon Anadolu, kısa adı ile TVA, Anadolu Üniversitesi'ne ait bir televizyon kanalı olarak Eskişehir'de yerel olarak yayın yapmıştır. Yönetmenler, kameramanlar, kurgu operatörleri, resim seçiciler ve diğer tüm çalışanlar Anadolu Üniversitesi öğrencilerinden oluşmuştur. Yayınlanan programların; yapım, yönetim ve sunum aşamalarında öğretim görevlileri ve öğretim üyeleri de görev almıştır.

TV A'da çeşitli sanatçı ve orkestraların konserleriyle birlikte, filmler ve belgeseller de yayınlanmıştır. Anadolu Haber'de yer alan programların yanı sıra; "Sanata Dair", "Hepsi Evcil", "Senkron", "Yaşamın Sesleri- Yaşamın Yüzleri", "3 Dakika", "Dil Bir Aynadır", "Yaşamın İçinden", "Profil Dışı", "Net Bilgi", "Zamanım Var", "Düşünceden Ürüne", "50. Yıl'ın Birincileri", "Turkuaz", "Teyp-Desibel", "Hayatı Yaşanır Kılanlar", "Sözden Söze", "Bu İşin Ustaları", "Rock Günlüğü", "Karagöz Akademisi", "Dönüşümler", "Kültürün Dili Dans", "Geçmişten Bugüne", "Biraz Yemek Biraz Kültür", "Mitoloji", "Sağlık için Spor", "Seslerin Rengi", "Değişen Zamanlar", "Cilasız Sözler", "Fotoğrafın Dünyası", "Gece ve Eskişehir", "Dünya ve Eskişehir", v.b. programlar da yayınlanmıştır.

Televizyonun eğitim ve öğretim işlevinden yararlanması gerekmektedir. Bu amaçla, (ETV ve TVA deneyimlerinden yola çıkarak, halen yayın yapan TRT Okul örnekleri de göz önünde bulundurularak) öncü ve nitelikli yayınlar yürüten kamu televizyonları ve Üniversiteler desteklenmelidir. Bununla beraber benzeri çalışmaların gerçekleştirilmesi için gerekli olanaklar sağlanmalıdır.

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Fizyoterapi eğitimi konusunda mezuniyet dönemi öğrencilerinden ve öğretim elemanlarından alınan geri bildirimlerin incelenmesi ve sonuçların değerlendirilmesi

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AMAÇ: Bu pilot çalışmanın amacı, son sınıf öğrencileri ve öğretim elemanlarının üniversite ortamı, olanakları ve fizyoterapi eğitiminden duydukları memnuniyet açısından geri bildirimlerini incelemektir.

GEREÇ VE YÖNTEM: Araştırma Pamukkale ve Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Fizyoterapi ve Rehabilitasyon Bölümlerinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Son sınıf öğrencilerinin (N=102; yaş ort.: 22.9±1.9 yıl) ve öğretim elemanlarının (N=11; yaş ort.: 39.4±6 yıl) üniversite ortamı, bölüm olanakları ve yürütülmekte olan fizyoterapi programından memnuniyetlerini değerlendirmek için iki anket kullanılmıştır: (1) öğrencilerin ve öğretim elemanlarının memnuniyet düzeylerini belirleyen 25 soruluk anket (cronbach alfa: 0.90); (2) öğrencilerin öğretim üyelerini değerlendikleri 20 soruluk anket (cronbach alfa: 0.95).

SONUÇLAR: Öğrencilerin eğitim programının içeriği, stajların etkinliği kategorisindeki memnuniyet düzeyi çok yüksek iken, fiziksel ortam ve araç-gereç yeterliliği kategorisinde çok düşüktü. Öğretim elemanlarının stajların etkinliği ve öğrenciyeye kazandırılan mesleki beceriler kategorisindeki memnuniyet düzeyi çok yüksek iken, fiziksel ortam kategorisinde çok düşüktü. Öğrencilerin, öğretim elemanlarını değerlendirdikleri ankette memnuniyet düzeyi iletişim becerileri, sınav soruları ve not verme kategorilerinde çok düşük iken, ders hazırlığı, kullanılan materyal ve bilgi paylaşımı-tartışma kategorilerinde çok yüksekti.

KARAR: Üniversite eğitiminde kalite standartlarının yüksek tutulabilmesi ve uygun düzeyde eğitim verilebilmesi için paydaşların görüş ve önerilerinin dikkate alınması önemlidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: fizyoterapi eğitimi, öğrenci memnuniyeti, eğitici

Analysing final year physiotherapy students and teaching staff feedback related physiotherapy education

AIM: In this pilot study conducted in two universities offering physiotherapy education in Turkey, the aim is to evaluate final year physiotherapy students and teaching staff feedback in terms of physical environment, possibilities, and physiotherapy education. **METHODS:** This study was conducted in two physiotherapy departments in Pamukkale University and Dumlupınar University. Final year physiotherapy students (N=102; mean age: 22.9±1.9 yr) and teaching staff (N=11; mean age: 39.4±6 yr) were asked to give their feedback in terms of physical environment, possibilities, and physiotherapy education. To obtain the feedback from the participants, two questionnaires were used: (1) the first questionnaire consisting of 25 questions reflecting the students and teaching staff feedback related physical environment, possibilities, and physiotherapy education (cronbach alfa: 0.90); (2) the second one consisting of 20 questions reflecting the students satisfaction and dissatisfaction about teaching staff (cronbach alfa: 0.95). **RESULTS:** While the students reported higher scores in terms of the curriculum and the effectiveness of clinical placement, they gave negative feedback about physical environment of the classes and laboratories. Teaching staff satisfied about clinical placement and professional competencies of the students. The teaching staff also gave negative feedback in terms of physical environment. Students rated their lecturers as poor in terms of communication, exam questions, and grading style. On the other hand, the students satisfied with the teaching staff professional experiences, course preparation, and material used during the presentations in the classroom. **CONCLUSION:** To

keep higher the quality assurance in higher education and to offer relevant education in physiotherapy, the stakeholders, including students and teaching staff feedback should be considered.

Key Words: physiotherapy education, student satisfaction, lecturer

Giriş

Fizyoterapistlik mesleği 20. yy'ın başlarında savaşlardaki yaralanmalar ve artan poliomiyelit vakalarını tedavi etmek amacıyla geliştirilmiş bir meslektir. Toplumun ihtiyacını karşılamaya yönelik primer sağlık ekibinde yer alan pozitif bilime hizmet eden meslek kollarından biridir. Bu meslekte klinik tedavi ve sağlığı geliştirici programlar temel davranış ve sosyal bilimlerin prensipleri doğrultusunda uygulanır. Mesleğin mezuniyet sonrası eğitimi boyunca uzun dönemdeki hedefleri ve süreçlerini geliştirmeye yönelik beklentileri tanımlanmıştır ("PT Evaluative Criteria," 2013). Fizyoterapi eğitim standartlarının oluşturulduğu rehberler de bulunmaktadır ("Guide to Physical Therapist Practice", 2001, Alexandria, VA 2004, "APTA Guide for Professional Conduct", 2010 "APTA Physical Therapist Clinical Education Principles", 2007).

Fizyoterapi eğitimi temel bilimler (fizik, kimya, biyoloji, istatistik) ile anatomi, fizyoloji gibi temel tıp bilimlerinin yanı sıra temel ve klinik mesleki beceriler üzerine inşa edilmiştir. Sosyal bilimler, sanat, temel bilimler ve genel eğitim ile kazandırılan beceriler öğrencilere ilgi alanlarını keşfetme fırsatı vermelidir. (Lake, 2003)

Fizyoterapi eğitiminin teorik ve pratik olmak üzere iki önemli komponenti vardır. Teorik ve pratik eğitim, öğrencinin sınıfta ve laboratuarda fiziksel, biyolojik ve davranışsal bilgi, beceri, tutum ve fizik tedavi uygulamaları için gerekli olan becerileri kazandırmayı hedefler. İdeal bir eğitim ortamında öğrencilerin farklı düşünme stilleri ile farklı mesleki ve toplumsal kavramları tanımlamaları, toplum ve meslek için kendi sorumluluklarını yerine getirmeye yardımcı olacak etik davranışları ve problem çözmede büyük önem taşıyan eleştirel düşünme özelliğini kazanmaları sağlanır ("PT Evaluative Criteria," 2013).

Fizyoterapi eğitiminde öğretim elemanları performansını geliştirmeye yönelik 17 standart tanımlanmıştır. Genel olarak öğretim elemanlarının performansları için mevcut ve potansiyel engeller: tesis, fizik tedavi mesleğinin mali / ekonomik koşulları ve teknolojik donanım olarak belirlenmiştir ("Office of Minority Health, 2001). Fizyoterapi eğitiminin gerçekleştirildiği klinik eğitim merkezleri (okulları) öğrencilerin bilgi teminini, tutumlarını ve becerilerini geliştirmeyi amaçlayan akademik ve klinik aktivitelerin, uygulamalı analiz ve sentezinin gerçekleştirilmesi yönüyle hayati önem taşımaktadır (Barr, Gwyer, Talmor, 1982). Bu bağlamda klinik ortamların ve eğitim ortamlarının değerlendirilmesinin gerekliliği kaçınılmazdır.

Fizyoterapi eğitimi ile ilgili öğrencilerin gerek eğitim programına gerekse öğretim elemanlarına bakış açısını irdeleyen anket çalışmaları literatürde mevcuttur [Hayes, Huber, Rogers, Sanders (1999), Morren, Gordon, Sawyer (2008), Buccieri, Brown, Malta, Ward, (2008)]. Ancak öğretim elemanları ve öğrenci bakış açısının birlikte değerlendirildiği ve sonuçların incelendiği nitelikteki çalışmalar ülkemiz literatüründe yok denecek kadar azdır. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı ülkemizde sayıları giderek artan fizyoterapi okulları/bölümlerinde eğitim alan öğrenciler ile görev alan öğretim elemanlarının fizyoterapi eğitimi ile ilgili memnuniyet düzeylerini belirleyerek, bu konuda ülkemiz için yol gösterici olabilecek bilgi bankasını oluşturmaktır. Ayrıca bu sonuçlardan hareketle eğitimciler, yöneticiler ve sorumlu kurumlara stratejik planlama yaparken kullanabilecekleri sonuç ve öneriler sunulmaktadır.

Materyal ve Metod

Bu pilot çalışma tanımlayıcı kesitsel bir çalışmadır. Katılımcılar (N= 113) araştırma kriterlerine uygun iki üniversitede gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu çalışma Pamukkale Üniversitesi Etik Kurulu tarafından onaylanmıştır. Son sınıf öğrencilerinin (N=102; yaş ort.: 22.9±1.9 yıl) ve öğretim elemanlarının (N=11; yaş ort.: 39.4±6 yıl) üniversite ortamı, bölüm olanakları ve yürütülmekte olan fizyoterapi programından memnuniyetlerini değerlendirmek için iki anket kullanılmıştır: (1) öğrencilerin ve öğretim elemanlarının memnuniyet düzeylerini belirleyen 25 soruluk anket (cronbach alfa: 0.90); (2) öğrencilerin öğretim üyelerini değerlendikleri 20 soruluk anket (cronbach alfa: 0.95).

Anketlerde yer alan önermelerin değerlendirilmesi beş kısımdan oluşan (Kesinlikle katılmıyorum:1, Tamamen Katılıyorum:5) Likert tipi ölçekler ile yapılmıştır. Anketlerde yer alan önermeler daha önce uygulanmış ve mevcut uygulanmakta olan anketlerden oluşturulmuştur [Jarski, Kulig, Olson R (1990), Buccieri, Brown, Malta, Ward (2008), Morren, Gordon, Sawyer (2008), Housel, Emeritus, Gandy, Edmondson (2010)]. Konu ile ilgili bir eğitim fakültesinin ölçme ve değerlendirme anabilim dalından iki ve bir tıp fakültesinin biyoistatistik anabilim dalından bir olmak üzere, toplam üç uzmandan görüş alınmıştır. Çalışmanın yapılacağı okullar/bölümlerden gerekli izinler alınmıştır. Çalışma gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Katılımcılara çalışmanın amacı, gerekçesi ve anket içeriği detaylı bir şekilde açıklandıktan sonra anketler dağıtılmıştır.

Katılımcılardan önermeleri objektif yorumlayabilmeleri ve kendilerini baskı altında hissetmemeleri için isimlerini yazmamaları istenmiştir.

Verilerin Analizi Yöntemi: Araştırmadan elde edilen verilerin analizi Statistical Package For Social Science (SPSS) 20.0 paket programında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmada kullanılan ölçeğin güvenilirliğini test etmek için güvenilirlik analizi uygulanmıştır. Araştırmada verilerin analizinde tanımlayıcı istatistikler de yapılmıştır. Katılımcıların tanımlayıcı verileri ortalama, standart sapma, sayı ve yüzde olarak verilmiştir. Öğrenciler ve öğretim elemanlarının memnuniyet sonuçları % olarak verilmiştir. Öğrencilerin öğretim elemanlarından memnuniyetleri de % olarak gösterilmiştir.

Ölçeklerin geçerlik ve güvenilirliğini belirlemek için aşağıdaki yöntemler kullanılmıştır.

1. Güvenirlik çalışması: iç tutarlığın (internal consistency) belirlenmesinde “Cronbach alfa” Güvenirlik Katsayısı” kullanılmıştır.
2. Test-tekrar test güvenilirliği: test-tekrar test puanları arasındaki ilişkinin belirlenmesinde “Pearson Momentler Çarpımı Korelasyon Analizi”, test-tekrar test puan ortalamalarının karşılaştırılmasında “Bağımlı Gruplarda t Testi kullanılmıştır.

Sonuçlar

Çalışma 58’i kadın 44’ü erkek yaş ortalaması 22,95±1,62 toplam 102 öğrenci; 7’si kadın 4’ü erkek, yaş ortalaması 39,41±6,05 olan 11 öğretim elemanı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Öğrencilerin genel akademik ortalamaları 3,07±0,36’dır (Tablo 1).

Öğrenciler ve öğretim elemanlarının okullarını ve fizyoterapi eğitimini değerlendirdikleri ilk anketten alınan geri bildirimler: işlenen konuların öğrencinin anlayabileceği düzeyde olduğu, yürütülen stajların mesleğe hazırlık açısından katkısı olduğu ve öğrencilerin problemi çözmek için, güncel teknik ve yöntemleri kullanma yeteneğini geliştirdiği yönündedir. Kantin ve dinlenme alanlarının yeterli donanıma sahip olmaması, sınıfların fiziki olanaklarının yetersiz olması ve sınıf mevcudunun uygun sayıda olmaması negatif yöndeki geri bildirimlerdir (Tablo 2).

Öğrencilerin öğretim elemanlarını değerlendirdikleri ikinci anketten alınan olumlu geri bildirimler şu şekildedir:

- a. Öğretim elemanları yardımcı ders araçlarını (Örneğin WebCT, görsel-işitsel sunumlar, Power point sunumları, e-posta) etkin bir şekilde kullanmaktadır
- b. Öğretim elemanlarının bilgi aktarımları ve açıklamalarının anlaşılır düzeydedir
- c. Öğretim elemanları öğrencilerin ihtiyacı olan ders notlarını öğrencilere ulaştırmaktadırlar

Öğrencilerin öğretim elemanlarını değerlendirdikleri ikinci anketten alınan olumsuz geri bildirimler şu şekildedir:

- a. Öğretim elemanları öğrencilerin akademik durumlarını takip ederek gerekli uyarılarda bulunmazlar ve yol göstermezler,
- b. Öğretim elemanlarının hazırladıkları sınav soruları yapıcı ve öğretici değildir. Derste işlenen konuları kapsamaz,
- c. Öğretim elemanlarının sınavlarda verdikleri notlar öğrencilerin derse ilişkin bilgisini yansıtmaz.

Öğrencilerin öğretim elemanlarını değerlendirdikleri 2. anketten alınan olumlu/olumsuz geri bildirimler Tablo 3’de detaylı olarak gösterilmiştir.

Tartışma

Bu araştırmanın sonuçları ülkemizde fizyoterapi eğitimi veren kurumlardaki sorumlu akademisyenlerin ve ilgili yöneticilerin eğitim planlanmasında aşamasında ve eğitim sürecinde öğrenci ve öğretim elemanları gibi paydaşların memnuniyetlerini, beklentilerini ve eleştirilerini dikkate almalarının önemli olduğunu açıkça göstermiştir. Zira, bu konu kalite standartlarını sağlamak ve öğrencileri mezuniyet sonrasında daha donanımlı hazırlayabilmek için önemlidir. Özellikle klinik eğitim müfredatının bileşenleri iş seçimi ve pratik uygulama alan seçimi için öğrencilere henüz fizyoterapist olmadan önce yol gösterme olanağı sağlamak açısından da hayati önem taşımaktadır (Stith J F, Butterfield WH, Strube MJ, Deusinge SS, Gillespie DF,1998). Fizyoterapi Eğitimi Akreditasyon Komisyonu (CAPTE) ölçülebilir kriterleri ile fizyoterapi eğitim programları 1995 yılı Şubat ayında klinisyenler ve akademisyenlerden bilgiler doğrultusunda revize edilmeye başlanmıştır. American Physical Therapy Association (APTA) fizyoterapi eğitiminde kaliteyi arttırmak için farklı ülkelerdeki

fizyoterapistlerle yaptığı çalışmalardan elde edilen kanıtlar ile “Consensus Model of Physical Therapist Professional Education” başlıklı bir rapor yayınlamıştır. APTA’nın temel iki amacı vardır: Yüksek iş hacmi ve yüksek donanımlı kaliteye sahip fakülteler oluşturmaktır (Harrison AL, Kelly DG, 1996). Bu çalışmanın uzak hedeflerinden biri de bu düşüncüyü kapsamaktadır.

Devebakan ve diğerleri (2003) Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi’nde lisansüstü eğitim kalitesini arttırmaya yönelik yaptıkları çalışmada eğitim programları değerlendirilmesinde sadece öğrenci başarı düzeylerinin belirleyici olmadığını bildirmişlerdir. Öğrencilerin öğretim elemanlarını değerlendirdikleri anket çalışması sonucunda ders programlarının, ders içeriklerinin güncellenmesi gerektiği ve güncel sunum tekniklerinin daha etkin kullanılması gerektiğinin yanı sıra öğretim elemanlarının iletişim, bilgi beceri ve öğretme konusunda motive olduklarını bulmuşlar. Robert W Jarski ve diğerleri 1990 yılında yaptıkları çalışmalarında öğrenciler ve öğretim elemanları klinik öğretim programlarını değerlendirmişlerdir. Seçilen 8 üniversitedeki öğrenci ve öğretim elemanlarına uygulanan 58 soruluk bir anket ile iletişim becerilerinin, mesleki becerilerin eğitim programındaki etkinliğini araştırmışlar. “Soru sorma” ve “tartışma ortamı yaratma”, “öğretim elemanlarının sorulara açık cevap vermeleri” ve “klinik stajlarda öğrenciyle aktif katılmaları” gibi faktörlerin öğrenmeyi daha çok kolaylaştırdığını saptamışlardır. Klinik çalışma alanlarının yetersiz oluşu, derslerin zamanında başlayıp bitirilememesinin ise öğrenmeyi en çok engelleyen faktörler olduğunu belirlemişlerdir. Natalie ve diğerlerinin (2010) öğrenci aracılığıyla öğretim elemanlarının klinik deneyimlerinin öğretmedeki etkinliğini değerlendirdikleri çalışmalarında, öğrencinin öğrenim stilini dikkate alması ve buna göre program değişikliği yapması, yapıcı eleştirilerde bulunması, arkadaşça yaklaşımı, gerektiği yerde öğrenciye sorumluluk vermesi açısından öğretim elemanlarının deneyimlerinin istatistiksel açıdan önemli olmadığını bildirmişlerdir. Shokooh ve diğerleri (2009) öğretim elemanlarının deneyim süreleri ile öğrencilerin verdikleri cevaplar arasında negatif korelasyon bulmuşlardır.

Üniversite bünyesinde yürütülen konuşma terapisi, iş uğraşı terapisi ve genel fizyoterapi programlarının öğrenci ve öğretim elemanları tarafından klinik önemi ve başarılarının algılanma düzeylerini karşılaştırmışlar. Hastaların tedavilerinin belgelenmesi, hükümet tarafından uygulanan yasal düzenlemeler hakkında bilgilendirme, diğer aile üyeleri üzerinde kronik hastalığın etkisini anlama, kronik hastalığı olan kişilerin bakımında etik / yasal sorunları çözme konusunda programın yeterli olmadığını belirtmişlerdir (Ziaee ve diğerleri, 2004). Literatürde yer alan çalışmalardan elde edilen ortak sonuçlar şu şekilde sıralanabilir:

1. Fizyoterapi eğitiminde kalite standartlarının oluşturulmasında öğrenci ve öğretim üyelerinin görüşleri önemli belirleyicilerdir.
2. Bu konuda daha çok araştırma yapılmalıdır.
3. Öğretim elemanlarının fizyoterapi eğitimi konusunda yeterli donanıma ve deneyime sahip olmaları gerekmektedir.
4. Öğrenci katılımını klinik uygulamalarda ve teorik eğitimde sağlanmasının önemlidir.

Bu çalışmadan elde edilen pragmatik olumsuz sonuçlar:

1. Fiziksel ortam ve fizyoterapiye özgü ekipman eksikliği çok önemli bir sorun olarak öne çıkmaktadır.
2. Klinik çalışma alanlarının yetersiz olduğu vurgulanmaktadır.
3. Öğretim elemanlarının sınavlarda öğrencinin bilgi düzeyini objektif olarak değerlendiremedikleri göze çarpmaktadır.
4. Kantin ve dinlenme gibi fiziki olanakların yetersiz olduğu ifade edilmektedir.

Genelin bir kısmını temsil eden bu pilot çalışma tamamlandığında yapılması planlanan iyileştirme çalışmalarına temel teşkil edecek veriler elde edilmiş olacaktır. Bu çalışmada fizyoterapi eğitimine özgü standart bir anketin geliştirilmesi ve düzenli olarak uygulanarak geri bildirimlerin alınabilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Sonuçlar buna ihtiyaç duyulduğunu kanıtlamıştır. Anketin kullanılması fizyoterapi eğitim kalitesinin ileri düzeylere taşınması açısından değerli olacaktır.

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Tablo 1. Öğrenci ve öğretim elemanlarının demografik özellikleri ortalama, standart sapma, sayı ve yüzde dağılımı

Değişkenler	Öğrenci	Öğretim elemanı
Yaş, yıl	22,9±1,6	39,4±6
k/e	58/44	7/4
Akademik ortalama	3,07±0,36 / 4	-
Hizmet yılı	-	15,5±3,3

Tablo 2. Öğrenci (N=102) ve öğretim elemanlarının (N=11) okullarını ve fizyoterapi eğitimini değerlendirdikleri ilk ankette bulunan önermelere verdikleri yanıtların yüzde (%) dağılımları

No	Önermeler	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde teorik ve uygulamalı eğitim dengeli olarak verilir.	3	32	23	35	8
2	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki eğitim süresi (4 yıl) yeterlidir.*	15	34	15	20	17
3	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde dersler ve içerikleri güncellenir.	8	42	28	16	6
4	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde işlenen konular öğrencinin anlayabileceği düzeydedir.	6	62	23	6	3
5	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde derslerin işleniş için ayrılan süre yeterlidir.	5	39	25	26	5
6	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde ders araları (tenefüsler) için ayrılan süre yeterlidir.	8	54	18	15	5
7	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki kantin ve dinlenme alanları yeterli donanımına sahiptir.	9	13	8	34	44
8	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki sınıfların dizaynı ders işleyişinin rahat sağlanabildiği biçimdedir.	9	12	10	40	38
9	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde sınıf mevcudu uygun sayıdadır.	9	10	5	35	50
10	Okulumuzun/Bölümümüzün içi ve dışı temizdir.	12	44	17	20	6
11	Okulumuz/Bölümümüz teknolojik (bilgisayar, internet vb.) donanım bakımından yeterlidir.	2	17	22	37	22
12	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki sınıflarda veya uygulamalı derslerin yapıldığı salonlarda (Laboratuvar) yeterli araç gereç (maket, değerlendirme gereçleri ...vb) bulunur.	1	4	17	50	28
13	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde hazırlanan sınav soruları ve yapılan değerlendirmeler öğrencinin gerçek başarısını ölçer.	3	18	25	34	21
14	Okulumuz/Bölümümüz ve yönetim kadroları öğrencilerin sorunlarına ilişkin etkin kariyer danışmanlığı ve ders/akademik danışmanlık desteği verir.	4	35	28	21	12
15	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde yürütülen stajların mesleğe hazırlık açısından katkısı vardır.	23	53	8	10	6
16	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde uygulanan eğitimde öğrenciler yeterince hasta görme imkanına sahiptirler.	12	32	14	24	19
17	Okulumuzda/Bölümümüzde eğitim gören öğrenciler mezuniyet sonrası mesleğin gerektirdiği biçimde uygulamaları yapmaya hazırdırlar.	11	38	36	12	4
18	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki fizyoterapi eğitim programı öğrencilerin hastalarla karşılaşabilecekleri iletişim problemlerini çözmeye becerisini kazandırır.	9	50	18	19	58
19	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki fizyoterapi eğitim programı öğrencilerin klinikte karşılaşılan hastalıkların tanımlanması ve tedavi programı tasarlanması için gerekli yetenekleri geliştirir.	8	51	22	15	4
20	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki fizyoterapi eğitim programı, öğrencilere farklı disiplinlerle çalışma ve/veya işbirliği yapma fırsatı (Doktor, hemşire, psikolog, sosyal çalışmacı... vb gibi) ve yeteneği kazandırır.	4	54	20	16	5

21	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki fizyoterapi eğitim programı, öğrencilerin çalışmalarını yazılı ve sözlü sunma, düşüncelerini etkin bir şekilde aktarma becerisi kazandırır.	11	48	22	17	3
22	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki fizyoterapi eğitim programı, öğrencilerin problemi çözmek için, güncel teknik ve yöntemleri (literatür araştırması yapabilmek gibi) kullanma yeteneğini geliştirir.	9	50	27	11	3
23	Okulumuzun/Bölümümüzün akademik personel(öğretim elemanı) sayısı yeterlidir.	6	27	19	34	15
24	Okulumuz/Bölümümüz mezuniyet sonrası (iş olanakları ve iyi referans olması... vb) kariyer	10	50	27	11	4
25	Okulumuzdaki/Bölümümüzdeki eğitim kalitesinden genel olarak memnunuz.	6	42	24	18	11

* Varsa öneriniz? ... yıl

Tablo 3. Öğrencilerin öğretim elemanlarını değerlendirme sonuçlarının % dağılımları

No	Önermeler	Tamamen Katılıyor	Katılıyor	Kararsız	Katılmıyor	Kesinlikle Katılmıyor
1	Öğretim elemanları, öğrencilerin akademik durumunu takip edip gereken uyarılarda bulunarak öğrencilere yol gösterirler.	7	29	20	33	11
2	Öğretim elemanları öğrencilere arkadaşça, yardımsever ve adil davranırlar.	8	39	28	15	11
3	Öğrenciler ihtiyaç duyduklarında öğretim elemanlarına ders saatleri dışında da kolaylıkla ulaşabilirler.	8	39	26	22	6
4	Öğretim elemanlarının derse ilişkin verdiği ödevler öğretici ve faydalıdır.	4	33	33	24	6
5	Öğretim elemanları yardımcı ders araçlarını etkin bir şekilde kullanırlar. (Örneğin WebCT, görsel-işitsel sunumlar, Power point sunumları, e-posta)	7	55	21	16	2
6	Öğretim elemanları pratik uygulamalarda, aktif ve düzenli olarak öğrencilerle birlikte bulunurlar.	4	48	20	18	11
7	Öğretim elemanları pratik uygulamalarda, bilgi ve becerisini öğrencilere aktarır, hastalardan aldığı geri bildirimleri öğrenciyle paylaşır. (Mevcut hastalığın kliniği ve uygulanan tedavilerin amaçları ile ilgili karşılıklı paylaşım olanağı oluşturur.)	4	49	17	22	9
8	Öğretim elemanları öğrencilerin ihtiyacı olan ders notlarını öğrencilere ulaştırırlar.	12	64	11	12	11
9	Öğretim elemanları sınıfta öğrencilerle ilgili alınacak kararlarda öğrencilerin görüşlerini alırlar.	4	40	23	19	15
10	Öğretim elemanları dönem başında derslerin amaçları ve içeriği hakkında öğrencileri bilgilendirirler.	5	46	24	15	11
11	Öğretim elemanları derslerde eleştirel ve özgür düşünme yeteneğinin gelişmesine katkı sağlar ve eleştirileri dikkate alırlar.	3	34	28	24	11
12	Öğretim elemanları öğrencilere fizyoterapistlik mesleği ve etik sorumluluk bilincini birinci sınıftan itibaren kazandırır. (Mesleki kongre, sempozyum ve kurs gibi mesleki)	9	53	16	15	8
13	Öğretim elemanları, alanlarındaki mesleki yenilikleri ve gelişmeleri öğrencilerle paylaşır.	6	48	26	15	6
14	Genel olarak, öğretim elemanlarının bilgi aktarımları ve açıklamaları anlaşılırdır.	5	48	30	13	4
15	Öğretim elemanları derslerine düzenli olarak zamanında gelir ve zamanında bitirirler.	6	40	28	18	9
16	Öğretim elemanları sorulan sorulara açık, net ve tatminkar cevaplar verirler.	5	37	38	15	5
17	Öğretim elemanları sınavları adil değerlendirirler.	6	43	16	19	17
18	Öğretim elemanlarının hazırladıkları sınav soruları yapıcı ve öğreticidir, derste işlenen konulardan sorulur.	5	30	28	27	11
19	Sınav sonunda alınan not/notlar öğrencinin derse ilişkin bilgisini yansıtır.	4	26	19	36	16
20	Genel olarak öğretim elemanlarından memnunuz.	8	48	21	15	9

PATIENT EDUCATION – RELEVANCE IN NURSING EDUCATION AND PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT

Working in health care, regardless of the care level provided by the establishment - primary, secondary or tertiary – a nurse must know and apply the competences and expertise in pedagogy. Theoretical knowledge and pedagogical skills are acquired within the educational process. The development of the pedagogical skills occurs according to the actual situation in the process of the nurse's practical work. Patient education includes general pedagogical coherence and is based on the structure of the educational process, the application of the means according to the patient's needs. Despite the e - learning opportunities that are being successfully applied in many areas, the patient's direct contact with nurses is important because the opportunity to have personal contact and get feedback is an advantage of direct communication that in the majority of cases is a personal and accurate way of communicating.

The study analyzes the range of methods used by nurses in the education of patients that reflect the nursing activities in real situation, securing the process of development of formal education.

Keywords: cognition, education, communication, nurse, patient

INTRODUCTION

Each individual's health is a social, economic and personal development resource regardless of age, gender or cultural criteria. Health maintenance or preventional measures largely depend on the educational work that can be viewed not only in the perspective of nurses' work, but in the general context of the implementation of common public health strategy. Every individual's personal interest is also an important factor. Patient education as a process of interaction is topical in the context of any disease or prevention case. Quite often arriving to the health care institutions, especially hospitals, a patient feels as at the technological institution where the personnel works with very high, incomprehensible technologies. The role of a nurse as an educator here is very significant. She transfers to the patient a certain amount of appropriate and understandable information, reduces information deficit about the coming steps, promotes emotional stability and prevents the formation of cognitive dissonance. The patient's safety and well-being are created by a welcoming attitude and favorable atmosphere at various levels of patient care, when the patient's health problems or discomfort are understood. In general it can be described as a part of the treatment process service.

Patient education is an important but a complex issue. Nurses and doctors recognize the need for patient education. In the greatest number of cases the information that is important for the patient for the time being is outlined verbally or visualized, less focus is put on the secondary education aspects that are currently not in sight. The overall view of the situation is not less important because an educated patient is more engaged in solving problems, improving their health status, and future preventional measures. Educated, empowered patients and their relatives are active participants in maintaining health, forming an educated society.

1. ASPECTS OF PATIENT EDUCATION IN THE TRAINING OF NURSES

Information gathering skills (Silverman et al. 2005) in the process of interaction with the patient (patient's subjective vision of the situation, the assessment of knowledge gained), the following transformation of the information obtained in the educational and patient care process are included in the training of nurses. Formal education, when acquiring the first level higher professional education, apart from free care philosophy involves also the acquisition of general philosophy, ethics and communication not only theoretically, but also working practically in groups dealing with study cases.

The implementation of the process of patient education as well as the application of the pedagogical principles in the training of nurses is defined by the Latvian Education Nursing professional standard in the sub-part – specific skills (paragraph 18) defining the guidelines of educational skills, including the assessment of the patient's knowledge and skills in the field of health preservation and restoration. Patient knowledge and practical skills'

assessment is defined in detail in the educational programmes for nurse training by the education authorities at the educational institutions.

The study process is systematized in such a way that at its beginning a health care specialist - a nurse could understand two important aspects. Firstly, the significance of health as a general value, taking into account that health is not just a personal value but should be viewed from a publicly moral, economic and even political perspective. Good health is not just a lucky phenomenon of a person, but the interaction of complex biological (sometimes genetic) and cultural factors. Secondly, they should learn to perceive health care as a dynamic, holistic process.

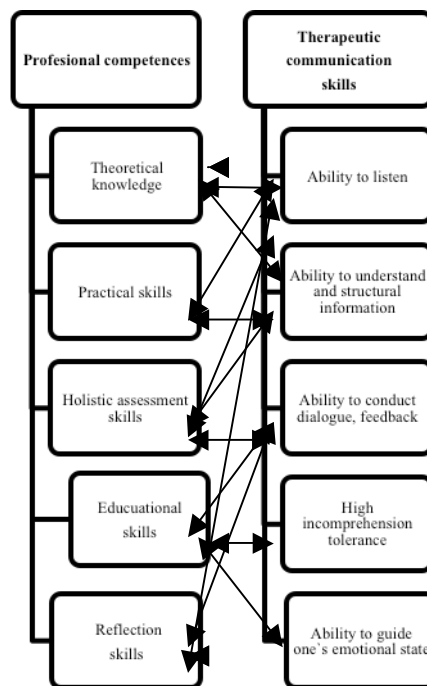
Successful outcome of the study process is formed not only of the future nurse professional conduct based on the synthesis of theoretical knowledge and practical skills, but the ability to build the context of an empathic attitude, including the creation of the therapeutic relationship (Rosenberg, Gallo-Silver 2011), which includes a comprehensive awareness of a patient based on the feedback received.

The development of the study process from informative, regulatory process into a flexible, transformative learning process (Elliott, 2010; Mezirow, 1991; Benner et. al, 2010; Briede & Peck, 2011), not only lecturers but also students, sharing the responsibility, are involved in the democratic realisation of this process. Transformative approach to education is the basis for sustainable education, because it is based on a positive, critical and constructive approach to integration in the study process that develops step by step. A critical approach to patient education is inseparable from the content, process and prerequisites' reflection (Mezirow, 1991).

In any case, acquiring the professional skills that make up the nurse's competence, the motivation of the student's activity and behaviour, values that form the development of a future nurse are important. As noted by N. Geidžs (1999), "Motivation is a hypothetical internal process that gives energy and guides behavior." M. Puķīte (2012) Analysing students' pedagogical competences in the study process, says: "Competence is formed, gaining knowledge, acquiring skills and developing a responsible attitude." The acquisition of interdisciplinary knowledge forms the development of a variety of competences and expertise.

The set of theoretical knowledge as well as practical and communicative skills acquired by nurses is based on the platform of personal responsibility and understanding of values, including the nurse's practical skills in educating patients are the essential parameters of the professionalism of nurses that will determine the future career opportunities.

Picture 1. A set of competences for the progressive nurse-patient cooperation ©



Students, after the acquisition of the theoretical material and dealing with case studies, acquire the patient education methodology where the alternatives vary. Ability to recognize non-verbal communication's physical and emotional expression, to understand the positive verbal communication strategies as well as identify the

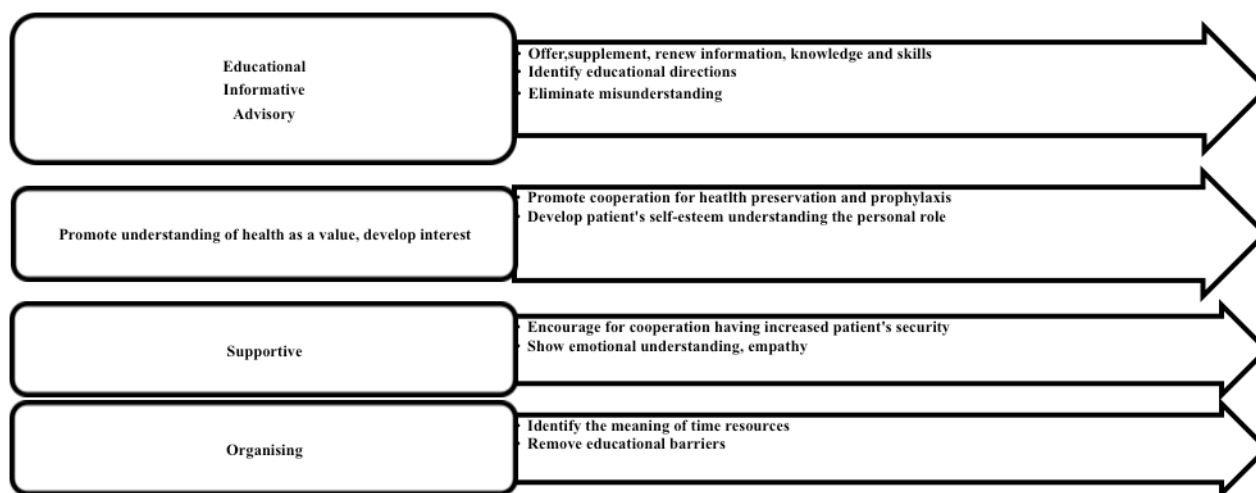
significance of the patient education development strategy is the part of the professionalism of future nurses in the context of the pedagogical aspect. Communication skills - the ability to listen, to form open questions, to conduct a dialogue - often form one of the leading aspects in the patient care management and patient education.

2. ASPECTS OF PATIENT EDUCATION IN NURSE PRACTICE

The range of nurses' educational activities includes patient education about the prevention of various diseases, basics of professional activities as well as practical issues. The information provided by the nurse within the process of interaction may be both informative and educational. Patient education can be a spontaneous response to the issues raised by the patient, or it can be planned in advance. The boundaries of the transition from information to the educational sphere are not restricted.

Picture 2. Directions of educational work of nurses in cooperation with

patients

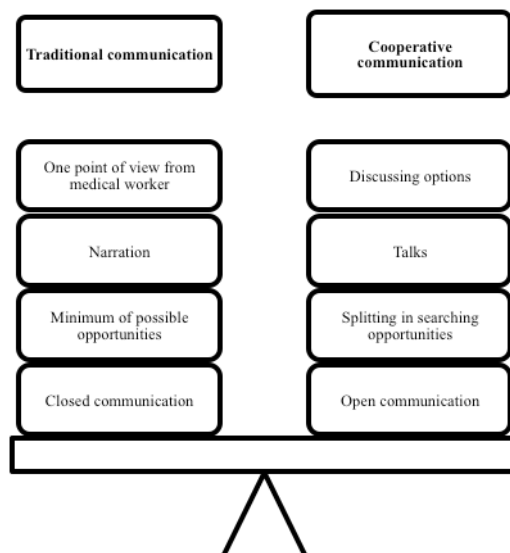


Psychological, sociological, anthropological and ethical aspects are important in patient education. The understanding of those, identifying each patient as a phenomenon, demonstrating positive collaboration, flexible interface, the ability to structure educational information, as well as offering alternative solutions form an informed nurses' educational activities' paradigm.

Undoubtedly, in the process of patient education a nurse must be able to guide her own emotional state and orient the patient to open and positive communication and cooperation in order to promote both the understanding of the situation and the strategical awareness how to maintain and foster health in future.

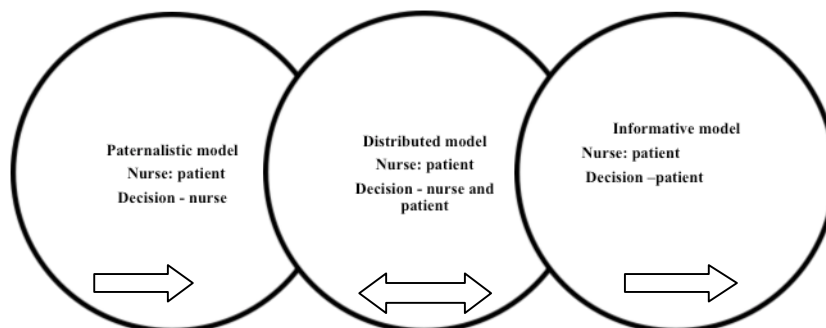
Picture 3. Traditional and cooperative communication in the process of patient education

(McCabe, C., Timmins, F. 2006, 67)



The patient educational process relevant to the patient’s level of understanding, comprehensive, delivered at the appropriate time, as well as designed to understand can be one of the prerequisites for the patient to get some inspiration to change attitudes, increase motivation and awareness of the importance of co-responsibility to make decisions about medical treatment, the patient’s behaviour or change of habits. Nurses’ professional communication adjusted to the case is able to ensure a high level of patient trust and cooperation that is of great importance in prevention, but particularly in the treatment process. The nurse provides information, educates without making judgments, allowing patients to decide for themselves except acute situations. The author has adopted the model for professional nurses’ activities area where the role of a nurse conducting patient education is reflected diversly, indicating the range of possibilities, making an appropriate decision.

Picture 4. Three models of making decisions in the medical treatment process in interaction (adapted acc.to Charles et al., 1999; & Chalamon, I., Chouk, I., Heilbrunn, B., 2010)



When you create a positive communication patients prefer to engage themselves in joint decision-making that is based on comprehensive information, and education and is related to the patient’s satisfaction. Education, counseling process and the result of the patient's judgment are connected with the value priorities of the patient, possible or impossible changes in the patient's life that are also largely determined by the patient's future course of action.

The nurse’s understanding of the educational process plays a really important role in the evaluation. Has the patient understood what was said? What causes difficulties for a patient? Should the educational process be repeated? These issues include both the feedback, identifying the patient's level of understanding and integration of reflection in society, in the educational process. The nurse, who demonstrates the ability to respond to patients' questions not with abstract concepts, but concrete examples, is able to clearly clarify the priorities to the patient, is able to appeal to their co-responsibility for health as well as analyze her performance, is an important supportive and educational resource of a definite case. It should be noted that the educational dimension contributing to the socio-psychological sphere of development, helping the patient to develop a new perspective is rather more complicated than educating about practical activities.

In order to ensure the patient's range of perception it is recommended to expand the range of educational tools because each person perceives information and events in different ways. Different barrier impact on the patient’s health, age, cultural differences and language barriers are possible. A nurse should evaluate the applied

educational methods and tools to the corresponding situation (audio, visual, tactile, kinesthetic teaching), keeping in mind that a healthy person remembers 10% of what he/she has read, 20% of what he/she has heard, 30% of what was spoken or written, 50% of what he/she has heard and seen, 70% of what is being said, and 90% of what is being said and done. The figures are different for each individual, but they reflect the tendencies of the adaptation of information.

It is possible to connect verbal education with an emotionally perceived educational type (case study), practical action, which is sometimes more effective than the general theoretical one. A written or visual (posters, CDs, video) patient education mode could be used as an additon to the given verbal information.

A wide spectrum of activities of a nurse as an educator is focused on the case and the desired outcome. Patient education process can be affected by both the patient's expressed wishes about the information they want to receive and by the nurse's personal views on the necessary information priorities: what, when, and what kind of information should be delivered to patients. That information may not always be adequate to patients' preferences.

Methodology

Motivation of the research: the nurses have voluntarily attended a formal education course that was free of charge. They have acquired the 1st level higher education, having improved the earlier (until 2004) acquired 3rd level professional education ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education) to the 4th ISCED professional level.

Subjects of the study programme – pedagogy, requirements for the graduation paper – to reflect in a written way how a nurse conducts a free chosen patient education case study connecting it to her own pedagogical activities.

Aim of the research: identify the patient education tendencies in nurses' self-reflection using a qualitative research method.

Tasks of the research:

1. To conduct a qualitative study analyzing the nurses' graduation papers in pedagogy (2012/13 academic year).
2. Analyze the patient education methods defined by the nurses that reflect an understanding about the patient education.

Procedures

In the qualitative analysis of work the tendencies of nurses' practical educational work have been clarified, noting patient education by nurses indicated methods and provision of the feedback in the educational process.

The graduation papers were selected at random. Total number (n = 140).

Statistical data analysis was performed using SPSS v.17.0 software and Microsoft Office Excel v.11.

Results

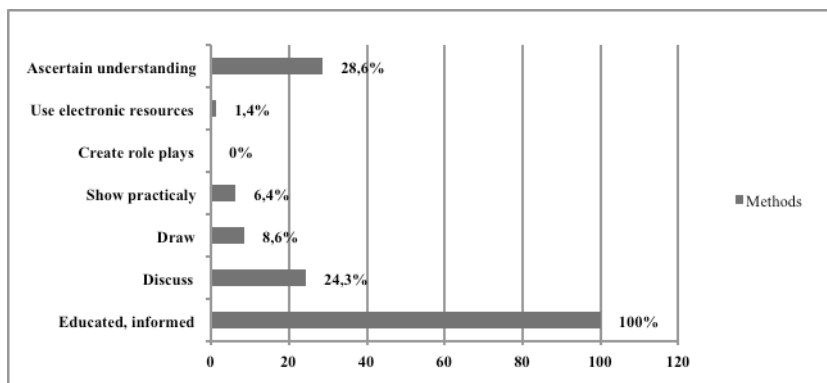
The analysis of the study data (see results in Tables A and B) shows that nurses conduct patient education only verbally by defining the types of information delivered in the patient education process: tell, educate, inform - (100%). It could be concluded that in most cases patient education occurs giving information, which is not the

most effective method of education. It is evident from the small amount of the marked answers that in the process of patient education discussion takes place - 24, 3% (Mean - 0.24). Discussion is organized using open questions as well as empathy on the nurse's part in the process of communication at the time of the patient education process.

Table1 . Reflection of document analysis A

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Educated, informed	140	1,00	,000
Discuss	140	,24	,430
Written materials	140	,09	,281
Demonstrations	140	,06	,246
Role play	140	,00	,000
Electronic resources	140	,01	,119
Feedback	140	,29	,453
Valid N (listwise)	140		

Table 2. Reflection of document analysis B



Additional educational tools that help to ensure a full understanding on the patient's part and improve patient education strategies, are really used in the graduation papers. Electronic resources that provide appropriate learning topics' in-depth visual and auditory perception are used only in 1.4% cases (Mean - 0.1). Working with Internet resources and the computer was defined in the graduation papers mostly referring to when a nurse indicates the address where one can find relevant information rather than focus on the activity- who, what and how.

The written information reflected in the schemes that helps the patient to visualize and understand the information provided that the patient can re-read or look at later, is used only in 8.6% cases (Mean - 0.9).

The figures for providing feedback, while making sure that the patient has understood the information, are presented in 28.6% cases (Mean - 0.29). The results are similar to the EU's Eurobarometer survey

(Eurobarometer Qualitative Study, 2012) data, where it is stated that the time allocated by health care workers, including nurses, in Latvia to a patient as well as feedback as a performance instrument are factors that were defined as insufficient.

Role-games as one of the possible methods of patient education are not defined by nurses in their practical work.

Discussion

Considering the results obtained, it can be concluded that two factors mismatch: the knowledge gained during the education process is not fully integrated into practice. If nurses have within the framework of the education process further added to their knowledge in pedagogy, then the most knowledge has been transferred to the philosophical (theoretical) aspect without increased specific practical knowledge updating, mostly informative rather than transformative.

An important factor for the teachers involved in the education of nurses and future nurses is to have practical experience in patient care. "The nurse is an expert who can evaluate and focus herself on the critical factors in a situation" (Taylor, K., Marienau, C., & Fiddler, M., 2000, 61), leaning on the experience-based practice she can provide colleagues, nurses with full understanding how to ensure patient education and integrate it in work.

The teaching staff in this specified educational process for nurses who raise their educational level, were experienced nurses. It should be noted, however, that such a practice is not always provided. Occasionally, but mostly it refers to the future nurses' education process, specialists with only pedagogical education without medical experience are involved to deliver pedagogical knowledge to nurses. The reason for such cases in various parts of the programme implementation is the limited number of nurses - experts who are willing to participate in the education of students during their pre-clinical practice, as well as economic factors that limit the opportunity to involve additional nurses from the field practice institutions in the educational process. The nurses from the field practice institutions can become a complementary part of the system while, at the same time, developing an inter-institutional cooperation model.

In health care, as it is in other sectors, errors come from insufficient, improper communication (Provonost, et al., 2003; Leonard, M et al., 2004) and information deficit. Communication is a heart of patient education. Error versatility can influence the process of treatment. Inadequate patient education can create a Swiss cheese model (Perneger 2005) that directs away from the working strategy without mistakes and may cause the following:

1. Instead of promoting patient understanding comes additional patient confusion;
2. Erroneous information is obtained from other sources;
3. To promote the formation of unwanted side-effects;
4. To prolong the recovery process.

Patient information deficiency in the treatment process and the home or ambulatory care settings, could be solved with the help of nurses. Half of the patients in the period after they have left the hospital make at least one error in the use of the prescribed medication. (Kriplani et al., 2012).

A nurse is regarded as a skilled and responsible work performer. According to the Fr. Herzberg theory, dissatisfaction with the job can be caused by the processes of the organization and management of work, job security, status and salary. These are considered as hygiene factors. Similarly, a negative impact on work processes can be caused by motivational factors: growth opportunities, recognition deficit. Uniformity of educational work and gaps reflected in the graduation papers could be caused by the chronically disorganized system of work organization, a large number of patients and intensive work. A lot of nurses do not see an opportunity to work in a different way and they reflect this in their graduation papers.

Insufficient patient education process could be caused also by human factors (Leonard et al., 2004): nurses' cognitive overload, stress and fatigue, as well as poor (nurse - patient) communication factors.

Conclusions

It could be concluded that the study process in pedagogy for nurses has been mainly informative, because, analysing the graduation papers of nurses in pedagogy, a positive representation of a transformative learning process, based on the meta-cognitive skills' integration (to plan, conduct, foresee, check - feedback and appreciate - to reflect) is observed fairly little.

Randomly selected graduation papers reflect relatively low understanding of professional values (patient / person - value) where the patient's desire to get comprehensive information is not always fulfilled, mostly filling an information niche. Without receiving feedback, which is an advantage of direct communication, the assessment of the information given to the patient lacks. This assessment can be viewed as a part of the content, process and premise reflection. Nurses' activity in educating patients is mainly focused on the goal rather than on the result. The nurses can not fully integrate the knowledge acquired of patient education in their work process description, they do not form a new activity paradigm. Reflection of the situation in the graduation papers confirms the strong one-way patient education traditions that are contradictory with the principles of comprehensive patient education and partly refer to the actual situation in patient care and patient education. The results obtained suggest that there are both latent and visible chronic work organization errors that had a destructive impact during the nurses' practice period. The latter have influenced the nurses' understanding about patient educational work. These errors can not be identified in the qualitative analysis of documents.

According to the author's point of view, the spectrum of patient education inhibitory reasons can appear in the process of the future research, surveying on patient education work. The nurses' point of view not only on educational methods used, but also on the factors that cause distraction in educational work was clarified.

The result that a small number of nurses confirm comprehensive patient education platform understanding, shows the need for more informal education course in practical methodology for patient education. The course should contain a practical possibility for integration and an opportunity for nurses to form patient educational situation, to demonstrate and evaluate it in an intellectual and practical way, promoting a positive change in the nurse's critical thinking and action.

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The article was created with financial support of ESF project "Development of doctoral studies at the University of Liepaja" (agreement Nr.2009/0127/1DP/1.1.2.1.2./09/IPIA/VIAA/018)



USING NON-DIGITAL SOURCES AT CZECH TECHNICAL UNIVERSITIES TO NARROW THE GAP BETWEEN STUDENTS COMING FROM TECHNICAL AND NON-TECHNICAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

This paper deals with the use of non-digital sources at Czech technical universities to narrow the gap between students coming from technical and non-technical secondary schools and between students who have studied a foreign language as few as four years and others who have studied it more than sixteen years. It proposes the use of additional teaching sources, introduced at critical times, to supplement conventional textbook learning.

This paper also gives a general outline on the Czech education system and how languages have been taught. It takes in the findings of various recent attention span studies, which indicate that students today are less likely to be attracted by just textbook learning. It also looks at the encroaching effects of digital media on and in the classroom and proposes a methodology on how to better capture student attention. It draws its conclusions from a questionnaire distributed at a Czech university which has implemented the technique.

Keywords: supplementary/enhancing materials, creative classrooms, blended approach, sustained/focused attention, passive/participatory methods

INTRODUCTION

The teaching of English and other foreign languages for full-time students at advanced levels studying at technical universities in the Czech Republic is generally based on the use of a textbook widely oriented in a certain area of study. For example, students later studying specific technical fields, such as Architecture or Mechanical Engineering, first study general courses in engineering or technology, and students studying economics study general business English in their first study semesters. There can be also more specific courses offered for smaller select groups, for example VŠB- Technical University of Ostrava (later only VŠB-TUO) has had more concentrated study in the branches of Air Transport, the European Union and in Computer Science. Study sessions are concentrated into 90 minutes a week (2 teaching periods), and are not based on how many years of study nor the type of secondary education a student has had. The majority of these students together have had about 10-12 years of foreign language study with some students having up to 16 or more years and some others only 4 years. Within these groups, many students are following up their secondary educational field at a tertiary level, that is students who have studied at a business academy go on to study at economic or business/management faculties or at economic branches at technical faculties. And similarly, students who have studied at vocational (technical) secondary schools go on to study at faculties specialized in such branches as Computer Science, Materials Engineering and Metallurgy or Mining-Geology. Students, who study at gymnasias with or without specializations, study a general course in English without a technical focus. Students, who study at secondary technical schools and secondary vocational schools, are more specifically prepared for a wide range of professions. When these students are brought together in one group a teacher (who has usually not been especially educated in the teaching of technology/economics) is faced with charting a course between trying to comprehend and explain technical/economic concepts in more detail and to clarify the finer (grammatical) points of a language.

Fortunately, there are enough interesting stimuli and teaching resources to help such a teacher to enrich and keep the attention of students who are already well-immersed in a subject and enough supplementary materials and sources available for those who need to catch up. One possibility is to further implement the pan-European policy of making "creative classrooms" by increasing the use of digital media in them (that is beyond the use of the audio recordings of transcripts) This is a popular step for some students, who have already had access and exposure to their influences, especially if they study at technically-oriented schools. However by doing this a teacher also has to take into consideration that these digital media could be affecting how students learn as certain recent attention span studies have pointed out. They could also be sources of distraction or serve as competition for a student's attention. An alternative to the risk of having students hidden behind a screen or using digital devices for non-lesson related purposes is to introduce more conventional types of non-digital teaching materials at peak periods when a student's attention is usually waning.

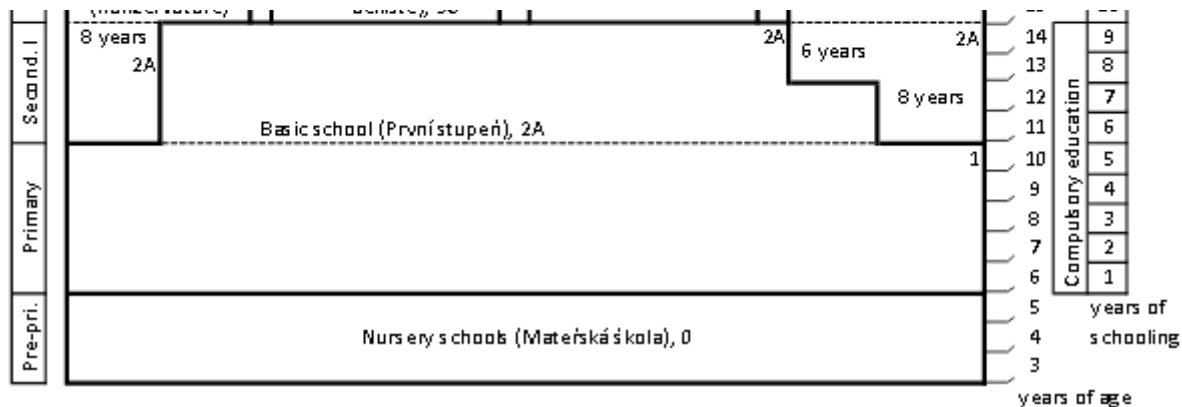


Figure 10 The structure of the Czech educational system [25]

According to [16] the study of a first foreign language is compulsory at the age of 8, and the vast majority of students at elementary schools study English as a second language, followed by German, Spanish and French. Almost all students who have studied at gymnasia study English. At technical or vocational schools 74% of students study English.

These choices continue on to university, even at technical universities which make up over 25% of state-supported universities. Almost all of these 7 technical universities (VŠB-Technical University of Ostrava, Technical University of Liberec, University of West Bohemia in Plzen, University of Pardubice, Czech Technical University in Prague, Brno University of Technology and Institute of Technology and Business in České Budějovice) in the Czech Republic have economic/business faculties attached to them. An example of language study preferences at VSB-TUO, which are similar to preferences at other Czech technical universities, can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1 An Overview of Languages Study at VSB-TUO.

Source: Management of the Language Department of VSB-TUO

2013/2014 Winter Semester VSB-TUO Language Department Full-Time Bachelor Study									
VSB-TUO		Overall number of students according to faculty							
Faculty	Year	English	German	Russian	French	Spanish	Czech	Total	Faculty
Economic	1 st	848	52	101				1001	2807
	2 nd	659	186	252	47	89		1233	
	3 rd	35	125	283	42	88		573	
Electrical Engineering Computer Science	1 st	660						660	1177
	2 nd	508	2			7		517	
Mining Geology Tourism	1 st	581	16					597	971
	2 nd	284	51					335	
	3 rd 4 th			20		19		39	
Civil Engineering	1 st	370	20					390	607
	2 nd	194	23					217	
Mechanic Engineering	2 nd	301	24					325	476
	3 rd	147	4					151	
Metallurgy Materials Engineering	1 st	248	13					261	420
	2 nd	148	11					159	
Safety Engineering	1 st	234						234	365
	2 nd	131						131	
University Study Program	1 st	38						38	51
	2 nd	13						13	
Total		5399	527	656	89	203	0	6874	
% Rate		78.5%	7.7%	9.5%	1.3%	3.0%	0%	100	
Erasmus							82	82	
PhD		59	15	20				94	

Follow-up study		64						64	
		Bachelor + USP = 6874							
		Erasmus+PhD+Follow-up Study = 240							

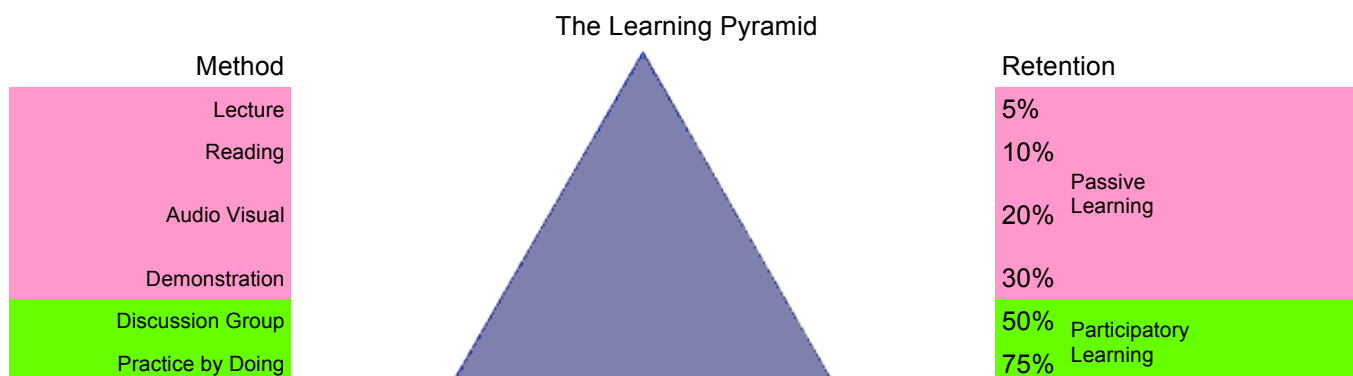
Although it is not compulsory as in 14 other EU countries, according to Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe (further only KD), the Czech Republic is following a similar pattern of preferring learning English, which is basically reflected throughout the European Union [6]. Language learning sessions, mostly at secondary grammar schools, business academies or technical/vocational schools, are generally divided into 2 weekly periods of 45 minute study, instead of the more concentrated form at universities.

Once reaching university students choose a (first) language to study and are generally offered its study for the first two years. Students studying English (which this paper focuses on) at VŠB-TUO (as indicated in Table 1) are placed into groups of about thirty. There are also language labs, and classes offered at a lower level for smaller groups of “weaker” students, and for those who did not have English as a first language. Students are expected to be present in class the majority of the time, and have the course material in either written or electronic form. Students with language certificates (such as FCE and CAE) or a superior knowledge of English have the option to take a pre-test in the 4th/5th week of study, and not attend study in a semester if they have shown they have already mastered the study material. This reduces class sizes, and hopefully concentrates teaching on students more or less at the same level. All remaining students have to pass a standardized test in electronic form at the end of each semester. This is accompanied by an oral exam after the successful completion of the last test during the final semester.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF LEARNING AND TEACHING SECOND LANGUAGES

Since language learning has become systemized, there have been conflicting linguistic and cognitive/psychological theories, methods and approaches on how to best learn a language. Applebee in [1] has traced how the “interaction between the shifts in school populations, educational philosophies, psychology and scholarly disciplines... have all had a more or less influence upon instruction patterns”. In the course of time, traditional methods such as the translation of isolated phrases (literal translations or working with interlinear texts originally derived from learning Latin) or the natural method of only using a target language, rote repetition and drills have been largely replaced as new methods were tried, such as code switching, sandwich techniques, mother tongue mirroring, back changing, mnemonic devices and scaffolding processes.

Whatever method preferred, no one learns or retains information in the same way. And of course, learning may occur whether one is aware of it or not. One area of general agreement is that the more actively interested a person is, the more he/she generally remembers. Part of the philosophy of both Waldorf and Montessori education is based on this concept of using hands-on activities or discovery modules. One way to depict how activity improves learning is by using learning pyramids, which can slightly vary in percentages and categories, and compare the effectiveness of passive and participatory teaching and learning methods. They mostly show that the more involved a student (and teacher) is in speaking, teaching and writing activities, the more he/she learns. For an example of a learning pyramid see Figure 2.



Teach Others

90%

Figure 2 A Learning Pyramid Showing Average Retention Rates [21]

Second language acquisition and improvement also depend on one's own experience, background, attitude and exposure to a target language, and of course the ability to retain information plays an important role in the process. In a Brief Description of Second Language Acquisition Dr. Kathy Escamilla describes the proposal of Noam Chomsky and other nativists that humans have even a more in-depth innate predisposition for learning a second language, similar to learning a first language [9] Although language books have served as our guides for ages, it wasn't until the 1980s that a more blended approach to them and to learning was taken by incorporating digital media partially through on-line instruction, and mostly CD-ROMs. At that time it was recognized that the four basic skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening, focused separately on in language textbooks, are more integrated than previously thought. The fact that we use more than one skill at one time led to an emphasis on more socially-based skills and activities, such as summarizing, describing and narrating, and on to more cooperative, active learning exercises, such as role-playing and debate. Despite this seemingly emphasis on speaking activities, and the fact that teachers have dominated most of them [7] KD of Teaching Languages still places equal importance on all four basic skills [8].

It was the world-wide influence of the Internet that really brought the possibility of language learning out of the classroom and away from the textbook. There are now on-line and self study courses in which a student can work at his/her own pace and go back to, making the presence of a teacher unnecessary. There are text-to-speech synthesis (TTS) devices, interactive software and websites which paradoxically are great sources for generating non-digital teaching material. For a general overview of current technologies supporting English Teaching and Learning see The British Council's publication Innovations for Learning Technologies in English [3].

Well into the 1990s language learning institutes in the Czech Republic (Czechoslovakia) continued to follow the conservative approach laid out by textbooks on learning languages. Although books from abroad replaced those written and published in the Czech Republic, language teachers continued to teach in the ways they were familiar with. It was the plethora of private language schools, offering new techniques for learning languages including such novelties as alphalearning and the Callan method, and internationally recognized language certificates, that vastly reduced the realm of the state language schools. It was also the presence of such culture support organizations such as the British Council and Alliance Francais that showed that there were other resources available for learning languages.

In accordance with the pan-European policy of making creative classrooms, tablets and other devices are today replacing paper notebooks and textbooks in the Czech Republic which is one of 9 chosen EU countries involved in the European Schoolnet (EUN) programme [10]. According to an EUN survey the majority of students say that ICT (Information and Communications Technology) have now been implemented into 20% of the classrooms in the Czech Republic [11]. Such sites as Moodle and LMS (Learning Management System) have now been introduced at institutes of higher learning, and have been designed specifically for the learning and testing of languages. For example, Milan Hauser has found that the introduction of interactive whiteboards in primary schools in the EUN programme has many learner benefits, but ICT should not be used for more than about half-an hour [13]. Similarly, advocates of e-learning like Ivana Pekarová and Vera Bitljanova at the University of Liberec, believe it should play a key role in education, but have also pointed out that it works best in having it in conjunction with blended learning scenarios [23].

THE INFLUENCE OF DIGITAL MEDIA

Different studies assess that there are both harmful and beneficial effects from Internet use. More specifically, there are a number of articles being written on the influences of these social network/digital media on and in the classroom. They specially focus on how the smartphone and the teacher are competing for a student's attention. Do digital media enhance and improve lessons? Are they forms of distraction, or both? Liz Kolb in "Cell Phones in the Classroom" has called such devices "powerful classroom tools" and no longer classroom distractions [15]. On the contrary Bernard McCoy of the University of Nebraska [19] gives a list of reasons why electronic devices should be banned from schools. He doesn't see it as just a step for students on the road from writing with styli and slates to using electronic textbooks. And similarly for teachers to go from blackboards to whiteboards and then to electronic boards. Of course, there remains the question of whether introducing data protectors and other electronic media into the classroom is making (language) learning more effective. Is the pro-technology approach sometimes being taken just for its own sake? And by advocating it too much, are we not forsaking effective learning techniques and in fact throwing the baby out with the bath water?

Whether it is making us more clever or not, people are spending less time exposed to digital media sites, such as when they are watching a video or reading a text online [22]. Nevertheless, there are some studies that say we may be able to absorb more information in a shorter exposure time when we use digital media. And we are now

becoming more creative due to the restrictions placed on us by companies such as Twitter to read/create the news or a message in 140 characters or less.

One way to monitor people's concentration is to use attention span studies. Although they differ in the exact number of minutes or seconds of what actually takes place, and the fact that Wilson and Korn have found that many of them have been imprecise, [28] they can give us a general overview of what is happening in a classroom or auditorium. More specifically we have to clarify if we are referring to short-term focused attention or more sustained attention and take into consideration such influences as the type of stimuli being introduced, the type of interaction between participants, what part of the day it is and if the audience/students are enjoying themselves. Although a university class can last up to 90 minutes, some top end studies show that an audience/class can only keep some sort of sustained attention up to 40 minutes by refocusing on the same thing. Nevertheless, in Figures 3 and 4, you can see that even for the same agreed-upon period of time (40 minutes), there are various findings and interpretations of what actually takes place during that time, and no agreement on the position of the attention span at the beginning and end of a session.

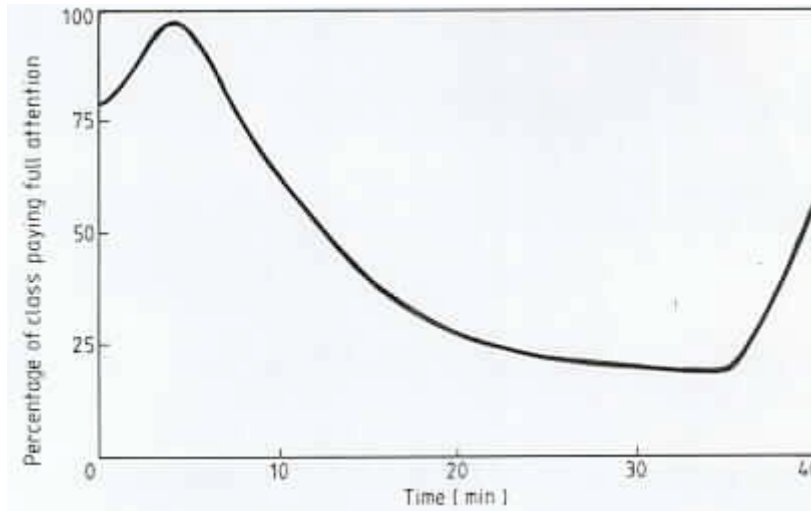


Figure 3 The 40-minute attention span - example 1 [20]

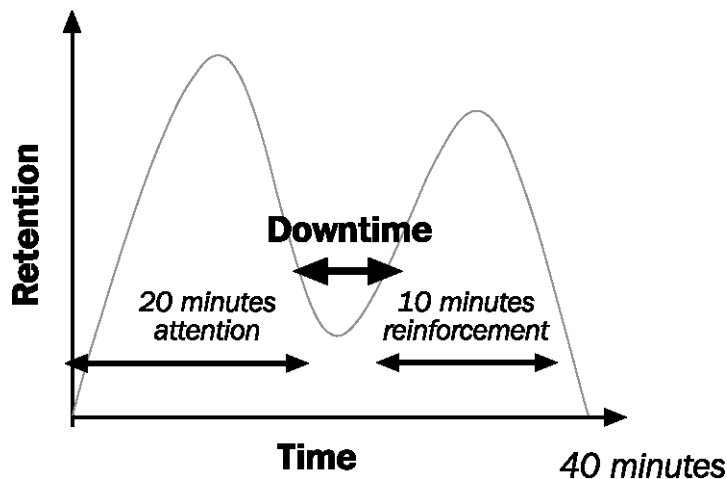
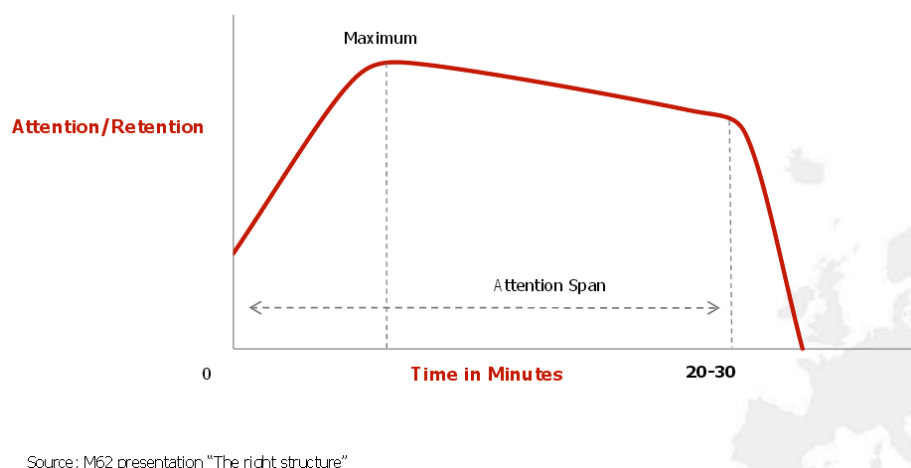


Figure 4 The 40-minute attention span – example 2 [5]

More conservatively, some experts on giving (Power Point) presentations recommend keeping them down to about half that time before an audience's attention drops, (See Figure 5).



Source: M62 presentation "The right structure"

Figure 5 The 20-minute attention span [18]

With proper timing, Brad Vander Zanden writes that this 20-minute period can be extended by giving your audience/class a “break” by introducing such activities as giving a demo or telling a story [27]. At the same time, Wilson and Korn have found no specific evidence to support the common belief that the typical student attention span is about 10 to 15 minutes long, and no reason why teachers should chunk content to best facilitate learning and retention [28].

More dramatically some recent studies have shown both a considerable drop in both our sustained and focused attention spans. According to the infographic “How Social Media is Ruining Our Minds” our sustained attention spans have been reduced from 12 minutes to 4 minutes in just ten years [2]. In a behaviour study [17] Lloyds TBS Insurance has found that it is our modern lifestyles that have shortened our focused attention spans to mere seconds, and this has led to a striking and more costly increase in domestic accidents (See Table 2). An interesting finding of the study was that older people (who presumably have less exposure to digitalized media) are able to keep their interest on something longer than younger people.

Table 2 Insurance Claims as related to intention spans [17]

Average insurance claim for accidents by region							
Region	UK	North East	North West	York/Humber	E.Mids	W.Mids	
Ave. claim	1,400	1,300	1,410	1,300	1,370	1,425	
Region	East Anglia	S.East	S.West	London	Scotland	Wales	
Ave. claim	1,190	1,525	1,260	1,960	1,560	1,1190	
Attention span in seconds by sex, age and region							
	UK	Male	Female	18-34	35-44	45-54	55+
Att. Span	5.07	5.03	5.11	5.01	5.18	5.18	5.10
Region	N.East	N.West	Yorks/Humber	E.Mids	W.Mids	East Anglia	S.East
Att.Span	4.15	5.18	5.17	5.43	5.20	4.47	5.02
Region	S.West	London	Scotland	Wales			
Att.Span	4.40	4.47	5.18	6.07			

In another study, “Not Quite the Average: An Empirical Study of Web Use, [26] it was found that the average focused attention span has dropped by 4 seconds from 2000 to 2012 (See Table 3)

Table 3 An Overview of Attention Span and Internet Browzing Statistics [22]

Attention Span Statistics	Data
The average attention span in 2012	8 seconds
The average attention span in 2000	12 seconds
The average attention span of a gold fish	9 seconds
Percent of teens who forget major details of close friends and relatives	25 %
Percent of people who forget their own birthdays from time to time	7 %
Average number of times per hour an office worker checks their email inbox	30
Average length watched of a single internet video	2.7 minutes
Internet Browzing Statistics (Taken from 59,573 page views)	
Percent of page views that last less than 4 seconds	17 %
Percent of page views that lasted more than 10 minutes	4 %
Percent of words read on web pages with 111 words or less	49 %
Percent of words read on an average (593 words) web page	28 %
Users spend only 4.4 seconds more for each additional 100 words	

We now have instantaneous information available on our smart phones and tablets that make it less necessary to think in old ways. We now have software to translate for us by just typing in a text. We have long had electronic spellers and grammar checkers to check for our mistakes. There is software in phones that can automatically translate from one language to another just by speaking into them. By pointing smartphones with the most up-to-date applications at an unknown sign or text you can have it translated back via Google. Communication has also been simplified. Understandable text messages with familiar abbreviations can be sent without punctuation or with a smiley to convey the tone of what we mean or how we are feeling. Nevertheless, as various neurological studies have shown there are more evident accompanying chemical changes (in the levels of oxytocin, adrenaline and dopamine) that also take place when using digital media [2]. In Figure 6 you can see specialized MRI brain scans showing multiple structural changes in the brain’s activity as new neural connections are formed when people are in repeated contact with electronic devices [12].

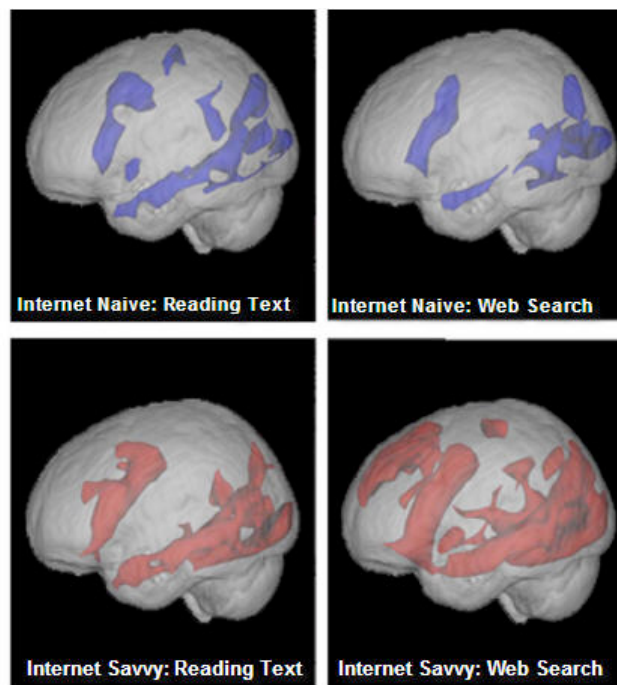


Figure 6 Brain Scans comparing the active areas of the brain when reading text or using the net. [14]

One UCLA study has found that neurologically normal volunteers were able to change their brain activity patterns and increase function after just one week of searching the web [4]. Another study has seen more activity in the problem-solving and decision-making areas of the brain than in the brains of those who do not use the net [24].

THE NON-DIGITAL RESPONSE

Those language teachers not comfortable with digitized media or skeptical of its real benefits must find new competitive ways of keeping and stimulating student's attention for shorter time periods. According to Assisted Living Today [2] young people are being used to receiving (processing and perhaps retaining) information in much faster ways than the pace laid out by traditional language learning textbooks. This effect and our sped-up lifestyles could be a (partial) reason for increasing impatience or boredom with traditional learning methods. Whether this fact is accepted or not, these competing digital attractions/distractions make it necessary for teachers to find ways of making lessons more interesting, and to go beyond just following the literal instructions in a textbook and relying on recordings of people using the correct way of speaking.

With this knowledge in mind, a different approach could be used to supplement the education of students who didn't have a similarly oriented secondary school as the faculty they study at and to enrich those who did. It is based on using target vocabulary, concepts and grammar and applying them in different forms at critical times rather than only following the instructions of a curriculum textbook.

An example of this approach was applied during a semester on a weekly basis at VŠB-TUO. After attendance was taken, and administrative matters cleared up, an attention-grabbing exercise, a short guessing game of "Who Am I" (See Appendix 1a) or some fun with logic puzzle started each class. This was followed by a short review (See Appendix 1b) of the previous lesson and after about the first few minutes, when the attention span of students usually starts to drop, students were given a word/phrase on a slip of paper and had to find an equivalent matching word in English or Czech. These were words, phrases and expressions which would be dealt with in the lesson, and would provide a good base (and a list of vocabulary) before any reading, writing or listening exercises connected with the textbook began. During this activity, all types of dictionaries can be used or students can ask a teacher or fellow student for help or advice. After this activity students settled down again with the list of vocabulary in English (and their own native tongue), and started to concentrate on the exercises or articles in the textbook.

Similarly, other curriculum-based exercises were interspaced with other activities to repeat the concepts/vocabulary, like Bingo (See Appendix 2) in which the words/phrases used in the textbook are described. This can again be followed by the curriculum specified in the textbook, and supplemented by some topical word search or criss-cross activity. (Some textbooks also provide these types of activities but not usually on a regular basis). In this way students can repeat target words and phrases in different more varied forms. There are also many supplementary activities which can be applied between curriculum-based exercises, such as betting play money on whether the grammar in a sentence is correct, using analogy games (for example, "customer to supplier is the same as credit to ____" or "pretty to beautiful is the same as warm to ____"), activities focused on the similarities of words in English and those loanwords adapted into a student's mother language, (of course some basic knowledge of the students' mother tongue is required), co-operative information collection activities and exercises that rearrange target letters, words and phrases to reinforce spelling and word order.

HOW EFFECTIVE IS THIS TECHNIQUE?

How interesting and effective are these supplementary tools in helping students better master a target language? To get feedback an anonymous questionnaire (Appendix 3) was distributed towards the end of a semester to 200 students at VŠB-TUO (from the Faculties of Economics, Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, Metallurgy and Materials Engineering and Safety Engineering) who were exposed to both curriculum and non-curriculum type sources. It was also used to find out how students generally view digital media in language learning. It consisted mostly of a description of language learning activities and was based on what students see as helping them learn and improve their language skills, that is on a student's perception of what he/her believes is helping him/her more. The activities were designated beforehand as supplementary/enriching (S/E) activities and/or course of study (CoS) activities directed by the contents of most language study textbooks used at VŠB-TUO. The descriptions were ordered randomly in the questionnaire, mixing the descriptions of usual S/E and CoS activities and students had about 10 minutes to decide if they were in some way helpful or not in language learning. There were also 3 neutral points, which could be applied to either category, about cooperative and competitive activities, and the giving of homework. There is of course some overlap in assessing if a description could be exclusively S/E or exclusively curriculum-based, and S/E activities were deemed as additional material not part of the teaching curriculum.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections – the type of school previously attended, the number of years of previous language study, the importance of the four basic language learning skills, and the helpfulness of specific language learning activities. And here are the findings:

a) Type of school

The results showed that more than half of students at technical faculties had studied at vocational/technical schools and also more than half of students studying economics at the Economic Faculty come from business academies. (See Table 4).

Table 4 Type of study and corresponding secondary school in figures and percentage.

Source: The Questionnaire in Appendix 3

Faculty	Total	From a business academy	From other types of school
Economic	67	37 (55.2%)	30 (44.8%)
	Total	From a technical school	From other types of schools
Technical Faculty	133	74 (55.6%)	59 (44.4%)

It also showed that there were not any students from conservatories or other types of education institutes not indicated by the questionnaire, and that all but 5 students came from state-funded schools. Although many technical students came from some type of vocational/technical school (with such specializations as fire-fighting, chemistry, metallurgy and electrical engineering), there were also a large number of students coming from gymnasia without specializations and from business academies. The specializations of the 9 students who studied at specialized gymnasia included languages, IT, sport and agriculture. (See Table 5)

Table 5. The type of school attended before university.

Source: The Questionnaire in Appendix 3

	Number of students	%
Specialized gymnasium	9	4.5
Non- specialized gymnasium	64	32
Conservatory	-	-
Technical/Vocational School	75	37.5
Business Academy	52	26

b) Years of study

According to the years of study of a foreign language before entering university almost 60% of students had studied English from 10-12 years. About 37% had had language study 9 years or less. The two extremes were 2 years for one student from a technical secondary school and 20 years for a student who studied at a private school specialized in the English language (see Table 6)

Table 6: Years of language study before entering university in figures and percentage

Source: The Questionnaire in Appendix 3

4 years or less	5-6 years	7-9 years	10-12 years	13 or more years
18 (9%)	5 (2.5%)	50 (25%)	118 (59%)	9 (4.5%)

c) The four basic skills

In ranking what basic language skill was most important some students gave equal importance to more than one skill, and they overwhelmingly ranked speaking over listening, reading and writing (See Table 7).

Table 7: The results of what basic language skill is most important for you.

Source: The Questionnaire in Appendix 3

	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
Most important	20	11	53	144
Second most important	61	50	93	27
Third most important	62	56	35	14
Fourth most important	38	70	14	5

d) The main questionnaire itself

According to the completed questionnaires the respondents considered 20 of the 24 descriptions of activities as helpful or rather helpful, that is 83% of the activities (see Appendix 4). All activities, under the category S/E were seen as helping students learn and improve their language skills. The activities of playing bingo and matching words in English and Czech, which focus on the target words and phrases to be dealt with in the upcoming lesson were valued most, along with a review of the previous lesson. Most CoS-based activities were evaluated as positive in some way, with the practicing and explanation of grammar seen as the most valued, along with exercises matching words and descriptions. The activities of preparing/making presentations and of writing essays were seen as unhelpful in some way by about 50% of the respondents. Although considered participatory and therefore usually considered as effective in learning languages, we can only speculate why they are seen as unhelpful. Perhaps there too little practice with writing essays in a foreign language at secondary school, or students find the topics boring or tedious. Perhaps making a presentation in a foreign language in front of a group of people seems too daunting an experience, when it's easier to be just an equal member of a group, or it requires too much preparation time outside of class. It is also to be noted that about the same percentage of students didn't positively evaluate the introduction of electronic media into the classroom as a way of improving one's language skills. Again we can only speculate why. Perhaps many students, who (as the results of the questionnaire indicate) place speaking as the most important skill to improve, see direct human contact as making more sense, or see little difference between writing into a textbook or typing on a electronic keyboard. It was also of interest that the categories of making presentations, writing essays and using electronic media had also the highest percentage of "I Don't Know" answers. Under the neutral category, both competitive and co-operative activities were seen as positive in helping students learn a language, while almost 60% considered the giving of homework as ineffective. Again we can only speculate why. It's boring, too difficult, too easy or seems childish. It's not a priority, teachers don't make a difference between those who do homework and those who don't, it doesn't improve their English nor ability to speak.

CONCLUSION

From the results of the questionnaire and from the information provided above, it has been shown the time-honoured methodology prescribed by a language learning textbook is basically considered an effective way to learn a second language. And that both passive and participatory teaching methods (as designated by a learning pyramid) can be efficiently used to target the four basic skills. It has also shown that textbook-bound learning could be enhanced by the practice of introducing extra stimulating activities at critical times when attention is usually dropping, which only a teacher him/herself can recognize, as various attention span studies can not exactly pinpoint when this happens. They can also be used for activities considered less interesting as a way of reinforcing the learning process in a more fun way. The insertion of these types of sources could also provide an opportunity for bringing those students with only a few years of language learning closer to those who have had many more. It could also be the way to narrow the gap between those students who have/have not been exposed to a certain area of study at secondary school. The introduction of more (less teacher-dominated) speaking oriented activities or courses, as indicated in the questionnaire and pointed out by KD, is another. Of course, the effectiveness of this methodology could be proven more by comparing the test results of those who have used and have not used supplementary materials in their lessons.

Although this approach is concentrated on the study of English (which has the most resources available) at a specific university, it could also be applied to other languages and other types of universities. It is a question of finding the right balance of what non-digital teaching sources to insert into course curriculum and finding the right timing when to use them. Despite the doubts brought up by students in the questionnaire and the concerns

brought about by more scientific attention span studies on the effects of digital technology, there is also room for the proper integration of teaching sources in a more blended approach to learning. Language learning textbooks now have references to different digital links to be used to enhance lessons. Being able to record a presentation on You Tube or being able to compose an essay using cited Internet sources may be ways of making these types of activities more attractive and a novel way of introducing digital media into the classroom. It is just up to the teacher to know when and how to use these sources, and to try to keep students more active in the learning process. It is likewise up to the students to know how and when to use devices like smartphones for looking up unknown words or concepts and not for checking and sending text messages.

After all, the concept of learning through game-like activities, and not just dry rote learning is more fun and well-known in the Czech Republic. Native son Jan Amos Comenius, one of the first theorists to write systematically on language learning, believed that the best learning must be accompanied by sensation and experience. Losing “money” on a bad bet on whether the target grammar of an English sentence is correct or winning a sweet or accumulating points for active participation during a game of bingo is one possibility. Another possibility is to watch a short scientific experiment online to help clarify something in the course curriculum. The question is if one method is more effective than the other, and if a teacher can find the time and effort to make lessons more attractive.

Appendix 1a

An example of “Who am I”? The teacher gives five clues about a well-known person and the students try to guess who the person is.

Clues: I was born in 1975 in Orlando, Florida.

My mother is from Thailand

I have the same name as an animal, but my real name is Elrick.

My family name is another word for forest.

I became the youngest person to win The Masters

Answer: Tiger Woods

Appendix 1b

A short review - The students are given about seven definitions of words and phrases connected to the previous lesson and they have to try to figure out the hidden word from the first letters of each definition

An example taken from the textbook Cambridge English for Engineering, Mark Ibbotson, Cambridge University Press, 2008)

		ANSWERS	
Cambridge Engineering pages 70 – 71			
_____	something not real	MOCK UP	M
_____	efficiency	EFFECTIVENESS	E
_____	_____ test	ACID	A
_____	full-_____	SCALE	S
_____	opposite of attach	UNATTACH	U
_____	trial _____	RUN	R
_____	effectiveness	EFFICIENCY	E

An example taken from the textbook Technology 2, Eric H. Glendinning and Alison Pohl, Oxford University Press, 2008

Technology 2 pages 4 – 5			
_____	wide _____	RANGE	R
_____	make money	EARN	E
_____	the opposite of right	LEFT	L
_____	civil _____	ENGINEERING	E
_____	a type of student	APPRENTICE	A
_____	applied _____	SCIENCE	S
_____	_____ qualifications	ENTRANCE	E

Appendix 2

BINGO: the students listen to the teacher's description of the words and phrases they have on the paper and have to find them on a bingo card and call them out. If a student has 5 words/phrases together, vertically, horizontally or diagonally, he/she wins the round, and is somehow rewarded. This can be repeated one or two more times to emphasize the vocabulary.

An example of a list of vocabulary and bingo cards taken from the textbook *The Business*, Allison and Emmerson, Macmillan Publishers, 2007

The Business Vocab: pages 6 – 9|

To avoid:	vyhnout se	subsidiary:	dceřiná firma
To encounter:	setkat se s čím	matter:	záležitost, věc
Punctuality:	přesnost, dochvilnost	predecessor:	předchůdce
Misunderstanding:	špatné pochopení	accountant:	účetní
Ladder:	žebřík	to run:	řídit (podnik)
To disconnect:	odpojit se zdroje	to deal:	obchodovat, dělat do čeho v obchodě
Beating:	výprask, bit, nařez	to be in charge of:	mít na starost koho/co
To embrace:	obejmout, přijmout	to liase:	být v kontaktu
Efficiency:	efektivita, účinnost	alongside:	vedle
To reinforce:	posílit, upevnit	to hail:	pocházet, zavolat
To achieve:	dosáhnout, docílit	consultancy:	poradenství
Intention:	úmysl, záměr	purchasing:	koupě, nákup
To skive off:	ulít, ulívat se	maintenance:	údržba
Subtle:	nepatrný, jemný	complaint:	stížnost
Assignment:	úkol, úloha	insurance:	pojištění
To enforce:	prosadit, vynutit	to recruit:	nabírat
Foreman:	mistr, předák	to report:	podat zprávu o čem

Foreman	To run	To hail	Insurance	Beating
Subsidiary	To deal	Consultancy	To recruit	To embrace
Matter	Be in charge of	Purchasing	To report	Efficiency
Predecessor	To liase	Maintenance	To avoid	To reinforce
Accountant	Alongside	Complaint	To encounter	To achieve

To avoid	To disconnect	To achieve	To enforce	Accountant
To encounter	Beating	Intention	Foreman	To run
Punctuality	To embrace	To skive off	Subsidiary	To deal
Misunderstanding	Efficiency	Subtle	Matter	Be in charge of
Ladder	To reinforce	Assignment	Predecessor	To liase

Alongside	Complaint	To encounter	Beating	Intention
To hail	Insurance	Punctuality	To embrace	To skive off
Consultancy	To recruit	Misunderstanding	Efficiency	Subtle
Purchasing	To report	Ladder	To reinforce	Assignment
Maintenance	To avoid	To disconnect	To achieve	To enforce

Appendix 3 The Questionnaire

Circle what faculty are you studying at? Mechanical Engineering Mining-Geology Economic
 Electrical Engineering and Computer Science
 Metallurgy and Materials Engineering Safety Engineering Civil
 Engineering,

How many years of language study have you had before entering university?

What type of secondary school did you attend before attending this university?
 Please circle.

A a gymnasium with a specialization. Did the school have any specialization?

If yes, what _____

B a gymnasium without a specialization

C a conservatory

D a vocational (technical) secondary school. Did the school have any specialization?

If yes, what _____.

E business academy

Was it a state or private school? State Private

In learning and improving a foreign language what aspect is the most important for you?

Please rank in order 1 2 3 4, that is 1 = the most important, 2 = the second most important, etc.

Reading _____ Writing _____ Listening _____ Speaking _____

Please check which activities YOU BELIEVE are helping you to learn or improve your English

1 Helpful - 2 Rather helpful - 3 Rather unhelpful - 4 Unhelpful - 5 I don't know					
Warm-up activity: guessing "Who am I" or solving some puzzle					
Role playing according to the book's instructions					
Reviewing the previous week's lesson by filling in a slip of paper					
Doing competitive activities (against other pairs or groups)					
Doing grammar exercises: filling in the blanks or transferring tenses					
Matching words in Czech and English on slips of paper					
Reading and translating of articles and answering questions on them					
Playing bingo with the target phrases and vocabulary					
Doing co-operative activities					
Weekly word searches of target vocabulary					
Listening to taped dialogues/texts or a transcript read by a teacher					
Weekly criss-crosses (crosswords) with the target vocabulary					
Having a group discussion on how to solve problems in a specific field					
Writing essays					
Making presentations in front of a teacher or class					
General quizzes					
Using electronic media (including electronic textbooks) in class					
Betting play money on English grammar or facts					
Matching words and their descriptions					
Talking about similar words taken from English which are used in Czech					
Having English grammar explained by the teacher					
Receiving awards (such as candies) or accumulating points					
Being assigned homework					
Doing collocations (Matching partly or fully fixed expressions)					

Appendix 4

The results of the 4th part of the questionnaire in order of ranking in percentage

Description of Activity	Rather Helpful/Helpful	Rather Unhelpful/Unhelpful	I Don't know
Supplementary/Enriching (S/E)			
Playing bingo	87	13	-
Previous lesson review	85.5	11	3.5
Matching slips of paper	84	16	-
Warm-up guessing game	83.5	17.5	-
Receiving awards/points	83	12	5
Comparing English/Czech words	77.5	20.5	2
Doing crosswords	74.5	23.5	2
Doing word searches	72.5	19.5	8
General quizzes	71.5	24	4.5
Betting on grammar/facts	66.5	24	9.5
Course of Study (CoS)			
Matching words/descriptions	85.5	9.5	5
Having grammar explained	85.5	12.5	2
Doing grammar exercises	80	19	1
Discussing specific problems	78.5	20	1.5
Reading/translating articles	74	22	4
Doing collocations	70.5	18.5	11
Listening to tapes	68.5	27.5	4
Role playing	59.5	30.5	10
Writing essays	42	47	11
Using electronic media	42	45.5	12.5
Making presentations	36	50.5	13.5
Other			
Competitive activities	88	10.5	1.5
Co-operative activities	82.5	14.5	3
Receiving homework	34.5	58.5	7

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Special child learning difficulty or specific teacher difficulty?

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Abstract¹²⁴

During the pilot implementation of English as a foreign language to 6 years olds in Greek primary schools, a survey of teachers' attitudes reveals that the learners' difficulties were often ascribed to specific learning problems especially among non-native speakers of Greek. If this is correct then the response is alarming but reveals some dangerous misconceptions if the teachers are wrong. Foreign language teachers are rarely trained in teaching children of this age. The present study aims to investigate the accuracy of these reports. 75 questionnaires were administered and then 21 interviews with the teachers were conducted and the findings reveal the misconceptions the teachers were under. The results demonstrate the necessity for informing, updating and training teachers involved with foreign languages at this age. This is an innovative research study appearing for the first time in Greece on a subject that is in a real need of further research.

1. Context of the study

In a European context where early foreign language teaching has acquired a great significance and the introduction of EFL programmes for young learners in schools has become more and more frequent, Greece has also followed this tendency with the introduction of English as a compulsory subject in some schools at the age of 7 since 2010. The Greek EYL project, also known with the acronym PEAP (<http://rcel.enl.uoa.gr/peap/en>), has been designed and carried out by the University of Athens at the Research Centre for Language Teaching, Testing and Assessment (RCeL). Experts in the field of Early Language Learning from the University of Athens and the University of Thessaloniki have collaborated for the design and implementation of the programme.

The general aim of the PEAP programme is to develop young learners' social literacies through English and this is the foundation upon which the PEAP curriculum, its syllabuses and instructional materials have been based. The programme also aims at familiarizing young learners with English as well as helping them develop a positive attitude towards the language and foreign language learning in general. PEAP students are firstly introduced to spoken language through a data bank of creative activities at the teacher's disposal, which can be adjusted to student needs.

The present study deals with the issue of learning difficulties and their manifestation in very young learners as they learn English as a foreign language in Greek public schools. The aims of the study aims are:

- (a) to shed light on the teachers' perceptions and possible misconceptions regarding learning difficulties at a very young age and
- (b) to investigate whether (and which) young learners' characteristics tend to be misinterpreted as signs of a learning difficulty in early language teaching.

What motivated research in this particular area was an interesting finding of a questionnaire survey seeking to profile the teachers who taught English within the context of the programme in the first year of its implementation. One of the striking findings of this study was that half of the respondents (49%) claimed that several students in the PEAP classes seem

¹²⁴ *This research project is funded by the Research Committee of Aristotle University Greece (code: 89508)*

to have some kind of learning difficulty. Therefore, we decided to further investigate the area of learning difficulties in young learners beginning with teachers' perceptions on the issue.

The idiosyncratic characteristics of young learners were an additional reason for proceeding to further research as they can cause confusion to teachers. Very young learners usually tend to learn quickly but forget easily, have a short attention span and absorb information only when motivated. They are kinaesthetic, they learn by making and doing and they may go through a silent period at first. This unique profile can become extremely complicated, especially when combined with learning difficulties.

For the purposes of the study and in order to explore the above questions, a two-phase research was designed which is presented in detail below.

2. Exploring the existing literature in the Greek context

Before proceeding to the description of the methodology employed in the present study, it is worth exploring briefly the already existing studies in the field of learning difficulties in Greece.

The majority of studies concerning the issue of learning difficulties carried out in the Greek context deal with the learners' first language acquisition while few studies focus particularly on dyslexia in the EFL classroom (Lemperou, Chostelidou & Griva, 2011; Andreou & Baseki, 2012; Goudi, 2010). In the case of L1 acquisition, several research studies are concerned with the learner's family environment (Panteliadu, 2007), with the impact of learning difficulties on the student's overall school performance (Panteliadu & Patsiodimou, 2007; Sakkas, 1999) or with the learner's reading and writing skills (Protopapas & Skaloubakas, 2008). In some cases, such factors as student age are taken into account, thus separating students in different age groups subject to analysis (young learners, teenagers and adults with learning difficulties) (Papatheofilou, Chatzivasili, Poga, Kallinaki & Aliferi, 1993; Nousia, 1990).

However, learning a foreign language is a great challenge for learners with learning difficulties, especially if one considers the difficulty of those learners to cope with tasks while learning a foreign language (Crombie, 1995). What has hitherto been investigated in the Greek context concerning this issue, focuses mainly on student performance (particularly of dyslexic students) and on EFL teachers' perceptions and practices with regard to dealing with dyslexia in secondary education. For instance, Rontou (2012) focuses on the differentiation of teaching methods, and on the extra time needed in class for learners with dyslexia in secondary school. EFL teachers' perceptions as regards the issue of dyslexia in Greek state secondary schools have also been explored (Gouzkouri, 2012). Various other studies, which are beyond the scope of the present study and therefore will not be mentioned in detail, deal with the difficulties Greek students face in spelling English due to the opacity of the English language as opposed to the transparency of the Greek language (Spencer, 2000).

Although numerous studies conducted investigate students' performance or the EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions towards learning difficulties, other issues, such as the teacher's ability to recognize and distinguish difficulties in a primary school setting, have yet to be adequately examined. Lemperou (2009) has attempted to identify EFL primary school teachers' experience and views on the challenges of dyslexic children in the mainstream classroom. An investigation of the inclusion techniques employed by state primary school EFL teachers in Greece in order to promote the successful incorporation of students with dyslexia in the general classroom has also been made (Katrini, 2005).

However, and bearing in mind that the PEAP programme constitutes a special EFL context, where school literacy has not yet been introduced and children are exposed to a foreign language at a very young age, it seems as though the issue of learning difficulties in the particular context requires further research. Therefore, the present study is an attempt to investigate the EFL teachers' perceptions of learning difficulties in the PEAP classes and their experience with these learners in general.

It has to be clarified at this point that the term “learning difficulties” in this study is conceptualized as a broader term than the term “dyslexia” as the latter is used in most studies so far. The concept of the “learning difficulty” is hereafter used to refer to students who cannot cope efficiently with basic reading skills, written expression and reasoning in combination with memory and/or attention problems as well as several perceptual disorders, such as the inability to recognize, discriminate and interpret stimuli (Mercer, 1997). This conceptualization of learning difficulties has guided the development of the research tools of this study, used in two research phases, which are presented and explained below.

3. Methodology and data collection

3.1 First research phase: a questionnaire survey

In the first research phase, a questionnaire survey was conducted with a view to tracing PEAP teachers’ perceptions concerning learning difficulties in young learners, as well as gathering information on possible misconceptions on this area, which would be further investigated in the second research phase (i.e. the teachers’ interviews). The tool employed was an online questionnaire designed by the working team for the elicitation of data on the PEAP teachers’ profile, their views on what a learning difficulty is and its impact on foreign language learning at a very young age.

More specifically, the tool was divided into three sections; in the first section the respondents were asked to provide us with their demographic characteristics, including their years of teaching experience in the public sector in general and the PEAP programme in particular. The participants were also asked to evaluate their knowledge in the field of learning difficulties, as well as to specify on how they have gained it (e.g. their studies, seminars, etc.). The second part of the questionnaire aimed at investigating the teachers’ perceptions on learning difficulties and thus, the participants were asked, among others, to describe those student behaviours which they consider a sign of a learning difficulty, to outline the profile of students with learning difficulties and provide their own definition of learning difficulties. In the third and final part of the questionnaire, the respondents commented on the teacher’s role when realizing that a student might be facing a learning difficulty. Most items of the present tool were open-ended questions as the working team was aiming at a qualitative analysis of the teachers’ views.

The participants were contacted by the School Advisors of English, who kindly accepted to administer the tool to the PEAP teachers in the area of their responsibility (snowball sampling). Although the questionnaire survey took place in the beginning of the school year when several English teachers have not yet been appointed to their schools, 75 PEAP teachers in state schools all over Greece responded to this call and completed the questionnaire.

3.2 Second research phase: Interviews

Moving on to the second phase of the research, a structured interview scheme was designed and divided into two parts. The first part contained a number of statements of student behavior classified under four key categories (Reception of oral speech, Production of oral speech, Reading and writing, Reasoning and inclusion in the school environment). Several items have been adopted by Panteliadu & Sideridis’ standardized test of tracing learning difficulties (Panteliadu & Sideridis, 2008). The participants were then asked to evaluate these statements as signs of learning difficulty, taking into account their experience in class. They could answer positively, negatively or state that they do not know whether a certain behaviour signifies the existence of a learning difficulty or not. Then, they were asked to contemplate on the frequency of encountering each of the stated behaviours in their classes. As the distinction between signs of a learning difficulty and typical young learner characteristics can be difficult to make, the research team deliberately included some statements in the interview scheme, which were descriptive of typical young learner characteristics and the participants’ answers to these specific questions were separately evaluated.

The second part of the interview contained general questions about the teachers' experience with children with learning difficulties. The questions in this part revolved around the following three axes of teacher experience: a) their perceptions of whether bilingual children exhibit signs of learning difficulty in the PEAP classes, b) how the reactions of children with learning difficulties change as their school experience increases and c) the impact of the existence of children with learning difficulty in class on the rest of the children as well as on the teacher's role. Finally, teachers were encouraged to make general comments and express possible problems on the issue of dealing with very young learners with learning difficulties in the English language classroom.

In this research phase, the participants were 21 respondents in the questionnaire of the first phase, who have willingly agreed to participate in 20-minute telephone interviews, thus providing further detail on the issues touched upon in the questionnaire.

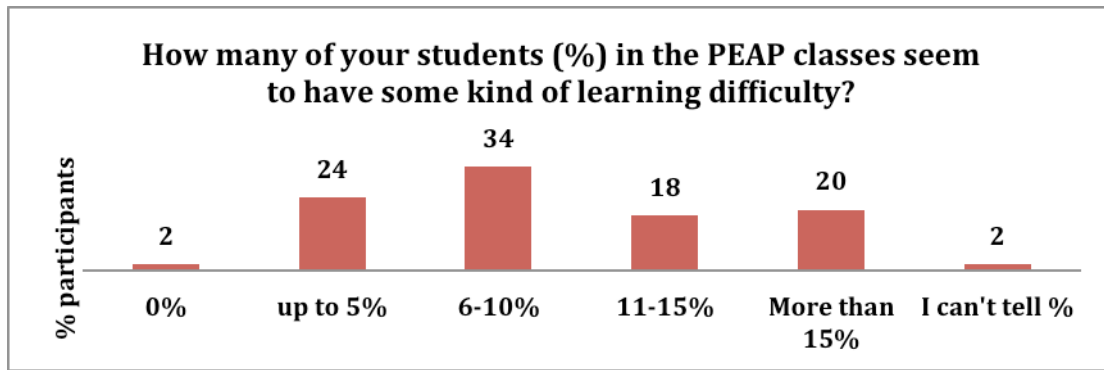
4. Results

4.1 Major questionnaire findings

With regard to the respondents' profile it should be noted that all of them hold a BA in English Language and Literature. A significant number of the participant teachers hold an MA in TEFL (34%), a few of them (14%) hold a BA in a different field and only a small minority (6%) holds a PhD in TEFL. The vast majority of the PEAP teachers who responded to the questionnaire were women (96%). As regards their age, half of the participants (50%) belonged to the 36-45 age group, 18% aged up to 35 years, and 32% were older than 46 years old. Moreover, half of those teachers have more than 16 years of service in the public sector, 32% of them have 6-10 years, 14% have 11-15 years and only 4% have 1-5 years of service. It is also of great significance that 44% of the respondents have been teaching English in grades A and B since the PEAP launch, 16% have been teaching in the programme for two school years, 24% for just one school year, while 16% of them have just been introduced to the programme. In addition, almost all the participants of the survey (98%) are currently teaching English within the context of PEAP.

The respondents were also asked to comment on the extent to which they consider themselves informed about learning difficulties. Only a small minority (6%) of the respondents declare that they consider themselves very informed, 36% of them consider themselves more or less informed, the majority (58%) claim they are a little informed on learning difficulties, while none of the participants stated that they are not informed whatsoever. What is really interesting though, is their source of information about learning difficulties. The vast majority of the teachers (76%) said that they have been informed in training seminars, 60% that their source is the Internet, 50% that they study bibliography on the field on their own, 42% that they get informed at academic conferences and seminars, 34% stated that their knowledge derives from their BA degree and only 4% that it derives from their MA degree. It becomes obvious that state school English teachers rely on their own initiatives to get informed about learning difficulties, as it is an issue they have to deal with on a daily basis in their classes.

Furthermore, almost all participants (98%) confirmed that they have encountered learners with learning difficulties in their PEAP classes. It is also worth mentioning that a great number of the respondents have estimated that more than 10% of their students face a learning difficulty (see table below).



Graph 1: Teachers' perceptions on the percentage of learners with learning difficulties in their classrooms

When the participants were asked to describe the learner behaviours that they consider a sign of learning difficulty, they have mostly referred to:

- hyperactivity
- poor concentration
- hostility
- inability to cooperate and adjust in the school environment

Many teachers also point out that the students' inability to remember words or sounds, a negative attitude towards writing, difficulties in articulating oral speech, shyness, lack of self-confidence, emotional instability, omission or reversals of letters/syllables, difficulty in holding the pencil or scissors and the inability to understand and follow the teacher's instructions may also indicate a learning difficulty.

All the above problematic behaviours according to the respondents tend to be signs of several learning difficulties such as Dyslexia, Dysgraphia, the Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), the Asperger Syndrome or Autism. Most of the teachers asked also claim that students having a learning difficulty in acquiring their mother tongue, do so in English language acquisition as well.

With regard to this special student group profile, the participants highlight that they often tend to have a generally poor performance at school (i.e. not solely in the language classes). They also have a tendency to adopt problematic behaviour which could be a result of domestic violence, a poor academic and social background of their family or their personal low self-esteem. The respondents stress that these tendencies are often witnessed in immigrant children and their families and thus, teachers should not always conclude that they indicate a learning difficulty. Moreover, they declare that learners with learning difficulties usually find it demanding to cooperate with other students and adjust to the school environment.

In the definitions of learning difficulties, the participants articulated themselves, they referred to learning difficulties as a factor that makes the acquisition of new knowledge difficult for some students. They also stressed that students with learning difficulties are intelligent in their own unique way and that they need a different teaching approach. Below are some of the most interesting definitions provided by the respondents:

(a) *Having a learning difficulty usually means that the student finds no joy in learning something new, instead the learning process becomes an exhausting procedure often accompanied by the feeling of disappointment.*

(b) *Trying to avoid writing, illegible handwriting, difficulty in concentrating.*

(c) *A student who has a learning difficulty needs more time than other students when working on an activity, while s/he needs to discover his/her own way to memorize and recall information.*

(d) *Students with learning difficulties need reward and love, not rejection.*

(e) *Students with learning difficulties are intelligent students who are imaginative and artistic; they find it difficult to adjust to the rules and pace of others mostly because they are too slow for them. They seek for action, creative expression, release of the tension. They often fail to follow and understand linear stream of thought, reading or writing because their own boundaries are broader.*

As regards the teacher's role when s/he has an indication that a student has a learning difficulty, the participants stressed that it is their duty to:

- cooperate with the class teacher and the school principal
- inform, advise and support the students' parents
- seek for advice from experts in the field
- differentiate his/her instruction adjusting it to the student's needs
- support, protect and encourage the student highlighting his/her strengths
- keep himself/herself informed so that they are able to detect and face potential problems.

Finally, the majority of the state school teachers of this survey claimed that their experience in the programme did not change their perception of learning difficulties. Those who said that they gained some knowledge on the field, suggest that it derives from their newly-developed insight into teaching young learners.

4.2 Major interview findings

Using their background knowledge and their experience in the PEAP classes, 21 teachers participated in the interview and proceeded to an evaluation of a series of statements of learner behaviour. Interestingly, in this first part of the interview, most statements of learner behavior were considered as possible signs of a learning difficulty by the interviewees. However, after responding positively to the evaluation of some statements, many of the participants tended to comment that certain behaviours could also be attributed to the learners' young age. Upon reflection, they identified several additional causes, rather than the mere existence of a learning difficulty, such as the lack of school experience and the lack of practice in English or in general world knowledge on the part of the young learners. Generally, only 10-30% of the respondents tended to state that they did not know whether a statement was a sign of a learning difficulty or not.

Out of the four categories of learner behavior included in the interview and already described above, the statements most frequently evaluated by the participants as signs of learning difficulty were under the headings "Reading and writing" as well as "Reasoning and inclusion in the school environment". This is especially interesting as at the age we are discussing, children **do not** possess **literacy skills**. Specifically, "Reordering, replacing, omitting or adding letters when writing" was considered a sign of difficulty by 85,7% of the respondents, "Negative attitude towards writing" was pointed out as a difficulty by 81% of the respondents, while other behaviours, such as "Easily giving up the effort to understand" was considered a difficulty by 76,2% of the respondents. Similar answers were given for the following statements: "Difficulty in understanding written English (at word level) but relative ease when they hear the oral representation" (61,9% of the respondents), "Being easily distracted when they perform an activity" (66,7%), "Difficulty in discerning phonemes" (57,1%) and "Inability to identify the gist" (57,1%).

Moreover, most of the participants classified many of the most typical young learner characteristics of the aforementioned two categories as signs of a learning difficulty.

Specifically, the vast majority of the respondents (90,5%) categorized the learners' "Inability to concentrate for a long time" as a learning difficulty. Behaviours such as the "General difficulty in the initial steps of reading and writing skills development" and the "Signs of hyperactivity" were also characterized as learning difficulties by a percentage of 71,4% of the respondents respectively. More than half of the participants (61,9%) claimed that the "Difficulty to discipline and follow class rules" is a sign of a learning difficulty and almost half of them (47,6%) hold the same belief for the children's "Inability to consolidate and reproduce new knowledge effortlessly".

Apparently, the undoubted difficulty in differentiating between typical young learner behaviour and a possible learning difficulty accounts for the high percentage of respondents stating that these behaviours are signs of a learning difficulty. It should be noted at this point, however, that this is not always a misinterpretation on the part of the teacher as in many cases some of these behaviours might as well have been signs of learning difficulty.

On the other hand, some other statements were deemed as more of a natural and expected behavior by children at this age and at this level of school experience. These statements of learner behavior, which were classified as rather unlikely to be a learning difficulty, are presented below: a) "Difficulty in the comprehension of a quickly uttered phrase/relative ease upon slower repetition of the utterance" (71,4% of the respondents), b) "Misinterpretation of directions given in English" (61,9% of the respondents), c) "Recalling another word of the same semantic category in English (e.g. notebook instead of book)" (52,4% of the respondents), d) "Difficulty in the clear articulation of oral speech in English" (52,4% of the respondents), e) "Inability to recall and reproduce new knowledge easily" (42,9% of the respondents).

Therefore, the respondents appear to be more lenient when young learners show signs of confusion, misinterpretation or difficulty in English than in Greek. For instance, as regards the difficulty in the articulation of oral speech in Greek, almost half of the respondents (47,6%) consider it a sign of learning difficulty, as opposed to a much lower percentage (19%) who state the opposite. On the other hand, when it comes to the difficulty in the articulation of oral speech in English only some of the respondents (19%) answered positively while for half of them (52,4%) this is not a learning difficulty. It seems as though young learners' limited experience with English plays a determining role in their teachers' judgement.

Moving on to the second part of the interview, almost half of the respondents (47,6%) have had the experience of teaching a PEAP class for two consecutive years. In this case, all of them record increased school experience on the part of student as a key factor in alleviating possible learning difficulties and helping learners mature and improve their behaviour.

Regarding the issue of the combination of *bilingualism* and *learning difficulties*, some of the participants (38,1%) claimed they had witnessed learning difficulties in bilingual children. Few respondents (28,6%) stated that they had **not** spotted learning difficulties in bilinguals and a percentage of 33,3% of the respondents were not certain and refrained from providing a specific answer. In an effort to explore their views on this issue, most respondents (61,9%) stated that they do **not** consider bilingual learners as a group of learners more prone to learning difficulty as opposed to a percentage of 23,8% who report the opposite. Another interesting finding is that many teachers have described bilingual students as extreme cases (i.e. either as excellent students or as students of poor performance).

When it comes to the teacher's role in class, the majority of the respondents (71,4%) argued that learners with learning difficulties hinder their work in the PEAP classes. They further explain that by referring to the need for differentiated instruction and the extra planning involved in dealing with mixed ability classes (e.g. simplification of educational material, etc).

A categorization of the responses in the open questions (qualitative analysis) yields the following findings. The PEAP teachers participating in the survey almost unanimously ask for

special training in the area of learning difficulties. With respect to the Greek EYL project, they comment on its idiosyncratic nature in general, emphasizing on the carefully designed educational material, which helps soothe learning difficulties, as it familiarizes young learners with oral production, games and songs before the introduction of school literacy. Reference is also made to several other stakeholders, as the participants stress the need for informing parents, children and society as a whole on the issue of learning difficulties. Each of these stakeholders should be informed to the extent that this is necessary and can have a positive impact on the teaching process. Finally, the participant teachers point at the importance of their cooperation with the class teacher or even the kindergarten teacher where this is possible.

When reflecting on how they go about “diagnosing” possible learning difficulties in their students, the participants appear to have developed their own perceptions and “rules”, thus being more alert in certain cases. For instance, when they witness a persistent appearance of a “problematic behaviour” in a student even as s/he grows older, they tend to attribute it to the existence of a learning difficulty. This finding renders student age one of the most important factors in “diagnosing” and perceiving learning difficulties. Another factor of great importance for teachers is the combined realization of certain behaviours in a child (e.g. hyperactivity along with a shorter attention span). Finally, frequency and intensity in the manifestation of the “problematic behaviour” also appear to count.

5. Conclusions

Examining the results of the present survey, it becomes evident that the respondents have already formulated certain views on what constitutes a learning difficulty and how they can go about dealing with it. However, they stress the need for further training which will enable them to recognize and cope with learning difficulties. Moreover, one of the significant findings of the current study was that most of the participants seem to be aware of young learners’ characteristics and of the fact that PEAP students belong to a special group of learners who need time to adjust in the school environment and especially before being introduced to literacy.

Still, teachers appear to misinterpret behaviours that relate to adjustment in the new sector with learning difficulties (hyperactivity, poor concentration, discipline, inability to follow instructions). There appears to be confusion between a typical young behaviour and learning difficulty. Teachers also indicate specific language learning problems in learners who have not developed literacy skills (negative attitude to writing, dyslexia, shyness to read).

What is really encouraging is that the participants have confirmed that the educational material used in the context of the programme helps students with learning difficulties participate in the learning process and build their self-esteem, promotes differentiated learning and gives equal opportunities to all students.

The respondents also admit that bilinguals do encounter several difficulties in language learning but they stress that this is due to their poor linguistic environment and does not always indicate a learning difficulty.

Some additional questions that would be interesting to explore in more detail in the future are:

- How can a teacher best deal with mixed ability classes of young learners?
- How can a teacher handle the parents whose children exhibit a degree of learning difficulty?
- To what extent is knowledge about learning difficulty in one’s mother tongue applicable to foreign language acquisition?

Finally, an important limitation needs to be considered. The current study has only examined a small sample of PEAP teachers and the results presented are tendencies concerning the teachers’ perceptions on learning difficulties. In order to draw safer and more accurate conclusions which can be generalized for all PEAP teachers, a larger scale survey should be carried out. The current study, however, along with the emerged interesting results can be of

use to English teachers, teacher trainers and policy makers especially because teachers strongly emphasise their need for further training on the issue of learning difficulties.

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ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ ETKİLEŞİMLİ TAHTA KABUL VE KULLANIM DÜZEYLERİNİN BELİRLENMESİ: ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ ÖRNEĞİ

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Hızla gelişen teknoloji sayesinde her gün yeni ürünler sunularak yaşantılarımız zenginleştirilmeye ve kolaylaştırılmaya çalışılmaktadır. Eğitsel süreçleri zenginleştirmek ve kolaylaştırmak amacıyla teknolojinin yoğun olarak kullanıldığı alanlardan biri de eğitim olmuştur. Bunun bir sonucu olarak da etkili, verimli, çekici öğrenmeyi sağlamak amacıyla, eğitime teknoloji entegrasyonunun sağlanması her bir eğitimcinin öncelikli hedefi haline gelmiştir. Bu noktada eğitimde teknoloji entegrasyonu sürecinde, göz önünde bulundurulması gereken hususların başında, söz konusu teknoloji veya teknolojilerin hedef kitle tarafından ne derece kabul göreceğinin ve ne düzeyde kullanılabileceğinin belirlenmesi ve bu doğrultuda düzenlemeler yapılmasının geldiği söylenebilir. Alanyazında çok sayıda teknoloji kabul ve kullanım modeli bulunmaktadır. Bu modellerden Teknoloji Kabul Modeli (Technology Acceptance Model-TAM), TAM 2 ve TAM 3 modelleri, Venkatesh (2003) tarafından Birleştirilmiş Teknoloji Kabul ve Kullanım Modeli (UTAUT, Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology) ile bir çatı altında toplanarak daha kapsamlı ve güncel bir model öne sürülmüştür. Bu model kapsamında geliştirilen ölçek, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin neredeyse tamamının kabul ve kullanımını ölçmek için uyarlanabilir niteliktedir.

Bu çalışmada Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi'nde bir altyapı projesi ile etkileşimli tahtalar ile donatılan sınıflarda eğitim-öğretim etkinlikleri gerçekleştirilecek olan öğretmen adaylarının etkileşimli tahta kabul ve kullanım düzeylerinin belirlenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu amaç çerçevesinde, veri toplama aracı olarak UTAUT temelinde İngilizce olarak geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması yapılan ölçek, araştırmacılar tarafından Türkçeleştirilip öğrencilerin etkileşimli tahta kabul ve kullanım düzeylerini ölçecek biçimde uyarlanarak kullanılmıştır. Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi'nde, 12 farklı anabilim dalında, çeşitli kademelerde öğrenim görmekte olan 358 lisans öğrencisinden sözü edilen veri toplama aracı ile veri toplanmıştır. Elde edilen veriler parametrik testler ile analiz edilerek Eğitim Fakültesi lisans öğrencilerinin etkileşimli tahta kabul ve kullanım düzeyleri ortaya çıkarılmış ve öğrencilerin cinsiyetleri, öğrenim görmekte oldukları anabilim dalları ve sınıfları açısından karşılaştırılarak incelenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Teknoloji Entegrasyonu, Öğretmen Adayları, Birleştirilmiş Teknoloji Kabul ve Kullanım Modeli, Etkileşimli Tahta

Revising the visuals in the multimedia based test items: What kind of pictures?

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The joint use of texts and graphics, called as “multimedia”, have been wide spread in many contexts as well as in educational settings. The most common use of multimedia components have been in distribution of informational content to learners. Also nowadays multimedia features are often being used in assessment activities. Several internationally recognized assessments such as Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL), European Computer Driving License (ECDL), Scholastic Assessment Test (SAT), and also some national tests (e.g. Turkish Middle School Attendance Exams) use multimedia in both test items and answer options abundantly. Majority of multimedia used in aforementioned test environments are in static format. There are some emerging questions regarding the use and quality of graphics in test environments such as the necessity of using them, when to use them, for who they are beneficial, and the aims of using graphics.

Some taxonomies classify graphics according their use in any content. Levin (1981)’s taxonomy of graphics is one of these frameworks in the literature. In this study, the graphics of Turkish Middle School Attendance Exams’ (OKS & OGES) 6th-7th & 8th Grade English achievement tests were examined in terms of quality, aim, type, content and context with reference to Levin (1981)’s taxonomy. The study is expected to provide findings that could have insights for selecting pictures to be used in the multimedia-based tests. Implications will be addressed and further suggestions will be made in the presentation.

MASON'UN BİLİŞİM ETİĞİ BOYUTLARI ALTINDA VİKİPEDI'NİN İNCELENMESİ

INVESTIGATION OF WIKIPEDIA UNDER THE LIGHT OF MASON'S PAPA

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ÖZET

Web 2.0 teknolojilerinden biri olan Vikipedi, kullanıcılar tarafından işbirliği içerisinde oluşturulan özgür, bağımsız, ücretsiz, reklamsız kar amacı gütmeyen bir internet ansiklopedisidir. Takımlara ve bireylere yeni bilgiyi ekleme, düzenleme ve yapıyı gözden geçirebilmelerini sağladığı yapısı aracılığıyla birlikte içerik üretme olanağı sağlamaktadır. Ancak bu teknolojiler bireyler tarafından amacına ve etik kurallara uygun kullanıldığı sürece fayda sağlayacaktır. Bu bağlamda sözü edilen teknolojilerin bilişim etiğine uygun kullanılmasına odaklanmak yerinde olacaktır. Bilişim etiği, bilim ve etiğin arasında bir alan olmasına ve onlara bağlı olmasına rağmen, hem anlayış için kavramsallaştırma hem de teknolojinin kullanımı için ilkeler sağlayan kendi doğrusu içinde bir disiplindir. Bilişim etiği gizlilik, doğruluk, fikri mülkiyet ve erişilebilirlik olmak üzere dört temel boyut olarak tanımlanmıştır.

Bu çalışmada bilişim etiği boyutları altında Vikipedi kullanımı incelenmeye çalışılmıştır. Nitel araştırma desenlerine uygun olarak desenlenen çalışmanın verileri Anadolu Üniversitesi Bilgisayar ve Öğretim Teknolojileri Eğitimi (BÖTE) Bölümünde öğrenim gören sekiz öğretmen adayı ve bir uzman ile yapılan küçük grup görüşmeleri aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Öğretmen adayları ile yapılan görüşmeler her bir lisans düzeyinden 1 erkek 1 kadın olmak üzere ikişer kişilik dört adet küçük grup görüşmesi olarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Elde edilen veriler betimsel analiz yöntemi ile analiz edilmiştir. Bu bağlamda veriler bilişim etiği ölçütleri altında düzenlenmiş ve bu ölçütler altında Vikipedi incelenmeye çalışılmıştır.

ABSTRACT

Wikipedia is a Web 2.0 technology of an internet encyclopedia. It is created in collaboration by users, free, independent, commercial-free and non-profit. This technology provides opportunity to create content together through the structure with teams and individuals who are able to add, edit and revise information. It has a valuable effect if it is used in accordance with the ethical rules by individuals. In this sense, it would be appropriate to focus on using this technology in accordance with the information ethics. Although Informatic ethics is an field between science and ethic and depend both of them, it is a discipline in own truth providing not only conceptualizing to understand but also to use of technology. Information ethics has four core dimensions as privacy, accuracy, property and accessibility.

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The aim of this study is to investigate Wikipedia under the light of this dimensions of informatic ethics. Data set of this study is designed according to qualitative research design and was collected by small group interview. Data set was collected from eight teacher candidates in the department of computer and instructional technology education in University of Anadolu and one expert. Interviews were carried out as four small group interviews including.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Wikipedi, Bilişim Etiği*

ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARININ ÖĞRETİM SÜREÇLERİNDE ETKİLEŞİMLİ TAHTA KULLANIMINA İLİŞKİN BEKLENTİLERİ

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Öğretme-öğrenme ortamlarını, öğretim programını ve alt yapıyı içine alacak biçimde öğretme-öğrenme sürecinin tüm boyutlarında teknolojinin etkili ve verimli biçimde kullanılması olarak tanımlanabilen eğitimde teknoloji entegrasyonu konusunda günümüze kadar gerek dünyada gerekse de Türkiye’de birçok proje yürütülmüştür. Türkiye’de yürütülen eğitimde teknoloji entegrasyonu projelerinden en güncel ve en kapsamlısı Fırsatları Artırma ve Teknolojiyi İyileştirme Hareketi (FATİH) Projesidir. FATİH Projesinin en önemli bileşenlerinden biri olan donanım kapsamında getirilen en önemli yenilik ilkökul, ortaokul ve liselerde her sınıfa etkileşimli tahtaların yerleştirilmesinin planlanmasıdır. Bu güne kadar etkileşimli tahta donatımı liselerde tamamlanmış, ilk ve ortaokullarda ise henüz başlamamıştır. Öğretmenlere bu proje ile sınıflara yerleştirilen teknolojileri etkili ve verimli kullanabilmelerini sağlamak için Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından hizmetiçi eğitimler verilmekte, ancak beklenen verim alınamamaktadır. Bu nedenle öğretmenlerimiz henüz hizmet öncesinde bu teknoloji ile tanışarak, gerek sınıf içi kullanımı gerekse de eğitimde etkili entegrasyonu konusunda gereken yeterliklerle donatılması oldukça önemlidir. Bu amaçla, öğretmen eğitiminde bu teknolojilerin etkili kullanılmasını sağlamak amacıyla Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi’nde hazırlanan bir altyapı projesi ile tüm sınıflar etkileşimli tahtalar ile donatılmıştır. Proje ile birlikte öğretim elemanlarının da etkileşimli tahtaları aktif olarak kullanmaları beklenmektedir. Bu nedenle çalışmada Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi öğretim elemanlarının etkileşimli tahtanın öğretim süreçlerinde etkili kullanımına ilişkin beklentileri belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Araştırma kapsamında Eğitim Fakültesi bünyesinde bulunan 12 anabilim dalından üçer öğretim elemanı olmak üzere toplam 36 öğretim elemanı ile yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Görüşmelerden elde edilen nitel veriler içerik analizine tabi tutulmuştur. Araştırmanın bulgularının “Etkileşimli tahtanın sınıf ortamında katkıları ve sınırlılıkları”, “Etkileşimli tahtaların öğretme becerilerine etkileri”, “Etkileşimli tahta ile gerçekleştirilmesi planlanan etkinlikler”, “Etkileşimli tahta kullanım becerilerine ilişkin algıları” ve “Etkileşimli tahta kullanım becerilerini geliştirmek için yapılması önerilen etkinlikler” olmak üzere beş kategori altında toplandığı görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: FATİH Projesi, Eğitim Teknolojisi, Etkileşimli Tahta

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Reflections from a two-year Multimedia Learning Research Project

Research projects in the Academy require high levels of interaction, communication, commitment and synergy among their members. Furthermore, there are several common challenges in the projects to be confronted by the researchers. Concrete timeline, limited budget, outsourcing expertise, losing team members are some of these grand challenges. Running research projects in social contexts, specifically in educational environments do not decrease but increase the amount of challenges to be dealt with. The ever changing nature of individuals and several differences between educational settings make it difficult to predict and control the extraneous variables of researches.

In this paper, the experiences of our research team in doing a true experimental study in several Turkish government primary schools were presented. These experiences include the issues faced with school administrations, subject teachers, experimental settings, and- participants of the study- students. The two-year research process was addressed with a narrative approach and the ways the researchers hurdled problems during this period were elucidated. Further suggestions were made for the members of future projects in educational settings.

Acknowledgement: This study was supported by Anadolu University Scientific Researches Department (Project Number= 1204E063).

Keywords: Multimedia learning, project management, educational research.

Sosyal Paylaşım Ağlarını Kullanma Düzeyi ile Öğrenme Stilleri Arasındaki İlişkinin Belirlenmesi

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Özet

Günümüzde hemen her yaşta birey tarafından kullanılan web 2.0 teknolojilerinin en yaygın olanı sosyal paylaşım ağlarıdır. Sosyal paylaşım ağları; bireylerin kendilerini etkili biçimde ifade edebilecekleri ve paylaşımda bulunabilecekleri ortamlar sunması açısından bilgi ve iletişim teknolojileri içerisinde önemli bir konuma sahiptir. Sosyal paylaşım ağlarının sahip olduğu iletişim ve etkileşim özellikleri, bu ortamlara öğretme-öğrenme süreçlerinde kullanılabilme potansiyeli kazandırmakta; hem bireysel hem de grupla öğretim konusunda sanal ortam üzerinde önemli olanaklar sunmaktadır. Öğretimin bireyselleştirilmesi ve daha etkili hale getirilmesi sürecinde, öğrenenlerin öğrenme stilleri gibi bireysel farklılıkların göz önünde bulundurulması; etkili, verimli ve çekici öğrenmenin gerçekleştirilmesini destekleyen faktörlerden biridir. Bu çalışmada; bireylerin, bireyselleşmiş bilgi paylaşım olanakları sunan sosyal paylaşım ağlarını kullanma biçimleri ile öğrenme sürecinin bireyler açısından farklılıklar gösterdiğini ifade eden öğrenme stilleri arasındaki ilişkinin ortaya çıkartılması amaçlanmaktadır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda çalışmada, 2012-2013 öğretim yılında Manisa Celal Bayar Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi'nde öğrenim gören 301 lisans öğrencisinden oluşan çalışma grubundan, sosyal paylaşım ağları sormacası ve Felder tarafından geliştirilen öğrenme stilleri indeksi aracılığı ile veri toplanmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre öğrenme stilleri indeksindeki “yaparak” alanına ilişkin ortalama puanlar ile sosyal paylaşım ağları sormaca maddeleri arasında orta düzeyde, pozitif ve anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır ($r=.329$, $p<.001$). Ayrıca sormacadaki görsel alana ilişkin maddelerin ortalama puanları ile indeksteki “görsel” alana ilişkin ortalama puanlar arasındaki düşük düzeyde pozitif yönlü ($r=.172$, $p<.001$) bir ilişkinin olduğu, diğer alanlara yönelik anlamlı bir ilişkinin olmadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sosyal paylaşım ağları, öğrenme stili, öğrenme stili indeksi

Determination of the Relationship between Usage of Social Networks and Learning Styles

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Abstract

Social networking, which is being used by people of all ages today, is the most widespread Web 2.0 technology. It is important in information and communication technologies for providing individuals with environments to express themselves efficiently and share ideas. Communication and interaction features of social networking offer opportunities in a virtual environment for teaching-learning process in both individual and group studies. In the process of individualizing instruction and making instruction more effective, consideration of individual differences like learning styles is an important factor supporting effective, productive and attractive learning. This study aims to point out the relationship between learning styles and individuals' usage of social networks that provide individualized information sharing opportunities. For this purpose, data was collected via a social networking questionnaire and learning styles index developed by Felder, from 301 undergraduates studying at Manisa Celal Bayar University in 2012-2013 academic year. According to the results, there is a medium level, positive and meaningful relationship between the average scores in "active" score of the learning styles index and the items in the social networking questionnaire ($r = .329$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, there is a low level positive relationship between the average scores in "visual" score of the index and average scores of questionnaire items related to visual domain ($r = .172$, $p < .001$). There were no meaningful relationships for the other domains.

Keywords: Social Networking, Learning Style, Learning Style Index

BT REHBER ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ DİJİTAL ÖYKÜ OLUŞTURMA SÜRECİNDE KARŞILAŞTIKLARI SORUNLAR

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Yaşanmış ya da tasarlanmış bir durumu, bir olayı anlatan düz yazı türü olarak tanımlanan öyküler (hikayeler) gelişen bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerindeki değişimlerle birlikte yeni bir boyut kazanmıştır. Bilgi ve iletişim teknolojileri ile birlikte dijital bir ortama taşınan öyküler dijital öykü olarak isimlendirilmiştir. Dijital öykü, dijital bir ortamda; ses, resim, görüntü, grafik, hareketli grafik, müzik ve metne dayalı anlatım olarak tanımlanabilir. Dijital öykü oluşturmanın amacı verilmek istenen mesajın duyuşsal boyut ile desteklenerek öğrenenlerin motivasyonlarını artırma ve öğrenme süreçlerini hızlandırmadır. Bu çalışmanın amacı bir devlet üniversitesinin Bilgisayar ve Öğretim Teknolojileri Eğitimi (BÖTE) bölümünde eğitim gören ve Eğitimde Materyal Tasarımı ve Kullanımı (EMTK) dersini alan öğrencilerin dijital öykü hazırlarken yaşadıkları sorunları belirlemektir. Araştırma tarama türü araştırmaya dayalı olarak gerçekleştirilmiş olup, araştırmanın verileri nitel veri toplama yöntemleri ile toplanmıştır. Araştırmanın katılımcılarını 2013-2014 öğretim yılında bir devlet üniversitesinin Eğitim Fakültesi BÖTE bölümünde EMTK dersini alan 76 öğrenci oluşturmaktadır. Araştırma verileri; anket, öğrenci ödevleri, öğrenci günlükleri yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler sonrasında elde edilen veriler oluşturmaktadır. Verilerin analizinde nitel veri analizi yöntemlerinden betimsel analiz kullanılmış ve veriler yüzde frekans ile görselleştirilmiştir. Bu çalışma sonucunda öğrencilerin karşılaştıkları sorunlar ortaya konmuş ve bu sorunlara ilişkin çözüm önerileri sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dijital öykü, dijital hikaye, materyal tasarımı, teknoloji entegrasyonu

NEW PATHWAYS IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

This paper outlines the response of a UK university to recent government initiatives to shift postgraduate initial teacher education from a university to a school-centred model.

New partnerships have been established and existing ones redefined as both university and school based staff have responded to the challenge to design new high quality teacher education programmes for both primary and secondary student teachers.

The way in which expertise has been shared is discussed, together with strategies for effectively integrating theory with practice. Consideration is given to the challenges this has presented to school staff as they shift from predominantly teaching children to educating student teachers, and to university staff as they relinquish overall control whilst maintaining responsibility for programme quality.

The paper concludes with a discussion of the tensions that have become apparent as the initial cohorts progress through the year and the expectations of key players in the programme.

INTRODUCTION – CONTEXT OF INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

In England there has been much debate surrounding the most effective way to train teachers in recent years. Much of the discussion has surrounded the respective merits of the key pathways into teaching; the traditional university route where universities train teachers in partnership with schools; the school based route and employment based route where training is done essentially ‘on the job’. In the last 30 years and particularly most recently there has been an increase in employment based and school-based teacher training, though the university route remains the most popular option. According to Smithers, Robinson and Coughlan (2012) there were 37,340 recruits to initial teacher training in 2010-11, nearly four-fifths to university courses, 16.6% to employment based initial teacher training programmes (EBITTs) and only 4.6% to school centred initial teacher training schemes (SCITTs).

It is possible to become a qualified primary or secondary school teacher in England through a number of different routes; taking a programme of initial teacher education (ITE) or initial teacher training (ITT) based at a university, college or school in order to be recommended for qualified teacher status (QTS). QTS can be recommended only by accredited providers of ITT, those universities, colleges or schools who demonstrate they can satisfy the criteria for ITT set out by the NCTL (the National College of Teaching and Leadership, 2013), an agency of the Department for Education. Accredited providers have been, and are still, inspected regularly by Ofsted (Office for Standards in Education), an independent and impartial organisation who seek to ensure quality and compliance with ITT criteria. The current framework for inspection is outlined in the Initial Teacher Education (ITE) inspection handbook (Ofsted, 2014). The terms ITE and ITT are often used interchangeably and there has been much debate about the implied difference between the terms teacher education and teacher training. For the purpose of this paper the term ITE will be used.

Programmes of ITE can be undertaken at either undergraduate level with enrolment on, for example, a Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree with QTS that is usually for 3 or 4 years, or at Postgraduate level, a one year programme of study with QTS. This is typically either the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) or Graduate Diploma in Education (GDE) and is for those who already have a relevant degree and other necessary qualifications in English, mathematics and science (at General Certificate of Secondary Education level). Some institutions offer

part time as well as full time routes. These programmes involve both an academic element that is assessed and awarded by the accredited provider (e.g. university), with the PGCE carrying Masters Level credits, and a professional element of QTS. This is assessed against the professional Teachers' Standards as set out by the Department for Education. These outline the minimum requirements for teachers' practice and conduct (DfE, 2012).

Historically, those choosing to undertake an ITE programme based almost entirely in school have had the choice of applying for a school based programme operated by a SCITT (School Centred Initial Teacher Training) or EBITT (Employment Based Initial Teacher Training). EBITT pathways have included the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP); Overseas Trained Teacher Programme (OTTP); and Teach First (TF). There was also, the Registered Teacher Programme (RTP), similar to the GTP, but for non-graduates. The RTP, GTP and OTTP led to qualified teacher status (QTS), but not necessarily a PGCE, this being the academic qualification as well as QTS. These routes essentially involved training to teach whilst being employed by the school as an unqualified teacher, following an individual programme of training to achieve QTS. Recent government policy has led to a change in employment based provision with the closure of GTP, RTP and OTTP routes and the emergence of School Direct, the government's preferred school based route leading to QTS. The Secretary of State for Education, Michael Gove (2012) suggested,

The idea is a simple one: take the very best schools, ones that are already working towards improving other schools, and put them in charge of teacher training and professional development for the whole system.

There are two School Direct training options. Firstly, training programme where the student teacher is based predominantly in school for their training but is supernumerary and is eligible for a bursary or scholarship to support them. Secondly, a salaried route which provides an employment-based route for high-quality experienced graduates with at least three years' work experience, who earn a salary whilst training and are expected to have some teaching responsibility. Whilst many on School Direct programmes will complete a PGCE, which includes both academic qualification and recommendation for QTS, there is a growing trend for QTS only programmes and Assessment only routes, which give trainee teachers the QTS they need to become a teacher but not the academic qualification.

Government allocations for teacher training published in November 2013 (National College for Teaching & Leadership, 2013) indicated clearly the government policy to shift teacher training into schools. Figures showed that 41,100 teachers would be trained in the year starting September 2014, rising from 38,900 in September 2013. Of this number the government intends that 15,400 will be trained via the School Direct route, an increase from 9,600 in the last year, representing an increase from 25% to 37%. Numbers trained on the postgraduate university route will fall from 20,000 this year to 16,200 in 2014.

Whichever route is undertaken to become a qualified teacher there is extensive time spent in a school environment. For example on a typical university based secondary or primary PGCE programme student teachers are based in schools for 120 days out of the 180 day programme with the other 60 days typically spent in university for academic study and training. This is a change from the model of the 1980's where the PGCE generally involved just two 6 week school placements over the year. The university has overall responsibility for the training programme and quality assurance mechanisms. University staff work in partnership with school staff to ensure the development of a coherent and consistent programme of training for student teachers that integrates theory with practice and supports their development as reflective practitioners.

University staff and school staff have both specific and shared roles and responsibilities that provide a blended model of training. For example, university staff act as link tutors when student teachers are on school placements to support school mentors in implementing the training programme in schools.

Whilst there may be different routes into teaching there are common ITT criteria (NCTL, 2013), common professional standards to meet (DfE, 2012) and a common framework for quality assurance (Ofsted, 2014).

The current government agenda to shift teacher education from universities into schools and allocate a large number of training places to the new School Direct route has re-awakened the debate on how best to prepare student teachers for their role in the classroom. This has also led to a realisation that the roles and responsibilities of those involved in teacher education are changing.

THE LOCAL CONTEXT – YORK ST JOHN UNIVERSITY

York St John University was founded in 1841 as a Church College for Teacher Training and has now been training teachers for over 173 years. The institution gained University status in 2006. It is an accredited provider of primary and secondary programmes of initial teacher education. A variety of awards are available for those wishing to train as teachers. For those wishing to train as primary school teachers there is both a three year undergraduate programme Bachelor of Arts degree with qualified teacher status (BA Hons QTS) in primary education, and a master's level postgraduate qualification, Postgraduate Certificate of Education with qualified teacher status (PGCE). There is in addition an 'exit' award of Graduate Diploma with QTS for those students who choose not to pursue the M level qualification. For those wishing to train as secondary school teachers only the PGCE route is available. The Primary PGCE can be studied either on a full-time or part-time basis, the Secondary PGCE on a full-time basis.

Whilst historically these programmes have been university-centred in conjunction with partnership schools for separate teaching experiences, the university via its PGCE programme now offers the award through school-centred routes (School Direct) where the vast majority of training takes place in partnership schools with much reduced input taking place within the university itself.

Hence currently we offer the Primary PGCE full time via both university and school centred routes. Secondary PGCE subjects currently offered are in Religious Education (university based) and English, Mathematics and Biology (School Direct). In 2014-15 secondary subjects will also include Modern Foreign Languages, Physics, Chemistry and Computer Science which will be school centred routes.

Whichever route is followed there is a commitment on the part of all involved within the YSJU partnership to ensure the development of high quality student teachers who will have the knowledge, understanding and skills to continue to develop to become outstanding teachers of the future with a focus on raising standards of attainment for pupils in our schools.

However, whilst positive and supportive of new developments in ITE the reallocation of a greater number of training places to School Direct rather than university-centred routes has undoubtedly had an impact on university ITE provision. Quite simply, fewer trainees on PGCE programmes at YSJU mean that fewer members of university-based staff are needed.

TEACHERS' STANDARDS IN ENGLAND

In order to be awarded qualified teacher status (QTS), all student teachers training in England need to demonstrate that they have met a series of professional standards. Recently reviewed, the current standards came into effect on 1 September 2012. 'The Teachers' Standards' (DfE, 2012) are used to assess all student teachers working towards QTS. Once qualified, these standards continue to have key importance for teachers. They are assessed against these in the first year of teaching (the statutory induction period) and throughout their career. These 'new standards' replaced previous more complicated and numerous standards.

The current eight standards reflect current thinking about accountability and the pursuit of excellence in teaching and learning to support high pupil achievement. They are in two parts; Part One – Teaching and Part Two – Personal and Professional Conduct.

Part One of the Standards are grouped under these main headings:

A teacher must:

1. Set high expectations which inspire, motivate and challenge pupils
2. Promote good progress and outcomes by pupils
3. Demonstrate good subject and curriculum knowledge
4. Plan and teach well-structured lessons
5. Adapt teaching to respond to the strengths and needs of all pupils
6. Make accurate and productive use of assessment
7. Manage behaviour effectively to ensure a good and safe learning environment
8. Fulfil wider professional responsibilities

Part Two of the Standards deal with personal and professional conduct as follows:

A teacher is expected to demonstrate consistently high standards of personal and professional conduct. The following statements define the behaviour and attitudes which set the required standard for conduct throughout a teacher's career.

- Teachers uphold public trust in the profession and maintain high standards of ethics and behaviour, within and outside school, by:
 - treating pupils with dignity, building relationships rooted in mutual respect, and at all times observing proper boundaries appropriate to a teacher's professional position
 - having regard for the need to safeguard pupils' well-being, in accordance with statutory provisions
 - showing tolerance of and respect for the rights of others
 - not undermining fundamental British values, including democracy, the rule of law, individual liberty and mutual respect, and tolerance of those with different faiths and beliefs
 - ensuring that personal beliefs are not expressed in ways which exploit pupils' vulnerability or might lead them to break the law.
- Teachers must have proper and professional regard for the ethos, policies and practices of the school in which they teach, and maintain high standards in their own attendance and punctuality.

- Teachers must have an understanding of, and always act within, the statutory frameworks which set out their professional duties and responsibilities.

The Teachers' Standards (DfE, 2012)

By the end of their training programme the standards are used to determine a level of competence. Each student teacher is given a final assessed grade against Ofsted guidance criteria that indicates whether they are outstanding (Grade 1), good (Grade 2), require improvement (Grade 3) or below standard (Grade 4). The university then determines targets for students' period of induction, where schools then become responsible for the continuing professional development of the beginning teacher.

The Teachers' Standards set the baseline expectations for all teachers' practice. They are intended to make it easier for teachers and headteachers to assess teacher performance and support continuing professional development. However, whilst these Standards form a baseline at YSJU we are committed to developing outstanding student teachers whose expertise is not confined to meeting this narrow criteria.

THE GOVERNMENT AGENDA – SCHOOL DIRECT

Since the Coalition Government took office in 2010 the Department for Education, led by Secretary of State for Education Michael Gove, has indicated its intention to shift teacher training into schools with the new programme of School Direct.

In the Department for Education White Paper for Schools, *The Importance of Teaching* (Department for Education, 2010) the government outlined their commitment to raising the status of the teaching profession by recruiting high quality recruits to train to teach and by giving schools increased control over teacher training. The paper outlined three key areas for which teachers need to be very well equipped; subject knowledge and academic preparation, overall literacy and numeracy, and personal and interpersonal skills. In a speech given by Gove (June 2010) he reinforced his view expressed in the White Paper that 'teaching is a craft and it is best learnt as an apprentice observing a Master craftsman or woman'. He outlined that this would be achieved through the development of a national network of new Teaching Schools to lead and develop teacher development including initial teacher training.

With the aid of government funding this network of Teaching Schools has grown in the last few years with 'lead' Teaching Schools developing wider Alliances with partnership schools. One of their key roles is to provide teacher training, for example School Direct programmes. The original intention was for these Alliances to then employ those they trained but this clause was soon modified to suggest they 'should' employ them. Teaching Schools or Alliances that offer School Direct teacher training programmes are required to work with an accredited provider (e.g. university) which has the authority to recommend for QTS. Whilst funding for School Direct places goes directly to the Teaching School, which is part of the government's intention to give schools more control, the quality assurance responsibilities for the training programme still lie with the provider. Unsurprisingly, this has led to new negotiating processes to establish who will be responsible for different areas of the teacher training programme; how these will be rigorously quality assured and how funding should be apportioned. Existing partnership agreements have been revised, many new partnership agreements drawn up and new partnerships have been developed accordingly.

Many universities have embraced the new initiative and have not only worked with existing partnerships but developed new partnerships, to develop high quality PGCE School Direct programmes. There is recognition that different routes into teaching suit different types of people, and there is a need to ensure that all routes support student teachers into developing into high quality teachers who will ultimately have an impact on pupil progress and achievement. University based teacher education departments have a strong tradition of forging strong partnerships with schools and have worked together to develop and train high quality teachers for local and national schools. The idea of schools having a significant role in teacher education has long since been established.

It is the Government's attempt to undermine university teacher education programmes and the impact of this that currently causes great concern. Not least, that their policy has led to some departments closing as allocations and subsequent funding is cut. This could of course be understood if university teacher education programmes were performing poorly but that is not the case as reflected in Ofsted reports that attest to the high quality of university-based teacher education programmes. Burgess (2014) comments,

Michael Gove repeatedly praises what he calls 'the best generation of teachers'

in our schools. What he perhaps forgets is that the vast majority of these outstanding teachers and leaders were trained by university schools of education working in partnership with schools.

The Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Education, from the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted, 2010) indicated that the most outstanding provision for initial teacher education is delivered in Higher Education in partnership with schools. As indicated earlier in this paper the Teaching Schools have been allocated increasing numbers of training places for School Direct whereas university providers of teacher education have seen their allocations reduced or cut, which has resulted in the closure of some PGCE programmes in universities across the country. It should also be noted that some outstanding providers of PGCE are set to close due to funding and allocation issues (John Elmes - Times Higher Education November 2013). This has led to concerns raised about the future of teacher supply with the School Direct initiative being focussed on local need and a lack of coordination of national teacher supply.

Estelle Morris (2013) a previous Secretary of State for Education, suggests there are three problems that are emerging with the School Direct initiative related to teacher supply. Firstly, schools do not have to recruit to the number of places allocated and whilst universities are penalised if they under-recruit schools are not. Whilst schools may be committed to involvement in teacher education their core business is in the teaching and learning of their pupils. Secondly, 'School Direct places are not evenly allocated, either geographically or by subject, leaving some regions without access to this teacher-training route' and thirdly, reduced allocations to universities and lack of information about future allocations is leading to 'destabilisation' of education departments and the reduced ability to strategically plan. Morris suggests,

The government has, in effect, handed the strategic planning of the nation's teacher training to the market. No one has responsibility to deliver and oversee an effective national strategy for the recruitment and retention of teachers; there is no attempt to plan places and no one is looking at the cumulative effect of policy changes on supply.

In addition to this at the same time some Teaching School Alliances are working with universities to develop School Direct PGCE programmes, others wish to offer QTS only or Assessment-Only routes. Whilst these lead

to recommendation for QTS and thereby qualify student teachers to work in schools, they do not carry the academic qualification. This has led to concerns about the future of the profession and quality of teacher supply.

Not surprisingly, perhaps many educationalists have argued that the current Government's education policy reduces teacher education to simply *training* and undermines the *education* element of teacher education programmes. Concern has been expressed that if teacher education is moved wholly into schools there will not be as much opportunity for student teachers to become reflective practitioners and critically engage with the different theories and ideas that underpin professional practice. There will be also fewer opportunities to develop essential critical skills to support current and future professional practice. This will be especially the case for those following the QTS or Assessment Only routes, though arguably pertinent also to the School Direct PGCE route.

Hayes (2011) suggests that the direction of the Coalition Government's education policy is a worrying trend for those who think more than training is required for tomorrow's teachers, whilst Surman (2011) sees this direction in education policy as the 'de-professionalisation' of teaching and teachers. Hayes (2011:19) argues that government agencies have reduced teacher education to 'nothing more than training to meet the narrow standards they approved'. Student teachers might well meet the standards for QTS, as is the professional requirement, but they may not have the opportunity to develop the strong foundations necessary for teaching now and in the future. Hayes believes we need an educated as well as a trained workforce.

Northcott (2011) argues that there seems to be a tension between theory and practice inherent in the Coalition Government education policy with them clearly supporting a focus on practice. Reid and O'Donoghue (2004:562) argue that the 'skilled artisan' approach 'tends to draw a sharp distinction between theory and practice, privileging the latter and by implication denigrating the former'.

Hobby (2011) considers that focussing on practical experience alone is dangerous and risks creating 'fragile professionals' without the wider experience needed to adapt to different teaching contexts. Lawes (2011:24) argues we need teachers who are educational thinkers in order to avoid a 'conformist and compliant workforce'. This echoes Durkheim's view that it is critical that student teachers acquire a 'critical self-consciousness' to avoid being:

doomed to a mindless and mechanical repetition of the principles and procedures which governed his own education and education itself is condemned to a stifling and degenerate conservatism. (Durkheim, 1977:19)

Further to this Durkheim extolled the importance of new teachers knowing and understanding the history of the education system and how it has evolved to its current state, whilst also having the skills to challenge it in the light of contemporary social need.

Marshall (2011:28) concluded that 'all future teachers require an education in education' and that 'training is simply not good enough'. He suggests that this will ensure they 'understand what education is, and are fully aware of its cultural significance and complexity'. It can't guarantee them becoming good teachers as they alone are responsible for their practice but it will support the establishment of strong foundations for future development.

More recently, the interim report from the British Educational Research Association (Bera, 2014), on the role of research in teacher education, suggests that in other high performing education systems, for example Finland and Singapore, there has been a shift away from school-based training towards university-based teacher education, and a focus on research training for teachers. Ironically this would suggest that the Coalition Government's policy of shifting teacher training into schools in England contradicts the findings on international best practice, that it claims its policy is based on. The White Paper (DfE, 2010:21) refers to best practice in Finland and Singapore stating that:

we know that highly effective models of teacher training (including those of Finland, Singapore, Teach First and Teach for America) systematically use assessments of aptitude, personality and resilience as part of the candidate selection process.

It might be argued that the success of an education system is dependent on a number of variables and 'cherry picking' specific elements of one education policy that might suit another is unlikely to reap the benefits that all variables together ensure.

Joy Carter, vice-chancellor of the University of Winchester, commenting in a newspaper article (Swain, 2014) stated that:

the potential effect of the changes on teacher quality is particularly worrying given the relatively poor performance of British schoolchildren shown in figures published last month by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, comparing standards in maths, reading and science.

Despite these concerns many universities are committed to working alongside school partners to train and educate high quality student teachers.

At York St John University our model of teacher training is built upon collaborative partnerships whereby schools have long been involved in programme development, recruitment and assessment and where the emphasis on the integration of theory and practice is embedded, as opposed to there being a hard dichotomy of the roles of universities and schools. As such the introduction of the School Direct programmes may have brought challenges in funding and allocations but has built upon existing good practice in terms of programme development and partnership working. We work with partnership schools and alliances only on PGCE School Direct routes where the focus is on academic development to underpin developing professional practice.

MODEL OF SCHOOL-CENTRED TEACHER TRAINING AT YORK ST JOHN UNIVERSITY

Recruitment and Selection to School Direct Programmes

It is essential to develop highly effective selection and recruitment procedures to identify potential high quality teachers who will have the knowledge, understanding and pedagogical skills to further develop the quality of our education system; improve pupil achievement and thereby improve our rankings in international league tables. Barber and Mourshed (2007) suggest that getting the right people to be teachers is a feature of high performing schools internationally, 'the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers' (2007:13).

At York St John University (YSJU) both the university and schools work together within the recruitment process. Potential applicants apply via a website – UCAS Teacher Training (Universities and Colleges Admissions Service). Here a candidate is able to choose a course and provider according to subject and age group. A preferred route for either a teaching programme at a university or college or a training programme based in school is decided upon. The candidate is then able to choose up to three suitable courses based upon the training provider or region which is most appropriate for them.

At YSJU school partnership staff have always had a role in the recruitment of candidates for teacher training programmes as this has been considered an important element of partnership and collaboration. For primary PGCE programmes this has involved school staff attending interview days at the university and interviewing candidates alongside university staff.

On the secondary university-based PGCE programme, which deals with smaller numbers, interview days are held in both partnership schools and at the university to ensure that candidates are introduced to the professional environment they hope to be a part of right from the start of the training process. The morning of the interview day is in school where candidates typically have a tour of the school and opportunities to liaise with staff and pupils whilst seeing the school in operation. Candidates also undertake a short teaching task; have a staff interview, with a panel made up of school and university staff and also a pupil panel interview, giving pupils the opportunity to have a voice on the selection of future student teachers and teachers. The afternoon of the interview day is at YSJU where candidates undertake a group activity and skills related tasks. As such the secondary PGCE selection and recruitment procedures, implemented in 2007 and revised annually, provided a model that supported the Department for Education (DfE) plans set out in the White Paper (2010) and Training Our Next Generation of Outstanding Teachers: Implementation Plan (2011).

As employers of newly qualified teachers, schools have a critical
interest in initial teacher training, and should play a greater role in leading
the recruitment, selection and training of teachers (DfE 2011:11)

Hence with the introduction of School Direct the Teaching Schools/Alliances have supported this model for secondary PGCE recruitment, not least because they were involved in developing it many years ago as YSJU partnership schools. The key change has been that applications for the PGCE are now accessed by both the Teaching School and university who collaborate to shortlist candidates for interview.

However, whilst not unused to engagement in the selection process of students to the profession; schools have found themselves in a new situation with School Direct of assessing the potential of candidates with the realisation that they may well be employed within the schools and alliances for a substantial period of time. It is hoped that heavy investment in the training at this stage will reap rich dividends in the future.

For the primary PGCE there have been some changes to interview processes for the School Direct route. Candidates are invited to be interviewed at one of the partnership schools within an alliance. Both school staff and university staff contribute to the process which takes the best part of a day. The procedure has been designed to try to assess the potential of the applicants to respond well to the programme of training, in order to be developed as an outstanding teacher.

For both primary and secondary school centred routes assessments at interviews are made against key criteria such as intellectual qualities, commitment to, experience and understanding of primary or secondary education and the ability to communicate effectively with adults and children in a school context.

There are key features of the interview days that are common to both primary and secondary school centred routes. A guided tour of the school conducted by pupils; a written task to assess the quality of their academic writing and potential to engage with master's level study; a short teaching task designed to provide candidates with an opportunity to demonstrate their ability to plan, deliver and engage pupils in learning. Here candidates demonstrate if they have good presence and can communicate ideas effectively. The best candidates show that they have a genuine interest in learning, good subject knowledge and are enthusiastic and animated. Behaviour management skills become apparent during the session and their response to often unpredicted situations can be noted. It is recognised that all this takes place 'pre' initial teacher education – a situation going wrong would not preclude a candidate from gaining a place, rather, if they are able to demonstrate good reflective skills as a result of engagement in the process, this would actually stand them in good stead and of course enable specific targets to be set to support preparation for the programme. In-tray activities, common across programmes provide opportunities for candidates to demonstrate their ability to prioritise difficult situations with competing demands whilst the formal staff interview provides the interview panel opportunity to make assessments about candidates' motivation for entering the profession; personal and intellectual qualities related to the job; their understanding of the role of an effective teacher and their knowledge and understanding of subject/phase specific issues as well as current educational issues.

As the PGCE is a particularly demanding programme candidates are also encouraged to consider strategies and skills they might employ to ensure that they are able to cope with the challenging demands that engagement with this programme would present.

Candidates have opportunities to reflect on their experiences during the interview day which also supports target setting and identification of areas to focus on in preparation for the programme.

The Programme

School Direct school-centred ITE programmes were written and validated together with the university-centred ITE programmes within a very tight timescale, as the recruitment process had already begun for a September 2013 intake. A key complication can be seen in that in addition to the award of QTS, this was also an academic award from the university and therefore strict university regulatory frameworks needed to be adhered to.

This process involved the writing of much documentation; partnership agreements, due diligence documentation, risk assessments, programme specifications and module documents to name but a few.

It is interesting to note that this process was entirely driven by the university teams, who were familiar with such processes. Schools, whilst experts in the provision of policies and curricula for their pupils, had neither the time, nor the expertise, to develop the documentation needed. What became apparent was the complete lack of understanding on the part of the government of exactly how complex and lengthy university validation processes take, particularly when bearing in mind the necessary involvement of external agencies and such necessary consultative processes central to the construction of a robust programme.

Other than guidance gained from knowledge of the Teachers' Standards (2012) and ITT Criteria (2013) exactly how programmes should be put together was for writing teams to decide. Here, a crucial factor was the need to draw upon the expertise and past experience of academic staff at the university in understanding the complexities and implications of teacher education issues. A very positive feature of the process was that key aspects of provision known to work well, provided a very strong starting point.

University partners facilitated the design of phases of progress through the programmes entitled 'Introductory, Development, Consolidation and Transition' phases. For consistency and coherence these were made common to both primary and secondary programmes. At a later date, this provided the framework for School Alliance teams and university teams to work together in order to construct a meaningful progression of school experiences, workshop input and taught sessions. For all programmes, the design facilitated common aspects of assessment for example two Masters level essays, one a synthesis of practice and theoretical perspectives, a second a research project concerning an area of educational interest. Other assessments included presentations and assessed portfolios.

Once provided with a coherent framework to work from School partners could then work with university leads to incorporate their expertise of how things would work well in the school settings. To aid this process several collaborative planning days were organised and with these came a further complication - the recognition that school staff had little understanding of what School Direct actually involved or the Government expectations on school staff to have responsibility for the training process. Hence the School Direct planning days also became staff training and information sharing events; essential to ensure the successful development and implementation of School Direct and to support future quality assurance of this programme.

It also became clear that what was possible within the university context did not always translate well to schools. Likewise, many new and exciting possibilities arose by having daily access to a school setting and easy on-site access to expert practitioners.

The School Direct programme has now been set up to ensure that student teachers, whilst based predominantly in school have the 60 days for training as specified in the ITT Criteria (2013). This 'training' however is largely undertaken independently with the aid of school centred training activities supported by school mentors and university link tutors. Student teachers are released one afternoon for academic sessions that are delivered by either university or school staff. Rigorous quality assurance systems have been set up to monitor and ensure the quality of the training programme delivered including support materials for school staff on planning and delivering academic sessions. YSJU aims to ensure consistency and coherence across all PGCE programmes. Student teachers on the School Direct PGCE have some shared sessions and shared opportunities with the university centred PGCE students and similar enrichment opportunities. There is parity across academic modules in learning outcomes and assessments and modules are integrated with school-based experience and training to ensure a student teachers developing professional practice is underpinned by knowledge and understanding of educational theory and current local, national and international research. However, early evaluations indicate emerging differences in the ability of School Direct PGCE student teachers to engage with some elements of the programme in the same way that university-centred students can.

As time has progressed, it has become increasingly apparent that this is a continuing process that requires rigorous monitoring and evaluation. Programme needs evolve as the days and weeks progress.

WHERE ARE WE NOW AND WHERE NEXT?

Without doubt, the new school centred programmes of initial teacher education (School Direct) have enhanced ITE provision at York St John University. The process of designing, writing and implementing new training programmes in conjunction with school-based colleagues has provided an opportunity to synthesise strengths; the expertise of the university and its long tradition of educating teachers with the expertise of current practitioners in the classroom.

There have been many positive outcomes during the fostering of these new relationships. It has provided a tremendous opportunity for the university to maintain up-to-date contact with schools and dialogue with staff about current priorities the profession is facing. There has been a better two-way understanding of the tensions that currently face both universities and schools, for example the particular demands and pressures that Ofsted presents in the thirst for improved data sets for both student teachers and pupils themselves.

The process has not been without its challenges. Entirely willing staff in schools have found it difficult to secure adequate time and specialism to deal with the complexity of the entirety of a programme of Initial Teacher Education. The very fact that someone is recognised as a good or outstanding teacher does not necessarily mean that this translates into being an outstanding teacher educator.

At times, the process has revealed areas of insecurity and gaps in school teachers' experience; for example, learning to deliver material to a student body considerably older than they are used to presents its challenges. On many levels, student teacher needs differ to those of pupils. Outstanding practitioners in the classroom now need to address new academic demands, such as the need to include robust sources of literature to the sessions they are delivering. This has highlighted the need for a comprehensive programme of mentor training opportunities.

For university-based staff a strange tension exists of being in control and yet being out of control. They are answerable for the quality of the provision, yet have relinquished responsibility for much of the delivery. The number of players in the process means that the need to be reactive and responsive to wide-ranging situations becomes a difficult, complex process. There are a fog of unknown responsibilities which reveal themselves on a daily basis.

Student teachers on the school centred route have relished being wholly part of a school and having access to situations where they are afforded increased opportunities to be engaged in practice. Yet there is the dawning realisation that this is at the expense of being able to spend sustained periods of time in study and reflection, and in discovering academic sources to add weight to the practice they see. The availability and provision of increasing numbers of e-books has proved essential as has improved support via virtual learning environments. Expectations of schools and teaching demands upon student teachers can be at odds with the training situation, in particular for those on the salaried School Direct PGCE who are not supernumerary and have teaching timetables and associated responsibilities. Evaluations from student teachers completing their first term of the secondary

PGCE indicate little difference between student teachers on the school-centred PGCE route and those on the university centred route, in their perceived ability to manage key areas like assessment for learning and behaviour for learning, to ensure appropriate pupil progress.

Whilst we are still in the process of implementing the first year of the School Direct programme the increased allocation of teacher training places to schools for 2014 has led to more changes. Further Teaching School Alliances have requested YSJU work with them as accredited providers for both primary and secondary PGCE and allocations have been approved for more subject strands for the secondary PGCE.

The current school partnerships we collaborate with for School Direct have proved to be committed to genuine partnership and clearly recognise the contribution that the university makes to teacher education. Indeed many of them have recruited former student teachers into their schools from our university-centred programmes. There are early indications that not all universities are experiencing this level of partnership. It is interesting to note that as we move into planning for the second year of School Direct having been supported in the first instance partnership schools are demonstrating a greater amount of independence. There is much debate about the transfer of intellectual property as part of this transition.

In conclusion, the proverbial wheel is turning at an ever faster pace but all in all School Direct has offered the opportunity for new ways of working. Partnerships are stronger than ever and both university and school based staff continue to learn... along with the students.

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THE NEW PROPOSALS FOR TEACHER-TRAINING IN AUSTRIA. A POLITICAL PARTY SCRAMBLE WITH UNSATISFACTORY RESULTS. ANOTHER CHANCE WASTED.

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THE WRANGLE OVER NEW EMPLOYMENT RIGHTS FOR TEACHERS.

On the 19th November 2013 the ministerial decision with regards to the new employment contract for teachers, which had been deliberated out over for 12 years in 35 rounds of unsuccessful negotiations, caused a storm amongst teaching staff. The powerful civil service union (in Austria teachers are employed as civil servants) and the teachers unions reacted promptly with threats of strike action. The majority of teachers supported strike action. The chancellor Werner Faymann, in the daily press conferences at this time, defended the government saying it has done everything it could to meet the unions' demands. The moment of decision had now come since there was a feeling that no concessions would be made on the union's side. The ÖVP vice-chancellor Michael Spindelegger added the Latin byword, *the dice has fallen*. In December 2013 the new employment laws for teachers were passed in Parliament. In the following days there were heated discussions on the television. The media inflamed the situation even more with their coverage.

However the results of an immediate opinion poll taken from the public showed that the majority of parents were against the teachers taking strike action. The opinion was that the teachers anyway belonged to a group of privileged workers; maximum number of working hours in a week and presence in the school between 17 and 22 hours with a mandatory requirement of 22 hours per week, and a starting salary of between 2080 and 2294 euro before tax, depending on which type of school they work in, primary, new middle school, higher vocational school, or grammar school. Certainly the teachers spend time with preparation, correcting work and similar additional working hours, this, however is included in the monthly salary they receive.

The increase of two hours raising the teaching week from 22 to 24 hours with a starting salary between 2420 and 2720 euro before tax for all the aforementioned types of school has aroused great indignation and is not acceptable amongst a large number of teachers. However if one compares the teaching hours, the starting salary and the amount of holidays with other member states of the European Union, then one sees that Austrian teachers are well ahead in their field. Some of the parents who were asked, were of the opinion that the teachers were about to destroy their image themselves. The teachers tune is: *the worm has turned*.

It is clear – and nobody is arguing with this – teachers are jointly responsible for the future of our children, and with their work make a worthy contribution to our society which is not only valued but also should also be rewarded accordingly. Nobody is questioning this!

However, many old privileges which date from a bye-gone age are blocking every type of urgently needed reform. It concerns not only the training of the teachers, but also the curriculum in the various types of school, the employment contract and the views of the unions and their mandates. The government is now forced to act and knows that it is on the winning side since the public mood is on their side.

The social partners play an important part in the Austrian political landscape. This is a system that has a long tradition in Austria, and is a system based on the joint working relationship between federations of employers and employees, chambers of commerce, agricultural chambers of commerce and industrial societies, all on a free will basis. Their capacity to influence things is very large, although they are neither written into the law nor into the constitution of the Republic. These social partners collaborate in the area of vocational schooling. They are allowed take a position on school laws, and the proposed curriculum. Likewise they are active in the area of training and education and career information, and support the collaboration between the vocational schools and the industry and economy. The Austrian Chamber of Labour and the Chamber of Commerce and their respective educational establishments contribute financial means to the so called Fachhochschulen (higher educational establishments for applied sciences, with university status). Universities and higher technical colleges voluntarily send their course curriculum to the institutions of the social partners. Many theme specific events and activities are financially supported by the social partners. As well as relevant courses, they manage financial incentives for further education and, of course, run a targeted lobbying for the social provision of additional resources.

HISTORICAL LOOK AT THE DUEL TEACHER TRAINING SYSTEM IN AUSTRIA.

a) The Gymnasium- or Grammar school

Let's take a look back at the development not only of the school system, but also the teacher training in Austria. In the *Ratio Studiorum* of 1599 the Catholic Jesuits, through their own initiative began to turn the former *Latin Schools* into Gymnasiums, what we would today call grammar schools. This required that the teachers who taught at the Gymnasiums should be suitably qualified to do so. They were clergymen who studied at the

universities run by the Jesuits. There were various reasons for the success of the Society of Jesus in education and school standards. The main aim-laid down in the rules of the Jesuit order was *to help thy neighbour to a recognition and love of God, and to help heal his soul, an act in the higher honour of God*. From the very start they made the effort to have the school lessons progress clearly step by step. They introduced a system of the yearly class that was oriented towards a class that was homogeneously proficient. The elementary schools, where reading, writing and arithmetic were taught, were clearly marked off from the higher studies. Every Jesuit led institution offered a five to six year basic education. The pupils had to be able to express themselves in Latin. In principle here lay the form of a classical Latin school. After successful completion of the rhetoric class one could devote oneself to further higher study and begin in either the theological, judicial or medical faculties. An own faculty the so-called *artists faculty* which was completed with a master's thesis allowed that master's holder to teach at a Gymnasium. The Gymnasium form of schooling was however reserved for the financially better off and the aristocracy.

b) The "German School" the "Trivial School"

In 1773 Johann Ignatz von Felbiger (1724-1788) Abbot of the Sagan Monastery in Silesia was called to Vienna by the Empress Maria Theresia (1740-1780) to reform the school system, in particular the Trivial School. In the 18th and 19th century a Trivial School in the Austrian Empire was to be understood as a *lower German school* which was open to everyone. The so-called *German school* in Austria in the 15th century was a school type developed to prepare pupils for a working life in trade or craft. Here the pupils learned to read and write German, arithmetic and knowledge of scales and units. It was a fee paying school since it was financed by the pupils as well as the industry. It was a secular led school.

In 1774 with the *General School Regulations* introduced for the area of compulsory education, guidelines were set out for the first time regarding lessons and the training and education of teachers in the *lower German school*. The compulsory education of children at these state schools was fixed for six years. With this school reform Maria Theresia founded the state school system. Model schools were set up to help with the training of the teachers. However, even at this time the teacher training was not uniform and consistent. A teacher for a normal school did not have to attend a university or academy, their training at this stage was for half a year, on the other hand for a teacher at a Gymnasium completion of university was compulsory. This dual system is still running in Austria in the 21st century.

The development and spread of knowledge in the 18th and 19th century necessitated that the Gymnasiums provide a purposeful education. In 1806 the University of Vienna established the department for pedagogy and two years later the specialist subject teacher system was introduced into the Gymnasiums. A recognisable state exam was introduced in 1856 which future teachers of subjects at the lower grades in Gymnasium had to take.

For the teachers in the compulsory education system, their training was increased step by step during the 19th century to two years. The Trivial school became the primary school and attendance was increased to eight years. In 1869 the rearrangement of the lower school system in the state schools law introduced reforms for the training of teachers in these types of school. Teacher training institutes were established where the course lasted for four semesters, and ended with matriculation to teach. After two years probationary work the exam for teaching proficiency was taken. Compulsory schooling was raised from six to eight years in this state law.

It is interesting to note that at the end of the 19th century women were allowed to take up a career as teachers. Education for girls was a luxury. For women who chose a job as their route to independence the way was often very difficult. Women fought their way to a university education through pedagogic training. If a woman married she was forced by law to give up her job, so called *teacher celibacy*. Job, household and children were not compatible according to the law makers. Unmarried teachers scraped a meagre living, received poor pay, no social status and were often quite isolated.

c) Changes in the school system after the First World War.

After the First World War and the establishment of the first republic of Austria the Social Democrats with their recently compiled proposal, *principles for the reorganisation of teacher training* wanted to have the primary school teachers educated at the university, and failed miserably with this move. The Social Democrat and State Secretary for Education, Otto Glöckel, tried hard, but without success to introduce a general secondary school for 10 to 14 year olds. With no differences between background, sex or social class, all children should have access to an optimal educational development which would encourage their talents accordingly. He called for the education of primary and secondary school teachers at the universities. The universities made a decisive block against this proposal with the justification that for these teachers, academic or scientific criteria was not necessary. A proposal to establish an academy for teachers found no majority in Parliament.

The social democrats did manage to establish a four semester higher education type of training for teachers, this model however only managed to last a few years. Special, and further training courses did develop, where strangely enough, university professors were engaged. It is to be noted here that the reforms introduced by Otto Glöckel are still functioning today. He initiated an *inner reform of the school system*, for example the new formulation and modernising of the curriculum, text books suitable for children, and compulsory schooling no

longer had to be paid for by the parents. It was also Glöckel who, with a state decree, ensured women the opportunity to free access to the universities.

In 1927 the antiquated *Bürgerschule* (the historical equivalent of the secondary modern school) which had, up to now, ran for three years after a five year attendance at primary school, was replaced with the *Hauptschule* or secondary modern school. Thus the *Hauptschule*/secondary modern school was introduced and became a compulsory school for 10 to 14 year olds. The pupils were taught by specialist subject teachers. The teachers followed advanced and continual education at pedagogic institutes.

d) The time after the Second World War reaching back for what had proven to be good.

After the Second World War they turned again to the question of teacher education and training institutes. It was now extended to five years and ended with the matriculation or *Reifeprüfung* (a general qualification for university access, A-levels). At the same time one achieved teaching competence. This *proof of maturity* or matriculation opened the way to a university study since it was equivalent to the matriculation from the Gymnasium. Primary school teachers were also eligible to teach at the secondary schools for 10 to 14 year olds. Through additional external courses a primary school teacher had to qualify in chosen specialist subjects (a main subject either German, maths or English and a secondary subject, for example history, geography, music etc.) and thus they could advance to the secondary modern school. In the course of the years the primary school teacher who taught at the secondary school had to pass their teaching competence test, for their continual assessment for a main and secondary subject.

In 1962 the Pedagogic Academy was introduced. It was the result of a school amendment that was introduced in that year. General compulsory education for children was extended from eight to nine years. If one decided to become a teacher at a compulsory school (i. e. not a Gymnasium) one had to attend this Academy after completing the *Reifeprüfung*. The training to become a primary school teacher lasted four semesters and was concluded with the certificate of competence to teach. One was also immediately given a post at a school. In 1971 the training to become a secondary modern school teacher was also introduced at this academy. Training lasted six semesters, after a general basic course one could train in two specialist subjects, a main subject such as German, mathematics or English, and a subsidiary subject. During this study the prospective teacher would undergo practical training at a secondary school of their choice under the supervision of a qualified teacher there. After passing a written and oral test one was qualified to teach at a secondary school. In 1974 as the first of teachers under this system became qualified they were given immediate tenure and a fixed post at a secondary school.

In 1971 the reforms for university education to teach upper schools were introduced. With a diploma in either humanities or sciences the teacher training at the universities was completed with graduation with a Masters degree. Study for a doctorate could then be followed on. It has remained the same until this day.

In all these years nothing really changed for the pupils. School and teachers were regarded as bench marks which one did not really challenge. When I think back to my own time in school there was never any question. No one challenged the performance of the school, not to mention the teachers not even the place of the school in the rankings. When entering into the working world, nobody asked which school you had attended, rather whether one had been successfully completed and whether you had the required qualifications for the job you were aiming for. Today this has fundamentally changed. The parents ask themselves if that is the most suitable school to send their children to – what will the children be offered there? What are the teachers like? What facilities does it have?

TEACHER TRAINING “NEW” IN AUSTRIA. THE DUEL SYSTEM REMAINS. A “LIGHT” SCHOOL REFORM AND THE POLITICAL PARTY WRANGLING GOES ON.

Since 1995 Austria is a full member of the European Union. For decades people have been working here on a new teacher training concept and a reform of the schooling system. It is a political party wrangle with no end to it. If one of the coalition ruling parties, for example the Socialist Party (SPÖ), presents some suggestions, it is immediately torpedoed by the conservative (ÖVP), or vice-versa. The political polarisation of schools and education was and is a huge hindrance to further development. In 2011 industrialist and former socialist finance minister Hannes Androsch initiated a petition on education. The opening statement read

we demand by means of state (constitution) legal regulation a fair, efficient and cosmopolitan education system, that from early childhood on challenges those who are gifted and compensates the weaker ones, autonomous schools with the involvement of school partners and independent of party influence, a performance-differentiated high quality comprehensive school until the end of compulsory school, and the offer of an all-day school, an upgrading of teaching as a career and the continuous rise of governmental financing for the universities to 2% of GDP until 2020...

The ÖVP (conservatives) were vigorously against this, and the SPÖ (socialists) entrenched themselves behind empty phrases. The results of the petition were bleak. Only 6.07 % of those eligible to vote signed this initiative. However if the results of this petition are compared with those of similar petitions run in the past concerning education, then with regards to the absolute number of signatures received, this was by far the most successful.

The Green party saw that there was a clear signal that the government should set to work on this, and demanded that the chancellor (SPÖ) Werner Faymann, call an education summit inviting all parliamentary parties, social partners and initiators of the petition. Even the industrial concerns insisted on immediate measures being taken. It took half a year after the petition for a special committee of the National Assembly to sit down and hold discussions. However power political personnel interests, the defence of privileges by union leaders and the stupidity of the ruling parties thwarted any progress. The petition for education reform ran aground leaving no trace.

However changes in our society today, frustrating results from the PISA tests in the last few years and similar evidence finally forced both coalition parties, who for the last decades have been steering the talent in this country, to an interim agreement which was celebrated by both major parties as a *milestone*. In the spring of 2013 education minister Claudia Schmidt of the SPÖ and science minister Karl-Heinz Töchterle (ÖVP) presented the agreement to the reform of teacher training and qualification. Vice-chancellor Michael Spindelegger (ÖVP) publicly expressed his satisfaction with the agreement saying that he was certain the new arrangements would have a positive effect. However on closer inspection of the agreement one can find some clear weaknesses, which actually led to immediate heavy disagreements amongst educational experts, opposition parties and the umbrella organisations of the teaching groups, since not all professional groups involved in education, school and learning have been accounted for.

There is no recipe to train a good teacher. In September 2013 the school year began amidst a shortage of teachers. A further personnel intensive reform such as the reduction in the number of children in a class, the introduction of the *new secondary school* (replacing the *Hauptschule* in secondary education) and a generation change amongst the teachers (many retiring) have exacerbated the situation with personnel. The measures that the audit office had recommended the previous year had been scarcely looked at by the education department and were recently disparaged again by the education minister.

According to statements made by the former education minister Claudia Schmidt in January 2013 the actual budget for education for that year was 8,060 billion euro, which, when compared to 2012 was an increase of 193 million euro. It was further stated that between the years 2000 and 2009 spending in education had increased 25% per head, which was confirmed in the national education report of 2012. Since 2009 the Austrian government has made further investments in the conversion of all secondary schools into new middle schools and a huge upgrading to provide the offer of an all-day school.

At present in primary school the lessons finish between 12.00 and 13.00 (sometimes as early as 11.30 in rural areas). With the rise in the number of one parent families and working mothers the demand for afternoon school became louder and louder. Many kindergartens and schools provide what they call *Hort* which is afternoon care for primary school children. This, however, has to be paid for by the parents. In *Hort* the pedagogues supervise the children doing their homework. However if the *Hort* is in the actual school building these pedagogues are not allowed to do this supervising, instead the teachers are required to do this. No additional hours have been budgeted for this which means a teacher contracted for 22 hours per week has to spend one of these hours supervising homework, whilst down the road in a separately established *Hort* the pedagogues are doing this! A proper all-day school cannot really be provided until the government employs more teachers to cover the extra hours, otherwise an Austrian teacher is expected to spread their 22 hours a week in the class very thinly across the day.

THE STONE BEGINS TO TURN SLOWLY.

In the higher education law of 2005 teachers and further education at the post-modern Pedagogic Academies, Vocational Pedagogic Academies, and pedagogic institutes were integrated into the higher education/university area. In 2007 the Teacher Training Colleges (known as the Pädagogische Hochschule, PH) were created. They offer internationally comparable final degrees according to the guidelines of the so called Bologna Process. These teacher training colleges will also train all future pedagogues in various fields of work. They also cover management training in schools and the training for teaching in the field of adult education.

When Austria took over the presidency of the European Union from January to June 2006 it presented its motto for education in the following words:

The reason for the attractiveness and the high ranking of the vocational education in Austria lies in the wide range of vocational educational systems offered, in the good quality of the training the special feature of which is the connection between the theory and the practise, and in the permeability of the education system. In Austria no educational path leads to a dead end. Independently, whether in full-time education or in part-time education whilst working, the option for a higher educational qualification up to a university degree is there for everyone.

Life-long learning, LLL, should be encouraged. A LLL task force to co-ordinate the necessary concepts and measures was formed. In the summer of 2011 it published the guidelines for an Austrian strategy to the life-long accompaniment of learning. *LLL 2020*, this concept was dismissed by the government. In it political aims and projects had been formulated. It contained a budget aim which committed the government to have raised the spending on education, under the OECD indicator, from 5.4% of GDP in 2007 to 6% GDP by 2020.

Raising children is for parents, as well as teachers, an extremely challenging task. So, what sort of teachers do we need? It is clear we need teachers who enjoy doing their job, who are pedagogically well trained, who are engaged and motivated in their job, and who can prepare those children in their care for their future lives in society. The school has an important role to play, namely the key role of nurturing and encouraging talent. It is teachers who are often the role models for children who receive little support from their own parents.

So what is the outlook for teacher training in Austria today? In the future everyone applying for teaching qualification will have to undergo an admissions process. There are 15 institutions currently working on the development of this admissions process. The aim is to develop a common admissions process which can be piloted in the autumn of 2016. With this commonly developed testing process those students best suited for the job of teaching can be filtered out. The main emphasis of this test will be a self-assessment and a foreign evaluation. First trials at the Styrian Teacher Training College have resulted in positive feedback from both sides. To avoid a run for places at the universities admittance will be restricted to a certain number of available places for the courses. This is something that is already practised at the teacher training colleges as well as the universities of Art in Linz, Graz and Vienna where a course can only be taken after successful completion of an admissions test. It should be noted that Vienna University has the largest number of students studying to be a teacher. Further training and education which will continue to play an important role will also take place at the universities.

At present, if they pass they admissions test the prospective pedagogue will study three years for a Bachelor degree in Education (a BEd). The plan for the future is that they continue to study either at the PH or university for a Masters degree this coming into effect in 2019/2020. This means that for teachers in the compulsory school system (i.e. not the Gymnasiums) study will be lengthened from a three year Bachelors study to a five to five and a half years for a Bachelors and Masters degree (Bachelor and Masters being the requirement for a fixed post). Primary school teachers can continue to study and train fully at the teacher training colleges (the PH's). For teachers at Gymnasium or middle and higher vocational schools there is hardly any change to the length of their study, except for the admissions procedure, already established by the teacher training colleges. Their study will then take place at the normal universities. From the winter semester 2014/2015 the University of Vienna will offer the *new* teacher training programme for the secondary level as a Bachelors and Masters study. In July 2013 the University of Vienna Senate passed the necessary guidelines for the lawful implementation of the programme. Thus all requirements are now in place for the programme to run. The rector of Vienna University Heinz Engel had this to say.

The development of the education and training of teachers is of the highest priority in the next years for the University of Vienna. We need good well trained teachers, since they are the guiding forces for the future of young people and therefore the whole of society.

The pedagogic universities, besides training teachers for compulsory and vocational schools, will also continue with the further education and training of teachers as well as research in the field of education.

For training in compulsory education there are four choices, primary school, secondary, polytechnic, and *Sonderschule*. *Sonderschule* is a special needs school for those children and youths with certain disabilities, for example seeing or hearing difficulties, behavioural difficulties, physical disabilities, etc. Since 1993 there is the possibility for special needs children at primary and secondary level and in the lower Gymnasium to attend a regular school in integration classes. In an integration class there are two teachers, the regular teacher and the special needs teacher working in a team. Additionally the teacher training colleges will offer training to become a vocational teacher in the areas of, nutrition, information and communications, fashion and design and in specialist technical and commercial branches.

A polytechnic school in Austria is a one year general compulsory education system for the 8th school year and serves primarily to prepare those children for the working world.

The curriculum in the teacher training colleges is a classic case of a regimented school plan. The courses contain only compulsory subjects and offer no possibilities for any optional subjects or a compilation of optional subjects to be taken. There has been heavy criticism of this system from opposition parties because, with all these reforms the training and education of the kindergarten teachers has been forgotten! Austria is the only country in Europe, besides Malta, which does not train its elementary pedagogues to an academic niveau. The kindergarten pedagogues will, at first, not be part of the general education plan. This has outraged the umbrella organisation representing this group of workers who speak of a discrimination of this group and say that this decision has lowered the value of the work they do. The law does provide for a bachelor study for elementary and/or primary level, however in the absence of teachers for this group at the colleges there will be no suitable offer of courses. In the future a bachelor study for elementary pedagogues is planned that will take three years whilst for other pedagogues it will take four years.

The opposition parties have also loudly criticised the bachelor study. The fear is the cheap training of teachers without a masters degree. At the moment, because of a shortage of teachers, it is possible for students, without the appropriate accreditation, to teach in schools. Also one knows how difficult it will be for these people to complete their masters study at the few universities in the provincial cities, and work in the classes parallel to this.

An exception is the training of handcraft and art teachers at the Gymnasiums. Here, after some heavy debates, the study stays fixed at the universities of art. A nine semester study is required leading to a masters in art. Here in addition to teacher training for upper schools, it will be possible to further qualify for working in fields such as art mediation in museums or project management in the field of art and culture. In this case special additional studies will be offered.

THE BATTLE FOR A GOOD SCHOOL SYSTEM: FOR PUPILS AND FUTURE TEACHERS.

It is quite clear that in Austria fundamental changes need to be made in education. It is urgently necessary to address the taboos surrounding the school system. A common teacher training and education plan for all further education school forms needs to be passed. The snobbery that exists between being either a compulsory school teacher or a Gymnasium teacher has to be seriously addressed, the differences in the salaries adjusted, more pedagogic training for the Gymnasium teachers given, and the compulsory school teacher needs more support in building up their specialist knowledge. The political parties have to jump over their shadow and perform more in relation to education. Every child, regardless of their social class, should have the same opportunities open to them. The educational system must do justice to the individual requirements of the pupil. A comprehensive school system would be useful for this. It has to be ability orientated and performance graded. It needs a show of strength from both political parties to negotiate sensibly and avoid any accusations of blame. It is not enough to think in five year periods of government and who will be sitting in parliament; it needs a vision for the future, where will the country be? What position does the country want to take? The next conflict is already programmed; in December the results of the PISA study carried out in 2012 will be published. Enough to kindle another fiery debate regarding teaching contracts, school systems, training and, dig up old political quarrels. All these debates are to the detriment of the pupils, amongst whom a few will one day, out of their own conviction, decide to pursue a career as a teacher.

Translated by Tracey Bernhard

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EGO-IDENTITY FUNCTIONS AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP SKILLS AMONG FACULTY OF COMMUNICATION STUDENTS

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The Relevance of interpersonal relationships with identity and identity related processes is a basic promise of developmental theorists like Erikson, Marcia and Sullivan during adolescence and emerging adulthood. In order to test this promise, the aim of the current study was determined as to investigate the relationship between Ego-Identity Functions and Interpersonal Relationship Skills Among university students. The study was conducted with 220 students (male: n=108; %49.1; female: n=112, %50.9) in 2013-2014 education year by using random sampling. The data was collected by using Identity Functions Scale (IFS) and Interpersonal Style Inventory (ISI). Descriptive approach was used as a research design. The data were analyzed by using SPSS 15.0 statistical analysis software. During the analysis, demographical information of the participants were presented by computing frequencies and percentages. The relationship between IFS and ISI was investigated by computing Pearson correlations among the subscales of the inventories. Based on the results, it was found that, the Structure dimension of IFS and dominant style ($p<0.05$), avoidant style ($p<0.05$) and angry style ($p<0.05$) dimensions of ISI; Harmony dimension of IFS and dominant style ($p<0.05$), avoidant style ($p<0.05$) and insensitive style ($p<0.05$) dimensions of ISI; goal dimension and avoidant style and insensitive style ($p<0.05$); future dimension and avoidant style ($p<0.05$) and finally, control dimension and dominant style, avoidant style and insensitive style ($p<0.05$) were found to be negatively correlated. For both IFS and ISI, strong and positive correlations were found between the dimensions. Hence, it was concluded that the main hypothesis of the research was accepted with some exceptions among some subscale pairs where there was no relationship found. The results of the study was discussed in the light of relevant literature.

Keywords: Ego Functions, ego status, emerging adulthood, adolescence, interpersonal styles, intimacy, university students

* This paper was supported by the BAPKO of Marmara University by the number of SOS-D-030114-0022.
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INTRODUCTION

It is a debated topic whether forming healthy relationships is primarily dependent on fulfilling one's own identity among developmental psychologists. For instance, according to Erikson (1968) people could form close relationships only after solving their own crisis. Intimacy is a relationship between trust based on acceptance of uniqueness and differences and emotions (Kan and Cares, 2006, cited in., Eryılmaz and Ercan, 2011).

Erikson's developmental theory is the first place to see this phenomenon. According to Erikson, there are eight critical period in a person's life. In each period, there is a crisis and conflict to be solved. Erikson stated that conflicts faced during developmental periods are not a disaster. Instead, it is a critical turning point to fulfill one's potential. People could develop healthy personality to the extend s/he cope with these conflicts. In this way, a person could be equipped with tools to coper with the conflict s/he will face during the later developmental periods (Özdemir, Özdemir, Kadak, and Nasiroğlu, 2012). Young people that is the focus of the current study should have a steady identity sense in order to feel that s/he is ready to adulthood period. Hence, it is a important problem for a young people not to have sense of steady identity especially just before passing to the adulthood period and disrupt their harmony at some circumstances (Dereboy and Dereboy,1997 cited in Arslan and Arı, 2008).

Marcia added the fact that whether a person have crisis or not as a parameter to Erikson's theory proposed identity status concept and defined identity statuses and defined those statuses bade on availability of the dimensions of commitment and exploration. In other words, for Marcia, exploration of identity is ended with a status and there could be transitions between statuses. Marcia stated that foreclosure, identity diffusion, moratorium and identity achievement are the identity statuses (Atak, 2011).

Arnett (2000), like Erikson, studied identity exploration but, unlike Erikson, stated that identity exploration process is not end up during adolescence period. An adolescent conduct experimentations in the areas of vocation, love and world views. Those experimentations become intense during emerging adulthood period (cited in Atak, 2011).

During emerging adulthood period, five basic psychological of identity was proposed (Adams and Marshall, 1996, pp. 433; Serafini and Adams, 2002): (i) to present a *structure* enabling a person to understand who s/he is: Identity enable person to be aware of his/her autonomy and uniqueness. This awareness further present a structure enabling a person to be self-confident and having self-respect. (ii) to present meaning and direction sense with various connections, values and *goals*: identity is to provide a base where a person could direct or control his/her behaviors. (iii) to present sense of personal *control*: identity is to present a sense of an ability to express yourself independently, free will, and sense autonomy. (iv) to present a sense of consistency, continuity and harmony between values, beliefs and ideas. Identity is to present *harmony* ability and ability to have synthesis about yourself in a period of time. (v) To present an awareness about the probabilities and alternatives related to the *future*: Identity provides a future directedness which give opportunity for fulfilling your own potential (cited in Demir, 2011a).

Studies of identity functions conducted in Turkey is very limited Demir (2011b) conducted a study with 253 graduate students which showed that structure, goal, future, harmony and control sub-dimensions of identity functions have a predictive power over life satisfaction and explain %28 of it. It was found that there is a relationship between future relatedness and coping styles of active planning, seeking outside support. Another relationship was found between personal control and active planning, sheltering to religion and acceptance (Önen, 2012).

Majority of recent publications generally focused on Marcia's Kimlik Statuses Årseth, Kroger, Martinussen and Marcia (2009) conducted a meta-analysis with 550 empirical study published between 1966 and 2005. The findings of the empirical studies conducted in Turkey are as follows;

Atak, Kapçı and Çok (2013) who proposed that studies related to identity should focus on emerging adulthood instead of adolescence, conducted a study with 700 young people between the ages of 19-26. The focus of the study was individuation types and identity statuses. In the study, it was found that people in developmental individuation group had more healthy identity forming in comparison to people in standard individuation group. On the other hand, Ego statuses were found in close relationship with family attitudes. It was found that authoritarian and permissive family attitudes, in comparison to neglecting attitudes, were more related to identity foreclosure (Cakir and Aydin, 2005). Similarly, Eryılmaz and Aypay (2011) found that there is a strong relationship between subjective well-being and identity achievement and foreclosure identity statuses.

Bacanlı (2011) found that there is a positive relationship identity achievement and rational decision making style, and negative relationship with dependent and undecided styles. Additionally, he further found that ego statuses are in close relationship with impulsive and undecided styles.

The problems related to interpersonal relationships which is the other variable in the current study, has an effect in many field in life. This fact is already proven by many researches. For instance, Durak-Batıgün and Atay-Kayı (2014) avoidance, anger and manipulative sub-dimensions of "Interpersonal Style Scale" were found to have predictive power over impatient approach, unplanned approach and evaluative approach sub-dimensions of "Problem Solving Inventory".

Aim of the Study

The main aim of the study is to investigate the relationship between ego-identity functions and interpersonal styles among Communication Faculty students in Marmara University. Additionally, it was further investigated whether or not ego-identity functions and interpersonal styles show difference by gender, age, field of study, kind of high school graduated, perceived economic status and order of birth.

METHODOLOGY

Population and Sample

The population of the study is students enrolled to Communication Faculty in Marmara University. Sample of the study is composed of 220 students selected based on cluster sampling from the population. The demographical information related to the sample was given in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of the Sample by Gender

Gender	f	%
Male	108	49,1
Female	112	50,9
Total	220	100,0

As the distribution of the participants by gender is examined, it is seen that number of male (n=108; %49,1) and female (n=112, %50,9) participants are very close to each other (see Table 1). Additionally, it is observed that, participants are mostly at the ages between 21-23 (n=118, %53.6), the number of students at 1st and 2nd years of study is very similar to number of student at 3rd and 4th years of study (%55.9 and %40.9 respectively). The distribution of students by the field of study are as follows: Journalism (%31.4), Public Relations and Publicity (%27.3), Radio, Television and Cinema (%41.4). Most of the participants were graduated from general high school (%57.3). Education of their parents is mostly found to be at primary and secondary school levels (%45 and %28.6 for mothers, %51.8 and %25 for fathers respectively). Majority of students (%62.7) perceive their economic status as middle class while %42.3 of them are the first child of their parent.

Data Collection Tools

Ego Functions Scale (EFS): The original form of the scale was developed by Serafini and colleagues and the scale was adapted to the Turkish culture by Demir (2011a) The scale is based on Erikson's theory and composed of 15 items and 5 sub-dimensions (structure, harmony, goals, future and control). It is a self-report inventory and it is composed of Likert type questions with 5 options. The factor analysis confirmed that Turkish version of the scale is composed of five factors like the original scale. For instance, the content validity of the scale was proved with the ones that are theoretically parallel. The reliability of Turkish version of the scale was investigated with the results of internal consistency coefficients, test-retest reliability and item-total correlations.

Interpersonal Styles Scale (ISS): The scale was developed by Şahin et al (2009) and composed of 60 items Likert type items. For each item 5 options are available. The scale aims to determine interpersonal relationship styles. Higher scores earned in the scale means lower level of quality in each dimensions. The scale is composed of six dimensions: dominant style, avoidant style, angry style, insensitive style, manipulative style and cynical style. The scale was found as reliable and valid based on the investigations by Şahin and his colleagues.

Analysis

The analysis of the data was performed by using SPSS 15 statistical analysis software. During the analysis, demographical information of the participants was described by using frequencies and percentages. The relationships between the sub-dimensions of EFS and ISS were determined by calculating Pearson correlations. In order to determine whether or not EFS and ISS subscale scores show difference by gender of the participants, independent sample of T test analysis were performed. For other demographical variables, One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used for each sub dimension.

RESULTS

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations of EFS sub-scale Scores

EFS Sub-dimensions	X	SS
Structure	11,77	2,61
Harmony	11,90	2,45
Goals	12,30	2,51
Future	11,00	2,49
Control	12,31	2,30

As seen in Table 3, it was seen that EFS sub-dimensions' mean and standard deviation scores are close to each other (for instance 11.77 for structure and, 12.31 for control).

Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations of ISS sub-scale Scores at Item Level

ISS Sub-dimensions	X	SS
Dominant Style	2,05	0,75
Avoidant Style	2,32	0,68
Angry Style	2,63	0,75
Ignorant Style	2,13	0,61
Manipulative Style	2,37	0,62
Cynical Style	2,47	0,81

Based on Table 3, it is concluded that participants have highest level of scores in Angry Style ($x=2.63$) while least frequently used style was found as Dominant Style ($x=2.05$).

Table 4. Correlation Coefficients Between EFS and ISS Sub-scale Scores.

	Structure	Harmony	Goals	Future	Control	Dominant	Avoidant	Angry	Insensitive	Manipulati.	Cynical
Structure	r=1	,688**	,678**	,603**	,681**	-,204**	-,266**	-,159*	-,137	-,097	-,060
Harmony		r=1	,624**	,482**	,549**	-,194**	-,261**	-,093	-,177*	-,038	-,123
Goals			r=1	,672**	,726**	-,094	-,212**	-,061	-,148*	,040	-,033
Future				r=1	,630**	-,024	-,143*	-,052	-,057	,045	-,012
Control					r=1	-,164*	-,171*	-,056	-,147*	,026	-,026
Dominant						r=1	,709**	,645**	,614**	,662**	,538**
Avoidant							r=1	,616**	,662**	,640**	,564**
Angry								r=1	,497**	,588**	,539**
Insensitive									r=1	,578**	,426**
Manipulative										r=1	,474**
Cynical											r=1

* $p < .05$

As presented in Table 4, it was found that sub-dimensions of EFS are highly correlated with each other (for instance correlation between Structure and Harmony subscales is calculated as $r=,624$, $p < .05$; for Control and Goals subscales, $r=,726$, $p < .05$). Additionally, there was a strong and negative correlation between structure sub-dimension and dominant style ($r=-,204$), avoidant style ($r=-,266$) and angry style ($p < .159$) at $p < 0.05$ level; Harmony subscale and dominant style ($r=-,194$), avoidant style ($r=-,261$) and insensitive subscale ($r=-,177$); Goals subscale and avoidant style ($r=-,212$), and insensitive style ($r=-,148$); Future subscale and avoidant style ($r=-,143$) and finally control subscale and dominant style ($r=-,164$), avoidant style ($r=-,171$) and insensitive style ($r=-,147$) at $p < 0.05$ level. Finally, it was found that all of the ISS sub dimensions are positively correlated with each other (for instance, avoidant and angry styles $r=,616$, manipulative and cynical styles $r=,726$ at $p < 0.05$ level).

Results Related to Demographical Variables

In order to investigate whether or not EFS and ISIS subscale scores show difference by gender of the participants, T test analysis were conducted for each sub-dimension. The results showed that only significant difference was observed for manipulative style dimension. For this dimension, male students were found to have significantly higher scores than female students ($p < 0.05$). In other words, male students use manipulative style more frequently. The significant differences were found for other sub-dimensions of EFS and ISS.

In order to investigate whether or not EFS and ISIS subscale scores show difference by the type of high school students graduated, ANOVA was performed for each sub-dimension. For dominant subscale, a significant

difference found ($F=51,05$; $p<.05$). In order to see which schools show difference, Scheffe post hoc analysis were performed. According to the results, it was found that, students graduated from vocational schools show dominant style more frequently than students from general high schools. Additionally, another significant difference was found for avoidant style ($F=4,406$, $p<0.05$). Further post hoc analysis with Scheffe test showed that students graduated from vocational schools show avoidant style more frequently than students from general high schools. Angry style subscale scores of the students were found to be significantly different based on high school type. In order to see which school types specifically show difference, Scheffe test was conducted. The results showed that, students graduated from vocational schools show angry style more frequently than students from general high schools.

Any significant difference was observed for insensitive style sub dimension based on type of high school type ($p>0.05$). For manipulative styles of students, a significant difference was observed between students graduated from different types of high schools ($F=3,640$; $p<.50$). In order to investigate the source of this observed difference, Scheffe post hoc analysis was performed. The results showed that there was any significant difference among any pairs of the school types. Finally, for cynical style sub-dimension significant difference was found by the graduated high school type ($F=6,226$; $p<.50$). Complementary Scheffe analysis showed that Anatolian high school students use more cynical relationship style in comparison to students from general high schools. On the other hand, for EFS subscales, any significant differences was observed for demographical variables ($p>0.05$).

RESULT and DISCUSSION

The aim of the current study was to investigate the relationship between Ego-Identity Functions and Interpersonal Styles among university students and to see the effects of demographical variables on them. First of all, it was found that, there are a high level of correlations between the sub-scale scores for each scale. Similarly, Serafina & Maitland (2013) found that Ego-Identity function sub scales are highly correlated.

The main hypothesis of the study is also confirmed to large extend. It was found that there is a relationship between interpersonal styles and identity functions partly. Because scores of Interpersonal Style Scale is interpreted negatively, the observed correlations were also found as negative. Structure sub dimension of EFS is found to be correlated with dominant, avoidant and angry relationship styles. This means that people who are aware of and confident on who they are, show less dominant, avoidant and angry styles in their interpersonal relationships. Harmony sub-dimension was found to be related to dominant, avoidant and insensitive styles. This could be interpreted as that university student who shows consistency, continuity and harmony between values, beliefs and ideas, less likely to use dominant, avoidant and insensitive styles in their interpersonal relationships. Goals sub dimension is found to be related to avoidant and insensitive styles. That is, those who present meaning and direction sense with various connections, values and goals use avoidant and insensitive styles less frequently. For the Future sub-dimension, avoidant style was found to be correlated. This could be interpreted as students who present an awareness about the probabilities and alternatives related to the future are less likely use avoidant style in their interpersonal relationships. Finally, control sub-dimension was found to be related with avoidant and insensitive style. This finding showed that, those who present sense of personal control, less likely use avoidant and insensitive styles during their interpersonal relationships. In the literature, there are many studies showing the predictive power of identity statuses on interpersonal relationships. For instance, Özgüngör (2014) found that identity statuses are significant predictor of intimacy satisfaction. Similarly, Årseth et al (2009) found a significant correlation between intimacy satisfaction and identity statuses.

This study was conducted with a study group consist of adolescents and those who are at emerging adulthood. For these two group, the relationship between identity functions and intimacy could be studied comparatively. In this way, the relationship could be investigated longitudinally. In the current study, high level of correlations between identity functions is not well focused because this was not the main aim but further qualitative studies could be conducted in order to understand the nature of this phenomenon in depth.

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Ergenlerde Görülen Siber Zorba/Mağdur Yaşantılarının Utanç/Suçluluk ve İntikam Duyguları Çerçevesinde İncelenmesi¹²⁶

Halil Ekşi¹²⁷, Yaşar Dilber¹²⁸
Özet

Bu araştırmanın temel amacı, ergenlerin sanal ortamda karşılaştıkları siber zorba ve mağdur yaşantılarında utanç/suçluluk ve intikam duygularının etkisini incelemektir. Araştırmaya Bursa ilinin sosyo-ekonomik durumları farklı merkez iki ilçesinde 5 farklı lise türünde (Genel Lise, Anadolu Lisesi, Kız Meslek Lisesi, Endüstri Meslek Lisesi ve Anadolu Güzel Sanatlar Lisesi) toplam 9 ortaöğretim kurumunun 9. ve 10.sınıflarında öğrenim gören 553 öğrenci katılmıştır. Katılımcıların 308'i kız, 245'i ise erkektir. Araştırmaya katılan öğrencilere Kişisel Bilgi Formu, Siber Zorbalık Ölçeği, Siber Mağdur Ölçeği, Utanç/Suçluluk Ölçeği ile İntikam Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Analizlerde Çoklu Regresyon Analizi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada ergenlerin siber zorba/mağdur yaşantılarına utanç/suçluluk ve intikam duygularını yordamaya katkısını incelemek için Çoklu Regresyon Analizi yürütülmüştür. Analiz sonucunda, utanç/suçluluk ile intikam duygusunun siber zorba üzerinde anlamlı bir yordayıcı olduğu görülmüştür. Siber zorbalığın suçluluk duygusu ile negatif yönde, utanç ve intikam duygusu ile pozitif yönde bir ilişkisi vardır. Siber mağduriyette ise; utanç ve intikam duygusunun negatif yönde siber mağduriyet üzerinde anlamlı bir yordayıcı olduğu görülürken suçluluk duygusunun anlamlı bir yordayıcı olmadığı görülmüştür. Araştırma sonucunda utanç/suçluluk ve intikam duygusunun siber zorbalığı, utanç ve intikam duygusunun ise siber mağduriyeti açıkladığı bulgusuna ulaşılrken, suçluluk duygusunun siber mağduriyeti açıklamadığı görülmüştür. Siber zorba/mağdur davranışları ortaya çıkaran etmenlerin farklı araştırmalarla incelenmesi bu yaşantıların anlaşılmasına ve önlem alınmasına katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Siber zorba, siber mağdur, utanç/suçluluk duygusu, intikam duygusu

Analyzing the Cyber Bullying and Victimization among Adolescents In The Framework Of Shame/Guilt and Revenge

The main aim of this study was to analyze the effect of the feelings of shame/guilt and revenge on the cyber experiences of adolescents who face cyber bullying and victimization. The study included 553 students (308 female and 245 male) in 9th and 10th grades in 9 high schools (in five different high school types: general education, Anatolian, girls vocational, industrial vocational, Anatolian fine arts) in two central municipalities of Bursa with different socio-economic status. Personal Information Forms, Cyber bullying, Cyber victimization, Shame/guilt, and Revenge scales were used as data collection instruments. Main analyze technique is stepwise regression analysis. The results showed that the feelings of shame/guilt and revenge were significant for being a cyber-bully. Cyber bullying had a negative relationship with the feeling of guilt whereas it had a positive relationship with the feeling of shame and revenge. In cyber victimization, shame and revenge feelings had negative effect while the feeling of guilt was not significant. The research showed that the feeling of shame/guilt and revenge explained the cyber bullying while the feeling of shame and revenge explained the cyber victimization, however, the feeling of guilt did not explain the cyber victimization. We think that studying and analyzing the factors causing cyber bully and victim behaviors will help explain these life forms and devising interventions.

Keywords: Cyber bullying, cyber victim, shame/guilt feeling, revenge feeling

¹²⁶ Bu çalışma Yaşar Dilber'in Halil Ekşi danışmanlığında yürüttüğü yüksek lisans tezinin bir kısmından üretilmiştir. Ayrıca bildiri EGT-D-030114-0018no ile Marmara Üniversitesi BAPKO'su tarafından desteklenmiştir.

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1. GİRİŞ

Günümüzde bir milyardan fazla kişi sosyal ilişki oluşturmak amaçlı olarak interneti kullanmakta ve bunların büyük bir kısmı da özellikler gençlerin üye olduğu popüler web siteleri olmaktadır. Bugün Kuzey Amerika'daki gençlerin büyük bir yüzdesi sosyal ağ (network) oluşturmak amaçlı olarak Facebook, Myspace, Xanga vb. popüler web sitelerini kullanmaktadır (Akt. Arıca, 2011).

Gelişen ya da yenilenen teknolojiler insanların yaşamını kolaylaştırmasıyla birlikte bazen yeni bir takım problemleri de beraberinde getirmektedir. Okullarda öğrencilerin göstermiş olduğu geleneksel zorbalık davranışları teknolojinin de devreye girmesi ile birlikte başka bir boyut kazanarak sanal zorbalık (cyber bullying) adı ile anılmaya başlanmıştır.

Siber zorbalık kavramı ilk kez 2004 yılında Kanadalı eğitimci Bill Belsey tarafından kullanılmıştır (Belsey, 2004). Türkiye'de ise siber zorbalık kavramı 2006 yılında literatüre girmiştir (Arıca, 2012). Bu kavram bazı araştırmacılar tarafından çevrim-içi zorbalık, elektronik zorbalık, dijital zorbalık, çevrim-içi zarar verme, internet saldırganlığı, internet tacizi ve internet zorbalığı gibi farklı kavramlarla adlandırılmıştır (Kowalski ve Limber, 2007; Raskauskas ve Stoltz, 2007; Williams ve Guerra, 2007).

Willard (2006)'a göre siber zorbalık, dijital teknolojinin diğer bireylere rahatsız edici mesajlar göndermek veya sosyal saldırganlık yapmak amacıyla kullanılmasıdır (Akt. Eroğlu ve Peker, 2011). En geniş anlamı ile siber zorbalık, bilgisayar, cep telefonu ve diğer iletişim teknolojileri aracılığıyla bir birey ya da gruba karşı yapılan kasıtlı ve tekrarlanan teknik ya da ilişkişel tarzda zarar verme davranışlarının tümüdür (Arıca, 2011; Yaman, Eroğlu, Peker, 2011; Belsey, 2007; Hinduja ve Patching, 2009; Li, 2006). Siber zorbalığın üç temel özelliği bulunmaktadır. Bunlar; tekrarlama, siber zorba ile mağdur arasında teknoloji kullanma becerisine dayalı bir güç dengesizliği, zarar vermesi. (Campbell, 2012).

Smith ve ark. (2006)'na göre siber zorbalık içeren davranışlar; SMS (short message service-kısa ileti) yoluyla, cep telefonu kamerası aracılığıyla video ve fotoğraf çekilerek, cep telefonuyla diğer bireyleri rahatsız ederek, sohbet odalarında, e-posta yoluyla, anlık mesajlaşma sırasında veya web siteleri aracılığıyla gerçekleştirilebilmektedir (Akt. Eroğlu, 2011).

Siber zorbalık mesajları elektronik posta, tartışma grupları, sohbet odaları, anında mesajlaşma, haber grupları ve mobil olanaklar aracılığıyla mesaj ve dijital görüntü gönderilmesi yoluyla da iletilebilmektedir. Ayrıca siber zorbalık, bireylere onur kırıcı mesajlar yollamadan önce bu mesajları başkalarına göstermek, tehdit edici e-postalar yollamak, bir kişiye ait özel ya da mahrem bir mesajı başkalarına göndererek, ilk göndereni herkesin önünde küçük düşürmek gibi şekillerde de kendini göstermektedir (Karlıer-Soydaş, 2011). Siber zorbalık, internet ve/veya cep telefonu kullanılarak tehdit etme, isim takma, alay etme, söylenti/dedikodu yayma, kişinin rızası olmadan fotoğrafını yayma, şifrelerini ele geçirip zarar verme, virüslü e-mail yollamak gibi davranışları içermektedir.

Siber zorbalık sosyal ortamda gerçekleştirilen zorbalık türlerine benzemektedir. Siber zorbalığın geleneksel zorbalıktan ayıran temel fark ise, internet veya cep telefonu gibi sanal iletişimin, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin aracı olarak kullanılmasıdır (Arıca, 2009; Arıca ve diğerleri, 2008; Erdur-Baker ve Kavşut, 2007; Topçu, 2008). Siber zorbalığın meydana gelmesi için zorbaca davranışın mutlaka dijital teknolojilerin kullanımıyla oluşması gerekmektedir (Ayas ve Horzum, 2010).

Öyle ki sanal ortamda birbirlerine gönderdikleri mesajlarla başlayan tartışmalar daha sonra okul ortamında veya dışarıda da devam ettiği tespit edilmiştir (Erdur-Baker vd., 2006). Fiziksel ortamda sosyal dışlama yoluyla zorbalık yapan ergenlerin sanal ortamda zorbalık yapma olasılıklarının daha fazla olduğu görülmektedir (Burnukara, 2009). Bu nedenle bu iki zorbalık türünün etkileşim halinde olduğu ve bazı durumlarda birbirinin devamı niteliğinde gerçekleştiği söylenebilir.

Geleneksel zorbalık ile siber zorbalık arasında bazı benzerlikler olsa da (Hinduja ve Patchin, 2008; Li, 2006, 2007), siber zorbalığı geleneksel zorbalıktan ayıran önemli özellikler mevcuttur. Bu ayırıcı özelliklerden ilki, geleneksel zorbalık okulda ya da iş yerlerinde diğerleri tarafından tanınır. Ancak çoğu zaman siber zorbalıkların kim olduğu bilinmez (Anderson ve Sturm, 2007 ; Chibbaro, 2007; Strom ve Strom , 2005). Özellikle bu durum siber zorbalığın daha çok incitmesine neden olur (Beale ve Hall, 2007 ; Akt. Dilmaç, 2009). Diğer bir ayırıcı özellikte, geleneksel zorbalıkta genellikle kilolu, psikolojik olarak zayıf, öğrenme güçlüğü çeken ya da popüler olmayan çocuklar hedeftir (Willard, 2007; Akt. Dilmaç, 2009). Geleneksel zorbalık genellikle okulda ya da gün

içinde yaşanırken (Cunningham, 2007) siber zorbalık ise zaman ve mekândan bağımsız olarak günün herhangi bir anında gerçekleşebilir.

Siber zorbalık gençler arasında hızla yaygınlaşan bir problemdir (Kowalski ve Limber, 2007; Li, 2006). Özellikle son beş yıldır A.B.D, Kanada ve Avustralya’da eğitim bilimciler ve psikologlar başta olmak üzere diğer uzmanlar tarafından araştırılan ve tartışılan bir konu olmuştur. Ülkemizde son zamanlarda gerçekleşen araştırmalarda gençler arasında siber zorbalık davranışlarının yaygın bir şekilde görüldüğünü ortaya koymuştur (Arıca vd., 2008; Topçu, 2008; Dilmaç, 2009). Aslında sorun teknolojiye değil, teknolojinin nasıl ve ne amaçla kullanıldığında yatmaktadır.

Siber zorbalık adı verilen bu olumsuz davranış bireylerin duygusal ve sosyal yaşamında önemli sorunlara yol açmaktadır. Yazılı-görsel basında yer alan haberler ve yapılan araştırmalar, siber zorbalığa maruz kalmış ergenlerde sosyal ilişkilerinde bozulma, okuldan kaçma, üzüntü, öfke, endişe, intikam, akademik başarısızlık, okul devamsızlığı, okula silah getirme, yalnızlık, depresyon ve hatta intihara kadar varabilen çeşitli psikolojik travmalara neden olduğu bilinmektedir (Agatston vd., 2007; Arıca, 2011; Hinduja ve Patchin, 2009; Raskauskas ve Stolz, 2007; Willard, 2007; Ybarra, Diener-West, ve Leaf, 2007). Siber zorbalık davranışlarına maruz kalan ergenlerde, siber zorbalığın, bireysel ve toplumsal yaşamı ciddi biçimde tehdit etmesi, siber zorbalığın temelinde yer alan sosyo psikolojik süreçleri araştırmaya yöneltmiştir (Eroğlu, 2011).

Raskauskas ve Stoltz (2007) siber mağdurların siber zorbalıktan dolayı kendilerini kötü hissettikleri ve bu nedenle okula gitmekten korktuklarını ifade etmiştir. Siber zorbalığa maruz kalma, öğrencilerin okuldan uzaklaşmalarına ve akademik başarılarında da ciddi bir düşüşe neden olmaktadır.

Siber zorbalığa maruz kalanlarda kızgınlık, moral bozukluğu, huzursuzluk duyguları yaygın olarak gözlenmekte, akut stres bozukluğu ve duygudurum bozukluğu yaşanmakta, bu durum ise intihara kadar uzanan yıkıcı birçok ruh sağlığı problemine neden olabilmektedir (Ayas, 2011; Şener ve ark. 2012; Arıca ve ark. 2008). Arıca (2009), siber zorbalık yapmayan ve siber zorbalığa maruz kalmayan grubun siber zorba ve siber mağdurlardan daha az psikiyatrik belirti gösterdiğini bulgulamıştır. Erkek öğrenciler siber zorbalığa maruz kaldıklarında daha çok öfke; kızlar ise üzüntü duygusunu daha yoğun yaşamaktadırlar. Diğer bir yoğun yaşanan duygu ise intikamdır (Yaman ve Peker, 2012).

İnsanlar yaşamları boyunca birbirleriyle fiziksel ve duygusal bağlar kurmaya gereksinim duyarlar. Ancak yakın ilişkilerde bireyler doyum, mutluluk paylaşma gibi olumlu duygular yaşarken aynı zamanda incinme, kırılma, gücenme ve hayal kırıklığı gibi olumsuz duygularda yaşayabilmektedirler (Ergüner-Tekinalp ve Terzi, 2012). İntikam duygusu da diğer duygular gibi (mutluluk, sevinç, neşe, keyif, keder, öfke vb.) temel insani duygulardan biridir ve sosyal davranışın kuvvetli bir uyarıcısıdır.

Stuckless ve Goranson (1992) intikamı, “yanlış olarak algılanan bir davranışın karşılığında zarar veya ceza vermek” şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. McCullough ve ark. (2001) “intikam, kişilerarası anlaşmazlığı çözmek amacıyla, saldırgan olarak algılanan kişiye karşı gönüllü olarak saldırgan davranışlar göstermektir”. Hakarete uğrama, aldatılma, saldırıya uğrama gibi olumsuz olaylarla karşılaştıklarında insanların suçlu kişiden kaçınma veya bu kişilerden intikam almaya motive oldukları ifade edilmektedir (McCullough ve Witvliet, 2002). İntikam çok komplike, yıkıcı ve bir o kadar da güçlü bir duygudur.

Bireyler normal hayatta veya sanal ortamda hakarete ve saldırıya uğradıktan sonra intikam duygusu içerisinde ya kendine yöneltilen davranışa karşılık vermekte, karşı saldırıya geçmekte ya da yaşadığı intikam duygusunu başka bireylere yönlendirmektedir. Raskauskas ve Stoltz (2007) bireylerin eğlenmek, kendini iyi hissetmek ve intikam alma amacıyla siber zorbalık yaptığını ifade etmiştir.

Başkaları üzerinde kontrol kurmayı amaçlama, saldırganca davranmaktan haz alma, arkadaşları arasında saygınlık kazanma çabası, gerçek yaşamda davranışa dökemediği saldırganlık içeren düşlemlerini sanal ortamda dile getirme arzusu, kendisine kötü davranan kişilerden sanal dünyadan intikam almaya çalışma gibi nedenlerden dolayı siber zorbalık davranışının meydana geldiği ifade edilmektedir (Kowalski vd., 2008; Akt. Peker vd., 2012).

Şahin ve ark. (2010) öğrencilerin siber zorbalığa maruz kaldıklarında öfke, nefret, üzüntü ve intikam duyguları hissettiklerini belirtmişlerdir. Ayrıca siber zorba davranışlara maruz kalan öğrencilerin kendilerinin de siber zorba davranışlarda bulunduğunu tespit etmişlerdir. Ülkemizde yapılan bir başka araştırmada ise ortaöğretim öğrencilerinin arkadaş ortamı, can sıkıntısı, intikam alma isteği gibi nedenlerle siber zorbalık yaptıkları tespit

edilmiştir. Siber zorbalığa maruz kaldıklarında da öfke, üzüntü ve intikam duyguları yaşadıkları görülmüştür (Yaman ve Peker, 2012).

İnsanoğlu içinde yaşadığı sosyal hayatta bireylerle kurduğu etkileşim içerisinde farklı duygular yaşamaktadır. Duygular ise kişilerarası ilişkileri etkileyen önemli birer faktördürler. İnsan, kendisinde ve çevresinde olup bitenleri bir yandan algılamakta diğer yandan bunları değerlendirir ve anlamlandırır. Duygularda insanın en önemli yönlendiricileridir. İşte insanoğlunun yaşadığı duygulardan en önemlileri ise utanç ve suçluluk duygusudur.

Utanç ve suçluluk insanlarla olan ilişkilerimizde karşımızdaki kişiyi rahatsız edecek davranışlarda bulunduğumuzda yaşanabilen iki duygudur. Bu duygular yoluyla rahatsız edici davranışlarımızı fark edebilir ve düzeltme yoluna gidebiliriz (Barasch, 2000; Akt. Karataş, 2008). Budak (2005)'a göre suçluluk duygusu dinen, kanunen ya da ahlaki yönden ayıplanan, yasaklanan değerleri, kuralları, töreleri çiğnediğimizde ortaya çıkan düşüncenin yarattığı rahatsızlık ve pişmanlık duygusudur. Utanç duygusu ise bu değerler, kurallar ve töreleri çiğneyen kişinin benliğini olumsuz değerlendirmesiyle ortaya çıkarak acı vermektedir. Suçluluk genellikle, yapılan hata karşısında verilen yanıt; utanç ise kendini mutsuz hissetme ve hayal kırıklığına uğrama gibi duygulardır (Barasch, 2000; Akt. Karataş, 2008).

Utanç, bir kişinin kusuruyla bağlantılı iken, suçluluk ise yapılan hata ile bağlantılıdır (Striblen, 2007). Suçluluk davranış temelli iken, utanç duygusu daha çok kişinin kendi benliğiyle ilgilidir. “ben kötü bir şey yaptım” ifadesinde; kişi “kötü bir şey” üzerine odaklanırsa suçluluk duygusu, “ben” üzerine odaklanırsa utanç duygusu ortaya çıkabilmektedir (Silfver, 2007). Suçluluk duygusu daha kolay baş edilebilir bir olgu olduğu söylenebilir. Çünkü doğru veya iyi şeyi yaparak ya da yanlış yapılmasına rağmen özür dileyerek suçluluk duygusu görece giderilebilir. Ancak utanç, kişinin kendi benliğine yönelik hissettiği duygudur ve bu duyguyla baş edebilmesi daha zordur (Wilson, 2001).

Sağlıklı boyutta gelişen suçluluk-utanç duygusunun büyüme, gelişme, olgunlaşma, bağışlama, değişme ve yenilenme gibi olumlu sonuçları vardır (Sığırdı vd., 2010). Bu iki duygunun hiç yaşanmamasının ya da gereğinden fazla yaşanmasının sağlıklı bir durum olmadığı söylenebilir. Suçluluk ve utanç duygularının yoğun bir şekilde yaşanmasının bireyi şiddete yöneltebileceği de belirtilmektedir. Kişi yaşadığı yoğun suçluluk ve utanç duygusuyla baş etme yöntemi olarak şiddeti seçebilir. Bu durumda kişinin kendisine zarar vermesinin yanında başkalarına da zarar verebileceği olasıdır (Gilligan, 2003; Akt. Sığırdı vd., 2010).

Bu araştırmanın konusu araştırmacının ergenlerde görülen siber zorba ve mağdur yaşantılarının üzerinde hatayla ilgili utanç/suçluluk ve intikam duygularının etkisini merak etmesi sonucu oluşmuştur. Bu araştırmadan elde edilecek ipuçları siber zorbalığı önlemeyi amaçlayan araştırmacılara rehber olacaktır.

1.1. Amaç

Ergenlerde görülen utanç/suçluluk ve intikam duyguları siber zorba/ mağdur yaşantılarını nasıl yordamaktadır?

2. YÖNTEM

2.1. Araştırmanın Modeli

Bu araştırmada ilişkisel tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. Bu bağlamda araştırmada ortaöğretim öğrencilerinin siber zorbalık, siber mağdur, utanç, suçluluk ve intikam duyguları arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Korelasyonel araştırma olarak da adlandırılan ilişkisel tarama modelinde “iki ya da daha çok değişken arasındaki ilişkinin herhangi bir şekilde bu değişkenlere müdahale edilmeden incelenmesi” (Büyüköztürk, Kılıç-Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz ve Demirel, 2008) söz konusudur. Korelasyon türü ilişki aramalarda değişkenlerin birlikte değişip değişmedikleri, birlikte bir değişme varsa, bunun nasıl gerçekleştiği öğrenilmeye çalışılır.

2.2. Evren ve Örneklem

Bu araştırmanın evreni 2012–2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Bursa ili Yıldırım ve Nilüfer İlçelerinde ki 5 farklı (Kız Meslek Lisesi, Teknik ve Endüstri Meslek Lisesi, Anadolu Lisesi, Genel Lise ve Anadolu Güzel Sanatlar Lisesi) orta öğretim kurumunda toplam 9 orta öğretim kurumunda öğrenim gören öğrencilerdir. Araştırma evreninin tamamına ulaşmak mümkün olmadığından örneklem alma yoluna gidilmiştir. Evreni daha iyi temsil edeceği düşüncesiyle farklı sosyoekonomik çevrelerdeki okullardan “sistemik tesadüfi (katmanlı) örnekleme” yoluyla 553 öğrenci araştırma örnekleme alınmıştır. Sistemik tesadüfi (katmanlı) örnekleme “bir evreni oluşturan elemanları özelliklerine göre gruplandırarak homojen tabakalara ayırma, sonra da örnekleri bu tabakalardan alma işlemidir” (Gökçe, 1988). Uygulama toplam 575 öğrenciye yapılmış, 12 öğrenci elenmiş,

analizler 553 öğrenci üzerinden gerçekleştirilmiştir. Örneklemin temel özellikleri tablolar olarak aşağıda verilmiştir.

Tablo 1. Cinsiyet Değişkeni İçin Frekans ve Yüzde Değerleri

Gruplar	f	%	% _{gec}	% _{yig}
Erkek	245	44,3	44,3	44,3
Kız	308	55,7	55,7	100,0
Toplam	553	100,0	100,0	

Tablo 1’de görüldüğü üzere örneklem grubunu oluşturan öğrencilerin 245’i (%44,3) erkek,308’i (%55,7) kızdır. Toplam 553 öğrenci vardır.

Tablo 2. Okul Türü Değişkeni İçin Frekans ve Yüzde Değerleri

Gruplar	f	%	% _{gec}	% _{yig}
Genel Lise	95	17,2	17,2	17,2
Meslek Lisesi	248	44,8	44,8	62,0
Anadolu Lisesi	210	38,0	38,0	100,0
Toplam	553	100,0	100,0	

Tablo2’de görüldüğü üzere örneklem grubunu oluşturan öğrencilerin okul türlerine bakıldığında 95’i(%17,2) genel lise,248’i (%44,8) meslek lisesi, 210’u (%38) Anadolu lisesi öğrencisidir.

Tablo 3. Sınıf Değişkeni İçin Frekans ve Yüzde Değerleri

Gruplar	f	%	% _{gec}	% _{yig}
9. sınıf	292	52,8	52,8	52,8
10. sınıf	261	47,2	47,2	100,0
Toplam	553	100,0	100,0	

Tablo 3’de görüldüğü üzere örneklem grubunu oluşturan öğrencilerin sınıflarına bakıldığında 292’si(%52,8) 9. sınıf,261’i (%47,2) 10. Sınıf öğrencisidir.

2.3. Veri Toplama Araçları

2.3.1. Siber Zorbalık Ölçeği: Veri toplama aracı olarak Arıçak, Kınay ve Tanrıku (2011) tarafından geliştirilen “Siber Zorbalık Ölçeği” (SZÖ) kullanılmıştır. Ölçek, 24 maddeden oluşmakta olup dördü Hiçbir Zaman, Bazen, Çoğu Zaman, Her Zaman skala üzerinden yanıtlanmaktadır. Öncelikle tüm maddeler için temel bileşenler analizi bağlamında açıklayıcı faktör analizi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bileşen matriksi incelendiğinde tüm maddelerin tek faktör altında toplandığı görülmüştür. Bu tek faktör toplam varyansın %50.58’ini açıklamaktadır. Aynı zamanda çizgi grafiği (scree plot) üzerinde kırılma noktası incelenmiş, kırılma noktasından da ölçeğin tek faktörlü bir yapı gösterdiği görülmüştür. Tek faktör altındaki maddelerin faktör yükleri .49 ile .80 arasında değişmektedir. Böylece ölçeğin tek faktörlü bir yapıya sahip olduğu yargısına varılmıştır. Ölçeğin tamamı için hesaplanan Cronbach alfa katsayısı .95 olarak; test-tekrar test güvenilirlik katsayısı ise .70 olarak bulunmuştur. Elde edilen bu değerler ölçeğin, güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olduğu şeklinde yorumlanabilir.

2.3.2. Siber Mağdur Ölçeği: Veri toplama aracı olarak Arıçak (2011) tarafından geliştirilen “Siber Mağdur Ölçeği” kullanılmıştır. Siber zorbalığa maruz kalan öğrencilerin tespitinin sağlanması ve hangi yollarla mağduriyet yaşandığını tespit etmek için geliştirilmiştir. Ölçek, 24 maddeden oluşmaktadır ve 532 öğrenciden elde edilen veriler üzerinde yapılan istatistiksel analizlerde ölçeğin tek faktör yapısına sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Bu tek faktör toplam varyansın %30.17’sini oluşturmaktadır. Madde faktör yükleri .43 ile .67 arasında değişmektedir. Cronbach alfa katsayısı ise .89, test-tekrar-test korelasyonu ise .75 olarak bulunmuştur. Elde edilen bu değerlerden ölçeğin geçerli ve güvenilir olduğu yargısına varılmıştır.

2.3.3. Suçluluk ve Utanç Ölçeği: Veri toplama aracı olarak Akın, Sarıçam, Akın, Çitemel, Gediksiz ve Çardak (2012) tarafından geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması yapılan “Hatayla İlgili Suçluluk ve Utanç Ölçeği” adlı envanter kullanılacaktır. Suçluluk alt boyutu: 1, 4, 7, 9, 10, Utanç al boyutu: 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, Ters kodlanan madde bulunmamaktadır. Ölçeğin yapı geçerliliği için uygulanan doğrulayıcı faktör analizinde orijinal formulla tutarlı olarak 10 maddeden oluştuğu ve utanç ve suçluluk şeklinde iki boyutta uyum verdiği görülmüştür ($\chi^2=86.59$,

sd=28, RMSEA=.068, GFI=.94, CFI=.95, AGFI=.93 ve SRMR=.070). Ölçeğin faktör yükleri .36 ile .75 arasında sıralanmaktadır. İç tutarlılık güvenilirlik katsayıları ölçeğin bütünü için .80, utanç alt ölçeği için .78, suçluluk alt ölçeği için .70 olarak bulunmuştur. Ayrıca ölçeğin düzeltilmiş madde-toplam korelasyonlarının .29 ile .62 arasında sıralandığı görülmüştür.

2.3.4. İntikam Ölçeği: Veri toplama aracı Satıcı, Can ve Akın (2012) tarafından geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması yapılmıştır. İntikam Ölçeği toplam 20 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Ters puanlanan maddeler bulunmaktadır. Bu maddeler : 1-4 5-8-9-11-15-17-18-20' dir. Yükselen puanlar yüksek düzeyde intikam duygusunu göstermektedir. Ölçeğin faktör yükleri .39 ile .73 arasında sıralanmaktadır. İç tutarlılık güvenilirlik katsayısı ölçeğin bütünü için .91 ve test-tekrar test güvenilirlik katsayısı da .87 bulunmuştur. Ayrıca Ölçeğin düzeltilmiş madde toplam korelasyonlarının .35 ile .67 arasında sıralandığı görülmüştür.

2.4. Verilerin Çözümlemesi

Örneklem grubunu oluşturan öğrencilerin “Siber Zorbalık” ile “Siber Mağdur”luğu “Suçluluk ve Utanç Ölçeği” ve “İntikam Ölçeği”nin ne derecede yordadığını belirlemek amacıyla regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Elde edilen veriler bilgisayarda “SPSS for Windows ver:20” programında çözümlenmiş, manidarlıklar minimum $p<.05$ düzeyinde sınırlanmıştır.

3. BULGULAR

3.1. Betimsel İstatistikler

Öğrencilerin ölçme araçlarından (siber zorbalık, siber mağdurluk, Suçluluk, Utanç ve İntikam) düzeyleri Tablo 4.'de verilmektedir.

Tablo 4. Siber Zorbalık ve Siber Mağdur Olma Ölçeğinin Toplam Puanlar ve Tüm Alt Boyutların Aritmetik Ortalama, Standart Sapma

Boyut	N	\bar{X}	Ss
Siber Zorbalık	553	27,17	7,222
Siber Mağdurluk	553	44,68	4,225
Suçluluk	553	20,35	8,236
Utanç	553	18,49	8,520
İntikam	553	76,50	22,991

Tablo 4 'de görüldüğü üzere, örneklem grubunu oluşturan öğrencilerin siber zorbalık belirleme ölçeğinin toplam puanların aritmetik ortalaması $\bar{X}=27,17$ standart sapması $ss=7,222$ olduğu, siber mağdur belirleme ölçeğinin toplam puanların aritmetik ortalaması $\bar{X}=44,68$ standart sapması $ss=4,225$ olduğu görülmektedir. örneklem grubunu oluşturan öğrencilerin suçluluk ölçeğinin toplam puanların aritmetik ortalaması $\bar{X}=20,35$ standart sapması $ss=8,236$ olduğu, utanç ölçeğinin toplam puanların aritmetik ortalaması $\bar{X}=18,49$ standart sapması $ss=8,520$ olduğu, intikam ölçeğinin toplam puanların aritmetik ortalaması $\bar{X}=76,50$ standart sapması $ss=22,991$ olduğu görülmektedir.

3.2. Regresyon Analizleri

Siber zorbalığı suçluluk, utangaçlık ve intikam duygusunun ne derecede yordadığını belirlemek amacıyla yapılan çoklu Regresyon analizleri sonuçları Tablo 5'de sunulmuştur.

Tablo 5. Siber Zorbalığı, Suçluluk, Utanç ve İntikam Duygularının Ne Derecede Yordadığını Belirlemek Amacıyla Yapılan Çoklu Regresyon Analizleri Sonuçları

Değişkenler	B	Standart Hata	B	t	p
Sabit	23,667	1,366		17,326	,000
Suçluluk	-,115	,051	-,131	-2,246	,025
Utanç	,115	,049	,135	2,343	,019
İntikam	,051	,014	,156	3,667	,000
		$R=,202$	$R^2=,041$	$F=7,795$	$P=,000$

Tablo 5'de görüldüğü gibi suçluluk, utanç ve intikam duygularının, siber zorbalığı yordamasına ilişkin çoklu regresyon analizi sonuçları incelendiğinde; siber zorbalık ile suçluluk, utanç ve intikam duyguları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır ($R= .202$, $R^2= .041$, $p<.01$). Adı geçen üç değişken birlikte siber zorbalıktaki toplam varyansın %41'ini açıklamaktadır. Standardize edilmiş regresyon katsayısına (β) göre, yordayıcı değişkenlerin siber zorbalık üzerindeki göreceli önem sırası; intikam, utanç ve suçluluk duygusudur. Regresyon katsayılarının anlamlılığına ilişkin t testi sonuçları incelendiğinde tüm değişkenlerin siber zorbalık üzerinde önemli (anlamlı) bir yordayıcı olduğu görülmektedir. Siber zorbalığın suçluluk duygusu ile negatif yönde, utanç ve intikam ile pozitif yönde bir ilişki vardır. Regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre, siber zorbalığın yordanmasına ilişkin regresyon eşitliği (matematiksel model) ise şöyledir; siber zorbalık = $23,667 + -,115$

suçluluk + ,115 utanç + ,051 intikam.

Siber mağduriyeti suçluluk, utanç ve intikam duygusunun ne derecede yordadığını belirlemek amacıyla çoklu Regresyon analizleri sonuçları Tablo 6.'te sunulmuştur.

Tablo 6. Siber Mağduriyeti, Suçluluk, Utanç ve İntikam Duygularının Ne Derecede Yordadığını Belirlemek Amacıyla Yapılan Çoklu Regresyon Analizleri Sonuçları

Değişkenler	B	Standart Hata	B	t	p
Sabit	48,994	,779		62,866	,000
Suçluluk	,040	,029	,078	1,380	,168
Utanç	-,084	,028	-,170	-3,023	,003
İntikam	-,049	,008	-,256	-6,181	,000
		R=,296	R ² =,088	F=17,629	P=,000

Tablo 6'd görüldüğü gibi suçluluk, utanç ve intikam duygularının, siber mağduriyeti yordamasına ilişkin çoklu regresyon analizi sonuçları incelendiğinde; siber zorbalık ile utanç ve intikam duyguları arasında anlamlı, suçluluk ile ise anlamsız bir ilişki olduğu sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır (R= .296, R²= .088, p<.01). Adı geçen iki değişken birlikte siber mağduriyet toplam varyansın %88'ini açıklamaktadır. Standardize edilmiş regresyon katsayısına (β) göre, yordayıcı değişkenlerin siber mağduriyet üzerindeki görece önem sırası; utanç ve intikam duygusudur. Regresyon katsayılarının anlamlılığına ilişkin t testi sonuçları incelendiğinde utanç ve intikam duygusu değişkenlerin negatif yönde siber mağduriyet üzerinde önemli (anlamlı) bir yordayıcı olduğu görülürken suçluluk değişkeninin anlamlı bir yordayıcı olmadığı görülmüştür.

Regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre, siber mağduriyetin yordanmasına ilişkin regresyon eşitliği (matematiksel model) ise şöyledir; siber mağduriyet = 48,994 + ,040 suçluluk + -,084 utanç + -,049 intikam.

4. TARTIŞMA

Araştırma bulgularında siber zorbalık ile suçluluk, utanç ve intikam duyguları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki ortaya çıkmıştır. Tüm değişkenlerin siber zorbalık üzerinde önemli bir yordayıcı olduğu görülmektedir. Siber zorbalık suçluluk ile negatif yönde, utanç ve intikam ile pozitif yönde bir ilişki vardır. Siber zorbalık arttıkça suçluluk duygusunda azalma görülmektedir. Bu sonuç siber zorbalığı anlama yönünde önemli bir bulgu olarak değerlendirilebilir. Nitekim siber zorbalığın bu davranışı sergilerken ya da ondan sonraki süreçte suçluluk duygusu yaşamaması, mağdurla yüz yüze iletişim kurmamasından kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Ayrıca siber zorbalıkta yakalanma olasılığının geleneksel zorbalıktan daha düşük olması, siber zorbalıkta kendini gizleme imkanının da olması yine siber zorbanın suçluluk duygusu yaşamamasına neden olmaktadır. Siber zorbanın suçluluk hissetmemesi de bu davranışın sürekliliğine ve tekrarlanabilirliğine neden olmaktadır.

Siber zorbalık utanç ve intikam duyguları ile de pozitif yönde bir ilişki vardır. Siber zorbalık arttıkça utanç ve intikam duyguları da ona paralel olarak artmaktadır. Siber zorbalığın artmasıyla utanç duygusunda artışı beklenenin aksine bir bulgudur. Utanç duygusunun artmasının anlık bir duygu durumu olduğu düşünülmektedir. Utanç duygusundan sonraki aşamanın suçluluk duygusu olması ve siber zorbanın da suçluluk duygusunun düşük olması bunun en önemli göstergesidir.

Siber zorbalığın artması ile intikam duygusunun da artması bulgusu beklenen bir bulgudur. Raskauskas ve Stoltz (2007) tarafından siber zorbalık yapan öğrencilere, siber zorbalığın nedenlerinin sorulduğu bir araştırmada, siber zorbalığın %38'i siber zorbalığın eğlence amaçlı olduğunu, %25'i de siber zorbalığın intikam alma amacı taşıdığını, %6'sı bireyin kendini kötü hissetmesinin siber zorbalık yapmasına yol açtığını ve %31'i bu konuda herhangi bir fikrinin bulunmadığını belirtmiştir. Yaman ve Peker (2012)'in yaptığı araştırmada siber zorbalığın önemli nedenlerinden birisinin intikam alma olduğunu belirtmiştir. Ergen normal hayatta güç yetiremeyeceği bir tanıdığından, sanal ortam yardımıyla, bu ortamın bazı avantajlarını da kullanarak (kimliğin rahatça gizlenebilmesi ve yakalanma olasılığının zayıf olması vb.) intikam alabilmektedir.

Araştırma bulguları incelendiğinde utanç ve intikam duygusu değişkeni negatif yönde siber mağduriyet üzerinde anlamlı bir yordayıcı olduğu görülürken, suçluluk değişkeninin anlamlı bir yordayıcı olmadığı görülmüştür. Bu

bağlamda mağdur bireyin suçluluk duygusunu hissetmemesi beklenen bir bulgudur. Ergenlerde utanç ve intikam duygusu arttıkça siber mağduriyet azalmaktadır. Bu bulgu, Şahin ve ark. (2010) ile Yaman ve Peker (2012)'in yaptığı araştırmalarda öğrencilerin siber zorbalığa maruz kaldıklarında öfke, nefret, üzüntü ve intikam duygularını yaşadıkları şeklindeki bulguyla örtüşmeyen bir bulgudur. Siber zorba intikam duygusu ile hareket edip sanal ortamda zorba davranışlar sergilerken mağdur birey bu yaşantıya maruz kalınca intikam duygusu ile başka bireylere yönelmeyebilir. İntikam duygusu olanlar daha çok zorba olurken, intikamın mağduriyet üzerine etkisi olmadığı söylenebilir. Siber mağdur olan her birey de intikam alma amacıyla karşısında bireye ya da bir başkasına yaklaşmayabilir. Mağduriyet arttıkça utanç duygusunun azalması ise mağdur bireyin yanlış yapmadığı tarzındaki düşüncesi etkili olabilir.

Nitekim bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin kullanımının artmasıyla birlikte bireylerin internette karşılaştıkları zorbalığı zaman içerisinde kanıksamış olabilecekleri ya da bu tarz davranışlara karşı duyarsızlaştığı şeklinde de yorumlanabilir.

Araştırma bağlamında geliştirilen öneriler ise şöyledir:

- Alanyazında siber zorbanın ve mağdurun hangi duyguları yaşadıkları ve hangi duygularla bu tarz davranışlar sergiledikleri üzerine yapılan araştırmaların az olduğu görülmektedir. Siber zorba ve mağduriyet üzerine etki eden faktörlerin ortaya çıkarılması, siber zorba ve siber mağduriyet hakkında daha çok bilgi edinilmesine katkı sağlayacaktır. Bu edinilen bilgiler gerçekleşen olumsuz davranışların azaltılması yönünde atılacak adımlara da rehber olacaktır.
- Ailelerin çocuklarına verdikleri cezalar içinde en çok kullanılanı internet ve cep telefonu yasağıdır. Ailelerin ceza olarak interneti ve cep telefonu yasaklaması, çocukların siber zorbalık davranışına maruz kaldıklarında ailelerin bu cezaları öne süreceğinden hareketle ailelerle paylaşamamaktadır. Özellikle bu davranışlara maruz kalındığında aile ile paylaşılması konusunda öğrenciler desteklenmelidir. Ceza konusunda yasaklıktan ziyade öğretici ve yapıcı cezalar verilmesi önerilebilir.
- Okul rehberlik servisleri tarafından siber zorba davranışlarda bulunan ergenlere yönelik özellikle empati eğitimi ve geliştirilmesine yönelik çalışmalar yapılmalıdır. Ayrıca okullarımızda değerler eğitimi ile ilgili çalışmalar istenilen düzeyde değildir. Müfredatta saygı, sevgi, hoşgörü, anlayış gibi değerlere çokça yer verilmesi ve pekiştirilmesi öğrencileri çevresine karşı daha duyarlı hale getireceği ileri sürülebilir. M.E.B idarecilerin, öğretmenlerin, psikolojik danışmanların ve öğrencilerin siber zorbalık hakkında duyarlılıklarını arttırmak için çeşitli çalışmalar yürütmelidir (Hizmet içi eğitim, seminer, sempozyum, afiş çalışması, resim yarışmaları vb). Siber zorbalığı önleme ve mağdurların yaşadıkları psikolojik problemlere yönelik acilen müdahale programlarının geliştirilip uygulanması gerektiği düşünülmektedir.

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BİR MANEVÎ-MESLEKÎ EĞİTİM USÛLÜ: AHÎ TEŞKİLATI'NDA USTA/ÖĞRETMEN EĞİTİMİ

A METHOD OF MORAL-VOCATIONAL EDUCATION: MASTER/TEACHER EDUCATION IN AHÎ COMMUNITY

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Özet

13. yüzyılda Anadolu'da görülmeye başlanan ve bir süre sonra da Osmanlı Devleti'nin kurulmasında önemli bir rol oynayan Ahîlik teşkilatı dinî-içtimaî bir yapı arz etmekle birlikte aynı zamanda döneminde yaygın bir "eğitim kurumu" haline gelmiştir. Ahîlik küçük esnaf, usta, kalfa ve çırakları içine alan, onların dayanışmaları kadar mesleklerini dürüstlük ve özenle yapmalarını ve en önemlisi de "eğitilmelerini" amaçlayan bir lonca teşkilatı olarak da tanımlanabilir. Böylece Ahî teşkilatlarında ahlak ve meslek eğitiminin bütünlük içerisinde ömür boyu süren bir faaliyet olması amaçlanmıştır. Muallim ahî ve pîr denilen hocalar tarafından verilen ahlak ve meslek eğitimi "iş dışında" ve "iş başında" olmak üzere iki farklı şekilde uygulanmıştır. Usta-çırak ilişkisi ile yapılan bu eğitim usûlü belirli kurullarla işleyişini sürdürmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ahî Teşkilatı, Usta/Öğretmen Eğitimi, Manevî-Meslekî Eğitim, Osmanlı.

Abstract

The Ahi community which was firstly seen in the 13 th century in Anatolia and after a while played an important role in foundation of Ottoman Empire, is not only a religious-social structure but also had become a common educational institution in its period. Ahi community can be defined as a guild community which covers small retailer, master, apprentice, qualified workman and aims to perform their vocations fairly and meticulously as well as solidarity. As the most important thing, this community aims them to be educated. Thus, it has been aimed that education of morality and vocation must be an action which continues for a life time in harmony. Education of morality and vocation which trains by teachers so called 'muallim' and 'pir' has practiced as two ways: 'off the job training' and 'on the job training'. This educational method that bases on relation between teacher and apprentice has continued its process with certain norms. In this essay, we will try to discuss this process of moral and vocational education which has practiced according to certain methods and norms, with its stages and different dimensions in the context of master/teacher education.

Key Words: Ahi Community, Master/Teacher Education, Moral-Vocational Education, Ottoman.

Giriş

Selçuklular döneminde ortaya çıkıp Osmanlı devletinin ilk yüzyıllarında da etkili olmuş önemli bir yaygın eğitim kurumu olan ahîlik, küçük esnaf, usta, kalfa ve çırakları içine alan, onların dayanışmaları kadar mesleklerini dürüstlük ve özenle yapmalarını, ayrıca eğitilmelerini amaçlayan bir lonca teşkilatı olarak tanımlanabilir. (Akyüz, 2013:52)

Ahî birlikleri kendine özgü bir felsefesi, dünya görüşü, ilkeleri olan ve bunları çeşitli eğitim faaliyetleriyle topluma yaymaya çalışan bir okul niteliğindedir. Bir eğitim kurumu olarak incelendiğinde ahî birliklerinin askeri, dinî-ahlakî ve meslekî alanlarda eğitim ve öğretim hizmeti verdiği, bu eğitimin amacının ise insanı mükemmelleştirmek, hayata hazırlamak, bir meslekte yetkinleştirmek, davranışlarında dengeli hareket etmesini bilen, çevresine uyum sağlayabilen ve başkalarının haklarına riayet eden bir insan yetiştirmek olduğu görülmektedir. (Duman, 2012:182)

İçerisinde ahlakî olduğu kadar meslekî bir eğitimin de yer aldığı ahî teşkilatına küçük yaşta intisab eden bir öğrenci, icra ettiği meslek ve sanat kolunun ustası tarafından, mesleğine göre değişebilen bir sürede eğitimini alır ve kendisi de öğrenci yetiştirmek üzere usta seviyesine yükselirdi. Biz de bu tebliğimizde ahî teşkilatında eğitim sistemin temel özelliklerine kısaca temas ettikten sonra işe yamaklıkla başlayan öğrencinin usta olana kadar hem ahlakî hem de meslekî olarak geçirdiği eğitim sürecini işleyecek ve böylece ahî teşkilatında bir yamak/öğrencinin nasıl işinin ve sanatının ehli bir usta/öğretmene dönüştüğünü göz önüne koymaya çalışacağız.

Ahî Teşkilatında Eğitim Sisteminin Genel Özellikleri

Büyük şehirlerde çeşitli gruplar halinde teşkilatlanan ahîlerin her birinin müstakil bir zaviyesi bulunmaktaydı. Küçük şehirlerde ise muhtelif meslek grupları tek bir birlik teşkil etmişti. Teşkilata ilk defa girenlere çırak adı verilirken, esnaf birliklerinin başındaki kişiye şeyh, halife veya nakib, bütün esnafın en üst makamındaki kişiye ise şeyhü'l-meşâyih denilmiştir. (Kazıcı: 541) Ahîlik, bu teşkilatlanma yapısı ayrıca adabı, kuruluşu ve işleyişi itibarıyla tasavvufi yapılanmaya benzer bir teşkilat hüviyeti kazanmıştır. (Erdem, 2012:23) Ahîlikte başlangıçtan beri mesleki beceri ve kıdeme dayanan bir hiyerarşiye göre mesleği gelenek halinde sürdürme ve gelenekten kopmama prensibi şiar edinilmiş ve bu tarih boyunca da devam etmiştir. (Bayram, 1991:149) Tasavvufi eğitimde bir şeyhe intisab etmeden irşadın mümkün olamayacağı gibi ahîlikte de bir ustadan el almadan bir sanatta olgunluğa sahip olmak uygun görülmemiştir. (Ekinci, 1990:25)

Ahîliğe mensup kişilerin mesleklerinde yüceltikleri ve izinden gitmekle iftihar ettikleri *pîr*lerine duydukları sevgi ve saygı yüzyıllarca işyerlerine çerçeveleyip astıkları beyitlerde¹²⁹ de açıkça görülmektedir. Halen Anadolu'da bazı işyerlerinde rastlanabilen levhalarda, *pîr*lere duyulan saygı ve muhabbetin yanında, işlerine ve dünya görüşlerine dair pek çok ipucu da yer almaktadır. (Gölpınarlı, 2011:35)

Ahî teşkilatında eğitim faaliyetleri İslam dininin esaslarına göre düzenlenmiştir. (Ekinci, 1990: 35) Zaviyelerde, gayesi İslamî eğitim esaslarıyla paralellik gösteren bütüncül bir eğitim anlayışı hâkim olmuştur. Bu esaslar özellikle ferde kendini tanıma ve tanıma yolunu göstermek, insanın fitratını koruyarak şahsiyetli, iyi insan yetiştirmek, fertteki gizli kabiliyetleri ortaya çıkarıp bu kabiliyetlere yön vermek, sözle davranışı birleştirmek, evrensel ahlakı ve tevhit inancını hâkim kılmaktır. (Sarıkaya, 2002: 69)

Ahî teşkilatında insan bir bütün olarak ele alınmış, ona yalnızca mesleki bilgi değil, dini, ahlakî ve sosyal bilgileri de vermeyi prensip haline getirmişlerdir. İş başında yapılan eğitimin iş dışında yapılan eğitimle bütünleşmesini ve üyelerin en yetkili kimselerden ders alarak her yönüyle yetişmelerini sağlamışlardır. Köylere kadar varan geniş bir teşkilat kurulmuş, eğitimden herkesin ücretsiz olarak faydalanması imkânı tanınmıştır. Eğitimi, belirli bir noktada kesilmeyip ömür boyunca devam etmesi gereken bir faaliyet olarak düşünmüşlerdir. (Ekinci, 2008:150)

Bir ustanın yanında çırak olmak isteyen genç, aynı zamanda bir ahî olan ustasını "yol atası", girdiği meslekte ilerlemiş kalfasını "yol kardeşi" kabul etmek suretiyle ahîlik teşkilatına girilebilmekteydi. Böylece ustanın yanında teknik eğitimini alırken, hem ahlakî esaslara değer verecek şekilde eğitilmekte, hem de ahî zaviyesindeki toplantılarda okunan fütüvvetnamelerde belirtilen düzende ahlak eğitimini almaktaydı. Ahîlik teşkilatlarında eğitim gündüz işyerinde iş başında eğitip biçimlendirmek, geceleri de ahî zaviyelerinde sosyal ve ahlakî yönden yetiştirmek şeklindeydi. (Kazıcı, 2006:65) Bu eğitim, terbiye için gerekli temel dersleri esas alan sistemli bir programla beraber teşkilat içindeki çeşitli toplantı ve merasimlerde pratik/uygulamalı olarak verilen, teşkilat adab ve erkânını öğretme ve yaşatmayı hedefleyen bir faaliyetti. Bunun bir başka boyutu ise gündelik hayatta ve işyerinde usta-kalfa-çırak ilişkisi içerisinde verilen meslek eğitimiydi. Teşkilat mensubu kimselerin hayat tarzı teşkilatta öğretilen dini-ahlakî kurallara doğrultusunda şekillenmekteydi. (Sarıkaya, 2002:68)

Ahîlikte gençler, yamaklık ve çıraklık yaşlarında işe alınarak atölyelerde, tezgah başlarında mesleki beceri ve ahlakî davranışlarla süslenip, zaviyelerde ise askerlik eğitimi ile birlikte, toplumun her sınıfı içinde her türlü davranışta ve girişimde, aksaklık yaşamayacak, beğeni ile karşılanacak terbiye ve olgunlukta yetiştirilirdi. Bunun için mesleğe girmiş olan ahî adayları oda temizlemek, yemek pişirmek, bir toplantıda yerine göre konuşmak gibi durumlarda tam bir yetenek sahibi olacak tarzda eğitilirdi. (Çağatay, 1990:65) Birer terbiye ocağı olan zaviyelerde ayrıca muallim ahîler tarafından gençlere kuran okuma, musiki, tarih, Arapça, Farsça ve edebiyat dersleri verilir: önemli kişilerin yaşam öyküleri, tasavvufi esaslar, öğretilirdi. (Ekinci, 2008:152&Çağatay, 1990:80) Böylece atölyede, tezgahta sanat eğitimi, zaviyelerde kültür ve genel bilgi olarak çift yönlü bir eğitim gören ahîler, hem aralarında güçlü bir dayanışma ve yardımlaşma zinciri kurarlardı, hem de nitelikli bir mesleki beceri kazanırlardı. (Çağatay, 1990:80)

¹²⁹ Her seher besmeleyle açılır dükkânımız,
Hazret-i (...)dır pirimiz üstadımız

Ahî Teşkilatında Manevî Eğitim

Ahîlik her şeyden önce İslam ahlakına dayalı bir esnaf teşkilatlanma modelinin adıdır. (Erdem, 2012: 25) Ahînin sahip olması gereken genel ve iş hayatına dönük ahlakî ilkelere bakıldığında hepsinin İslam inanç ve ahlak anlayışının ürünü olduğu rahatlıkla anlaşılacaktır. Bu sebeple iyi bir ahî, yüksek ahlakî değerlere sahip iyi bir Müslüman-esnaf demektir. (Erdem, 2012: 25)

Öncelikle kişilerin manevî ve ahlakî eğitimini hedefleyen ahîler, kendileriyle birlikte olmak isteyenler için edebi, tevazuu, güler yüzlülüğü, en önemlisi de dürüstlüğü değişmez bir ilke edinmişlerdir. İnsanlığın sadece dış görünüşüyle değil, ruh zenginliği ile de gerçek kimliğini kazanacağına inanan ahîler, üyelerine verdikleri eğitimle bir yandan sosyo-kültürel ve ekonomik hayata derinlik ve zenginlik kazandırmış, öte yandan da toplumda alan el olmaktan ziyade başkalarına, ihtiyaç sahiplerine yardım elini uzatan kimseler yetiştirmişlerdir. (Hızlı, 2011: 38) Böylece ahî birlikleri açmış oldukları yârân odaları ve zaviyelerle, esnaflaşma ve sanatkarlaşma süreci içerisinde kısa zamanda birer “ahlakî eğitim merkezi” haline dönüşmüştür. (Güllülü, 1992: 94& Erdem, 2012: 24)

Kendisini topluma adama, hizmet aşkı, karşılık beklemezsizin yolcuya, düşküne, muhtaca yardım eli uzatma, barındırma, yol atasına, yol kardeşine, ustasına yardım etmek gibi prensipleri telkin etmesi bakımından ahîlik ile melamet ve fütüvvet anlayışı arasında birçok ortak nokta bulunmaktadır. (Bayram, 1991: 146-147& Turan, 1996:40) Fütüvvetnamelerde sıkça rastlanan muhtaç olana malını bağışlamak, onlara yumuşaklıkla muamelede bulunmak, güzel sözle bile olsa karşısındakine ihsan ve kerem etmek, iyiliği buyurmak, kötülükten nehyetmek, (Harputlu, vr. 113b-114a.) ihtiyacı olanın ihtiyacını gidermek, insanlarla iyi geçinmek, karşılık beklemezsizin ihsanda bulunmak (Simnâni, vr. 173b-174a.) öğüdü Ahîliğin toplumsal dayanışma yönüne de işaret etmektedir.

Ahî eğitim sisteminde fütüvvetnamelerde zikredilen ahlakî esaslar adeta tüzük ve yönetmelik haline gelmiştir. (Çağatay, 1990: 72) Bu fütüvvetnamelerin en önemlilerinden biri olan Harputlu Nakkaş İlyasoğlu Ahmed'in yazdığı *Tuhfetü'l-vasâyâ*'da ahînin gözünün haram olan şeylere, ağzının günah sözlere, elinin zulümlere bağlanıp, kapısının konuklara, kesesinin kardeşlerden ihtiyacı olanlara, sofrasının ise bütün açlara açılması gerektiği ifade edilmiştir. (Harputlu, vr.109a.) Abdürrezzak Kâşânî ise *Tuhfetü'l-ihvân* isimli fütüvvetnamesinde ahî zaviyelerinde verilen eğitimde en çok vurgu yapılan cömertliği, “verilmesi gereken şeyi, vermek icab eden kişiye nasıl verilmesi lazımsa, onu minnet zahmetine düşürmeden ve bu verişe bir karşılık beklemeden, bir maksat gütmeyen vermektir.” şeklinde tanımlamıştır. (Kâşânî, vr.355a.) Nâsırî'nin ise Fütüvvetname'sinde ahînin iki alemde de candan, gönülden cömert olması gerektiğine vurgu yapması ve “fasık cömertlikle cennete girer de zaid, nekesse çirkinleşir kalır.” (Nâsırî, vr.91a.) ifadesi, bu fütüvvetnamelerin ahîlerin hayatını şekillendiren görüş ve düşünceleri ihtiva eden eserler olduğuna ve onların ahî terbiyesini, ahîlik meşrebinin gerektirdiği esasları bu eserleri okuyarak öğrendiklerine işaret etmektedir. (Şeker, 1993: 69)

Ahîlik teşkilatına giren genç, hayatının her safhasında ahlakî eğitim alıyordu. Ahîlerin uymak zorunda oldukları esaslar, öğütler, ahlakî ve ticari tüm prensiplerin yer aldığı fütüvvetnâmelerde, terbiye konusu üzerinde çokça durulmuştur. (Kazıcı, 2006: 65) Nâsırî, Fütüvvetnâme'sinde: “Dağ meyvesinin ne rengi vardır, ne kokusu. Ne tadı vardır, ne hoş bir lezzeti. Fakat yetiştirildi mi renklenir, güzelleşir, sevimli ve tatlı hale gelir. Dağ ağacını şehre getirdiler, aşlayıp yetiştirdiler mi halk onu şeker gibi yer. Terbiye ile yapraktan atlas yapılır. Adam olmayan, terbiye ile adam olur. İnsanoğlu terbiye edilmezse hiç kimse onu öküzden eşekten fark edemez.” diyerek ahî meşrebinde terbiye ve manevî eğitimin önemine işaret etmiştir. (Nâsırî, vr.91a.)

Ahî zaviyelerinde Ahî babanın başkanlığında haftanın belli günlerinde peygamberin yaşamına, ibadete, İslam inanç esaslarına dair eserler okunup bilgiler verilmiştir. Bu konuda fütüvvetnamelerde “kelam-ı kadim okuna, kısas-ı enbiya okuna, menâkıb-ı evliya okuna” ifadeleri bulunmaktadır. (Çağatay, 1990: 46) Ayrıca “eline, diline, beline” sahip olma, bilgi sahibi olmayı dileme, bilgi sahipleriyle dost olma prensipleri sanatkâr üyelere benimsetilip yaygınlaştırılmaya gayret gösterilmiştir. (Nâsırî, vr.91a.)

Zaviyelerde ahîlere manevî ve ahlakî eğitime ilave olarak görgü kuralları da öğretilirdi. Fütüvvetnamelerde gençlere öğretilmesi tavsiye edilen bu kurallar genel olarak ahîlerin hal ve hareketleriyle ilgiliydi. 740 maddeden oluşan bu kurallar ahîlere cumartesi günleri öğretilirdi. Bunlar su içme, konuşma, sokakta ve çarşıda yürüme, bir yerden bir yere gitme, alışveriş yapma, oturma, saç tarama, yatma ve yemek yeme konularında toplumsal ilişkiler ve yerleşik hayat tarzının gerektirdiği medeni bir düzeye yükselmeye ilişkin kurallardı. (Uçma, 2011: 140)

Ahî zaviyelerindeki belli bir usul ve adaba dayanan bu manevî ve ahlakî eğitim sisteminde tedricilik esas alınmıştır. Muhatapların öğrenim seviyelerine ve yaşlarına göre bilgi aktarılmış, muhatabın seviyesi olgunlaştıkça verilen bilgi düzeyi de tedrici olarak arttırılmıştır. (Özköse, 2011: 12)

Ahî teşkilatında çırak-kalfa ve usta ilişkileri karşılıklı sevgi ve saygıya dayanan esaslar üzerine kurulmuş, sağlam ahlakî ve meslekî temeller üzerine oturtulmuştur. Bu teşkilatta yükselmenin tek kuralı, iyi ahlak ve mesleki üstünlüktür. (Turan, 1996: 43) Bu yolda ahîlerin kaçınması gereken tutum ve davranışlar zaviyelerde öncelikle öğretilen bilgiler arasındadır. Yiğidi yiğitlikten, ahîyi ahîlikten çıkaran davranışlar şöyle sıralanmıştır: Şarap içmek, zina yapmak, dedikodu yapmak, iftira atmak, münafıklık, gururlanmak, kibirlenmek,

merhametsiz olmak, haset etmek, kin tutmak, affedici olmamak, sözünde durmamak, yalan söylemek, emanete hıyanet etmek, insanların ayıbını açığa çıkarmak, cimri olmak ve hırsızlık etmek. (Ekinci, 1990: 37)

Ahîlikte merasimler de bir ahlakî ve manevî eğitim vasıtası haline gelmişti. Kabul töreni, aklanma töreni, tövbe ve yemin merasimleri esnasında dini ve ahlakî değerler tekrarlanıyor, “nereye varırsan izzetle hürmetle var, nerede oturursan edeple otur, bir söz söylersen hikmetle söyle, söylemezsen dinle, kalktın mı hizmetle kalk.” denilerek uyulması gereken kurallar hatırlatılıyordu. Şed kuşanırken de “Allah’ın yolunu hatırla, dinini gözet, çekinme yolunu sıkı tut, Ahîret işlerine hazırlan, insanların ayıplarını ört, kötü huyunu gider, insafı ver ahîret yurdunu al.” şeklinde sekiz öğüt zikrediliyordu. Merasimin icrasından sonra ise “tövbekâr ol, namazda tembellik etme, nekeslikte bulunma ve ululanma, emanete hıyanet etme, insaf sahibi ol ki sana da insaf etsinler, mürid ol, murad ver, kerim ol, bu taifeyi ulu bil, kardeşlerini aziz tut, ehli olmayan sır verme.” (Kazıcı, 2006: 66) öğütünde bulunuluyordu.

Ahîler özellikler konukseverlik ve yardımlaşma duygularının aşılmasına büyük ağırlık vermişlerdir. (Çağatay, 1990: 43) Nitekim İbn Batuta seyahatnamesinde Anadolu’nun muhtelif yerlerinde karşılaştığı ahîler hakkında “Yabancılara yardım etmek, onları konuklayıp yedirmek içirmek, bütün ihtiyaçlarını görmek... hususunda bir benzerleri yoktur.” ve “Dünyada ahîlerden fazla güzel işler işleyenleri görmedim. Şiraz ve İsfahan halkının bu hususlarda onlara benzerliği varsa da ahîler gelen geçene muhabbet, ikram ve şefkat gösterirler.” diyerek onların misafirlerine karşı gösterdikleri alaka ve yakınlığa temas etmiştir. (Şeker, 1993: 75) İbn Batuta ayrıca ahîlerin, kötülüklerle karşı oldukları gibi kötülükleri ortadan kaldırmaya böylece toplumda huzur ve güvenliği sağlamaya çalışan kimseler olduğunu ifade etmiştir. İbn Batuta’nın bu ifadeleri, Ahî teşkilatına mensup kimselerin toplumda yardımlaşma ve huzur ortamı oluşturmaya katkıda bulunmalarının yanı sıra insanların ahlakî eğitimlerinde de müspet rolü olan bir kuruluş olduğuna işaret etmiştir. (Şeker, 1993: 81)

Ahî Teşkilatında Meslekî Eğitim

İntisab eden talibi her yönüyle eğitmeyi ve bir yetkinliğe ulaştırmayı amaçlayan ahî teşkilatı, eğitim sürecinin sadece dinî, ahlakî ve tasavvufî boyutuna değil meslekî boyutuna da oldukça önem vermiş, mesleği icra eden sanatkârların her yönden kâmil ve yetkin bir insan olmasını amaç edinmiştir. Bu eğitim sürecinde ahîler, insanın çok yönlü olmasını göz ardı etmeyip onun farklı yönlerini bir uyum ve ahenk içerisinde eğitmeye çalışmışlar; bu şekilde taliblerin farklı istek ve ihtiyaçlarına cevap vermişlerdir.

Ahî teşkilatında eğitim genel olarak, "iş başında" ve "iş dışında" olmak üzere iki kısımdan meydana gelmekteydi. Talibin icra ettiği meslek, ustası tarafından farklı süreler ve merhalelerde öğretilmekte ve bu eğitim iş başında verilmekteydi. Bu eğitimin ve ahî zaviyelerinde pir, hoca, muallim denilen kişilerce verilen iş dışında kısmı ahlak ve adab eğitimini içermekteydi. İş başında ve iş dışında olarak, eğitimin bu iki farklı mekân ve usûlde gerçekleşen kısımları uyum içerisinde ve birbirlerini tamamlar mahiyetteydi. Bu şekilde meslek eğitimi ile ahlak eğitimi bir bütünlük içerisinde verilmekteydi.

Ahî eğitim sisteminde bir yamağın ustalık yolundaki meslekî eğitimi oldukça önem taşıymaktaydı. Çünkü her yamak bir usta adaydır ve o da aldığı eğitim sonucu usta yetkinliğine ulaştıncaya kadar kendisi gibi yamaklıktan eğitime başlayan kişilere öğretmenlik yapacaktı. Bu sebeple usta, yamağını yetiştirirken kendi ustasından aldığı eğitimi ona aksettirmekte, yamak da usta olunca kendi yamaklarına yahut çıraklarına vereceği eğitimde kendi ustasını yansıtmaktaydı.

Ahî zaviyelerinde yamak olarak mesleğine adım atan bir talibin ustalığa uzanan eğitim sürecinde çeşitli merhalelerden geçmesi gerekilmekteydi. Mesleğe yamak olarak başlayan talib hem ustası tarafından icra ettikleri sanatın inceliklerini öğrenir hem bu süreçte çalışma ve sabrın önemini kavrar, hem de ticaret yaparken nasıl bir iş ahlakına sahip olacağını ustasından uygulamalı olarak görürdü. Böylece ustalık yolundaki eğitimini hem teorik hem de pratik olarak almaktaydı.

İş başında usta-çırak ilişkisi salt bir işçi-işveren ilişkisinden farklıydı. Teşkilata giren çocuk için usta babası ile eş değerdirdi ve usta da çırağını adeta evlâtlık edinirdi. Usta dükkânda çocuğa sanatını öğretirken ona aynı zamanda ahlaken de örnek olurdu. Usta, yetiştirmeye çalıştığı öğrencisinin meslekî terbiyesinden sorumlu olduğu gibi ahlakî terbiyesinden de sorumluydu. (Öcal, 2012: 210) Öğrenciden, öğrendiği bu bilgi ve ahlakî düsturları hayata geçirmesi beklenirdi.

Öğrencinin ustasıyla olan ilişkisi onun zaviyelere girmesi açısından da önemliydi. Nitekim çırağın zaviyelere girebilmesi için ustasının, onun doğru ve yetenekli olduğuna kanaat getirmesi gerekiyordu. Ustası tarafından takdir edilmeyen çırak zaviyelere giremezdi. (Duman, 2012: 185)

Ahî teşkilatında yamak olarak mesleğe giren talibin iş başında aldığı eğitim süreci yamaklık, çıraklık, kalfalık ve ustalık şeklinde dört aşamada değerlendirilebilir:

a. Yamaklık Aşaması: Meslekî eğitime başlayan bir öğrenci işe ilk olarak yamak olarak başlardı. Yamağın on yaşından küçük olması ve bu işe devam edeceğinin velisi tarafından sağlanması gerekiyordu. (Çağatay, 1974: 153) Yamak iki yıl süren bu dönem boyunca herhangi bir maaş almazdı.

Bu gence meslekî bilgiler ve incelikleri en basitten zora doğrucu tedricî bir metotla öğretilirdi. İş, önce kısımlara ayrılır ve tasnife tabi tutulur, parçadan bütüne doğru giden bir öğretim metodu benimsenirdi. (Demir, 2000: 379)

Bu aşama yamak için bir deneme süreci mahiyetindeydi. Çünkü ustası çırak adayının işyerindeki tutum ve davranışını göz önüne alarak ya aynı iş yerinde devam etmesine yahut mizacı ve kapasitesine uygun başka bir meslek dalında devam etmesine karar verirdi.

b. Çıraklık Aşaması: Çıraklık aşamasına geçen bir öğrencinin bu aşamada tamamlayacağı süre, icra etmekte olduğu sanat ve mesleğe göre farklılıklar göstermekteydi. Örneğin bu süre bazı mesleklerde binbir gün iken kuyumculuk mesleğinde süre yirmi yıla kadar çıkabiliyordu. (Güllülü, 1992: 129) Çırak ailevî durumu göz önünde bulundurularak ihtiyaçlarına yetecek kadar bir para almaktaydı. (Anadol, 1991: 94)

Ustasının tüm emirlerini yerine getirmek suretiyle onun verdiği meslekî sırları ve gerekli bilgileri öğrenen çırak, bu dönemi başarıyla tamamladıktan sonra yine ustasının teklifi ve usta meclisinin de onayıyla kalfalığa terfi ettirilirdi. (Demir, 2000: 385)

c. Kalfalık Aşaması: Bütün mesleklerde üç sene süren bu aşamada kalfa meslekî eğitiminin yanı sıra askerî eğitim de almaktaydı. Bunun içerisinde at binme, atıcılık, nişancılık, avcılık, binicilik gibi sportif ve askerî faaliyetler vardı. (Anadol, 1991: 91& Ekinci, 2008: 154)

Kalfanın bu aşamada çırak yetiştirme hususuna dikkat etmesi gerekliydi. Nitekim kalfa, çıraklık yetiştirme kabiliyeti dikkate alınarak ustalık aşamasına geçebiliyordu. Ayrıca iş yerindeki diğer kalfalarla da iyi geçinmesi şarttı.

Tüm eğitimini başarıyla tamamlayan kalfa, usta olabilmesi için öncelikle bir sınava tabi tutulur, bu imtihanı da geçerse her aşamanın sonunda olduğu gibi kendisi için düzenlenen bir tören ile ustalık makamını elde ederdi.

d. Ustalık Aşaması: Kalfalık aşamasından sonra gelen ve meslekteki en üst mertebe olan ustalık aşamasına geçmek için kalfanın, üç yıl hakkında bir şikayet olmadan, üzerine aldığı görevleri dikkatli bir şekilde yerine getirmiş olması gerekiyordu. Ustalık aşamasına geçmek için bir kalfada sanatına bağlılık, müşterilere karşı tutumu ve onlarla olan ilişkisi, yeni bir dükkân açıldığında bu dükkânı yönetebilme kabiliyeti gibi şartlar aranmaktaydı. (Çağatay, 1974: 154) Ayrıca o güne kadar aldığı eğitim sonucu ahlak ve adab kurallarının gerektirdiği şekilde bir iş ahlakını benimsemiş olması gerekmektedir. Ancak böyle bir kişi ustalık aşamasına geçebilir ve mesleğin sırrına erebilirdi.

Daha önce de bahsedildiği üzere, bir önceki dönemin eğitimini tamamlayıp bir sonraki aşamaya geçen öğrenci için bu geçişlerde törenler yapılırdı. Törenler sırasında mecliste mesleğin erbabı uzmanlardan oluşan bir heyet bulunur, bu heyet öğrencinin ortaya koymuş olduğu ürünlerden örnekler alarak inceler ve kalitesine kanaat getirdikten sonra öğrencinin bir sonraki dereceye terfi ettirilmesine hükmederdi. Bu merasime "Şed Kuşanma Töreni" denilirdi. (Demir, 2000: 385)

Her aşamanın sonunda o aşamaya münhasır olarak yapılan bu törenlerin de kendi içinde çeşitli manalar içeren sembolik birtakım ritüelleri olurdu. En geniş ve önemli tören işe yamaklıkla başlayan öğrencinin meslek hayatında yetkinliğe ulaştığı son aşama olan ustalığa geçerken yapılan törendi. Bu törende esnafın tüm üstadları, memleketin müftüsü, kadısı da hazır bulunurdu. (Çağatay, 1974: 154)

Çeşitli merhalelerden oluşan tören tamamlandıktan sonra usta olan kişiye lonca sandığındaki bu iş için ayrılan fondan bir dükkân açılırdı. Dükkân açılınca yeni olan ustanın bir ad alması gerekirdi. Bu isim de loncada okunarak ustaya verilirdi.

Meslekî eğitimin öğrenciye usta tarafından verilen pratik ve iş başında yapılan kısmının yanı sıra talib, ahî zaviyelerinde ahlakî ve manevî eğitim ile birlikte iş ve ticaret ahlakı ile ilgili bilgiler de öğrenmekteydi. Eğitimin bu kısmı öğrencinin meslekte çalışma saatleri dışında ve meslekî çalışmasından ayrı olarak gerçekleştiriliyordu.

Ahî teşkilatlarında ahîler öncelikle, teşkilata intisab etmiş olan kimselerin icra ettikleri sanatları peygamberlere dayandırır ve her birinin o toplum için önemine işaret ederlerdi. Mesleklerin aslında birer peygamber mesleği olduklarını vurgulayan ahîler bu şekilde hem toplumda o sanata itibar kazandırır ve hem de olan ilgiyi artırırlardı. Örneğin, tarımı başlatan Hz. Adem çiftçilerin, Hz. İdris terzilerin, Hz. Nuh gemici ve marangozların, Bilal-i Habeşî müezzinlerin, Hz. Yunus balıkçıların, Hz. Davud demirci ve dokumacıların, Hz. Muhammed de tüccarların piri sayılmaktaydı. (Anadol, 1991: 94) Böylesi bir telkinle sanatını icra eden talibte de psikolojik bir tatmin meydana gelirdi. (Bayram, 1991: 149)

Ahî teşkilatlarındaki meslekî eğitim her bakımdan ince noktalara sahipti. Usta, öğrencisi olan kalfa yahut çırağa dükkânlarını zamanında açıp kapatma, dürüst çalışma, üretimi artırma ve çırakları iyi yetiştirme gibi iyi davranışların yanı sıra sahip olması gereken en önemli şeyler olan saygılı ve sabırlı olmayı öğretirdi. Bu eğitim sürecinde özellikle saygı ve sabır konusunda birçok nokta dikkatimize sunulmaktadır. Örneğin çırak ustası tarafından başka bir ustaya herhangi bir iş için gönderildiği zaman dükkânda çırağın girmesi için özel terbiye kapısı denilen bir kapı bulunurdu. Çırak karşısındakinin de bir usta olduğunu unutmaz ve usta oluncaya kadar dükkâna ön kapıdan değil arkada bulunan bu terbiye kapısından girerdi. (Anadol, 1991: 98)

Aynı şekilde esnaflığa giren gencin beceri sahibi olmadıkça ve ustası zamanının geldiğine hükmetmedikçe yükselmesine ve dükkân açmasına imkân yoktu. (Turan, 1996: 39) Bu şekilde henüz yetiştirme

aşamasında olan öğrencinin ustasına karşı sabırlı ve saygılı olması öğretilirdi. Çünkü öğrenci sanatının ve mesleğinin inceliklerini öğrenene kadar ustasına hizmet etmeye mecburdu.

Mesleğini icra eden ve ahî zaviyelerinde eğitimine devam eden talib, dürüst çalışma, karşısındakine saygı gösterme, başkasını aldatmama, ölçü ve tartıda hile yapmama, dükkânları erken saatte açma, komşu esnaf ve sanatkârların da kazanmalarını isteme, ticaret yaparken ahlak ve edeb kurallarını gözetme gibi ahlakî ve aynı zamanda meslekî kuralları öğrenirdi. Bu kurallara uymayan kimse hakkında birtakım yaptırımlarda bulunulurdu. Dükkânlarını kapatma, onlarla selamı ve yardımı kesme, ikramda bulunmama, kurban kesmeye zorlama gibi bazı yaptırımlar bunlardan bazılarıdır. (Özköse, 2011: 17)

Ahî teşkilatında hem iş başında hem de iş dışında verilen eğitimde ortaya konulan kurallar ve aksi halde davrananlara uygulanan yaptırımlar göstermektedir ki, bu eğitimde amaç, sanatkârlar ve esnafın mesleklerine sadakatle bağlanmalarını, hem mesleklerine hem de ilişkide buldukları insanlara ihanet etmemelerini sağlamak ve iş ahlakını kazandırmaktır. (Bayram, 1991: 149) Bu sebeptendir ki, Ahî Teşkilatı'nın, müntesipleri arasında yerleşmiş ve benimsetmiş olduğu ahlakî ve meslekî düzen, karşılıklı dayanışma ve yardım, zamanla tüm topluma yayılmıştır.

Sonuç

İçerisinde mesleki olduğu kadar ahlakî bir eğitimi de barındıran Ahî teşkilatları faaliyet gösterdiği günden bu güne kendisine katılan bireyleri iş yerinde mesleki yönden, Ahî zaviyelerinde ise dini ve ahlakî yönden yetkinliğe ulaştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Teşkilat bununla da kalmamış, gençleri sanatsal faaliyetler ile desteklemiş, ayrıca askeri bir eğitim de vermiştir. Tüm bu eğitim sürecinde işe yamak olarak başlayan ve usta olma yolunda adım adım ilerleyen genç, ustası tarafından bir öğretime tabi tutulmuş ve sonuç olarak genişçe izah etmeye çalıştığımız bu eğitim-öğretim süreci ortaya çıkmıştır.

Ahî teşkilatının eğitim alanında gösterdiği faaliyetlerin, ahîliğin kültürel fonksiyonlarının anlaşılmasında özel bir önemi vardır. Bu durum, ahî birliklerinde verilen eğitimin öncelikle hangi karakteristik özelliklere sahip olduğunun araştırılmasını zorunlu kılmaktadır. Ahîlik kurumu gençleri başboşluktan kurtarıp kendi bünyesine alarak bir sanatta ustalaşmalarını sağlamış, onların enerjilerini manevi önderler vasıtasıyla sosyal hayatın düzen ve devamı için kanalize etmiştir. Böylece gençlerin bir araya gelme, birlik oluşturma eğilimleri toplumun yararı istikametinde değerlendirilerek ahlak eğitiminden geçmeleri, kötü alışkanlıklardan korunmaları mümkün olmuştur.

Ahî teşkilatı ahlaklı ve üretici fertler yetiştirerek zengin-fakir, üretici-tüketici arasında iyi ilişkiler kurarak sosyal adalet, gerçekleştirmek ve ahlakî bir toplum düzeni meydana getirmeyi hedeflemesi açısından önemlidir. Bu amaçlara da sağlam bir teşkilat ve köklü bir eğitim ile ulaşılmıştır.

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**PLATON'UN İDEAL DEVLETİNDE ÖĞRETENLER SINIFI
OLARAK FİLOZOFLARIN EĞİTİMİ
THE EDUCATION OF THE PHILOSOPHERS AS AN RULER
CLASS IN THE PLATO'S IDEAL STATE**

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Özet

İnsanlığın entelektüel tarihi boyunca filozoflar varlık, bilgi, değer, ahlak, siyaset, eğitim gibi birçok problemi ele almışlardır. Bu problemlerin en önemlilerinden biri, insanların mutlu olmalarını sağlayacak ideal bir devletin hangi özelliklere sahip olması gerektiğidir. Bu konuda en özgün düşünürlerden biri olan Platon, insan ruhunun bölümleriyle ideal devletin birimleri arasında bir benzerlik kurarak; insan ruhu gibi ideal devletin de üç parçalı bir yapıya sahip olması gerektiğini iddia eder. Besleyenler, koruyanlar ve öğretmenler sınıfından oluşan üç parçalı devlet kendi arasında hiyerarşik bir düzene sahiptir. Bu hiyerarşide en alt sınıfı “üreticiler” oluştururken, en üst sınıfı “yöneticiler” oluşturur. "Koruyucular" sınıfı ise bu iki sınıf arasında yer alır. Öğretmenler sınıfı en üstte yer aldığı için ideal devleti oluşturan ilkelerin belirlenmesinden sorumludurlar. Bu sebeple Platon için yöneticiler sınıfının eğitimi, ideal devletin gerçekleşmesinde çok büyük bir öneme sahiptir. Biz de bu çalışmamızda Platon'un ideal devletin temelini oluşturan yöneticiler sınıfının eğitimiyle ilgili nasıl bir yaklaşım ortaya koyduğunu ele alacağız.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Platon, eğitim, yöneticiler sınıfı, filozoflar, ideal devlet

Abstract

Throughout the history of human intellectual, philosophers have discussed many problems such as existence, knowledge, values, ethics, politics, education. one of the most important problems is about characteristics of the ideal state insuring the happiness of people. By making an analogy between the parts of human soul and the parts of the ideal state, platon who is one of the most original philosophers claim that the ideal state must consist of three parts like human soul. The ideal state consisting of philosophers, guardians and nourishers should have hierarchical structure.

In this hierarchical structure then nourishers are the lowest class, the philosophers are the top class of the ideal state. The guardians locate between the two class. Because of being the top class of the ideal state the philosophers are in charge of determining the principles of the ideal state. Thus, for Plato the education of the philosophers is very important for realization of the ideal state. In this essay we will discuss that Plato's approach to education of the philosophers consisting the base of the ideal state.

Key Words: Plato, education, ruler class, philosophers, ideal state

Giriş

Thomas More 1516 yılında yazdığı eserine *Ütopya* adını verdiğinde, düşünce tarihine yeni bir kavram hediye etmiştir. "İyi yer (goodplace)" anlamına gelen bu kavram, More tarafından katı dil kuralları esnetilerek geliştirilmiştir (Öztürk, 2004: 91). İnsanların mutlu olacakları iyi ve mükemmel toplum modelinin sunulduğu bu eser, düşünce tarihinde tek değildir. Campanella'nın *Güneş Ülkesi*, Francis Bacon'un *Yeni Atlantis*'i, Fârâbî'nin *Medînetü'l-fâzıla*'sı, Aldous Huxley'in *Yeni Cesur Dünya*'sı ve George Orwell'in *1984*'ü de iyi ve mükemmel toplum idealini konu alan eserlerdir. Düşünce tarihinde ütopya geleneğini başlatan ve bu alanda yazılan tüm bu eserlere ilham kaynağı olan eser ise Platon'un *Devlet* adlı eseridir (Arslan, 2006: 396).

Bildirimiz amacına uygun olacak şekilde iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. İlk bölümde Platon'un ideal devletinin genel özelliklerinden bahsedilecek, ikinci bölümde ise bu ideal devlet içerisinde filozofların geçirdiği eğitim süreçleri ele alınacaktır. Bu bildiri Platon'un olgunluk dönemi eseri olan *Devlet*'teki görüşleriyle sınırlandırılmıştır. Bu nedenle Platon tarafından *Devlet*'ten sonra yazılan *Yasalar*'da öngörülen ideal devletle ilgili fikir değişiklikleri bildirimizin konusu dışındadır. Ayrıca bildiri içerisinde bu iki eser arasında karşılaştırmaya da gidilmemiştir.

I. Platon İdeal Toplumu ya da Devleti

Antik Yunan'ın ilk büyük felsefi sistemini inşa eden Platon'un üzerinde kafa yorduğu en önemli problemlerden biri ideal bir toplumun nasıl olması gerektiğidir. Biz de bu bölümde Platon'un bu konuda ortaya koyduğu görüşleri genel hatlarıyla ortaya koyarak bu bağlamda şu üç soruyu cevaplamaya çalışacağız: (1) Platon'un ideal devletinin temeli ve amacı nedir? (2) İdeal devletin toplumsal yapısı nasıldır ve hangi toplumsal sınıflardan oluşur? (3) İdeal Devlette yer alan toplumsal sınıfların genel özellikleri nelerdir?

Platon, devletin temelinde insanların birbirlerine olan bağımlılığın yattığını iddia etmektedir (Platon, 1999:369d). Ona göre insan, tabiatı gereği tüm ihtiyaçlarını karşılamada yetersizdir. Bu yetersizliğin temelinde hem insanların doğuştan gelen her işe yatkın olmama eksikliği, hem de insanın yaşamını devam ettirmek için ihtiyaç duyduğu gereksinimlerin fazlalığı yatmaktadır. Buna göre insanların temel ihtiyaçlarını sırasıyla beslenme, barınma ve giyinme olarak belirleyen Platon, insanların bu ihtiyaçlarının karşılanmasının ancak doğru bir işbölümüyle mümkün olduğunu ifade etmektedir (Platon, 1999: 369e). Platon "doğru iş bölümü"nden, herkesin tabiatına uygun olan işi yapmasını anlamaktadır (Arslan, 2006: 403). Buna göre, doğuştan kunduracılığa yatkın olan insan Platon'un ideal devletinde sadece kunduracılık yapacak, çiftçiliğe yatkın olan insan ise sadece çiftçilik yapacaktır. Bu tarz bir işbölümünü doğru işbölümü olarak tanımlayan Platon, bu durumun toplum açısından ortaya çıkardığı en önemli sonucun, işlerin zamanında ve en güzel şekilde yapılması olduğunu söylemektedir (Platon, 1999: 369e;373d;397e). Platon ayrıca insanların ihtiyaçlarının toplumu oluşturacak bireylerin sayısını da belirlediğini ifade etmektedir. Buna göre insanların temel ihtiyacını oluşturan yeme, barınma ve giyinmeye ek olarak diğer ihtiyaçlar da devreye girdiğinde Platon için ideal toplum dört kişiden fazla olmak durumundadır (Platon, 1999: 369e). Platon'un ideal toplumun minimum sayısını bu şekilde belirlemesinin altında yatan en temel neden, ideal toplumda yer alan bir kişinin birden fazla iş yapmasının devletin genel ilkelerine aykırı bir durum oluşturmasıdır.

Platon, ideal devletinin amacını, tüm yurttaşların mutluluğunun temini olarak belirlemektedir. Onun üzerinde ısrarla durduğu nokta, mutluluğun toplumun geneline dağılmasıdır. Bu nedenle onun ideal devletinde toplumun bir kesimi mutsuzken, diğer kesiminin mutlu olması gibi bir duruma göz yumulamaz (Platon, 1999: 420c).

İdeal devletinin temelini, insanların gereksinimlerine ve bu gereksinimleri karşılama noktasındaki yetersizliğine dayandıran Platon, ideal devletin sınıflarını toplumun ihtiyaçlarından

hareketle belirlemektedir. Platon'a göre bu ihtiyaçlar; devletin iç ve dış düşmanlara karşı korunma ihtiyacı (Platon, 1999: 373d), devleti oluşturan bireylerin yeme, barınma, giyinme gibi gereksinimlerinin (Platon, 1999: 369d) karşılanma ihtiyacı ve devletteki bireyler ve sınıflar arası işleyişin ve iş bölümünün yönetilmesi ihtiyacıdır (Platon, 1999: 412c). Bu noktada Platon ideal devletin tek bir insan gibi mütalaa edilmesi gerektiğini söylemektedir. Ona göre devlet tüm birimleriyle tek bir insan gibi kurgulanırsa ancak ideal bir bütün oluşturacaktır. Bu durumda nasıl ki parmağı yaralanan bir insanın diğer tüm organları da aynı acıyı hissediyorsa, Platon'a göre ideal devleti oluşturan toplum da aynı şekilde sınıfsal bir yapıya kavuştuğunda, toplumun bir sınıfında ortaya çıkan problem diğer sınıfları ilgilendirecektir. Böylece toplumda ortaya çıkan sevinçler ve üzüntüler toplumu oluşturan tüm bireyler tarafından aynı oranda hissedilecektir (Platon, 1999: 462d). Platon'un devleti tek bir insan gibi algılaması, onu devlet ile insan ruhu arasında bir analogi yapmaya sevk etmiştir.

Platon insan ruhunu üç ayrı bölüme ya da yetiye ayırmaktadır (Platon, 1999: 504a). Buna göre (1) insanın bilgi edinmesini sağlayan yani akleden yeti; (2) yeme, içme, cinsel ilişki gibi türün devamını sağlayan yani isteyen arzulayan yeti; (3) bazen akleden yeti tarafına geçen, bazen de isteyen, arzulayan yetinin tarafına geçen, insandaki öfke ve taşkınlıkların kaynağı olan yeti (Arslan, 2006: 416). Platon'un ortaya koyduğu ruhun bu üç yetisi aynı zamanda devletin üç temel gereksinimine ve bu üç temel gereksinime dayanan üç toplumsal sınıfa işaret etmektedir. Buna göre ruhun isteyen, arzulayan yetisi ideal toplumun temel gereksinimlerinin karşılanma ihtiyacına işaret etmektedir ve bunun karşılığı da ideal toplumda "üretenler sınıfı"dır. İnsandaki öfke ve taşkınlıkların kaynağı olan yeti ise toplumun içteki ve dıştaki düşmanlara karşı ideal toplumun korunma ihtiyacına işaret etmektedir ve ideal toplumda bunun karşılığı "koruyucular sınıfı"dır. Ruhun akleden yetisi ise ideal toplumda düzenin ve işbölümünün sağlıklı bir şekilde yürütülmesi ve yönetilmesi ihtiyacına işaret etmektedir. Bu da ideal toplumda "yönetenler sınıfı"na karşılık gelmektedir (Blössner, 2007: 352). Platon'un insan ruhunun yetileri temelinde sınıfsal yapısını ortaya koyduğu ideal devletinde dikkat edilmesi gereken bir nokta vardır. Buna göre her ne kadar Platon, ruhun üç yetisinden hareketle toplumu üç sınıfa ayırsa da pratikte ideal devlet "yönetenler" ve "yönetilenler" olmak üzere iki temel sınıf üzerine inşa edilmiştir. Çünkü Platon'un ideal devletinde yönetenler sınıfı kendi içerisinde koruyucular ve yöneticiler olmak üzere iki alt sınıfa ayrılmaktadır. Bir başka ifadeyle ideal devletin yöneticileri koruyucular arasından seçilmektedir. Platon'un kurguladığı ideal devletindeki sınıfsal yapının bugünkü bildiğimiz tarzda kast sistemiyle eşitlenmesi yanlış bir yaklaşım olacaktır. Çünkü, Platon'un ideal devletinde toplumu oluşturan sınıflar arasında dikey hareketlilik mümkündür. Bir başka ifadeyle insanların ideal devlet içerisindeki konumlarını hangi toplumsal sınıfta doğdukları değil, hangi yaratılış özelliklerine sahip oldukları belirlemektedir. Söz gelimi, yönetici sınıfının çocukları arasında bu sınıfın gerektirdiği yetenekleri taşımayanlar alt sınıflara gönderilirken, alt sınıflar için de tam tersi geçerlidir. Bu açıdan Platon'un ideal devletinde önemli olan soy değil, liyakattir (Arslan, 2006: 410).

İdeal devletin sınıfsal yapısını bu şekilde ortaya koyduktan sonra Platon her sınıfın görevlerini ve özelliklerini tespit etmektedir. Platon'un ideal devletinde üretenler sınıfı, ideal toplumda sadece üretenleri kapsamaz, aksine koruyucular ve yöneticiler dışındaki tüm fertler bu sınıfı oluştururlar. Dolayısıyla bu sınıfa sadece işçi ve emekçi sınıfı girmez, toplumun bütün üretici güçleri, toplumun varlığını sürdürmek için ihtiyaç duyduğu maddi ürünlerin üretimi ve dağıtımını için çalışan herkes girer. Bir başka ifadeyle bu sınıf para kazananlar ve vergi verenler sınıfıdır. Platon bu sınıfın görevini ideal devletin ihtiyaç duyduğu temel maddi gereksinimlerin temini olarak belirlemiştir (Arslan, 2006: 409). Platon, üretenler sınıfında yer alan yurttaşların, ideal devletin nüfusunun en geniş kısmını oluşturduğunu söylemektedir (Platon, 1999: 503b).

İçlerinden ideal toplumun yöneticilerini çıkaran koruyucular sınıfı ise Platon'un ideal toplumunda hiçbir ekonomik faaliyette bulunmayan, tek görevleri toplumu iç ve dış düşmanlara karşı

korumak olan sınıftır. Bu sınıf, toplumu yönetecek olan yöneticilere kaynaklık yaptığı için Platon bu sınıfa çok önem vermektedir. Ona göre bu sınıfta meydana gelecek en ufak bir bozulma ideal toplum içerisinde önüne geçilemez problemlerin doğmasına neden olacaktır. Bir başka ifadeyle eskici olmadığı halde eskici geçinen birisi toplumun başına çok büyük bir problem çıkarmaz ama kanunların ve toplumun koruyucuları olanlar, koruyucu olmadan koruyucu geçinirlerse Platon'a göre devlet çökmüş demektir (Platon, 1999: 421a). Bu nedenle Platon, *Devlet* adlı eserinde bu sınıfı uzun uzadıya ele almaktadır. Buna göre Platon bu sınıfın ilk görevinin toplumun varlığını korumak olduğunu söylemektedir (Platon, 1999: 373d). Platon, bu sınıfın özel mülk edinmesine izin vermez. Çünkü ona göre eğer bu sınıfa özel mülk edinme hakkı verilirse; bunlar yurttaşların yardımcıları olacakları yerde onların düşmanları ve zorba efendileri olacaklardır. Bu nedenle bunların oturdukları evler, yemek yedikleri yerler ve yiyecekleri ortak olmalıdır (Platon, 1999: 413c). Platon, koruyucular sınıfı için aile kurumunu da yasaklar. Buna göre koruyucu sınıfının kendine ait bir ailesi olamayacaktır. Bu nedenle kadınlar ve çocuklar ortak olacaktır. Ancak Platon bu ortaklığın yönetici tarafından düzenlenerek ahlaksızlığa varmasının engelleneceği kaydını da düşmektedir (Platon, 1999: 451c). Platon, bu sınıf içinde yer alma hakkını sadece erkeklere tanımaz. Bu açıdan koruyucular sınıfı içerisinde kadınlara da yer vardır. Kadınlar da Platon'un ideal devletinde erkeklerin yer aldığı her yerde yer alabilirler. Bu görüşünün temelinde Platon'un kadınlara bakışı yatmaktadır. Ona göre kadının erkekten tek farkı çocuk doğurmasıdır. Bunun dışında fiziksel güç olarak eksiklikleri dışında Platon açısından kadın ve erkek arasında herhangi bir fark yoktur. Bu nedenle Platon, koruyucu sınıf için erkeklerden ne bekliyorsa aynıını kadınlardan da beklemektedir. Bir başka ifadeyle Platon'un ideal devletinde kadının kadın olduğu için, erkeğin erkek olduğu için daha iyi yapacağı hiçbir şey yoktur (Platon, 1999: 455e).

Platon'un ideal devletinin en üstünde yer alan yönetici sınıf, koruyucular arasında seçilmektedir. Platon, yöneticilerin koruyucuların en iyileri arasından seçildiğini, dolayısıyla toplumu yöneten kişilerin o toplumun en üstün kişileri olduğunu ifade etmektedir (Platon, 1999: 412c). Bu tarz bir seçimin ideal devletin olmazsa olmaz şartı olduğunu söyleyen Platon, devletin başına filozoflar gelmediği sürece toplumun başının dertten kurtulmayacağını ve ideal toplumun hiçbir zaman gerçekleşmeyeceğini iddia etmektedir (Platon, 1999: 501e). Çünkü Platon için filozofun devletin başına geçmesi, iktidar gücüyle akıl gücünün birleşmesi anlamına gelecektir (Platon, 1999: 473d). Platon'un ideal devletinde en az sayıda yurttaş yöneticiler sınıfında yer alır. Bunun nedeni Platon'a göre bu sınıfta yer almayı sağlayacak filozofça yaratılış ve erdemlere sahip bireylerin kolay kolay bulunamamasıdır (Platon, 1999: 503b).

Platon ideal devletin dört erdeme sahip olduğunu söylemektedir. Bunlar; bilgelik, cesaret, ölçülülük ve adalettir (Platon, 1999: 427e). İdeal devlette bu dört erdem toplumun tüm sınıflarına dağılmamıştır (Lorenz, 2006: 149). Buna göre Platon'un bilgelik dediği ve devlette alınan kararların bilgece alınmasına vurgu yapan bilgelik erdemi ideal devlette yönetenler sınıfına has bir erdemdir (Platon, 1999: 427e). Platon'a göre korkulacak ve korkulmayacak şeyler üstüne kanunlara uygun olarak, beslenen inancın sarsılmazlığını ifade eden cesaret ise, koruyucular sınıfına özgü bir erdemdir (Platon, 1999: 430a). İlk iki erdemi toplumun belirli bir sınıfına hasreden Platon, ideal devletin sahip olduğu üçüncü erdem olan ölçülülüğün ise toplumun üç sınıfında da bulunması gerektiğini söylemektedir. Buna göre devletin iyi yanının kötü yanını kontrol altına alması anlamına gelen ölçülülük toplum içerisinde hazların, acıların, tutkuların aşırıya kaçmadan yaşanmasını ifade etmektedir (Platon, 1999: 431b). Adalet ise, Platon'un ideal devletinde bulunması gereken en önemli değerdir. Çünkü, diğer üç değer bilgelik, cesaret ve ölçülülük değerlerini ortaya çıkarır. Bir diğer ifadeyle adaletle sahip olmayan bir devletin diğer üç değere sahip olması Platon için bir anlam ifade etmez. Dolayısıyla Platon'a göre devletin üstünlüğü adaletle ortaya çıkmaktadır. Adaleti, toplumu oluşturan üç sınıfın kendilerine verilen görevi en iyi şekilde yapmaları ve birbirlerinin işlerine karışmamaları şeklinde anlayan Platon, bu erdem devleti ayakta tutan

ilke olduğunu, bu ilkenin yıkılmasının devletin yıkılması anlamına geleceğini iddia etmektedir (Platon, 1999: 434b-c).

II. İdeal Devlette Filozof Eğitimi

Bu bölümde ideal devletin yönetimini devralan filozofların nasıl bir eğitime tabi tutuldukları incelenecektir. Bu bağlamda, "Platon'un ideal devletinde eğitim ne anlama gelmektedir ve bu eğitimin temel ilkeleri nelerdir?" sorusuna cevap aranacaktır.

Platon, eğitimle ilgili görüşlerini *Devlet* adlı eserinin VII. kitabında detaylı bir şekilde ele almaktadır. Biz de burada onun eğitimle ilgili görüşlerini dört ana başlık altında ele alacağız.

1. Eğitim, "Doxa (Sanı)"dan "Episteme (İdeanın/Gerçeğin Bilgisi)"ye Giden Bir Süreçtir

Platon'a göre eğitim, ruhun doğuştan getirmiş olduğu öğrenme gücünü iyiden yana çevirme ve bunun için en kolay, en doğru yolu bulma sanatıdır (Platon, 1999: 518d). Onun bu tanımı en açık şekilde, felsefe tarihinde meşhur olmuş olan "Mağara Benzetmesi"nde görülmektedir. Eğitilmiş insan ile eğitimsiz insan arasındaki ayrımı göstermeyi amaçlayan bu anaoloji *Devlet*'in VII. kitabında şu şekilde ortaya konulmaktadır:

"İnsan denen yaratığı eğitimle aydınlanmış ve aydınlanmamış olarak düşün. Bunu şöyle bir benzetmeyle anlatayım: Yeraltında bir mağaramsı yer, içinde insanlar. Önde boydan boya ışığa açılan bir giriş. İnsanlar çocukluklarından beri ayaklarından, boyunlarından zincire vurulmuş, bu mağarada yaşıyorlar. Ne kımlıdayabiliyorlar ne de burunlarının ucundan başka bir yer görebiliyorlar. Öyle sıkı sıkıya bağlanmışlar ki, kafalarını bile oynatamıyorlar. Yüksek bir yerde yakılmış bir ateş parıldıyor arkalarında. Mahpuslarla ateş arasında dimdik bir yol var. Bu yol boyunca alçak bir duvar, hani şu kukla oynatanların seyircilerle kendi arasına koydukları ve üstünde marifetlerini gösterdikleri bölge var ya, onun gibi bir duvar... Bu durumdaki insanlar kendilerini ve yanlarındakileri nasıl görürler? Ancak arkalarındaki ateşin aydınlığıyla mağarada karşılarına vuran gölgeleri görebilirler, değil mi?... Bu zindanın içinde bir de yankı düşün. Geçenlerden biri her konuştuğu, mahpuslar bu sesi karşılarındaki gölgenin sesi sanmazlar mı?... Bu adamların gözünde gerçek, yapma nesnelere gölgelerinden başka bir şey olamaz ister istemez, değil mi?... Şimdi düşün: Bu adamların zincirlerini çözer, bilgisizliklerine son verirsen, her şeyi olduğu gibi görürlerse ne yaparlar? Mahpuslardan birini kurtaralım, ayağa kaldıralım, başını çevirelim, gözlerini ışığa kaldırsın. Bütün bu hareketler ona acı verecek. Gölgelerini gördüğü nesnelere gözü kamaşarak bakacak. Ona demin gördüğün şeyler sadece boş gölgelerdi, şimdiyse gerçeğe daha yakınsın... Mağaradan kurtulan adam, mağarada kalanlara imrenir mi? O, ünleri o kazançları sağlayanları kıskanır mı?" (Platon, 1999: 514a vd)

Benzetmede de ortaya konulduğu gibi Platon için eğitim, mağarada bulunan ve gerçek varlıklar olan ideaların gölgelerini gerçek zanneden insanın, mağaradan kurtarılıp, gölgelerin asıl sahibi olan ideaların bilgisine ulaşma sürecine işaret etmektedir. Onun bu yaklaşımı, epistemolojisinde yer alan ideaların bilgisi anlamına gelen "episteme" ile ideaların gölgesinin bilgisi anlamına gelen "doxa" arasındaki ayrımına dayanmaktadır. Bu bağlamda episteme, doğru bilgiyi ifade ederken, doxa ise bilgi yerine sanıyı ifade etmektedir. Bu ayrıma göre Platon'un sanı dediği şey, duyulur dünyadan duyu organlarımızla elde ettiğimiz muğlak verilerdir ve bunlar bu haliyle doğru bilgi olarak kabul edilemezler. Çünkü bu bilgi, asıl gerçeklikler olan ideaların birer yansıması olan gölge varlıkların algılarıdır. Fakat doğru bilgi yani episteme ise asıl gerçeklik olan ideaların bilgisidir (Arslan, 2006: 228). Mağara benzetmesi, Platon sisteminde eğitimin gücüne işaret etmektedir. Bu benzetmeyle Platon, mevcut toplumdaki insanların epistemolojik durumlarını göz önüne sermektedir. Bu benzetme arkaplanında iki memnuniyetsizliği barındırmaktadır. Birincisi, o ana kadarki yaşantının sadece gölgeleri izlemek ve yankıları dinlemek olduğunu fark etmekten kaynaklanan memnuniyetsizlik; ikincisi ise mevcut epistemolojik seviyenin farkına varılmasından kaynaklanan memnuniyetsizlik (Lear J. , 2006: 34). Platon,

ortaya koyduğu eğitim anlayışıyla bu memnuniyetsizliğin ortadan kaldırılmasını amaçlamaktadır. Bu haliyle mağara benzetmesi, hem yetersiz bir epistemolojik durumdan daha üst bir epistemolojik duruma geçişi, hem de doxadan epistemeye bir dönüşüm sürecini öngörmektedir (Scolnicov, 1998: 99). Bu benzetmeyle Platon'un, eğitime muhatap olacak kişinin yol haritasını çizdiği söylenebilir.

İşte Platon için eğitim, doxaya sahip olan insanın epistemeye ulaştırılmasını amaçlayan süreci ifade etmektedir. Doxadan epistemeye uzanan, çeşitli aşamalardan oluşan ve epistemolojik bir dönüşümü ifade eden bu süreç, Platon'a göre ontolojik bir hazırbulunuşluğu gerektirir ki, bu da Platon'un eğitimle ilgili bir diğer ilkesine bizi götürmektedir.

2. Eğitim Ontolojik Hazırbulunuşluğu Gerektirir

Platon'un eğitim süreci “temel eğitim” ve “ileri düzey eğitim” aşamalarından oluşmaktadır. Platon için bu sürecin ilk aşamasını, ideal devlet içerisinde eğitime kimin tabi tutulacağına belirlenmesi oluşturmaktadır (Arslan, 2006: 411). Platon'un eğitiminin ilk aşaması bireyin 30 yaşına kadar, ikinci aşaması ise 30 yaşından 50 yaşına kadar olan süreyi kapsamaktadır (Platon, 1999: 539d). Platon ilk aşama eğitim için dikkat edilmesi gereken bazı pedagojik ilkelerden bahsetmektedir. Bunlardan ilki, birinci aşama eğitimin daha çocukken başlaması gerektiğidir. Buna göre eğitimin ilk aşaması çocukken başlatılmalı ama asla çocuk zorlanmamalıdır. Çünkü ona göre bedene zorla yaptırılan şey çocuğa zarar verecektir, zarar vermese bile, zorla öğretildiği için çocuğun aklında hiçbir şey kalmayacaktır. Bu nedenle eğitim çocuk için eğlenceli hale getirilmelidir. Platon'a göre bu uygulama hem çocukların kolay öğrenmelerini sağlayacaktır, hem de hangi işe daha yatkın oldukları ortaya çıkacaktır (Platon, 1999: 537a). Temel eğitim ve ileri düzey eğitim aşamalarının kendilerine has amaçları vardır ve bu amaçlar da eğitimin uygulanacağı sınıfları belirlemektedir. Temel eğitim için yapılacak olan ilk şey, ideal devletteki tüm yurttaşların mı yoksa belirli bir zümrenin mi eğitileceği sorusuna cevap vermektedir. Buna göre Platon, ideal devlette eğitime tabi tutulacak sınıfın yöneticiler ve koruyucular sınıfı olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Ona göre yönetilenlerin eğitime tabi tutulmalarına gerek yoktur (Takala, 1998: 791). Platon bu görüşüyle günümüzde geçerli olan eğitimde fırsat eşitliği ilkesine ideal devletinde yer vermemektedir. Eğitilecek sınıfla ilgili olarak Platon'un yaklaşımının böyle bir yapıya sahip olmasının nedeni, onun eğitim sürecinin epistemolojik ve ontolojik olmak üzere iki yöne sahip olmasıdır. Dolayısıyla Platon için eğitime tabi tutulacak birey, doğuştan bazı niteliklere sahip olarak doğmak zorundadır. Aksi takdirde ideal devlet içerisinde kendisine koruyucular ve yöneticiler sınıfında herhangi bir yer bulamayacak ve yönetilenler grubunda yer alacaktır. Platon, eğitimde sınıflar arasında bir ayrıma gitmekle beraber, eğitim verilecek sınıf içerisinde herhangi bir ayrıma gitmez. Buna göre yöneticiler ve koruyucular arasında bulunan kadın, çocuk ve erkek tüm bireyler ideal devletin eğitiminden geçmek durumundadır (Platon, 1999: 543a).

Platon'un eğitime tabi tutulacak birey için aradığı nitelikler şunlardır: Bilime düşkün olma, varlığı bütünüyle sevme (Platon, 1999: 485a), sağlam bir belleğe sahip olma, öğrenme kolaylığı, ruh üstünlüğü ve inceliği (Platon, 1999: 486e). Doğuştan bu nitelikleri bünyesinde barındıran birey filozof olmanın ilk şartını yerine getirmiş sayılmaktadır. Fakat gerçeğin bilgisine yani epistemeye sahip olmayı doğuştan getirilen verili yeteneklerle ilişkilendiren Platon, sadece bu yeteneklerin gerçeğin bilgisine ulaşmaya yetmeyeceğini ifade etmektedir. Ona göre, filozof olmak için fiziksel hazırbulunuşluk gerekli olmakla birlikte yeter şart değildir. Platon, doğuştan gerçeğin bilgisi için gerekli hazırbulunuşluğa sahip vatandaşların ancak yeterli ve doğru eğitime tabi tutulduklarında, gerçeğin bilgisine ulaşabileceklerini ve filozof olarak devleti yönetebileceklerini savunmaktadır. Ona göre doğuştan filozof olmanın gerekliliklerine sahip olan kişiler, uygun eğitimi almadıklarında filozof olamayacaklardır. Uygun eğitimi alamayan filozof, bozulacak, kötü bir ruha sahip olacaktır. Adeta toprağa yeni atılan yabancı bir tohum nasıl soysuzlaşıp o toprağın özelliklerine uyarsa, filozof da bozuk toplumu şekillendirecek yerde, kendisi de bozuk düzene ayak uyduracaktır (Bayram, 2013: 113).

Platon, ideal toplum içerisinde eğitilecek sınıfları belirledikten sonra, bu eğitimin niteliğini belirlemektedir ki bu da bizi eğitim süreciyle ilgili bir başka ilkeye götürmektedir.

3. Eğitimin İçeriği Amaca Uygun Olmalıdır

Platon'un ideal devlet için öngördüğü bu eğitim sisteminde ilk aşamada koruyucular ve filozoflar aynı eğitime tabi tutulacaklar, ardından tekrar bir seçime tabi tutularak, koruyucular arasından filozof olmaya en yatkın olanlar seçilerek devleti yönetmekle görevlendirileceklerdir(Arslan, 2006: 411).Bu bağlamda Platon'un ideal devletinde eğitimin verileceği sınıf, eğitimin niteliğini ve amaçlarını da belirlemektedir. Buna göre eğitimin ilk olarak uygulanacağı sınıf olan koruyucular sınıfına verilecek olan eğitim, devletin bu sınıftan beklentilerini karşılamasını sağlayacak amaca matuf olarak düzenlenecektir (Öztürk, 2004: 100).Buna göre Platon, ideal devlette öngördüğü eğitimin ilk aşamasını koruyucuların sahip olması gerektiğini düşündüğü nitelikler temelinde geliştirmektedir. Platon, ilk aşamada filozofları da içerisinde barındıran koruyucu sınıfı bekçi köpekleriyle özdeşleştirmektedir. Ona göre, iyi bir bekçi köpeği, tanıdığı, bildiği, sevdiği insanlara şefkatli ve korumacıyken; yabancılara ve düşmanlara karşı haşin ve vahşidir. Dolayısıyla bekçi köpeğiyle özdeşleşen koruyucu sınıf, kendi halkına karşı şefkatli ve korumacı, düşmana karşı saldırgan ve haşin olmak durumundadır (Platon, 1999: 376c). Platon doğuştan getirdikleri nitelikleriyle koruyucu olarak seçilen vatandaşların, varolan niteliklerinin doğru eğitime istenilen yönde geliştirilmesini amaçlamaktadır. Bu noktada Platon, koruyucu sınıf için iki nitelik belirlemektedir: İlki, koruma görevini yerine getirebilecek azgın olma, çevik olma ve güçlü olma gibi fiziki yeterliliklerdir. Bu niteliklerini güçlendirmek için o, beden eğitimini yani jimnastik eğitimini öngörmektedir. Platon koruyucu sınıfından beklediği ikinci nitelik olan kendi halkını sevmeye, dostunu düşmanından ayırt edebilme, estetik duyguya sahip olma gibi ruhsal yeterliliklerin ise müzik eğitimiyle güçlendirilebileceğini düşünmektedir(Platon, 1999: 376c-e). Her iki eğitimin de koruyucu sınıfı için elzem olduğunun altını çizen Platon, müzik eğitiminin beden eğitiminden daha önce gelmesi gerektiğini söylemektedir(Platon, 1999: 376d). Bunun temel nedeni, Platon'un sisteminde ruhun bedenden önce gelmesi ve bedeni yönlendiren unsurun ruh olmasıdır (Arslan, 2006: 411). Platon ideal toplum içerisinde bu ilkeye uyulmadığında bedenen güçlü ancak daha az bilgili, entelektüel kapasitesi daha düşük kuşakların ortaya çıkacağını, bu durumda ise toplumsal sınıfların birbirlerine karışacağını, toplumun düzeninin ortadan kalkacağını, yurttaşların birbirlerine düşman olacaklarını iddia etmektedir (Platon, 1999: 546b-e).

Platon, eğitim sürecinin amacına ulaşması için eğitim içeriklerinin yanında, eğitim ortamlarının da düzenlenmesini şart koşmaktadır. Bu düşüncesi de bir başka ilke olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

4. Eğitim Ortamları Eğitimin Amacına Uygun Olarak Düzenlenmelidir

Platon'un eğitim ortamlarının düzenlenmesiyle ilgili görüşlerinin temelinde ruha dair görüşleri yatmaktadır. Buna göre Platon her ruhta bir öğrenme gücü olduğunu düşünmektedir. Bu nedenle o, eğitimi ruha yeni bir şeyler koyma, yükleme olarak görmemektedir. Bir başka ifadeyle onun için eğitim bir inşa değil, yönlendirme faaliyetidir(Lear J. , 2006: 39).Onun bu düşüncesi epistemolojisiyle doğrudan ilişkilidir. Çünkü ona göre bilgi, zaten ruhta var olan şeylerin hatırlanması sürecidir (Cevizci, 2010: 98). Dolayısıyla Platon için yeni doğmuş bir bebek, eğitim sürecinde kendisine edindirilecek olan kazanımları zaten bilkuvve haiz olarak dünyaya gelmektedir. Bu bilkuvve kazanımlar eğer ruhta yoksa eğitim başarısız olmaya mahkumdur(Lear G. R., 2006: 115). Bu açıdan bebeğin ruhu, forma kavuşmamış bir haldedir ve Platon için eğitim bilkuvve olan bu kazanımların bilfiil hale geçirilmesidir. Platon'un da eğitim sürecinde dikkat çektiği nokta tam da burasıdır. Ona göre şekillendirilmemiş olan bir bebeğin ruhu, içerisinde bulunduğu ortam tarafından şekillendirilebilir(Lear J. , 2006: 26). Bu nedenle eğer eğitim ortamları amaçlar doğrultusunda düzenlenmezse, ruhlar istenmeyen şekilde gelişmeler gösterebilir. Bu nedenle bebeğin ya da çocuğun içerisinde bulunduğu sosyal ortam ve bu ortamdan aldığı kültürel mesajlar, sıklıkla farkedilmeyen şekillerde ruha işler ve onu içerdikleri bu mesajlar doğrultusunda

şekillendirir(Lear J. , 2006: 26). Dolayısıyla Platon, eğitim sürecinde eğitim ortamlarının ideal devletin amaçları doğrultusunda düzenlenmesi gerektiğinin altını çizmekte ve bu alanda belirli kısıtlamalara gidilmesi gerektiğini belirtmektedir.

İlk olarak,Platon'un fiziksel çevrede yaptığı kısıtlamaları ele alalım. Platon, koruyucu sınıfa uygulanan eğitimde istenen hedefe ulaşmak için yani koruyucu sınıfın kendi halkına karşı şefkatli ve korumacı, düşmana karşı saldırgan ve haşin olması(Platon, 1999: 376c) için eğitim ortamlarının fiziksel olarak da düzenlenmesi gerektiğini belirtmektedir. Buna göre, koruyucular arasında kadın ve çocuk ortaklığı olacak şekilde bir düzenleme yapılacaktır. Dolayısıyla koruyucuların yaşadıkları, yemek yedikleri yerler hep ortak olacaktır. Böylece herkes birbirini eş, anne, baba, evlat bilecek ve toplumda sevgi bağı güçlenecektir (Arslan, 2006: 412-413). Bunun sonucunda da koruyucu sınıf için arzulanan kendi halkına karşı korumacı ve şefkatli olma tutumu bu sınıfa kazandırılacaktır. Bunun yanında yiyeceklere de dikkat edilmek durumundadır. Platon, koruyucu sınıfın düşmana karşı saldırgan ve haşin olmasını sağlayacak beden kuvvetinin kazanılması için, bu sınıfın yiyeceklerinin de düzenlenmesi gerektiğini, bu nedenle de onların fiziksel gücüne zarar verecek baharatlı, yağlı ve tatlı yiyeceklerden uzak durmalarının sağlanması gerektiğini düşünmektedir(Arslan, 2006: 413).

Platon koruyucu sınıfın eğitiminde fiziksel çevrenin düzenlenmesinden sonra eğitim müfredatında bazı düzenlemelere gitmektedir.

Platon, beden eğitiminin yöntemi konusunda o zamana kadar Antik Yunan'da uygulanan beden eğitimi müfredatından memnundur(Öztürk, 2004: 100). Bu nedenle ideal toplumda verilecek olan eğitimde daha çok müzik eğitimi üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktadır. Platon şiirden sahne sanatlarına, resimden heykele kadar bütün sanatları müzik eğitimi içerisinde mütalaa etmektedir. Bu açıdan Platon devletinde müzik eğitimi aslında sanat eğitimi anlamına gelmektedir. Fakat Antik Yunan'da kendi zamanında cari olan müzik eğitimi, Platon'un ideal devletinin amaçları açısından bazı sakıncaları içermektedir. Bu nedenle Platon, ideal devletinde verilmesi gereken müzik eğitiminin içeriğinde bazı değişikliklere gitmektedir. Bu değişiklikler, bugün eğitimde sansür olarak nitelendirilebileceğimiz türden değişikliklerdir. Platon'un eğitimdeki sansürlü amacı, eğitime tabi tutulan sınıfın yanlış yönlendirilmesinin önüne geçmek ve koruyucu sınıfın ihtiyaç duyduğu ruhsal özellikleri kazanmasını sağlamaktır.

Platon, sansüre şiir, masal, hikaye, efsane gibi sözlü sanatlarla başlamaktadır. Sözlü sanatlara verdiği bu öncelik, kendi döneminde cari olan gelenekle ilgilidir. O, yazılı gelenekten çok sözlü geleneğin eğitimde geçerli olduğu bir ortamda yaşamıştır. Platon, sözlü geleneğin sahip olduğu söz, ölçü ve ritim yapısının mesajı daha etkili ve kalıcı bir şekilde aktardığını ve sözlü sanatların barındırdıkları mesajların farkında olmadan insan ruhunu şekillendirdiğini farketmiştir(Brown, 1972: 673). Platon özellikle çocuklara hitap eden sözlü sanatlarda azami özenin gösterilmesi gerektiğini, zira onların ruhlarının daha kolay şekillendirdiğini düşünmektedir(Asmis, 2006: 347). Platon, yetişkin birinin hayatının perde arkasında çocuklukta duyduğu sözlü sanatların etkisinin olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Bu konuyla ilgili şöyle söylemektedir: "... Çocuk gizliyi açığı ayırt edemez. Çocukken duyduklarımız da akıldan çıkmaz, aklımızda öyle kalır. İşte bunun için, çocukların ilk duydukları sözlerin, iyilik yolunu gösterecek güzel masallar olmasına çok önem vermeliyiz."(Platon, 1999, s. 378e)Devlet'te örneğini verdiği Kephalos(Platon, 1999, s. 330b vd),hayatının ilk dönemlerinde duyduğu Hades ve ölüm üzerine anlatılan hikayeleri başta umursamadığını; fakat yaşlandıkça, başta duyduğu bu hikayelerin gerçek olma ihtimalinin onu endişelendirdiğini anlatmaktadır. Platon burada, sözlü sanatların insan ruhunu kişinin farkında olmadan etkilediği ve şekillendirdiği hususuna dikkat çekmektedir. Buna göre küçük bir çocuk Achilles'in kahramanlık hikayesini, henüz bu hikayelerin arkaplanında yatan düşünceleri anlayamayacağı bir yaşta duyduğunda, oyunlarında kendisini Achilles ile özdeşleştirecektir. Bu durum oyunlarında tekrar ettikçe ruhu farkında olmadan Achilles'ecektir. Bu aşamadan sonra çocuk Platon'a göre dünyaya Achilles'in bakış açısından bakacaktır. Daha sonra büyüyüp de çocukluğunda duyduğu hikayelerin perde

arkasında yatan gerçek fikirleri öğrendiğinde her şey için çok geç olacaktır. O, bu aşamadan sonra Achilles'in sadece bir hikaye kahramanı olduğunu bilecek ancak o hikayelerde anlatılan fikirler onun ruhuna işlenmiş olacaktır. Bu süreç tıpkı rüyaya benzemektedir(Lear J. , 2006: 30). Rüyalarımızın da ruh dünyamızı şekillendiren derin anlamları vardır. Rüyalarımızın ruhumuzu etkileyen gücü, uyanık olduğumuzu düşünmemizden değil, uyanık olmakla uyur olmak arasındaki farkı ayırt edebilme yetimizin geçici olarak ortadan kalkmasından ileri gelmektedir (Platon, 1999: 476c).

Bu nedenle Platon, ideal devlette sözlü edebiyata sınırlamalar getirmektedir. Fakat burada dikkat edilmesi gereken bir husus da şudur ki, Platon söz sanatlarını yasaklamamaktadır. O, söz sanatlarının ruhu şekillendirmedeki gücünden mahrum olmaktansa, bu gücü amaçlar doğrultusunda kullanma taraftarıdır(Partee, 1970: 211). Çünkü söz sanatları, ideal devlette, koruyucular sınıfının toplum için merhametli ve doğru davranışlar kazanmasını sağlamaktadır. Bu eğitim sadece genç koruyucuların iyi lezzetleri geliştirmesini değil, ayrıca iyiyi ve güzeli de sevmelerini sağlamayı amaçlamaktadır(Lear G. R., 2006: 104). Bu bakımdan, ideal devletteki söz sanatlarının içeriklerini ve şairleri ideal devletin amaçları doğrultusunda kullanmayı amaçlamaktadır.Platon açık bir şekilde şairlerin yazacakları şiirlerin içeriklerine müdahale edilmesi taraftarıdır(Platon, 1999: 378d). Bu konuda Platon'un tavrı son derece açık ve nettir: "... Tanrılar sözde de, şarkıda da, sahnede de nasıllarsa öyle anlatılmalı."(Platon, 1999: 379a). Platon, koruyucuların Tanrılara saygılı olmaları isteniyorsa, eğitimde Tanrılarla kötü, yalancı, zalim, hain gösteren anlatılara şiirlerin, masalların ya da hikayelerin herhangi birinde yer verilmemesi gerektiğini ifade etmektedir(Platon, 1999: 379b). Yine eğer Platon'a göre koruyucular ölümden korkmayan, yiğit kişiler olarak yetiştirileceklerse, bu durumda ölümden en az korkmalarını sağlayacak sözlerin söylenmesi gerektiğini belirtmektedir. Aksi takdirde, Platon'a göre zihni Hades'in kötü sahneleriyle, çekilen azaplar ve ıstıraplarla şekillenmiş bir koruyucunun ölümden korkmaması imkansızdır(Platon, 1999: 386a).

Platon sözlü sanatlardan sonra tragedya, komedi gibi sahne sanatlarına da bir takım sınırlamalar getirmektedir.Sahne sanatları Platon'un eğitim sisteminde entelektüel gelişim açısından oldukça önemlidir. Platon'a göre sahne sanatları, her ne kadar insanı epistemeye ulaştırmıyorsa da, onu epistemeye ulaştıracak olan zihne somut örnekler sunmaktadır. Sahne sanatlarının sunduğu bu modeller, iyinin ve kötünün cisimleşmiş hali olarak insan zihninde canlanmaktadır. Fakat bunu yaparken, ruhumuzun daha az bilişsel özellik taşıyan yönüne hitap etmektedir (Scolnicov, 1998: 113). Platon için sahne sanatlarının taşıdığı en önemli tehlike taklide dayalı bir sanat olmasıdır. Bu sanatların taklide olan vurgusu, Platon'un ideal devletin temel ilkesi olan ve adalet erdemini yansıtan herkesin tek bir işi yani kendi işini yapması gerektiğini ifade eden ilkesini tehlikeye düşürmektedir. Bu konuda şöyle demektedir: "*Koruyucular başka hiçbir işin taklidini bile yapmayacaklardır. Yaparlarsa bu taklit, kendi işlerinin gerektirdiği ve çocukluklarından beri özenilecek yiğitlik, bilgelik, dini bütünlük gibi erdemlerin taklidi olmalıdır. Bunların dışında hiçbir kötü işi ne yapsınlar ne de taklit etsinler. Çünkü taklit ettikleri şeye alışırlar. Bu alışkanlık da bedeni, konuşmayı, görüşleri değiştiren ikinci bir tabiat olur.*"(Platon, 1999: 395a). İnsanda ikinci bir tabiat oluşumuna yol açan sahne sanatları Platon'un ideal devletinde, Tanrılarla boy ölçüşen kahramanları, göz yaşlı döken kadınları, hasta, aşık ya da doğum yapan kadınları kısacası koruyucu sınıfın sahip olması gereken erdemlere muhalefet eden davranışları öven kahramanları barındıran sahne sanatlarına yer yoktur. Bunları canlandıran ve şiirlerine konu edinen şair ve sanatçılar yasaklı olduklarından ideal devlette kendilerine yer bulamayacaklardır(Platon, 1999: 398b).

Platon, sahne sanatlarından sonra müzik eğitiminde de kısıtlamalara gitmektedir. Platon müzik eğitimini eğitimlerin en iyisi olarak nitelendirmektedir. Çünkü müzik sayesinde çocuklar ilk eğitimlerinden itibaren güzeli sevmeye, güzele benzemeye, onunla bir olmaya, kaynaşmaya çalışmaktadır(Platon, 1999: 402b). Ona göre müzik eğitimini bu kadar etkili yapan şey, ritim ve makamlar kadar başka hiçbir şeyin insanın ruhuna işleyememesidir. Ona göre müzik eğitimi amacına uygun şekilde yapıldığı takdirde, insanı yüceltir ve özünü güzelleştirir. Müzik insana iyi ile kötü

arasındaki ayrımı yapmayı sağlayarak ruh gelişimine yardım eder(Asmis, 2006: 347). Ancak Platon amacına uygun yapıldığı takdirde eğitim için en etkili araç konumuna yükselen müziğin, kontrol edilmediği takdirde aynı oranda yıkıcı sonuçlara neden olacağını ifade etmektedir. Buna göre eğer müzik eğitiminde genel ilkelere azami dikkat gösterilmezse, bu müziğe maruz kalan koruyucular kötü yiyeceklerle beslenenler gibi yetişeceklerdir. Hergün farkında olmadan zehirli yiyecekleri azar azar yiyen biri gibi, kötülük içlerine yerleşecektir(Platon, 1999: 402b).

İnsan ruhunu şekillendirme konusunda müziğin bu etkisinin farkında olan Platon, müzik alanındaki kısıtlamalara makam ve ritimlerden başlamaktadır. Buna göre uygun müzik, savaşta ya da zor durumda kalan, yaralanan, yenilen, ölümle karşılaşıya kalan ve her türlü mutsuzluk içerisinde kaderine kafa tutabilen koruyucunun yiğitlik erdemine uygun olmalıdır. Koruyucuları sarhoş, gevşek, tembel yapacak müzik, makam ve ritimlere ideal toplum içerisinde yer yoktur(Platon, 1999: 388e). Bu nedenle Platon biri koruyucunun düşmana göstereceği sertliğe uygun "sert", diğeri ise kendi halkına duyacağı merhamete uygun "yumuşak" iki makamın ideal devlete yeteceğini belirtmektedir. Bunun Platon açısından ideal devlete bir yararı da birçok makam için gerekli olan çok çeşitli müzik aletlerine duyulan ihtiyacın ortadan kalkmasıdır(Platon, 1999: 400a).

Platon söz sanatları, sahne sanatları ve müzikle ilgili düzenlemelerden sonra eğitimin ikinci aşamasına geçmekte ve müfredatın diğer ayağını oluşturan matematik eğitimini incelemeye başlamaktadır. Bununla birlikte eğitimde ikinci aşamaya geçiş, bu aşamada eğitime muhatap olacak kesimin değişmesi anlamına gelmektedir. Buna göre Platon, koruyucu sınıfı içerisinde en iyileri eğitimin ikinci aşamasına geçirmektedir(Platon, 1999: 412c). Bu aşamada artık eğitimin yeni bir hedefi ortaya konulmaktadır. Birinci aşamada eğitimin amacı, koruyucuların görevlerini en iyi şekilde yerine getirmelerini sağlayacak formasyonun kazandırılmasıyken, bu aşamada eğitimin amacı, epistemeye ulaşarak devleti yönetecek seviyeye yani filozofluk seviyesine ulaşmaktır. Eğitim sürecinde bu tarz bir seçimin ideal devletin olmazsa olmaz şartı olduğunu söyleyen Platon, devletin başına filozoflar gelmediği sürece toplumun başının dertten kurtulmayacağını ve ideal toplumun hiçbir zaman gerçekleşmeyeceğini iddia etmektedir(Platon, 1999: 501e). Çünkü Platon için filozofun devletin başına geçmesi iktidar gücüyle akıl gücünün birleşmesi anlamına gelmektedir(Platon, 1999: 473d). Platon'un filozofa yüklediği birinci görevin temelinde filozofun bilgeliğine yapılan vurgu vardır. Çünkü Platon'un ideal devletinde filozof akıllı temsil etmektedir. Bir diğer ifadeyle bu devlet içerisinde filozof aklın ete kemiğe bürünmüş halidir. Bu nedenle devletin başındaki filozofa itaat etmek Platon'a göre akla itaat etmek anlamına gelmektedir (Scolnicov, 1998: 108). Platon, en az sayıda yurttaşın yöneticiler sınıfında yer aldığını belirtmektedir. Bunun nedeni Platon'a göre bu sınıfta yer almayı sağlayacak filozofça yaratılış ve erdemlere sahip yurttaşların kolay kolay bulunamamasıdır (Platon, 1999: 503b). Platon, ideal devlet içerisinde filozofa iki görev vermiştir: (1) Kanunları ve kurumları koruyarak, toplumsal adaleti yani tüm sınıfların kendi işlerini en iyi şekilde yapmalarını sağlamak (Platon, 1999: 484c)(2) İdeal devletin vatandaşlarının, devletin ilkeleri doğrultusunda eğitilmesini sağlamak (Platon, 1999: 521c;543a). Platon'un tüm bu açıklamalarının ulaştığı son nokta, ideal devletteki her vatandaşın gerçeğin bilgisine yani epistemeye ulaşmış, filozof olamayacağıdır. Bu bakımdan Platon, ideal devletindeki filozoflara kutsiyet atfederek, toplumun gözünde onları "seçilmişler" olarak resmetmektedir (Takala, 1998: 791).

Tekrar Platon'un eğitim sisteminin ikinci aşamasının temelini oluşturan matematik eğitimine dönecek olursak, o, matematik müfredatının ilk ilminin 1,2,3'ün bilgisi yani sayılar bilgisi olan aritmetik olduğunu belirtmektedir(Platon, 1999: 522a). Aritmetikle Platon filozofların, sayıların özüne vakıf olacaklarını bunları savaş alanlarında uygulayacaklarını ve bunun yanında bu ilmin idealara yani gerçekliğin bilgisi olan epistemeye ulaşma noktasında filozoflara yardımcı olacağını ifade etmektedir(Platon, 1999: 525c). Platon'un eğitim sisteminde aritmetikten sonra geometri gelmektedir. Platon'a göre geometri, idealarla ilgilidir. Bu nedenle bu ilmin konusu değişime tabi olmayan, her zaman

varolan idealardır. Platon geometriye ayrı bir önem vermektedir. Bu konuda "*geometri bilenle bilmeyen arasında uçurum vardır*"(Platon, 1999: 527a) demektir. Atina'da kurduğu "Akademi"nin kapısında "geometri bilmeyen buraya girmesin" yazdığı rivayet edilmektedir ki (Arslan, 2006: 181) bu durum onun için geometrinin ne kadar önemli olduğunun bir işaretidir. Geometriden sonra, nesnelere üçüncü boyutunu inceleyen, Platon'un "üç boyutlular geometrisi" dediği, bizim katılar geometrisi (Solid Geometry) olarak isimlendirebileceğimiz ilim gelmektedir(Platon, 1999: 528e). Katılar geometrisinden sonra ise astronomi gelmektedir. Bu ilim filozofa, aylar, mevsimler ve gökyüzü hakkında bilgi vermektedir. Platon'a göre filozof bu ilmi bilmek zorundadır, çünkü çiftçilerin, komutanların bilmek zorunda olduğu bir ilmi, onların yöneticisi olacak olan filozof zorunlu olarak bilmek durumundadır(Platon, 1999: 527c).

Platon matematik ilminin tepesine diyalektik ilmini yerleştirir. Bu konuda o, "*diyalektik bilimlerin doruğu, tacıdır*"(Platon, 1999: 535a) demektir. Diyalektik onun eğitim sisteminde aynı zamanda bir yöntem olarak da iş görmektedir. Platon'un diyalektikçe en üstün payeyi vermesi, bu ilmin hangi konu olursa olsun her şeyin özünü sistemli bir şekilde kavramayı amaçlamasından kaynaklanmaktadır. Ona göre diğer ilimler idealaların bir yanını kavrayarak, diyalektik tüm yönlerini kavrar. Diğer ilimlerin bu tek taraflı yaklaşımlarını Platon, bir düşe benzeterek, bunların bir takım varsayımlara dayandığını ve kanıtlanamadıkları için de idealara nüfuz edemediğini belirtmektedir. Dolayısıyla Platon, bilinmeyen bir şeyin ilke olarak kabul edilmesi durumunda, bu ilkedan çıkarılacak olan sonuçların ve yargıların bilinmeyenlerle dolu olacağını, bunların ne kadar düzene sokulsalar da tam bir bilime varamayacaklarını iddia etmektedir. Bunun tersine diyalektik bir metot olarak, varsayımları birer birer ortadan kaldırarak, gerçekliğin kendisine ulaşmaktadır. Bu yönüyle Platon'a göre sadece diyalektik idealara nüfuz edebilmektedir(Platon, 1999: 533b-e). Bu nedenle Platon'un sisteminde filozof şeylerin kendilerini görebilmekte ve ancak bu sayede mağaradan çıkıp, gölge varlık ile gerçek varlığın ayırıcısına varabilmektedir(Furfey, 1942: 76). Fakat Platon burada bir noktanın altını çizmektedir. Ona göre diyalektik onun formasyonunda bahsettiği diğer ilimler alınmadan uygulanırsa yıkıcı sonuçlar ortaya çıkaracaktır. Bir başka ifadeyle, entelektüel zihin yapıları yanlış düzenlenmiş kişiler, yanlış fikirlerden hareket ederek diyalektik uygulamaları yanlış bir ruh yapısına ve yanlış sonuçlara ulaşacaklardır(Scolnicov, 1998: 106).

Sonuç

Platon insanın gerçek mutluluğa ulaşmasının ancak belirli niteliklere sahip ideal bir toplumda mümkün olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Ona göre insanı mutlu edecek bu toplum tek bir insan gibi olmalı, tüm unsurlarıyla bir bütün olmalıdır. Devleti oluşturan farklı unsurların birliğini insan ruhuyla özdeşleştiren Platon, ruhun üç bölümüyle devleti oluşturan üç sınıf arasında bir benzerlik kurmaktadır. Buna göre üreticiler, koruyucular ve yöneticilerden oluşan toplumda yöneticiler sınıfı filozoflardan oluşmalıdır. İdeal devleti yönetmek gibi temel bir görevi haiz olan filozoflar, bu görevlerine uygun şekilde eğitilmelidirler. Platon, filozoflar için iki aşamalı bir eğitimi öngörmektedir. Bu eğitimin ilk aşamasını beden eğitimi ve müzik eğitimi oluşturmaktadır ki Platon filozofların bu eğitimi koruyucularla birlikte almaları gerektiğini ifade etmektedir. Daha sonra ise koruyucular sınıfının en iyileri arasından seçilecek olan yönetici sınıf, ileri düzey eğitimde matematik eğitimi alacaklardır. Platon, ilk aşaması beden eğitimi ve müzik eğitiminden, ikinci aşaması ise matematik eğitiminden oluşan bu süreç için dört temel ilke belirlemiştir. Bu ilkelerden birincisi eğitimi, idealaların yani gerçeğin gölgesini ifade eden doxadan, gerçeğin bizatihi kendi bilgisini ifade eden epistemeye ulaşmayı amaçlayan bir süreç olarak ele almaktadır. İkinci ilke, ideal toplumda eğitilecek toplumsal sınıfların belirli bir ontolojik hazırbulunuşluğa sahip olmaları gerektiğini ifade etmektedir. Toplumun belirli bir kesimini hedef alan bu eğitimin içeriğinin ideal toplumun amaçları doğrultusunda düzenlenmesi gerektiğini belirten ilke de üçüncü bir

ilke olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Yazımızda ele aldığımız son ilke ise ideal toplumda verilecek eğitimin içeriğiyle birlikte ortamların da amaçlar doğrultusunda düzenlenmesinin gerekliliğini ortaya koymaktadır.

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