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Assessing information literacy skills for Kuwait University students

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to investigate the role of the information literacy courses at Kuwait University and to promote information literacy skills of freshmen. Students at their first year at college face difficulties in searching for accurate resources and research. This study tries to answer two questions. first, What do faculty members think about level of information literacy freshmen. second, Is there a need for information literacy courses? If yes, are the available courses enough? Or need more courses. The methodology is via quantitative survey through online self-designed questionnaire will be used in this study. The population of the study are faculty members at college of social sciences, department of information studies. The sampling technique used is a (SRS) of 17 information studies faculty members. This sample is expected to represent the whole population. Online survey sent to all faculty members both male and female by email after getting their emails from the department affairs. The importance of this survey is to assess first year students at KU who graduated from high school to stop on weaknesses points and skills in information literacy. The results and findings that expected from the research will be advised to assess foundation courses for all kU colleges not only in social sciences college to literate students in academic concepts. I think, faculties will agree that all students need to involve in workshops, lectures, training courses, conferences, meeting and seminars to improve their information literacy skills.

Keywords: information literacy, education, information skills, improving research skills, foundation courses.

Introduction

Information literacy is an international term that has been defined in many contexts. The American Library Association defined Information Literacy to be "a set of abilities requiring individuals to recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate and use effectively the needed information" (Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education, 2019). Information literacy is the ability to locate and access the information effectively. IL goes beyond locating information to include recognizing and evaluating information (Aharony & Bronstein, 2014). The ACRL Board approved the "Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education" in January 2000. Studies showed that there is global interest in the information literacy competency standards. IL competency standards have been translated into 8 languages. Discipline-based information literacy guidelines were developed for other disciplines such as sociology, journalism, literature, political science, psychology, technology and education (ACRL History, 2019).

Information literate people were also the focus for many studies and organizations. Based on ALA definition, information literate people are "people prepared for lifelong learning because they can always find the needed information for any task or decision at hand" (Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education, 2019). Limberg (2017) found that an information literate person must have specific skills and competencies such as finding and using information effectively. The skills or competencies that are required to be information literate require an understanding of:

- 1- A need for information
- 2- The available resources
- 3- how to find information
- 4- Evaluation of results
- 5- How to work with others or exploit results
- 6- Ethics and responsibility of use

7- How to communicate or share your findings

8- How to manage your findings (Information Literacy Skills, 2019).

Colleges offer many facilities to improve literacy skills for undergraduates such as academic library training courses of use databases, books, journals, and other collections to get information. Most academic libraries offer library programs to enhance information literacy for students (Chen & Chengalur-Smith, 2015).

ACRL defined the five standards of IL that information literate person should know and be able to, that include determine the extent of information the person need, access the information effectively and efficiently, evaluate information sources critically, add the information to one's knowledge, and use information to accomplish specific purpose.

Problem statement

This study aims to investigate the role of the information literacy courses at Kuwait University to promote freshmen (students who take 131 courses) information literacy skills. This study also assess first year students at KU who graduated from high school to stop on weaknesses points and skills in information literacy. Kuwait University offers foundation courses for first year students to make them more literate in academic concepts. KU offers facilities for students to improve their information literacy skills as workshops, seminars, lectures, training courses, meetings, conferences..etc. KU follow an effective strategy to enhance students' literacy skills to make them able to locate their needs and be more literate, that comes because of the lack of information literacy courses at high school that make students face difficulties when they join a college. So, students will not be able to use academic library, search and find information, use databases or find sources to do a homework or research. IL implies several skills. These skills are required for students to be information literate. Students need to understand their need of information, available resources, how to find and locate information, evaluate results, how to share findings, and how to manage findings.

This study will be compared in results to similar study about IL skills assessment Undergraduate perceptions of information literacy: Defining, attaining, and self-assessing skills by Gross & Latham (2009).

This study adopts a quantitative method for data collection. A survey is a data collection instrument. The survey will include six sections to assess the students' literacy skills at KU, department of information studies. The sections of the questionnaire designed based on IL six skills to be measured by faculty members of department of information studies at KU. The sample includes (10) faculty members at department of information studies, KU. The survey results will be analyzed by Excel to present charts.

Research questions

1. What do faculty members think about level of information literacy freshmen (Students who take 131 courses of information skills)?
2. Is there a need for information literacy courses? If yes, are the available courses enough? Or need more courses?

Review of literature

Information literacy

Depending on ALA, Information Literacy is "a set of abilities requiring individuals to recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate and use effectively the needed information" (Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education, 2019).

Information literacy is vital term in the academic life. It is hugely discussed between academics and researchers. It was first appeared in 1974 but the concept was rejected at the beginning. At beginnings, the term was only restricted to librarians ten to other people.

Information literate person is the one who can identify information needed and locate, evaluate and use the information in effective way. An information literate person knows to use the information in most effective and ethical way. Internet users face new challenges to solve information problems because of digitalized everyday life. Actually, information explosion created concerns among information users to reduce

the information overload and use information in a more efficiently. This help to complete their tasks in shorter time (Chanchinmawia & Verma, 2018).

The development of information society lead to knowledge society information literacy growth and lifelong learning. Basically, Information literacy empower people to find, evaluate, use and create information in effective way to achieve personal, social, and educational goals (Chanchinmawia & Verma, 2018).

Information literacy standards

Al-Issa (2013) stated that the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) published Information Power in 1998. Information power includes nine information literacy standards for learning students.

One of noticeable achievements for the American Association of School Librarians is producing Standards for the 21st -Century Learner. Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL) developed Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education (Al-Issa, 2013). Most universities and colleges use information literacy standards. Information literacy is the basic skills set of the 21st century that is recognized for all types of learners especially undergraduates. It include to acquire and use information, and work with a variety of technologies (Eisenberg, 2008). Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education were approved by ACRL in 2000 responding to inquiries from members about use on campuses, so training programs were developed and became available to members. In 2017 the “Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education” was approved by the board and forming “Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education.” (ACRL History, 2019).

Information literacy courses

Davis, Lundstrom, and Martin (2011) found that there is relationship between information literacy level and information literacy course. Davis, Lundstrom, and Martin (2011) found that information literacy course improves the

interaction and communication with students and enables students to find their needs better. IL Courses information literacy are essential and effective because they offer basic skills for the searching so students can do their projects and assignment in successful way.

Anderson and May (2010) found that providing information literacy instruction increase students' information literacy skills.

Information literacy course creates powerful relationship between students and faculty members. Anderson and May (2010) found that that the library has role in information literacy level for students. Librarians must include For-Credit Course to improve information literacy for students. Therefore, faculty members and library staff should conduct workshops and collaborate together to provide course-integrated instructions to support the curriculum to develop information literacy programs.

Ur Rehman & Alfaresi (2009) found that majority of Kuwaiti high school students lack skills in catalog searching and use, information sources selection, search strategies formulation, and selection of pertinent sources. Similarly, most students did not use of their public or school libraries in effective way.

Johnston et al. (2018) assumed that academic development in universities need of significant attention at all levels of digital university organization. Digital and media are related concepts to Information Literacy. The UNESCO program of Media and Information Literacy is the main focus for curriculum development of the globalization of the information industry.

Information literacy assessment in the digital age

IL is considered as human right in a digital world that promotes social inclusion of all cities. Lifelong learning enables individuals, communities and nations to achieve goals and take advantage of coming opportunities in the environment to share benefits (Chanchinmawia & Verma, 2018).

The continuing rapid development of computer and other information literacy transformed the way in which young people access, retrieve, and share information. Within this context, many training courses and instructional programs are available to enhance digital literacy. Digital information literacy improves students' knowledge, understanding, attitudes, and skills that comprise both computer and information

literacy (CIL) in order to be an effective participant in the digital age (Fraillon, Schulz & Ainley, 2013).

Information literacy assessment is a big need for faculty members before engaging students in projects and researches. Most faculty members depend on computer-based assessment.

The variations in computer and information literacy outcomes internationally contribute in education systems for digital literacy as an essential skill. CIL also capture information about contexts in which student proficiency is developed. The assessment of technology competency is to be included in the US National Assessment of Educational Progress 2014. The assessment of CIL covers proficiency with technologies and software learning tools, networking systems, protocols, digital devices, accessing, creating, and communicating information, facilitating creative expression.

The assessment process include subareas as exchange of ideas and solutions, information research, investigation of problems, acknowledgement of ideas and information, and selection and use of digital tools (Fraillon, Schulz & Ainley, 2013).

The ACRL IL Competency Standards for Higher Education is used as the basis of Kousar & Mahmood (2013) standards and research skills. The study include test consisting of 20 multiple-choice questions. The sample were over 3,000 students of 15 universities. This study demonstrated gaps in IL skills of students.

The results of Kousar & Mahmood (2013) study indicate that the first-year students of undergraduate engineering programs lack a good understanding of information resources. The results of this study show that students do not have enough idea about methods and tools for information retrieval from databases. Additionally, the level of information literacy skills of students was very low, and there is a big need to be improved to perform better in academic life. In this regard, it is required to provide them information literacy instructions.

Kousar & Mahmood (2013) assumed that students in Pakistani universities have insufficient IL skills. The assessment of information literacy for students is mandatory before the college stage. IL programs is warranted in Pakistani universities. There are practical implications for many stake holders such as university authorities, the Higher Education Commission, the Department of Libraries, LIS researchers, LIS schools, and other associations.

Information literacy knowledge and skills

Lwehabura (2018) showed that information literacy exists among students. Students demonstrated strong deficiency in information literacy knowledge and skills. They also lack basic aspects such as searching for information from electronic sources, application, and various web sites of information search techniques such as Boolean operators, truncation, synonyms and concept maps. Based on the findings, mandatory information literacy courses required for both postgraduate and undergraduate students to ensure independent learning effectively among students.

Methodology

This part of the study explains the methodology that used in the study. The survey is the data collection tool for this study. An online self-designed questionnaire will be used to meet the objectives of the study. One objective of the study is to investigate the role of the information literacy courses at Kuwait University to assess students' information literacy skills. This study also assess first year students at KU who graduated from high school to stop on weaknesses points and skills in information literacy.

Population and sample

The population of the study faculty members at college of social sciences, department of information studies. The sampling technique used is a simple random sample (SRS) of 17 information studies faculty members. This sample is expected to represent the whole population. Online survey sent to all faculty members by email after getting their emails from the department affairs. The sample has both male and female faculty members.

Data collection instrument

A survey is used for data collection. The questionnaire is online copy that sent to faculty members. This type of survey is called a Web-based survey. This survey consists of six sections and the cover letter. The cover letter includes basic information for the researcher as the name of the researcher, objective of the study, time limit and others. It has guidelines that help participants to know and answer the questions.

Participants should be aware that their contribution is very important to the success of the study, and that the questionnaire should only take 5 or 8 minutes. Grateful thank should be sent to participants to support their participant. In addition, the cover letter may have a contact number and the email of the researcher, name of the researcher and contributor, and a signature.

Data Collection

Participants will be contacted through e-mail messages. A link to a copy of the cover letter and survey is sent to each participant by e-mail. The deadline to answer the survey is within one week after sending the survey for the participants. After the week, a reminder email is sent to follow up the participant's response.

Results

The total number of responses were 17. All results analyzed in statistical way to show percentage.

The demographic information of faculty members who participate in the survey is presented in table (1).

Table (1) demographic information

Information	Dimension	%
Gender	Female	52.9%
	Male	47.1%
Years of work experience	1-5	37.5%
	6-10	12.5%
	More than 10	50%
	0	11.8%

Times of teaching 131 course	1-5	35.3%
	6-10	23.5%
	11-15	-
	More than 15	29.4%

Table (1) shows that most faculty members who participated in the study are female and (52.9%) are male. Teaching 131 foundation course for information literacy is a need in KU. Table (1) shows the majority (35.3%) have taught 131 foundation course for information literacy 1-5 times. Respondents who have taught 131 course more than 15 times are (29.4%). On the other hand, No one has taught 131 course from 11-15 times. About (11.8%) have not taught 131 course yet. Some respondents (23.5%) have taught 131 course 6-10 times. Respondents are varied in their years of work experience. Some respondents (37.5%) have 1-5 years of experience. Other respondents (12.5%) have 6-10 years of experience. The majority (50%) have more than 15 years of experience.

Table (2) Students' Information Literacy level during the course

Statements	1	2	3	4	5
Students lack knowledge about searching information online	5.9%	17.6%	17.6%	23.5%	35.3%
Students need foundation course to improve their Information Literacy skills	5.9%	17.6%	17.6%	15%	47.1%
Students can improve their skills individually and no need for Information Literacy courses	41.2%	29.4%	17.6%	5.9%	5.9%

The statements show students' Information Literacy level during the course. The first statement is students lack knowledge about searching information online. The majority (35.3%) strongly agree to this statement. (23.5%) of faculty members agree to that. The same percentage (17.6%) disagree and neutral. The less percentage (5.9%) strongly disagree.

The second statement is students need foundation course to improve their Information Literacy skills. The majority of faculty members (47.1%) strongly agree that students need foundation course to improve their Information Literacy skills, while (5.9%) were strongly disagree. As shown in table 2, the last statement is students can improve their skills individually and no need for Information Literacy courses. Most of the respondents (41.2%) strongly disagree that students can improve their skills individually. Few faculty members (5.9%) strongly agree. (29.4%) of faculty members agree this statement. (17%) were neutral and (5.9%) disagree this statement. (See table 2 for more details).

Table (3) the following information literacy goals are met in the 131 course

Statements	1	2	3	4	5
Introduce fundamental information literacy skills	5.9%	17.6%	23.5%	29.4%	23.5%
Improve students' abilities to use online resources and databases	5.9%	5.9%	17.6%	41.2%	29.4%
Introduce the basic information resources for students at college of social sciences	-	23.5%	17.6%	23.5%	35.3%
Introduce knowledge organization techniques	-	35.3%	47.1%	17.6%	-
Presenting searching skills techniques for students and use databases	-	17.6%	23.5%	41.2%	17.6%
Train students to save & retrieve information from varied information resources.	5.9%	-	11.8%	64.7%	17.6%

Table (3) show the information literacy goals that are met in 131 course. The majority of faculty members (29.4%) agree to introduce fundamental information literacy skills. Otherwise, four faculty members (23.5%) strongly agree and the same number were neutral. Only one faculty member (5.7%) strongly disagree. Three faculty members (17.6%) did not agree to introduce fundamental information literacy skills.

In the second statement 'Improve students' abilities to use online resources and databases', only one faculty member (5.9%) disagree that. Three faculty members (17.6%) were neutral. The majority of them 7 faculty members (41.2%) agree. And 5 of them (29.2%) strongly agree.

The third statement is 'Introduce the basic information resources for students at college of social sciences'. No one strongly disagreed this statement. 4 faculty members (23.5%) disagree while three (17.6%) faculty members were neutral. 4 faculty members agree to introduce the basic information resources for students at college of social sciences. The majority (35.6%) strongly agree.

The fourth statement is introduce knowledge organization techniques. No one strongly agree or strongly disagree. The majority (47.1%) were neutral. 6 faculty members (35.3%) disagree. Only 3 (17.6%) agree.

The other statement is presenting searching skills techniques for students and use databases. The majority (41.2%) agree to that. The equal percentage (17.6%) strongly agree and disagree to this statement. Only 4 faculty members (23.5%) were neutral for that.

The last statement is train students to save and retrieve information from varied information resources. Only one faculty member strongly disagree. The majority (64.7%) agree that the goal of 131 course is to train students to save and retrieve information from varied information resources.

Table (4) The Need for Information literacy Courses

Statements	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that offering Information Literacy course, such as 131, is useful for all new	-	5.9%	11.8%	47.1%	35.3%

undergraduates at Kuwait University in the college of Social Sciences.					
I believe that Information Literacy course, such as 131, should be a required course for all new undergraduates at Kuwait University and in all colleges.	11.8%	5.9%	-	5.9%	70.6%

Table (4) show the Need for Information literacy Courses. It shows the opinions of faculty members in these statements. Most faculty members (47.1%) agree to Information Literacy course, such as 131, is useful for all new undergraduates at Kuwait University in the college of Social Sciences. The less percentage (5.9%) disagree that.

3 faculty members were neutral while (35.3%) strongly agree.

The other statement is Information Literacy course, such as 131, should be a required course for all new undergraduates at Kuwait University and in all colleges. The majority (70.6%) strongly believe to this statement. On the other hand, 3 faculty members (11.8%) strongly disagree. The same number (1) faculty member (5.9%) disagree and agree. No one was neutral.

The last section was open question. Faculty members were asked if they would like to add something. Only two faculty members out of 17 added to answer this question. The first one's comment was 'we need new book' and the other comment was 'offering foundation courses at all colleges at KU.

Discussion

The results show different statements about students' Information Literacy level during the course, information literacy goals are met in the 131 course, and Need for Information literacy Courses. Based on students' Information Literacy level during the course, in the first statement that is lack knowledge about searching information online. The majority (35.3%) strongly agree that students who come from high school to join the college lack knowledge and searching information online. The following percentage (23.5) agree to this statement. While, only (5.9%) strongly disagree that students lack knowledge and searching online. (17%) were neutral and disagree that students lack knowledge and searching online.

The other statement that follow students' Information Literacy level during the course is students need foundation course to improve their Information Literacy skills. The majority of faculty members (47.1%) strongly agree that students need foundation course to improve their Information Literacy skills, while (5.9%) were strongly disagree. Otherwise, the equal percentage (17.6%) disagree and were neutral, and only (15%) agree to that. This mean that students do need foundation course to improve information literacy skills. The final statement in table (2) is students can improve their skills individually and no need for Information Literacy courses. Most of the faculty members (41.2%) strongly disagree that students can improve their skills individually. Only one faculty member (5.9%) strongly agree to it. (29.4%) of faculty members agree this statement. That means students cannot improve their skills individually and they need foundation course to improve their skills.

Results also discussed information literacy goals that are met in 131 course. Six goals were mentioned in the survey for faculty members. The first goal was introduce fundamental information literacy skills. The majority of faculty members (29.4%) agree to introduce fundamental information literacy skills. Otherwise, (23.5%) strongly agree and (23.5%) were neutral. (5.7%) strongly disagree.

Three faculty members (17.6%) did not agree to introduce fundamental information literacy skills.

In the second statement 'Improve students' abilities to use online resources and databases', only one faculty member (5.9%) disagree that. Three faculty members (17.6%) were neutral. The majority of them 7 faculty members (41.2%) agree. And 5 of them (29.2%) strongly agree.

The third statement is 'Introduce the basic information resources for students at college of social sciences'. No one strongly disagreed this statement. 4 faculty members (23.5%) disagree while three (17.6%) faculty members were neutral. 4 faculty members agree to introduce the basic information resources for students at college of social sciences. The majority (35.6%) strongly agree. The other goal is introducing knowledge organization techniques. The majority (47.1%) were neutral. (35.3%) disagree. Only (17.6%) agree to that, this mean introducing knowledge organization techniques is important goal for 131 course. the other goal for

information literacy foundation course is presenting searching skills techniques for students and use databases. The majority (41.2%) agree that 131 course present searching skills techniques for students and use databases, this finding was also supported by Anderson & May (2010) who believe that a broader approach to IL should be incorporated to students' skills and abilities.

(17.6%) strongly agree and the equal percentage disagree. Only (23.5%) were neutral for that. This means that 131 course should present searching techniques to enable students search databases to locate information. Other goal for teaching 131 course is to train students to save and retrieve information from varied information resources. (5.9%) strongly disagree, while the majority (64.7%) agree that the goal of 131 course is to train students to save and retrieve information from varied information resources.

The results also show the need for Information literacy courses. It shows faculty members beliefs of the need of information literacy course. Most faculty members (47.1%) believe that Information Literacy course is useful for all new undergraduates at Kuwait University in the college of Social Sciences. Some studies support this result, for instance, Anderson & May (2010) found incoming freshman's IL skills collaborate IL development into the curriculum.

Only (5.9%) do not believe that Information Literacy course is useful for all new undergraduates at Kuwait University in the college of Social Sciences. (35.3%) strongly believe that this information literacy course is useful, this result was confirmed by Chen & Chengalur-Smith (2015) who insisted on influencing undergraduates' use of a university resources using information literacy (IL) components as an intervention.

Results also show the responses of faculty members to Information Literacy course, such as 131, should be a required course for all new undergraduates at Kuwait University and in all colleges. The majority (70.6%) strongly believe to that. On the other hand, (11.8%) strongly disagree. (5.9%) disagree and agree together.

Results also show Faculty members additions. The first comment was 'we need new book' and the other comment was 'offering foundation courses at all

colleges at KU. These comments help to improve the information literacy courses at KU.

Gross & Latham (2009) results show that students' aspects of information behavior help them to be successful and mainly focus on their ability and skills they have as learners. The students of this study were not asked about the instruments and techniques such as library, Internet, and computer skills. On the other hand the focus was upon successful information seeking need to assess the ability to find the information, not the process used to get there.

Gross & Latham (2009) enhance and support the results of this study. It provided preliminary data of information held by mainly high achieving students who have information literacy skills. Information is a need for all students, particularly who do not have information literacy background. It suggested Instructional courses of information literacy. The goal of information literacy course is to help students attain information literacy by providing interventions.

Conclusion

This study focused on information literacy assessment for students at KU. It indicates the need to develop the foundation course of IL for freshmen. Information literacy skills of students cannot be developed individually so there must be tendency to teach information literacy courses for all colleges at KU. It is possible that students' experiences of information help them to search online resources and get information. Information literacy can shared by students and faculty members. Students who do not have information literacy skills need special information literacy instructional needs. The assessment process of students' information literacy is substantial to both faculty members and students to stop on weak points and improve them.

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Conclusion

From the previous review of literature and studies that show the role of information literacy courses and standards in developing information literacy skills for students in academic life.

The studies mentioned in this review focused information literacy aspects and assessment. Information literacy help students to improve the ability to find information and do projects using online and printed collections. It also develop skills of searching databases. Most studies were similar in findings that most colleges and universities use information literacy courses to help students. Some studies focused on the assessing information literacy so the college need to increase awareness of students in information literacy.

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Appendix

Information Literacy Assessment of Kuwait University Students

By

Dana Mubarak AlAzemi

The goal of this study is to assess the level of Kuwait University students by their information literacy professors at the Department of Information Studies in Kuwait university. Please complete the following survey. Your participation is most appreciated. Thank you.

Section A:**1. Gender** Female Male**2. Years of work experience** 1-5 6-10 11-15

Above 15

3. How many times have you taught "Information Skills and Scientific Research course (131 course)?" 0 (Please skip section B) 1-5 6-10 11-15 more than 15**Section B:****Indicate agreement level to statements on a scale of 1 to 5****(1 showing strong disagreement and five strong agreement)****1- Students' Information Literacy level during the course**

1	Students lack knowledge about searching information online	1	2	3	4	5
2	Students need foundation course to improve their Information Literacy skills	1	2	3	4	5
3	Students can improve their skills individually and no need for Information Literacy courses	1	2	3	4	5

**2. The following information literacy goals are meet in the 131 course
(1 showing strong disagreement and five strong agreement)**

1	Introduce fundamental information literacy skills	1	2	3	4	5
2	Improve students' abilities to use online resources and databases	1	2	3	4	5
3	Introduce the basic information resources for students at college of social sciences	1	2	3	4	5
4	Introduce knowledge organization techniques	1	2	3	4	5
5	Presenting searching skills techniques for students and use databases	1	2	3	4	5
6	Train students to save & retrieve information from varied information resources.	1	2	3	4	5

3. The Need for Information literacy Courses

(1 showing strong disagreement and five strong agreement)

1	I believe that offering Information Literacy course, such as 131, is useful for all new undergraduates at Kuwait University in the college of Social Sciences.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I believe that Information Literacy course, such as 131, should be a required course for all new undergraduates at Kuwait University and in all colleges.	1	2	3	4	5

2- Is there anything you would like to add?

No

If yes, please write your comments below:

Recent Changes in Academic Environment and Work Motivation of University Teachers

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ABSTRACT

The Paper focuses on contemporary university teachers' attitudes towards their work with particular attention to the issues of motivation and ways to overcome professional fatigue of experienced teachers. The author argues that, unlike compassion fatigue syndrome or teacher burnout, professional fatigue that usually results from excessive workloads may also be brought about by lack of creative energy caused by other reasons. Using socio-cultural approach to the stated issues and results of the survey offered to academics at Moscow State University, the paper gives an overview of the processes in today's academia that affect teachers' motivation and therefore performance. It attempts to identify motivational factors that not only remain relevant even in the situation of overwork but help to cope with it facilitating the sometimes necessary acceptance of heavier workloads.

Some of these factors seem to have been ignored by researchers, probably because on the one hand they may be regarded as parts of the well-known theoretical classifications such as by Maslow and Herzberg and, on the other, they are not, for a number of reasons, exactly popular with professional managers both in industry and academia. In search of such seemingly ignored factors, it may be useful to turn to literary images of high cognition value, in this case images created by the Russian (Soviet) author Oleg Kuvaev in his book "The Territory"(1973). Having drawn some parallels between the ideas expressed in the book and the findings of both management theory and recommendations by practicing managers, the Paper highlights some of the unrevealed, forgotten or deliberately ignored factors that determine work motivation of university teachers.

Keywords: university teachers, motivation factors, teaching and research outcomes.

Introduction

People who make decisions in the system of higher education have been increasingly enthusiastic about adopting quantitative criteria of assessment of teachers' performance. Together with the spread of digital methods in all areas of academic life this causes serious changes in the nature of the work since the process of interaction between professor and

student is becoming less personalized. While the youngest teachers probably find the new environment natural and easily acceptable, those professors whose ideas of academia are at odds with some of the changes may feel profoundly dissatisfied.

The Paper is based on the assumption that the majority of contemporary university teachers joined the profession because they valued the interpersonal character of the process, the meeting of minds when the knowledgeable and mature foster and encourage the intellectual development of their younger fellow humans, never ceasing to learn themselves, and thus create the learning environment based on curiosity and motivation which allows its members to share and discuss their findings. For some of these professors the excessive imposition of quantitative and digital approaches may become a source of inconvenience, anxiety and frustration. These approaches are often considered useful and even preferable because they allow teachers to work with larger audiences saving the money that would have to be spent on their remuneration. In many countries, e.g. India, one teacher of English often has to teach audiences consisting of 150 students, but there are serious doubts about the superior character of such practices.

It is theoretically possible to encourage older generation (40+) to agree to the trendier methods even when such methods are less effective (for example, accepting essays in the electronic form and giving feedback online when it is possible to talk in class) or leave the profession; this will probably solve the problem of dissatisfied teachers in several years. For Russia, however, it will hardly be the optimum solution, given the ridiculously low pay that most university teachers have, not to speak about the overall quality of teaching, which is sure to deteriorate very fast in the absence of continuity. It is therefore necessary to think which kind of changes will really benefit the system and which are likely to be detrimental, how teachers feel about them and which steps may be advisable in order to retain what is best now and to welcome genuine improvements for the future.

The Paper is written using the constructivist method, or, more specifically, ideational approach, and is based on the data gathered by the author, theoretical literature in the area of research and the text of the book “The Territory” by Oleg Kuvaev. The principle of contextualization also matters, as it is essential to be aware of the position of the scientist in the real world. Twenty two academics (associate professors, assistant professors and senior teachers) were asked to complete a questionnaire that consisted of two parts: one focusing on professional fatigue, the other devoted to what can be called “higher purpose” of their work. Answering the question “Are you motivated in your work by a certain “higher purpose”?”, they gave 21 positive answer and only one negative. Only for 9 of them, however, this higher purpose was a significant source of energy and a means against the feeling of fatigue. The representational value of the questionnaire is expected to increase as the quality of the questionnaire will be improved and the number of interviews growing.

1. Current trends in administering education.

European universities have adopted various systems of scores and ranking, which in many cases aim to ensure passable quality of teaching and learning outcomes in the “new” universities, be it former polytechnics-turned-universities in Britain, “second-track” *unis* in the US or higher education institutions of the new member-states of the European Union and other countries called “emerging” or “transition” in the very recent past. “Old” European, American and Canadian universities did not at first seriously applied the scoring systems to themselves, submitting the required reports but carrying on as they

chose. Yet, the pressure to use formalized quantitative approaches to assessment of both students' and teachers' work did not cease.

Ratings have become daily routine, even though there are places where one still does not need to take them too seriously. Like any other instrument, they can be useful when applied sensibly; the question is where and when they can be harmful. One can often hear from practising teachers that quantitative methods of grading and assessment undermine the motivation of many Russian teachers to teach and students to study. For some years it seemed to concern mostly teaching languages, history and other humanities. Now it turns out that lecturers and their assistants who teach economic disciplines have also started to worry about undesirable effects of such methods, so far mostly in relation to students' outcomes.

The fundamental reason for the introduction of standardized scoring is the dramatic increase in the number of students, the movement of previously excluded young people into the system of higher education. The first wave of this flood occurred after the World War II when higher education became accessible first for ex-soldiers and then for practically everyone willing enough to study (Lazerson, 1998). In Russia, the second wave started in the 1990-es after the collapse of the socialist state and return of private ownership. Suddenly there appeared a huge market for higher education degrees; private "universities" and "academies" were mushrooming all over the country. The freedom continued for almost twenty years and then educational bureaucracy launched its great devastating march against more or less *every thing that hath breath* (*King James Bible, Psalm 150:6*) at all stages of learning including kindergartens. The objective need for quality and order cannot be denied, but the regulatory zeal, with which officials of different ranks descended on the people who did the actual teaching and also directly organized the process, has been most unhealthy, giving rise to the thoughts about personal hatred that those whom N.N.Taleb (2017) calls "empty suits" tend to feel toward people doing the real work.

It is difficult to swim against the tide and probably not necessary as long as it is possible to use the benefits of the system and sabotage its absurd components. What is to be done, however, is to tell the former from the latter. Using grades to assess students' work has been common practice for over two centuries. The Soviet scale of 1-5 is still used in Russian universities, but some of them have supplemented it with complicated grades totaling 100 and 150 and even 200, which is very convenient in some situations but utterly superfluous in others. It may be useful and probably indispensable only when students have to be competitive as their financial position and career prospects depend on their grades, which is not the case in most Russian universities. Attempts to cultivate this kind of competitiveness should not be encouraged because, as will be shown in this Paper, it runs contrary to the national culture and may be harmful for the mental state of students and outcomes of their learning.

Making students assess their teachers seems even worse, not because teachers won't enjoy it: in many cases they will and even if they do not, it can be a good incentive to improve. It seems worse because it undermines the relationship "professor-student". When students give marks to their teachers on the same 1 to 5 scale, there may occur a certain upsetting of the things: students may have a feeling of being in a way equal or even superior to their teachers, questioning everything the teachers give them.

Scoring and ranking are elements of the so called Learning or Academic Analytics, which is effectively the collection and statistical analysis of all kinds of data related to teaching and learning. Numerous authors with profound interest in the subject and enough enthusiasm to publish papers claim that the noble cause to be attained through using this complex data analysis is to improve teaching quality and study conditions. (Arnold, Barneveld, & Campbell, 2012; Campbell, Olinger, 2007). Only the anonymous authors of the text at *learninganalytics.net* used the now honest word “optimization”(ten years ago it was a euphemism for cost cutting but no longer: today everyone understands what it means). In the perception of many teachers and professors who have to report on their work using sophisticated software, improvement is not to be expected (Grove, 2012). Huge amounts of data may help, for example, traders or doctors, but how important they are for academic activities remains unclear.

Like all instruments, digital tools are useful in some cases and harmful in others. On the whole, however, the system of mining for learning and teaching data together with permanent ranking seems to be a serious demotivating factor. Out of 22 teachers working for the foreign languages department at the Faculty of Economics, Lomonosov Moscow State University, 21 say that feedback from students is certainly good and useful; however, it should not assume the same form as the marks given to students for completing an assignment, doing a task or writing an essay. Why the administration who imposed the system on the faculty chooses not to hear the teachers’ opinion is anyone’s guess, but it neatly fits in the overall tendency of increasing the power of administration, the process probably inescapable given the growing size of the organization, which, as Henry Mintzberg (1980) pointed out, may become more bureaucratic as it grows and, moreover, bureaucracies themselves also have a habit to grow larger.

Forcing teachers to submit information about their working activities in complicated electronic tables is time consuming and very far from soul-elevating. Teachers do not believe that it can in any way improve the quality of their work; the only effect that may be considered useful is the possibility of registering every element of academic activity separately. This helps the system calculate individual ratings of every academic and is expected to result in differentiated payment based on formal criteria. The downside is that it seems to be sapping the spirit and damping motivation, rather than creating effective stimuli. This is especially true for those whose workloads are already excessively heavy. What is worse, all this may change the style of academia and lead to deterioration of the atmosphere of free research, teaching and learning.

Out of 22 respondents, when asked about their attitude to the described activity without offering them a choice of descriptions 9 answered using Russian word “uzhass” that can be translated as “horrible”, “most unpleasant” (3), “no problem or normal”(2), “easy”(1). It is interesting that the teachers who found it *easy* or *no problem* are the least productive in terms of research papers, which was possible to find out: thanks to the unified information system at Moscow State University (another controversial digital arrangement), one can obtain information about academic activities of any professor, lecturer or, as in this case, language teacher.

Although these new practices do not enhance job satisfaction, most academics prefer to go on working. Yet, the sheer nature of their work, that consists in communicating with students and passing on knowledge and values, requires creativity and inspiration. So the question is how to neutralize the deleterious influence of the methods of assessing and reporting which are totally alien to the Russian academic traditions and practices. Hence

the principal aim of the Paper: to identify the features that determine work motivation of the Russian university teachers and may help find the ways leading to more productive and satisfying professional activity.

2. Optimum academic environment

University is expected to provide the environment for creative mastering and development of knowledge by both students and their teachers (various skills and what is now called competencies are regarded here as part of knowledge). Even though in the previous sentence students come first, it is the teachers for whom the quality of the environment is subjectively more important. Russian students who have been severely tried by the secondary school and preparation for their exams are totally capable of enduring a few years even of uncreative and not very exciting acquisition of knowledge, making do without any development of this knowledge, i.e. genuine research. For teachers and researchers, however, this is sometimes the question of professional life and death; if the corresponding function of the environment fails and the inner resources for some reason are lacking, some people will change the job while others will drudge on – joylessly and ineffectively. While students are well aware that they have their whole lives ahead, for adults opportunities are much narrower.

Intellectual creative work that results in scientific discoveries and innovation requires special conditions. According to the seminal research into the sociology of science, i.e. Randall Collins's book "The Sociology of Philosophies"(1998), productive scientific thinking is only possible when organizationally united intellectuals involve themselves in scientific discussions, which in turn leads to the development of "interactive rituals" that provide platforms for exchanging "cultural capital" and generating emotional energy necessary for further creative work. For Collins, this category includes many types of communication between teachers and students and between researchers and their followers or disciples. Probably even more important are contacts between colleagues, like-minded or opposing, at a conference, for example, when the exchange occurs in both directions on more equal terms giving a lot of emotional energy and enthusiasm.

It may sound obvious but this self-evidence is deceitful. In today's academy, formal performance indicators are becoming more and more significant making actual teaching and research rather less relevant, at least for teachers of Humanities. Another consequence is that opportunities for proper exchange of cultural capital are getting noticeably limited: fifteen years ago it did not matter much where one publishes one's papers or what conferences one takes part in as long as papers are published and conferences attended, but today it is vital to go places giving those much sought-after scores while the function of knowledge and cultural capital exchange is often almost forgotten.

Yet another deleterious effect is that many of the local conferences that used to be most fruitful because they were attended by people who were keen on research work are now full of academics, the quality of whose teaching activities is not in any way determined by the "research" they are doing; they attend and make presentations only because they need the scores. The resulting communication may fail to generate any enthusiasm altogether.

However, since we proclaim the importance of creating new knowledge, aspire to creative achievements and expect them from our students, it is essential to build or restore the environment conducive to such achievements, or at least able to offset the adverse effects of the latest trends in the administration of academic work. Before making any suggestions, a closer look should be given to the cultural background of people working in the Russian

higher education and research. The national character of people living in Russia has been the subject of research for decades if not centuries, which produced, among other things, stereotypes of different kinds. This Paper's objective is to reveal some very important features in the Russian attitude to work using the results of the survey made at the Faculty of Economics, Lomonosov Moscow State University, and the images from the book "Territory" by Oleg Kuvaev.

3 The territory of creative duty

3.1 Chukotka. Geologists.

The reason for choosing "The Territory" as a source of relevant information lies in the cognitive value of artistic images. In the early XX century, Russian artists, like a graduate of the said university the painter Vassily Kandinsky, the "Chairman of the Globe" poet Velimir Khlebnikov and some of their fellow-artists believed that art was a way of cognition of the world and that very soon they would get to know it in full, make some groundbreaking discoveries and revolutions. The atmosphere of the early socialist upheaval contributed to the feeling. That was certainly naïve, as revolutions, technical, social or even cognitive, are not usually made by artists or poets. They were, however, right in the main thing: art, literature in particular, is indeed a way of cognition.

Oleg Kuvaev's (Kuvaev, 1973) book is very special. Not only because its language is so good that to be able to read it, it is probably worth learning Russian. Not only because it verbalizes and explains thoughts and feelings of our fathers and grandfathers thus helping establish, restore or strengthen continuity. The book is outstanding in that it is a kind of encyclopedia of what has been driving the researchers involved in both scientific, intellectual activity and basic menial, often routine and always very hard work. The main characters of the book are geologists and engineers. They are well educated and need to be creative and resourceful. They asks themselves questions about their work and give answers that are still relevant for people who are well-educated, work hard and need to be resourceful and creative, albeit without having to survive in tundra, endure cold, sometimes hunger or lack of comforts and facilities. Another parallel, meaningful for us, is the combination of creative activities on the one hand and technical, routine and administrative drudgery on the other.

In the very few English-language reviews, one of which is published at Antipode website, the books' characters are called prospectors, but this translation does not seem very successful. The author never uses the Russian words "старатели"(staratjeli) or "золотодобытчики"(zolotodobytchiki) given by dictionaries as equivalents of "prospector"; he writes about geologists, engineers or workers.

The education they received was unique, it could not have been gained anywhere other than in the Russian geology institutes of the last pre-war and two post-war decades, when many of their teachers were not the newly-baked "red" professors but graduates of the Emperor's Russian universities and their followers. In addition to scientific and professional knowledge, young geologists educated in the 1950-s and 60-s were expected to be able to write their reports in excellent Russian, which many of them had done successfully and never lost the skill afterwards, becoming writers, teachers, journalists and poets. The combination of outstanding education and hard labour in extreme conditions produced great results, as evidenced by the dozens of names that one gets from the search engine after typing in the words "geologists-authors of books" (in Russian).

If one reads the book “The Territory” aiming to find out what was driving the characters, what motivated them to work as they did, one will get a whole list of factors. To what extent they are universal remains to be seen. The only criterion so far is the number of reprints, which has been 30 in Russia since 1995, two of them in a run of 1,5 million. It was published in German translation seven times, which probably shows that the Germans did not find its images and ideas too alien.

The characters of the book have a very special attitude to their job. They think that their life, which mostly consists in work, is the only right life on earth, that geology is the only decent profession on earth, and that work, not only their work but any work, has higher meaning not measured by rank or money. The hypothesis is that what was true for some of the Russian people of the not very distant previous generations may still be true, maybe in a diluted form, for our contemporaries. Items on the list are quotations from the book, as exact as translation allows. The features important for understanding what motivated those people can be grouped under five headings:

- 1) Belief in profession: “this is the only right life on earth”, “geology is the only decent profession on earth”, “the holy feeling of much-needed work”;
- 2) Pride and ambition: “pride did not allow him to work badly”, not excessively nice to their superiors, they prefer to be reserved, “safeguarding their dignity”, the younger ones “wish to have their names on maps and in legends”;
- 3) Communication abilities: impersonal orders are less effective than personal requests of respected superiors; it must be possible to speak in a straightforward manner to any big boss and the boss’s reaction must be adequate; everyone’s religion must be: don’t be cheap, don’t be sly (crafty), work; people doing actual exploration disapprove of the office politics in higher echelons of management; they feel it is right to be consulted when strategic decisions are taken;
- 4) Higher purpose: “Not in pursuit of wealth..., not even in pursuit of duty since the genuine duty is not in verbal formulae, but it is built into the core of one’s personality; not for the glory, but for the unknown and mysterious, which is the ultimate aim of one’s individual life.”; the major task is to “generate ideas, squaring them with the coercive power of reality.” “There is evil in the world. Objective evil is in nature and its elements; subjective evil comes from imperfection of our minds. Therefore, the general aim of all people and every individual is to eliminate evil... I come to the conclusion that in times of peace work is the elimination of general evil. This is work’s higher meaning, which is not measured by rank or money.” They have the in-built category of duty as a moral imperative, “trumpet-like geese cry, disquieting like duty and clear like the mission of life”;
- 5) Existential ideas: many of them see work as “the foundation of their being”; money does matter, but it is not top priority; work is contrasted with consumption of material goods, one is expected to “resist the hypnosis of consumerism”; major objective of work is ‘elimination of general evil’; in their view tradition has both strengths and weaknesses, which means that they look at it impartially;

The resulting description is, in fact, quite a full motivational profile of a Soviet geologist of 1950-1970, the period which, as it turns out, roughly coincides with the “Glorious Thirty” years of the European economic development.

3.2 University. Faculty.

University teachers, without insisting on the superior character of their occupation, are quite close to those geologists in that either rank or money do not measure the success and meaning of their work, the latter being more than just getting students receive passable grades. This paper claims that today's teachers of many Russian universities do not principally differ from the people described in the book. At the present stage of research, this is an assumption based on a survey of a limited sample of university professors and 30 years of personal teaching experience. Further research will probably allow the author to collect more conclusive evidence to support this idea, but the results of the second part of the survey, which contains questions about what we call "sverh-zadacha" in Russian, and "higher purpose" or even "super-purpose" in English, seem to be indeed promising. Out of 22 academics teaching at the Faculty of Economics, Lomonosov Mosow State University, 19 admitted feeling that their work had higher meaning and purpose ticking off the relevant answer. It is interesting that even the teachers who gave the negative answer to the question about the existence of higher purpose as a work motive, chose to answer the questions intended for those who admitted having certain objectives beyond the immediate teaching results or opportunity of self-realization.

The questionnaire was originally designed to find out how university professors coped with what we call professional fatigue (not to be confused with emotional burnout), by which we mean the feeling of general tiredness or lack of energy, and what, in their opinion, were its major causes. The respondents were almost unanimous in pointing to work overloads as the main reason (20 out of 22). Almost half of them (10 out of 22) said that the awareness of their professional duty concerning the higher purpose helped them overcome the feeling of fatigue.

3.3 Business. Human resources.

It is easy to notice that most of the items extracted from the book neatly correspond to the recommendations one finds in publications on management, including the so called talent or intellectual work management.

Any text on personnel management, be it an academic paper, internet blog by an HR specialist or exercise from Business English manual, will tell you that employers expect their staff to believe in the organization's mission¹; they allegedly want them to be reliable ambitious high achievers whose communication abilities are considered indispensable in most occupations, with the exception of those where Asperger syndrome may be an advantage, like the profession of a stock analyst. Willingness to learn is required without exceptions.

One should remember, however, that employees are not only shop-floor workers or, for example, junior analysts. Managers at all levels are also in most cases employees. It is their job to create proper conditions for good performance and this includes "the sense of purpose", which means that people feel that they are contributing to the "greater good of society" (Kohll, 2018). Hence recommendations to managers, according to which they should "show recognition, express gratitude, let employees know how their job impacts the company and its clients, frequently discuss the meaning and value of the company, and ditch tunnel vision and focus on the bigger picture (Kohll, A. 2018). Mercer consultancy

1 The so called "mission statements" were immensely popular a quarter of a century ago.

expert Joost Houtman is urging business leaders to cultivate the sense of wider organizational purpose as a useful tool that helps improve performance as it “connects with the heart as well as the head”(Houtman, 2017).

Conclusion

What seems to be difficult for employees in business, who are more used to focusing on the bottom line, apparently comes naturally to teachers in academia. The big question is whether university administrators really want it to be like that and not only verbally. Although many of them had started out as teachers and researchers, it often proved impossible to combine the functions, which is dangerous as it may lead to a loss of touch with reality. The current trend of digitization will probably serve as an acid test. The fact is that when a software helps design more effective and interesting tasks, it is certainly embraced by teachers and the overall harmony is likely to prevail. But when it is mostly “academic analytics” with obscure aims, often making one remember classic dystopias by Zamyatin, Huxley and Wachowsky, the response may be very different.

Education is one of the most conservative spheres of life, which is natural, as sensible adults do not permit experiments on their children, welcoming evolutionary improvement instead. Moreover, overzealous progressing may harm inter-generational relationships and damage continuity. Russia is among the countries which have experienced fast social change and many of its people are well aware of the sad consequences of reforms alien to its culture.

The results of the survey are consistent with the findings obtained from the analysis of the literary images, which, in turn, can be considered archetypal for the attitude to work in the Russian culture.

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Embedding information literacy into undergraduate curriculum: An information problem solving approach for pre-service teachers

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ABSTRACT

Information literacy refers to identify information needs, locate, evaluate and use information effectively. It is a core generic skills and life-long learning skills at university but there is little care in undergraduate curriculum. Past research studies showed that faculty academics believed students could develop their information literacy spontaneously but undergraduate students had trouble in handling information and solving information problem. This research study designed a 5-weeks information literacy mini course under a module called Information Technology for Teaching, which is a module under Bachelor of Education program. The course provides a series of learning experiences organized by faculty staff, it includes four major areas: (1) Define the problem; (2) Search and select information; (3) Evaluate and process information; (4) Use and present information. Students required to solve a specific information problem at the end of the information literacy course.

The purpose of this research is to investigate the effectiveness of the information literacy course. This study used a mixed-method approach with multiple instruments including survey, multiple-choice quiz and the analysis of information tasks. All instruments were developed by the researcher and validated by a group of expert. Results showed that they have significant improvement on managing and locating information but they have limited skills in synthesizing information. Such results and the design of this information literacy course may help faculty staff in designing appropriate course in undergraduate curriculum.

Keywords: Information Literacy, Information problem solving, curriculum design, Life-long learning, undergraduate studies.

Learners' Subjective Difficulty Ratings for English Nouns Toward a System for Practicing English Speaking

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ABSTRACT

As a preliminary study for developing a system for practicing English speaking, we used an educational vocabulary list in order to investigate which language items were difficult to handle so as to identify specific, problematic words. This was achieved by conducting a self-reflective feedback questionnaire on the difficulty levels of 120 English nouns by surveying 107 Japanese university students across three classes. The results suggest that: (1) the words in Rank 2001–3000 and higher should be targeted for the practice of speaking English; (2) many students evaluated 23 words as being difficult, and 19 of these should be practiced by all students. The 4 remaining words, meanwhile, should be selected depending on the class; (3) as a rough indication, words with standard deviation scores of 1.5 or higher should be selected depending on the individual student. Using the 1.5 score as an indicator, 20 words offer some response variance in terms of the difficulty rating, while 2 words from this group should be selected depending on the individual students in the three classes. Furthermore, 5 of these 20 words should be used in two classes, while 13 of the words should be used in one class; (4) the subjective difficulty rating can work as part of a larger information system in order to successfully practice English speaking. In particular, it could contribute toward supporting learners' individual weak points. This kind of subjective difficulty rating could play a role in selecting the words used to pose questions within the system, according to individual learner. However, given the limitations of the data, we will continue to investigate further by targeting more students and other aspects of speech in English.

Keywords: Subjective Evaluation, Speaking, Language Use, English Vocabulary, Language Learning System.

1. Introduction

In response to globalization, MEXT (Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) has promoted the English Education Reform Plan (2014) in

order to improve Japanese students' level of English, especially oral English proficiency. However, research has indicated that English language learners from Confucian Heritage Cultures, such as China, Korea, and Japan, are more anxious language learners compared to other ethnic groups (Woodrow, 2006). The results of our previous study (Kashiwagi et al., 2018) showed that Japanese students do not feel they are good at listening/speaking in English. It is assumed, therefore, that many Japanese students tend to feel anxious when they speak English, which is exacerbated by the fact that they also lack opportunities to speak English.

Consequently, a practice environment in which students can develop their English-speaking skills is needed. When students speak English, it can be difficult to express their intentions in the moment, even when they know the correct words and phrases. In order to smoothly come up with the appropriate English terms, it is important to focus on language use based on the knowledge they have already acquired. When we focus on language use, we therefore need to observe which language items are difficult to handle, and to identify specific words and phrases that pose challenges. Also, by preparing language activities that involve real or imaginary situations in which the learners may use the language, we may help learners to familiarize themselves with the target words and phrases.

We propose developing a system for practicing English speaking (Kashiwagi et al., 2019). By developing probable linguistic situations that require the use of target words and phrases, this system attempts to support learners by providing information on the extent to which learners can attempt to use these words and phrases.

As a preliminary study regarding the system mentioned above, we conducted a questionnaire on the subjective difficulty levels of English nouns in order to investigate the following research questions:

- (1) Which level of words should be targeted for the practice of speaking English?
- (2) Which words do many students evaluate as being difficult?
- (3) Which words have some response variance in the difficulty ratings given by the students?
- (4) Could developing a subjective difficulty rating for English words aid the learners' use of the words in order to further develop the system?

We conducted this study on Japanese university students using a vocabulary list named "The New JACET List of 8000 Basic Words" (2016) (hereinafter called "the New JACET8000").

2. Methods

2.1 Participants

This study's participants consisted of 107 first-year students spread across three English language classes at a university in Japan (i.e., 41 in an Agriculture class, 31 in an Economics class and 35 in an Engineering class). The number of students, and their respective majors, are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Number and major field of participants

Class	Grade	Major Field	Number of Students
A	1 st year	Agriculture	41
B	1 st year	Economics	31
C	1 st year	Engineering	35

2.2 Data collection and analysis

A self-reflective feedback sheet was administered in order to gather responses from students regarding their difficulty ratings for the words listed in Table 2. First, in the warm-up activities, they orally translated these words from Japanese into English. They were then asked to rate the difficulty of the given words. The difficulty values were scored using a five-point Likert Scale (i.e., 1 point for Easy, 2 points for Relatively Easy, 3 points for Neutral, 4 points for Relatively Difficult, and 5 points for Difficult).

The words were chosen from “the New JACET8000.” This educational vocabulary list is intended for Japanese university students who have studied English at junior and senior high school and study it at university in Japan. The list features 8000 words, which were selected by taking account of what the students have studied so far and what they will need for their future English studies (Mochizuki et al., 2016: 73–74). Using these parameters, the list was adjusted to include words used in junior and senior high school English textbooks, public high school and university entrance examinations, standardized English tests such as TOEIC, TOEFL, and STEP, English newspapers, and introductory academic books (Mochizuki et al., 2016: 75).

We believe that the list is in line with the actual English learning situation of Japanese university students. We, therefore, chose the words from this list.

In this study, 24 English nouns were respectively chosen from the following five ranks: Rank 1–1000, Rank 1001–2000, Rank 2001–3000, Rank 3001–4000, and Rank 4001–5000 (120 words in total). In terms of the higher ranks, words from Rank 5001–6000,

Rank 6001–7000, and Rank 7001–8000 were not included because they would be too difficult to be orally translated into English for first-year students.

Table 2 The words used in the self-reflective feedback questionnaire

Rank	Words (Figures between brackets indicate the ranking in the vocabulary list)
Rank 1–1000 (24 words)	floor (434), arm (476), museum (542), effort (555), plant (621), purpose (650), forest (671), farm (705), hill (706), crowd (739), plastic (762), hole (784), visitor (815), grass (821), tear (827), bread (839), meal (863), stair (881), prize (898), entrance (937), dish (961), neighbor (970), courage (972), toy (996)
Rank 1001–2000 (24 words)	fever (1018), decision (1068), result (1071), price (1081), blood (1089), safety (1124), direction (1130), bottom (1150), brain (1161), bowl (1192), leaf (1230), roof (1248), tool (1259), stomach (1263), seed (1314), cousin (1334), habit (1340), shell (1343), insect (1383), carrot (1410), crane (1436), carpenter (1437), knee (1854), ceiling (1917)
Rank 2001–3000 (24 words)	onion (2031), crop (2034), blanket (2054), invention (2117), refrigerator (2130), dentist (2149), analysis (2194), contract (2202), failure (2214), conflict (2230), proposal (2260), delivery (2274), greenhouse (2325), vote (2364), donation (2464), corn (2598), butterfly (2646), election (2655), prison (2664), muscle (2715), investment (2799), throat (2866), ambulance (2904), mosquito (2945)
Rank 3001–4000 (24 words)	mud (3131), questionnaire (3153), appliance (3214), cheek (3260), salmon (3263), jaw (3275), cliff (3283), laundry (3289), waterfall (3306), sweat (3360), envelope (3362), feather (3423), spider (3433), divorce (3496), rubber (3550), injection (3572), undergraduate (3716), aquarium (3768), needle (3819), fog (3837), lung (3843), sunflower (3920), abuse (3933), headquarters (3946)
Rank 4001–5000 (24 words)	elbow (4001), lightning (4007), sleeve (4021), calculation (4043), rumor (4071), astronomy (4072), willow (4107), pedestrian (4119), nap (4125), bully (4126), soybean (4150), canal (4197), basement (4224), hydrogen (4286), applicant (4340), hemisphere (4341), pesticide (4419), cultivation (4436), theft (4636), subsidy (4796), lawsuit (4810), vinegar (4854), velocity (4952), triangle (4958)

3. Results and Discussion

We calculated the average values of the difficulty ratings for the respective words in order to investigate the results of the whole conditions across the three classes. Figure 1 and Figure 2 show the average ratings of the words in Rank 1001–2000 and Rank 2001–3000 across the three classes.

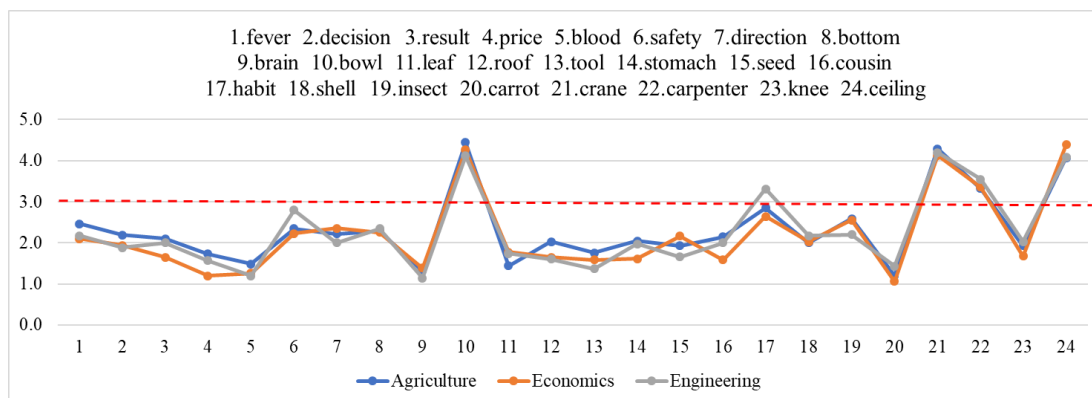


Figure 1 Average ratings of the words in Rank 1001–2000

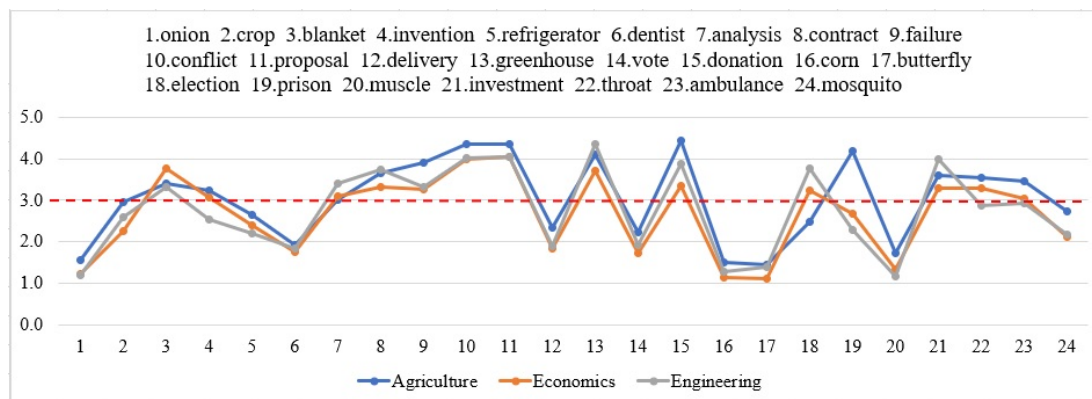


Figure 2 Average ratings of the words in Rank 2001–3000

From these results, it appears that the average values of the difficulty ratings across the three classes are similar. The same conditions are also found in the other ranks.

3.1 RQ1: Which level of words should be targeted for the practice of speaking English?

We analyzed the difficulty ratings of the respective ranks in order to investigate which rank of words we should target for English speaking practice. Figure 3 shows the difficulty ratings of Rank 1–1000 and Rank 4001–5000 in the Agriculture class, while Figure 4 shows the difficulty ratings of Rank 1001–2000 and Rank 2001–3000 for the

same class.

In terms of the results presented in Figure 3, the students regard the words from Rank 4001–5000 as being more difficult than those in Rank 1–1000. When we observe the difficulty ratings of the five ranks, the ratings tend to increase roughly in line with the increase in the rank. In particular, as shown in Figure 4, there seems to be marked increase in the difficulty values assigned between Rank 1001–2000 and Rank 2001–3000. Similar conditions were also found in the other classes, based on the results of Figure 1 and Figure 2.

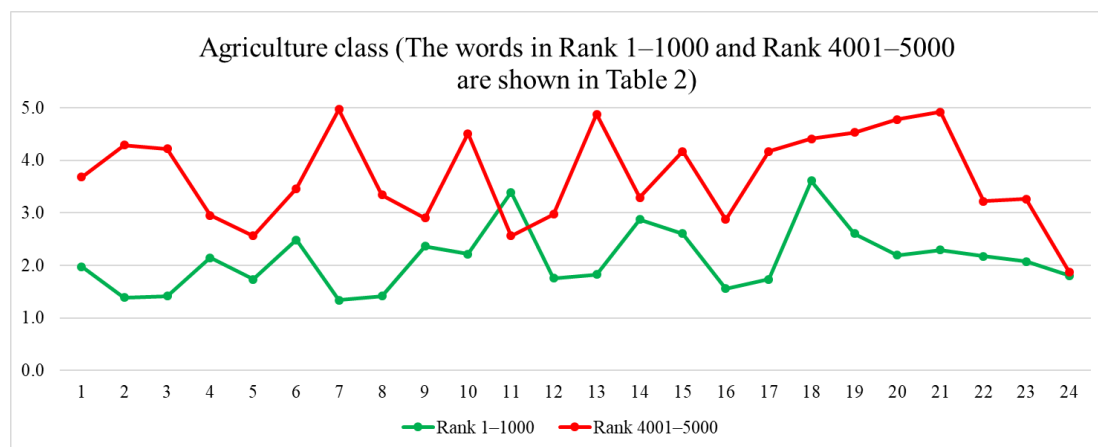


Figure 3 The difficulty ratings of Rank 1–1000 and Rank 4001–5000 in the Agriculture class

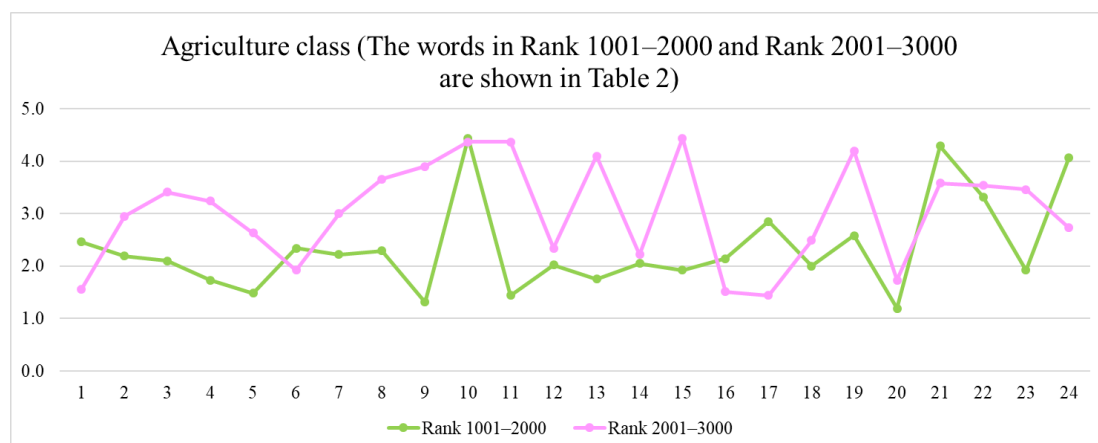


Figure 4 The difficulty ratings of Rank 1001–2000 and Rank 2001–3000 in the Agriculture class

We then calculated the percentage of the number of words of which the average difficulty ratings were higher than three within the respective ranks. According to Table

3, the percentages in Rank 1001–2000 are 16.7% for the Agriculture class, 16.7% for the Economics class, and 20.8% for the Engineering class. Meanwhile, the percentages in Rank 2001–3000 are 54.2% for the Agriculture class, 54.2% for the Economics class, and 41.7% for the Engineering class. Using these results, we found that the percentages of the number of words in Rank 2001–3000 and above are higher than those in Rank 1–1000 and Rank 1001–2000. Therefore, it seems to be difficult for them to orally translate the words in Rank 2001–3000 and above into English.

In “the New JACET8000,” the first 2000 words (or 2188 words to be precise) were selected as the most important 2000 words. These were called “the Basic 2000” so that Japanese English learners might be able to study them before they enter university (Mochizuki et al., 2016: 88–90). The results above are in line with the rankings indicated by “the New JACET8000.” Therefore, it may be that many of the students in this study regard the words from Rank 1–1000 and Rank 1001–2000 as not being particularly difficult.

Table 3 The percentage of the number of words of which the average difficulty ratings are higher than three

Rank	Agriculture	Economics	Engineering
Rank 1–1000	8.3%	4.2%	8.3%
Rank 1001–2000	16.7%	16.7%	20.8%
Rank 2001–3000	54.2%	54.2%	41.7%
Rank 3001–4000	66.7%	54.2%	62.5%
Rank 4001–5000	70.8%	75%	66.7%

Based on these results, it is suggested that the words from Rank 2001–3000 and higher should be targeted for the practice of speaking English. Regarding the words in Rank 1–1000 and Rank 1001–2000, words with difficulty ratings higher than three from these ranks should also be included in the practice of speaking English.

3.2 RQ2: Which words do many students evaluate as being difficult?

Following the suggestion in the previous section that the words from Rank 2001–3000 and higher should be targeted for the practice of speaking English, we investigated which words many students evaluated as being difficult from among these ranks. We will assess the words which more than 80% of the students in each respective class evaluated in Table 4 as being either “difficult” or “relatively difficult.” We will also analyze whether there is any difference among the difficulty ratings of the words from Rank 2001–3000 and higher across the three classes by using the Kruskal-Wallis test.

The words with * in Table 4 represent those with statistical significance at the 0.05 level.

On the left side of Table 4 are the words that more than 80% of the students evaluated as being “difficult” or “relatively difficult” across the three classes, or for which there were no significant differences across the three classes when analyzing at the criteria of 80%. On the right side are the words that more than 80% of the students evaluated as being “difficult” or “relatively difficult” in at least one class, or for which there were significant differences across the three classes.

We suggest that the words on the left side of Table 4 should be practiced by all students, while those on the right side should be selected depending on the class.

Table 4 The words which more than 80% of the students in respective classes evaluated as being difficult

	The words that should be practiced by all students			The words that should be selected depending on the class		
	Agriculture	Economics	Engineering	Agriculture	Economics	Engineering
Rank 2001–3000	conflict, proposal greenhouse			donation*		
				prison*		
Rank 3001–4000	appliance, injection, undergraduate, headquarters, laundry, waterfall, jaw			questionnaire*		questionnaire*
Rank 4001–5000	sleeve, willow, bully, basement, cultivation, theft, subsidy, lawsuit, applicant			lightning*		

* p<.05

The following figures, presented between brackets, indicate the total percentage of students in the respective classes who evaluated the words as either “difficult” or “relatively difficult.” In the brackets, “Agric.” represents the Agriculture class, “Econ.” represents the Economics class, and “Eng.” represents the Engineering class.

When we look at the words in Rank 2001–3000, for “conflict (Agric.=83%, Econ.=81%, Eng.=74%),” more than 80% of the students in both the Agriculture class and the Economics class evaluated the word as either “difficult” or “relatively difficult.” In terms of “proposal (Agric.=83%, Econ.=74%, Eng.=74%)” and “greenhouse (Agric.=78%, Econ.=68%, Eng.=83%),” more than 80% of the students in both the Agriculture class and the Engineering class respectively evaluated the words as being “difficult” or “relatively difficult.” For these words, there are no significant differences

regarding the difficulty ratings across the three classes. Based on these results, it is suggested that “conflict,” “proposal,” and “greenhouse” should be practiced by all students.

Meanwhile, regarding the words “donation (Agric.=88%, Econ.=55%, Eng.=71%)” and “prison (Agric.=85%, Econ.=39%, Eng.=29%),” there are significant differences between the difficulty ratings across the three classes. From these results, it is suggested that the question of whether “donation” and “prison” should be selected as target words depends on the individual classes.

When we look at the words in Rank 3001–4000, in the case of the words “appliance (Agric.=95%, Econ.=94%, Eng.=94%),” “injection (Agric.=80%, Econ.=87%, Eng.=86%),” “undergraduate (Agric.=100%, Econ.=97%, Eng.=94%),” and “headquarters (Agric.=98%, Econ.=97%, Eng.=94%),” these are words that more than 80% of the students evaluated as being “difficult” or “relatively difficult” across the three classes. Based on these results, it is suggested that these four words should be practiced by all students. In the case of “laundry (Agric.=78%, Econ.=84%, Eng.=83%),” more than 80% of the students in both the Economics class and the Engineering class evaluated this word as being “difficult” or “relatively difficult.” For “waterfall (Agric.=88%, Econ.=68%, Eng.=83%),” more than 80% of the students in both the Agriculture class and the Engineering class evaluated this word as being either “difficult” or “relatively difficult.” For these words, there are no significant differences regarding the difficulty ratings across the three classes. Based on these results, it is suggested that “laundry” and “waterfall” should also be practiced by all students. For the word “jaw (Agric.=98%, Econ.=81%, Eng.=77%),” there are significant differences in the difficulty ratings across the three classes. However, when we look at these figures at the criteria of 80%, there are no significant differences between the Economics class (81%) and the Engineering class (77%) based on the results of the Wilcoxon rank sum test. From these results, it would be better to suggest that “jaw” should be practiced by all students.

Meanwhile, regarding the word “questionnaire (Agric.=85%, Econ.=58%, Eng.=86%),” there are significant differences between the difficulty ratings across the three classes. From these results, it is suggested that “questionnaire” should be selected as a target word depending on the individual class.

When we look at the words in Rank 4001–5000, the words “sleeve (Agric.=80%, Econ.=84%, Eng.=100%),” “willow (Agric.=100%, Econ.=100%, Eng.=97%),” “bully

(Agric.=85%, Econ.=100%, Eng.=86%),” “basement (Agric.=98%, Econ.=97%, Eng.=97%),” “cultivation (Agric.=85%, Econ.=81%, Eng.=100%),” “theft (Agric.=90%, Econ.=84%, Eng.=86%),” “subsidy (Agric.=98%, Econ.=97%, Eng.=97%),” and “lawsuit (Agric.=100%, Econ.=90%, Eng.=97%),” are ones which more than 80% of the students evaluated as either “difficult” or “relatively difficult” across the three classes. Based on these results, it is suggested that these eight words should be practiced by all students. Concerning the word “applicant (Agric.=76%, Econ.=77%, Eng.=83%),” more than 80% of the students in the Engineering class evaluated this word as being “difficult” or “relatively difficult.” For this word, there are no significant differences regarding the difficulty ratings across the three classes. Based on these results, it would be better to suggest that “applicant” should be practiced by all students.

Meanwhile, in the case of the word “lightning (Agric.=80%, Econ.=68%, Eng.=49%),” there are significant differences regarding the difficulty ratings across the three classes. From these results, it is suggested that “lightning” should be selected as a target word depending on the individual class.

3.3 RQ3: Which words have some response variance in the difficulty ratings given by the students?

We investigated which words have some response variance regarding the difficulty ratings given by the students. In order to do so, we calculated the standard deviation scores of the difficulty ratings on the respective words in order to provide a rough indication.

Based on the results of the calculation, the standard deviation scores of 1.5 or higher were not found among any of the words in Rank 1–1000. While there was only one word over 1.5 in Rank 1001–2000, there were several words for which the standard deviation scores were 1.5 or higher in Rank 2001–3000 and above. Here we used the standard deviation score of 1.5 as an indicator in order to observe response variance in the difficulty ratings. We suggest that the words for which the standard deviation scores were 1.5 or higher should be selected depending on the individual student.

In Table 5, the words for which the standard deviation scores were 1.5 or higher in Rank 2001–3000, Rank 3001–4000, and Rank 4001–5000 are highlighted in orange. For example, the standard deviation scores of “questionnaire” in Rank 3001–4000 are 0.91 (Agric.), 1.56 (Econ.), and 1.10 (Eng.). When we look at the standard deviation scores at the indicator of 1.5, the score for the Economics class (1.56) indicates that some

students evaluated the word as difficult, while others evaluated it as easy.

When we look at the results of the scores for Rank 2001–3000 in Table 5, the scores for “throat” and “ambulance” are more than 1.5 in each of the three classes. It is suggested, therefore, that “throat” and “ambulance” should be selected depending on the individual student across the three classes. It is also suggested that the word “crop” should be selected depending on the individual student in the Agriculture class (1.55). Similar suggestions can be made regarding the word “blanket” in the Engineering class (1.53) and “refrigerator” in the Agriculture class (1.53).

Table 5 The words for which the standard deviation scores are 1.5 or higher

Rank	Words	Agriculture	Economics	Engineering
Rank 2001–3000	crop	1.55	1.22	1.44
	blanket	1.34	1.01	1.53
	refrigerator	1.53	1.13	1.28
	throat	1.56	1.57	1.57
	ambulance	1.58	1.64	1.66
Rank 3001–4000	mud	1.46	1.56	1.59
	questionnaire	0.91	1.56	1.10
	envelope	1.55	1.34	1.38
	feather	1.68	1.52	1.39
	aquarium	1.58	1.43	1.45
	needle	1.30	1.46	1.55
	lung	1.32	1.32	1.52
	sunflower	1.50	1.65	1.54
abuse	1.65	1.50	1.09	
Rank 4001–5000	lightning	1.06	1.56	1.59
	astronomy	1.31	1.50	1.16
	pedestrian	1.63	1.24	1.44
	nap	1.48	1.41	1.68
	hemisphere	1.56	1.29	1.46
	vinegar	1.55	1.09	1.60

Concerning the words for Rank 3001–4000, the scores of “mud,” “feather,” and “sunflower” are more than 1.5 in two of the classes. From these results, it is suggested that “mud” and “sunflower” should be selected depending on the individual student in both the Economics class (“mud” 1.56, “sunflower” 1.65) and the Engineering class (“mud” 1.59, “sunflower” 1.54), while “feather” should be selected depending on the

individual student in both the Agriculture class (1.68) and the Economics class (1.52). In terms of the words “questionnaire,” “envelope,” “aquarium,” “needle,” “lung,” and “abuse,” the scores are more than 1.5 in one class. Based on these results, it is suggested that “envelope” (1.55), “aquarium” (1.58), and “abuse” (1.65) should be selected depending on the individual student in the Agriculture class. Similar suggestions can be made regarding the word “questionnaire” (1.56) in the Economics class, and both “needle” (1.55) and “lung” (1.52) in the Engineering class.

Regarding the words in Rank 4001–5000, the scores for “lightning” and “vinegar” are more than 1.5 in two of the classes. From these results, it is suggested that “lightning” should be selected depending on the individual student in both the Economics class (1.56) and the Engineering class (1.59), while “vinegar” should be selected depending on the individual student in both the Agriculture class (1.55) and the Engineering class (1.60). Concerning the words “astronomy,” “pedestrian,” “nap,” and “hemisphere,” the scores are more than 1.5 in one class. Based on these results, it is suggested that “pedestrian” (1.63) and “hemisphere” (1.56) should be selected depending on the individual student in the Agriculture class. Similar suggestions can be made regarding the word “astronomy” in the Economics class (1.50), and “nap” in the Engineering class (1.68).

3.4 RQ4: Could developing a subjective difficulty rating for English words aid the learners’ use of the words in order to further develop the system?

In this study, a subjective difficulty rating for English words was introduced, with difficulty values scored using a five-point Likert Scale. Although it was not an objective vocabulary test, we were able to observe how the students felt regarding the difficulty levels of using these words based on the results of the self-reflective feedback. This kind of subjective difficulty rating could serve as a useful guide, as well as the results of vocabulary tests when we observe the learners’ use of the words. It could work as one aspect of a system for practicing English speaking. In particular, we suggest that there are words which should be selected depending on the individual student. It is anticipated that developing such a system could contribute toward supporting learners’ individual weak points. This kind of subjective difficulty rating could play a role in selecting the words used to pose questions within the system, according to individual learners.

4. Conclusion

As a preliminary study for developing a system for practicing English speaking, we investigated which language items were difficult to handle and identified specific

problematic words by using an educational vocabulary list named “the New JACET8000.” We conducted a self-reflective feedback questionnaire on the difficulty levels of 120 English nouns by surveying 107 Japanese university students across three classes (i.e., 41 in an Agriculture class, 31 in an Economics class and 35 in an Engineering class).

The results suggest that: (1) the words from Rank 2001–3000 and higher should be targeted for the practice of speaking English. Regarding the words in Rank 1–1000 and Rank 1001–2000, words with difficulty ratings higher than three should be included in the practice of speaking English; (2) many students evaluated 23 words as being difficult, and 19 of these words should be practiced by all students. The remaining 4 words should be selected depending on the individual class; (3) for a rough indication, the words of which the standard deviation scores are 1.5 or higher should be selected depending on the individual student. Using the indicator of 1.5, 20 words have some response variance regarding their difficulty rating, while 2 of these words should be selected depending on the individual student across the three classes. Furthermore, 5 of these words should be used in two classes, while 13 of the words should be used in one class; (4) the subjective difficulty rating, as well as the results of vocabulary tests, could offer useful information for observing the learners’ use of the words and work as one aspect of a larger system for practicing English speaking.

These suggestions could help contribute to preparing information regarding the difficulty levels of the questions provided by our system. In particular, it is anticipated that developing such a system could help to support learners’ individual weak points. This kind of subjective difficulty rating could also play a role when we select the words to use in questions posed within the system, according to the individual learner. However, a limitation of the current study should also be mentioned. This study was conducted across only three classes, resulting in a small group of students. In addition, only 120 English nouns were investigated using the feedback questionnaire. As a continuous study, we need to target more students and other aspects of speech in English in order to investigate these issues further.

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To Enhance the Self-Directed Learning Capability of Undergraduate Students through Self-Assessment and Reflection

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ABSTRACT

For any country to stay competitive in this modern ever-changing world, it is important that the higher education system can produce graduates who are lifelong learners with self-directed learning capability. In this research, undergraduate students in Hong Kong were asked to self-assess and reflect on their own learning after lectures and tutorials. The purpose is to see whether this self-assessment practice which supports reflection can promote quality self-directed learning processes in students, enhance their self-directedness in learning, and improve attainment. The pre-test post-test between groups research design utilising both quantitative and qualitative data were used in this study. Students who were taking statistics courses were invited to participate in this study, and they were assigned into a control group or an experimental group. The experimental group would engage in self-assessment with lecturers' guidance at the end of each statistics lesson. The students in the group were asked to reflect on what they had learned in class using reflective journals or think boards. It was found that there was a positive effect on students' learning behaviours, self-knowledge, motivation as well as meta-cognition. Statistical tests showed that there was a significant difference in the improvement of attainment between the two groups. Also, the samples of student reflective journals and think boards were analysed using content analysis to better understand the nature of the reflective learning that had taken place. The samples provided useful clues for lecturers to diagnose students' learning difficulties and misunderstandings. This could help lecturers improve their pedagogies and refine the self-assessment tools in future lessons. It is hoped that this study will provide useful references to the use of a pedagogy which can produce graduates, who are self-directed lifelong learners, to cope with new challenges of this fast-changing globalised world.

Keywords: self-directed learning, self-assessment, reflection

Teacher and Pedagogy Literacy: Teaching for Social Justice and Agency

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ABSTRACT

The rate of exposure to technology nowadays, to a certain extent undermines our ability to think and engage with situations that require us to reach a certain continuum of critical thinking, independent thinking and intellect. The main reason behind this tragedy is mundanity that technology has brought to our lives. While it is one of the best inventions under the sun, it still however fritters away creativity and the power of thinking and independency. Teachers and learners alike are not immune to such polarisation and alienation. This paper is informed by my Doctoral proposed study, where I will be investigating the changing role and identity of teachers in South Africa's schools in the era where immigration seems to be hitting the globe by storm. It is within this paper's interest to investigate possible sustainable interventions that can be applied in the classroom to empower learners during the process of encouraging self-directed independent and autonomous learning. As a teacher myself, it is my belief that immigrant children are in a desperate need to be led along the path of being independent learners first and foremost. Immigrant children who are victims of civil strife in their home countries, and other minority groups, may benefit broadly from such an approach to teaching, and it could be one way for teachers to practice social justice.

Keywords: Autonomy, Social Justice, immigrants, pedagogy and technology

Introduction

Teaching for social justice in diverse classrooms, particularly with minority group students, calls for teacher awareness, towards the need to cater for the needs of such students, which I have termed, pedagogy literacy. Cultural diversity is not the only variable present in such contexts, that warrants for teacher pedagogy literacy, but there are other factors such as the need for such students to have autonomy and own their learning processes, to the extent that they are able to think critically with or without the use of technology. Teaching for social justice, is one of those areas in education that are not easily defined, because of complexities that surround it, even for societies that have been trying to address it for decades, like the United States of America. (Picower, 2011).

The subject of teaching for social justice, remains a difficult terrain to traverse and interpret. Countries such as North Korea, classroom practice may be envisioned even in a more difficult way. This appears to be like this, because according to literature on multicultural education in Korea, social, policy, and theoretical issues involved in a multicultural society (Han, 2007; Moon, 2011), problems and challenges that educators face (Kim, 2003), implications of multicultural education for citizenship (Moon, 2010), are some of the focal issues. Even though, these issues are important, but the classroom seems to need even more attention, because it deals with a human mind and emotions. Therefore, for most teachers, the question of practice remains abstract.

Drawing from my working Doctoral Study, entitled: “Education and Immigration: Changing Teacher Roles and Identities in Schools That Have Enrolled Immigrant Learners, in South Africa.” Through this article, I wish to briefly discuss hallmarks of teaching for social justice in diverse classrooms, particularly, with immigrant children, where, they can be empowered to become autonomous during the learning process, considering that nowadays, there seems to be high reliance of technology, which has a potential of rendering learning mundane, and creating a culture of dependency. However, I argue that, this can change if teachers become deliberate in their teaching approach, by intentionally planning lessons and pedagogy that is supportive of diversity and equity, and where young people learn to directly confront issues related to power and discrimination. From this perspective, the article will scaffold both the philosophical and intellectual approaches to teaching. A theory of Critical Pedagogy, will be briefly discussed to enlighten us of the role teachers have to empower for transformation both students and society, as well as the theory of Pedagogy of Hope (Freire, 1996), where he argues that there is a need for teachers to develop passion, commitment and persistence, which is anchored in practice. He argues that hope as an ontological need, simultaneously exists with a meaningful pedagogy.

The article will also borrow from Wehmeyer’s Functional Theory of self-determination, where autonomy is defined as the degree to which a person, acts according to their own preferences, interests, and abilities, and free from unnecessary external influence or interference. The theory continues to describe another concept, Self-realisation and Psychological Empowerment. Self-realisation is described as having a good understanding of your strengths and support needs, and psychological empowerment is defined as a belief in the relationship between your actions and the outcomes you experience (Wehmeyer, 2003). Therefore, subsequently, it will discuss teacher pedagogy literacy, social justice and agency from the perspective of these theories, Freirean Critical Pedagogy and Pedagogy of Hope Theories, pedagogy for peacebuilding, teacher professional identity and technology pedagogy and social justice.

Autonomy, Self-Realization, and Psychological Empowerment Driven Pedagogy

The approach of Self-determination has significantly drawn attention from researchers in the field of disability and has been identified as a central outcome of special education supports and services and as a determinant factor of success post-secondary education (Shogren, *et al.* 2016). It is for this reason, that, I choose to reference this study, particularly, because, as mentioned before, I shall draw from my working Doctoral Study, which seeks to investigate the changing role and identity of teachers in schools that have enrolled immigrant children. Immigrants generally seem to lack somewhat a sense of autonomy in host countries, particularly in preserving their language and identity, which is somehow similar to a form of disability. Language becomes a tool for liberatory autonomy for immigrants with the potential to empower them to be critical thinkers in new societies according to (Allwright & Hanks, 2009). Hence, it is of utmost importance that teachers become cognisance of the need to empower immigrant children or any other minority group to the level that they apply education to meaningful post school usage. According to (Wehmeyer, 2006, p. 17) self-determined behavior is defined as "volitional actions that enable one to act as the primary causal agent in one’s life and to maintain or improve one’s quality of life”. This therefore suggest that autonomy has far reaching rewards, but indeed, it calls for a teacher who is aware of the need to plan lessons that will ultimately transform the way in which individual children envision their future, either in the host country or upon return to the home country.

Research has established that indeed there is a link between self-determination and post-school outcomes (Shogren, Wehmeyer, Palmer, Rifenshark, & Little, 2015; Wehmeyer & Palmer, 2003; Wehmeyer & Schwartz, 1997), and this is inclusive of quality of life as well (Lachapelle *et al.*, 2005), of course for people living with disabilities, but this article believes that, this could be true even for other groups of minorities such as immigrants, therefore, we take a general universal approach.

To justify this belief, Turkey, since the existence of the Ottoman Empire, has enjoyed a rich diversity with a variety of people from different linguistic, ethnic, religious, cultural and educational backgrounds Akinlar, & Dogan, (2017). In the context of Turkey, “Multicultural education” relates to the provision of equal opportunity in education to all the students in a society. According to Banks and Banks (2013a), it encompasses language, class, religion, ethnicity, gender, and “exceptionality” (a term applied to the students with specialized needs or disabilities). If we view minority groups, particularly those who find themselves marginalised, in the same category as people who live with disabilities, it may hasten the need to act.

Teacher Professional Identity, Agency and Social Justice

Numerous studies have investigated the changing patterns of immigration, the growth of multicultural-multilingual societies globally (Tadayon & Khodi, 2017). This thus, calls for a teacher who can critically reflect on his or her own pedagogy. In carrying out daily activities and classroom lessons, teachers draw on their own beliefs and collected knowledge to successfully negotiate the busy ecology of the classroom (Huberman, 1983). This way of thinking is closely tied with professional identity. Even though it is a dynamic and complex concept to describe nor define, but it remains crucial in the making of decisions by teachers regarding their roles in the classroom, particularly informed by the context.

Teacher professional identity is defined as a complex and dynamic equilibrium where professional self-image is balanced with a variety of roles teachers feel that they must play (Volkman & Anderson, 1998). It is, however, worth noting that this line of thinking may not be present for novice teachers, because according to (Ryan,1986), drawing on the work of Fuller and Bown (1975), there are four stages of the teaching profession, and are described as: fantasy; survival; mastery; and impact. The first two are of most importance, because that is where a teacher is symbolically baptized. After these phases, it is expected and assumed that a variety of struggles to survive, including the shock from the environment, students, parents, administrators, fellow teachers, and instruction, are now solved.

The final stage affords a teacher, who is now experienced, to make informed decisions about his/her role in the classroom. This is described as a phase where the teacher is conscious that teaching is a craft in terms of technical rationality (Schon, 1983), which holds that learning to teach means learning what tools to use for each given situation. Berlak & Berlak, (1980) argue that professional identity exists as a complex and dynamic equilibrium where personal self-image is balanced with a variety of social roles teachers feel obliged to play both in the classroom and entire society. Therefore, from a professional identity perspective, pedagogy is not just a mere medium of knowledge transfer, but rather a platform for teachers to contribute in the empowerment and transformation agenda of education.

A Pedagogy for Peace Building and Equity

To determine if indeed there is evidence in the correlation between education and peacebuilding, the Research Consortium on Education and Peacebuilding, which is a co-led research enterprise between the Universities of Amsterdam, Sussex and Ulster, receiving support from UNICEF's Peacebuilding and Education and Advocacy (PBEA) programme, sought to build evidence on the relationship between education and peacebuilding in conflict-affected contexts.

Research was thus carried out in five countries: Myanmar, Pakistan, South Africa, Uganda and Liberia. Literature shows that there is still a gap of knowledge on the specific relations and interactions between education systems, actors and outcomes and broader societal processes of conflict or peacebuilding. Nevertheless, even during such difficult times, the schooling of a nation's younger generation lies close to the hearts of the various population groups, regardless of their socio-economic background, faith system or geographical location; parents desire the best possible education for their children and the possibility of a brighter future. Out of all the key role players in this context, teachers are at the centre of the education agenda. Hence, the consortium began looking at the role of teachers in peacebuilding efforts.

The study describes teacher agency as an integral part to the teachers' role as peacebuilders. The first country to be discussed, is Myanmar. Drawing on the theoretical framework of this study (Maber, 2016), educational grievances that were presented during peace dialogues, by those groups who felt marginalised, were presented in relation to the three dimensions of social justice, issues of redistribution, of recognition and of representation (Maber, 2016). Opportunities for supporting peacebuilding through education, were outlined as a call by the youth for education that supports critical awareness of the historical/present socio-political and economic situation, and to enhance agency in terms of employment, political empowerment and inclusive forms of socio-cultural identity-formation.

It must be however highlighted that in the context of Myanmar, teachers' space for manoeuvre as peacebuilders has been limited and conditioned by a variety of factors, including timetables, assessment models and the rigid curriculum. Regardless of these many constraints, individual teachers have expressed a wide array of motivations, aspirations, experiences and practices despite the many shared influences which constrain teachers' positions, individual teachers themselves express a wide variety of motivations, aspirations, experiences and practices that contradict a unified conceptualisation of their agency.

Traditionally, the teaching profession has been viewed as that of goodwill, interest and self-sacrifice (Lwin 2000; Tin, 2000) hence Myanmar teachers have been held in high esteem within communities, and students are expected to hold a similar level of respect for their teachers as they do for religious leaders and their parents. While this gesture may be kind, however the traditional high status afforded to teachers within the country's already rigid social structures, creates an even more difficult situation in terms of embracing pedagogical changes, that are context relevant and learner-centred, instead of rote-learning and authoritarian pedagogies, that do not benefit students that much, but instead put students in subservient positions. Engaging in dialogue, is key in critical pedagogy, but in Myanmar it is perceived inappropriate if done with somebody who is at the same level with a teacher.

Although a pedagogy driven by teaching for peace in Myanmar has been fraught with challenges, the idea that some teachers are aware of the problems and solutions, is extremely

important because it that is the starting point for them to initiate change. During interviews, this study determined that other teachers viewed other teachers as accomplices and deliberately reproducing the dominant societal and political structures that continue to reinforce the marginalisation of minority groups. This is believed to be the result of their failure to promote critical thinking skills by deviating from the set rigid state curriculum. The current History curriculum is believed to be supporting the perpetuation of violence and a discourse of dominance over minority groups. On a positive note, teachers in both government and ethnic school systems were aware of their role to work within prescribed history curricula whose content was partisan and could generate inter-ethnic animosity. I say this is positive because it is indicative of teachers' awareness of their positions as agents of a prescriptive curriculum that perpetuates societal divisions and ultimately violence. But most significantly, they are contributing to lack of critical thinking among their students. However, while mindful of working within such constraints, teachers also demonstrated faith in the possibilities of the subject to impact positively in future peacebuilding projects. With the recognition of History having the potential to contribute to peacebuilding, some government schoolteachers critiqued the biases of curriculum content, arguing that is undermining the subject's potential to encourage views and attitudes that would amend ethnic discrimination. Such critiques resulted in some teachers acknowledging their mediating role in rendering the content of the subject more acceptable to ethnic minority students.

Technology Pedagogy and Social Justice

While technology can be rendered ineffectiveness both for the teacher and learners, but if used wisely and effectively, it can be an enabling tool for students' learning. Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), practices promoting social justice, and technology integration strategies (ultimately technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge—TPCK) have been determined to be central constructs in providing a solid foundation for describing and examining classroom practices. A study in this regard, was conducted in a middle school in the United States of America to review evidence of teaching for social justice and impacting the digital divide through the analysis of classroom observations (Banister, & Reinhart, 2011).

The study highlights that in spite of previous studies emphasising that teachers not only need to be masters of their content (subject matter), but must also be masters in how to effectively convey that content to their students, researchers interested in the effects of classroom technologies on teaching and learning have added technology as another entity. TPCK, is described as teacher understanding, not only of subject matter and expertly selected methods of teaching that subject matter to students, but the knowledge of the various digital technologies available to teach the content and how to best select and integrate these technological resources to impact student learning (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

It is against this backdrop that advocates of TPCK believe that such knowledge is not only limited to how to use various software packages, peripheral devices, and Web sites, expanding, but extends to effectively selecting those resources that would most powerfully support the TPCK learning goals of the classroom (Angeli & Valanides, 2009). This thus means that there is a need for additional technological capabilities to be nurtured in teachers. The study also highlights that part of TPCK also includes the ability to understand the technological deficiencies and limitations within a certain teaching scenario, and adjust accordingly (Banister, & Reinhart, 2011).

While teaching for social justice have been criticised by some scholars for its nebulous nature, however, a contingent of teacher educators (Adams, Bell, & Griffin, 1997; Ayers, Hunt, & Quinn, 1998; Darling–Hammond, French, & Garcia–Lopez, 2002; El–Haj, 2003; Michelli & Keiser, 2005; Swain & Edyburn, 2007) agree that indeed there is need for empowering students of marginalized population groups through creating democratic classroom environments where these students are respected and valued for their unique perspectives and intelligences.

Another study, even though its aim was not focused on technology, quantitatively measures the Social Justice Education Project's (SJEP's) influence on the students' commitment to social justice, critical awareness, academic performance, and college preparation. The study presents itself as a unique social science program that emphasises participatory action research (PAR) for Latino high school students in Tucson, Arizona. The researchers and implementers of this project, work with teachers and students to create a curriculum that provides students with social science requirements for their junior and senior years of high school. The process goes further by supplementing the state mandated curriculum with advanced-level readings from Chicano studies, critical race theory, and critical pedagogy. The aim is to help students raise their level of critical consciousness through a curriculum that meets state standards and affords them the opportunity to develop sophisticated critical analyses of their own social contexts. SJEP provides Latino students with content in American history, U.S. government, Chicano studies, critical race theory, and critical pedagogy in an educational program that is socially and culturally relevant for them. This initiative does not only socially and culturally empowers but enables the students to develop skills to conduct participatory action research that intends to influence the people, structures, and processes establishing the socioeconomic conditions for Latino youth in their communities. The study draws from the knowledge that social justice education project renders participatory action research as the primary pedagogical and epistemological framework for learning and acquiring knowledge. In this context, students are the ones conducting researching which extends beyond the family to include neighborhoods, schools, peers, and workplaces.

It is discussed how students in the process explore possible topics, research them, develop data gathering instruments, discuss findings and finally write jointly extended and complex essays. Leaders of the project also note the educational and developmental benefits of engaging students in research: "Chicano students discovered that writing was no longer a futile school exercise designed by teachers for their own purposes, but a meaningful activity and a means for exchanging important ideas." (Camarota, & Romero, 2009 p 56). Students then spend the final part of their second year analysing the poems, notes, photos, and interviews using Chicano studies concepts and critical race theory as their analytical lenses. Their analyses become written reports, presentations, and video documentation. Even though, data generation and analysis does not involve heavy technology, such as computer software, but there is a certain degree of technology application in the process.

Freirean Critical Pedagogy and Pedagogy of Hope Theories

According to research, there is a need for teachers to develop the intellect to use the curriculum to bridge the gaps that exist between society, education and pedagogy (Smith, 2011). Drawing from (Freire, 2004) "Pedagogy of Hope", (Webb, 2010, p334) argues: "Hope needs to be tempered by high levels of Realism." For teachers to develop this kind of character, (Freire, 1996) argues for a serious political awareness, even in the midst of challenges. This means that, in the context of the classroom, teachers should be able to recognise the historical and structural

difficulties which need to be addressed and overcome, through the use of the curriculum. This outlook to education and ways of teaching, could be relevant in a classroom where there are children who belong in minority groups, such a refugee, migrants, people living with disabilities and others. Similarly, (Freire, 2007) argues that educators should realise that their role transcends academic matters, but its social and it takes place within the social practice where they exist.

Such an attempt by teachers, needs a collective effort, by them, teacher educators and policy makers. To realise the role that a teacher is expected to play, for transformation, empowerment and autonomy to occur in the lives of students, it calls for a reconceptualization of teachers' work as a form of intellectual labour (Smith, 2011). This however amounts to encouraging teachers to critically observe the relationship that exists between society, schooling and pedagogy. Literature suggests that for this to be realised, teachers should take an active role in marrying theory and theory testing. Otherwise, decision on the implementation of the curriculum and methods of delivery, will remain with researchers and academics, thus depriving them of the ability and opportunity to develop pedagogy literacy.

It is however important to explain that by suggesting that teachers need to develop levels of intellect, does not by any means translate to cognitive function. Gramsci, (1971) argues on the same point, and says that intellectuality, is the individual's prowess in developing a political and social intellect to engage with and transform dominant theoretical traditions. These traditions exist in our societies and they easy find their way into the classroom, and a teacher who possesses pedagogy literacy, will be able to address them. An intellectual, is defined by Kohl, (1983) as person who knows about his or her field of study, yet at the same time has a wide breath of knowledge about other aspects of the world. An intellectual uses experience to develop theory, and questions theory based on experience.

Drawing from the definition of an intellectual individual, it is necessary to highlight that teachers, as intellectuals, possess the ability to reflect on their practice, however, reflection alone is not enough because it can pose certain limitations. Researchers such as (Giroux, 1983), argue that teachers should be critical in approach. Being critical involves analysis, enquiry and critique. This pedagogical approach is not limited to teachers alone, once a teacher begins to consider applying transformative possibilities that are implicit in the social context of classrooms and schooling, the students will begin to view the world from that similar emancipatory empowering lens, as well.

Conclusion

The article used several studies that have attempted to build evidence that teachers possess agency to empower and transform their students' lives through a planned and deliberate pedagogy. This type of approach to teaching, is believed to go beyond social and political rigid hierarchies that continue to oppress society, particularly those who belong in minority groups. Examples were made of the Latino students in Arizona where both teaching was deliberately designed to transform the Latino community from all aspects, including their economics.

Another example was made of teachers in Myanmar, where even though, there was no immediate planned pedagogy, but the mere fact that the interviewed teachers, displayed levels of awareness about the role they plan in reinforcing divisions, violence and exclusion of minority ethnic groups, through the History curriculum. However, this gives hope that soon,

these teachers will be instrumental in the transformation of Myanmar education system to be inclusive.

In totality, this article believes that the way in which teachers design their pedagogy, determines the trajectory of his or students' lives during schooling years and post school, into adult life. The article went ahead and attempted to use the concept of multicultural education in establishing a relationship between students who have disabilities and those who are marginalised because they belong in minority groups, such as refugees and other immigrants. The results show that indeed, there are similarities between the two groups, in terms of their need to gain autonomy, and if granted autonomy and self-determination during the learning process, they prove to be independent thinkers, at school and post school, into adulthood.

It was also important that the article viewed the topic from a philosophical perspective as well. Therefore, two of Freirean theories were briefly applied in explaining the concept of pedagogy literacy, teacher agency and teaching for social justice. Finally, the discussion focused on how teachers, being aware of their own need to invest in technology, can in turn assist bridge the technology deficiency among students, which may later affect them post-secondary school.

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The development of a digital application to promote parents' involvement in character education at primary schools

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ABSTRACT

This paper documents the preliminary development procedure of a digital application named 'Parents UP' to promote parents' involvement in their children's character education at primary schools in Indonesia. Parents UP was developed as an android-based system interface to enable parents to maintain mutual engagement with the school administrator, teacher and pedagogy team in nurturing and monitoring the good characters of their children. Despite the positive feedback from the school head-teachers, administrators, teachers and parents towards the incorporation of Parents UP technology in their children's character education at school, some critical issues were highlighted during the pilot project, such as the different focus of character education at the participating schools, diversity in parents' and students' economy and social status, as well as the influence of parents' culture and religion to the activity modules in the application. Based on these findings, recommendations are given for the further development of Parents UP.

Keywords: digital application, parents' involvement, character education, primary school education

Exploring Junior High School EFL Teachers' Training Needs of Assessment Literacy

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ABSTRACT

Training of in-service teachers is one of the most critical factors in improving the quality of teaching and assessment in the classroom. EFL teachers need to be literate in language assessment, and this can be achieved through training. This study gathered data from Junior High School EFL teachers (N=147) to identify their training needs in assessment. To this end, 147 junior high school teachers were surveyed and 10 of whom were interviewed. A questionnaire from Fulcher (2012) was adopted for the survey and the collected quantitative data were analysed using Rasch application. The study identified three competencies that teachers expected from assessment literacy training, such as 'ability to select tests for use' (N9, LVI = -0.93), 'ability to develop tests specification' (N4, LVI = -1.20), and 'ability to develop test tasks and items' (N5, LVI = -1.20). More importantly, the result of the study suggest that that teachers need ongoing practical training in a range of topics with different priorities. The findings offered guidance for planning effective teacher training and the design of t modules based on teachers' needs.

The Effects of Common Causality on Career Vision Setting for Undergraduates

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to clarify whether students really know personal career vision after Life Education for a semester. The main subject of Life Education for freshman focuses on assisting their career development for the future. Multi-material were chosen for Life Education, however the causal rules are through the course. As the slang: "Where there is a will, there is a way." An easy principle makes students believe successful future will come true. The study adopted action research method to gather both quality and quantity data. There were two classes participated in and they were majored in engineering college, Yunlin University of Science and Technology. The first class includes 55 students in 2017 spring semester, the second class includes 53 students in 2018 spring semester. The Life Education class have 18-week subjects. Besides presenting in class, also there are activities with related subjects such as farming in the field, recording good deeds for myself or others, and so on. Researcher collected all data as: students' home works, documents, feedback words on the class, photos, Questionnaire etc. After analysing data and repeating reflection, the results as follow: 1) Common Causality(CC) should divide to two concepts: Simplistic Causality(SC), Accumulative Causality(AC). As people know the SC is intuitional, so as these undergraduates. Almost every freshman (91.3%) have willingness to fulfill goodness in order to exchange expectable life. In addition, they(47.8%) desire doing goodness actively on the daily life, the other students(43.5%)want doing goodness sometimes. 2) SC is not a stable belief while they meet frustration in really life, especially, when they complete necessary home work in a few days but the result is unsuccessful. 3) How to setting individual career vision depends on their personality. All of the students have a perfect imagination in the near future, with whom belongs to three styles of character: hedonic, moderate, rational. Unfortunately, only moderate style students(34.1%) have intention to fulfill their dreams step by step. In other words, they believe AC and holding president chance could be the best strategy to make success. Finally, the results will be good suggestions for Life Education course and there is a discussion for future research.

Keywords—Life Education, Common Causality, Simplistic Causality, Accumulative Causality, Career Vision.

Innovational instruction in General Education of University—Take Application of Buddhist Humanity in Shravasti of India as Example

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ABSTRACT

Shravasti was located in Uttar Pradesh of India, 175 kilometers northeast of Lucknow. It was the capital of the ancient Kosala Kingdom during the 6th century BCE to 5th century BCE, was closely associated with the life of Shakyamuni Buddha. Jetavana is located just outside the old city of Shravasti, where Lord Buddha gave the majority of his teachings and discourses, having stayed at Jetavana twenty-five annual retreat, more than in any other monastery. The Gandhakuti was Buddha's dwelling in Jetavana. The space covered by the four bedposts of the Buddha's Gandhakuti in Jetavana is one of the four avijahitathānāni (unchanging spots); all Buddha's possess the same. Faxian, the Chinese Buddhist monk, in the early fifth century visited Jetavana. In the 7th century, the Chinese monks Xuanzang during the Tang Dynasty visited here too. Because Jetavana is abundant in Buddhist thought of humanity, the authors personally visited the holy place two times to develop the exquisite teaching materials and used in the general education curriculum of the university. The students, who took the general education course of the university in central Taiwan, from three classes totally one hundred thirty-one students, fully participated in the learning. After three weeks of six hours of learning, the self-rating scale, and questionnaire were used to collect the response of the students, the result showed that the learners got very good responses.

Keywords: Buddhist Humanity, General Education, Shravasti, Jetavana.

1. Introduction

Shravasti was located in the Devipatan division of Uttar Pradesh near Balrampur, 175 kilometers northeast of Lucknow. Shravasti was the capital of the Kosala Kingdom during 6th century BCE to the 5th century BCE, was closely associated with the life of Shakyamuni Buddha. The Buddha performed the great Miracle and stayed here for

twenty-five rainy seasons. Faxian, an eminent Chinese Buddhist monk who traveled by foot from China to India between 399-412 to acquire Buddhist texts. His journey was described in his important travelogue, *A Record of Buddhist Kingdoms*. It states (Faxian 2019), “As you go out from the city by the south gate, and 1,200 paces west of from it, the elder Sudatta built a vihara, facing the east. When the door was open, on each side of it there was a stone pillar, with the figure of a wheel on the top of the one on the left, and the figure of an ox on the top of the one on the right. On the left and right of the building the ponds of water clear and pure, the thickets of trees always luxuriant, and the numerous flowers of various hues, constituted a lovely scene, the whole forming what is called the Jetavana Vihara.” Xuanzang, an Eminent Chinese Buddhist monk, who traveled seventeen-year overland journey to India in the seventh century, which is recorded in *Great Tang Records on the Western Regions*. It states (Li, R. G. 1996) “Five or six li to the south of the city is Jetavana, the garden of Anāthapiṇḍika, where King Prasenajit’s minister Sudatta constructed a temple for the Buddha. In the old days, it was a monastery but now it lies in ruins. There are two stone pillars over seventy feet high, one at each side of the east gate. On top of the left pillar, a wheel sign is carved, and a figure of a bull is engraved on top of the right pillar. Both pillars were erected by King Asoka.” Buddha gave the majority of his teachings and discourses in here. Therefore, many of the sutras that are circulated today are related to this place. Many Buddhist scriptures, such as the Shorter Sukhativyūha Sutra (Sutra on Amida Buddha) and the Diamond Sutra, mention, “The Buddha is in the Jetavana.” In the story of Buddhism's life, the past world of Shakyamuni Buddha was used as a deer king in this area (still a garden), and it has a relationship with this place. Because Jetavana is abundant in Buddhist thought of humanity, the authors personally visited the holy place two times to develop the exquisite teaching materials and used in the general education curriculum of the university. The author personally in the site report of videos and pictures was used in the class to guild the students for learning.

2. Shravasti and its Buddhist Humanity

Shravasti was the capital of Kosala kingdom in Buddha time. According to Buddhist tradition, this place was known as Savatthi in the sense that “Sabban Atthi”, all things are available (Sāvattthi, 2019). Shravasti was closely associated with the life of Shakyamuni Buddha. Jetavana is located just outside the old city of Shravasti, where Buddha gave the majority of his teachings and discourses Lord Buddha performed the Great Miracle at Shravasti and stayed here twenty-five rainy seasons retreat more than

in any other monastery. Lord Buddha spent the greatest part of his monastic life there. According to Shiraishi(1996), of the seventy-six sutras collected in the Majjhima Nikaya that were delivered in the city of Sravasti, seventy were actually expounded at the Jetavana, whereas of the eight hundred and seventy-one sutras of the four Nikdyas said to have been preached in Sravasti, eight hundred and forty-four were taught at Jetavana monastery. Yoshinori (1988) shows that 21 % of the entries in the Taisho collection were said to have been preached at Jetavana and 22.8% of the entries are related to Sravasti or Jetavana Monastery. Since this was a major site in the life of the Buddha, the events that occurred in Shravasti became the subject of popular legends such as the murder of Sundarika, the slander of Cinca, Devadatta's attempt to poison the Buddha, and the story of Angulimala cease his life as a brigand and joins the Buddhist monastic order, etc.. King Asoka visited the place and erected two pillars on the eastern gates of Jetavana. Hiuen Tsang states that Asoka erected two pillars, each over seventy feet high, on the left and right sides of the eastern gate of Jetavana. On top of the left pillar, a wheel sign is carved, and a figure of a bull is engraved on top of the right pillar (Li, R. G., 1996).

2.1 Miracle of Shravasti

King Prasenajita was confronted with a challenge from six rival religious faith to prove how the Buddha excelled them in miraculous powers. Lord Buddha accepted the challenge on the king's behalf and fixed a place and time for the exhibition. During the miracle, Lord Buddha enters a meditative state and emits fire from the top half of his body versus streams of water from the lower half of his body. Then starts alternating the fire and water between the positions, creating an array of six colors. The fire and water then increase quickly to illuminate the cosmos to the applause of the audience while the Buddha teaches the Dhamma to the observers as he walks along on the jeweled walkway. After the Buddha miracle, it is the rival religious leaders' turn to perform a miracle but they are unable to move. A strong wind knocks down the pavilion they prepared for the tournament and the rival teachers flee, with one committing suicide. The Buddha continues the miracle and proceeds to create a single duplicate of himself and then have the duplicate ask him questions, which he would in turn answer to teach the observing audience (Bauddh, 2008; Prajnananda, 2000). This description suggests to us the omnipresence of Buddha; sculptural representations of the Miracle are profuse in Buddhist art (Pandit, 2015). Hiuen Tsang described a Stupa at Shravasti that was erected at the site of Lord Buddha outwitted his opponents.

Following the miracle, the Buddha is said to have ascended to Tavatimsa Heaven from here for three months to spend his rains-retreat and preach to his deceased mother, then he descended to earth at Sankisa. According to *The Eight Great Efficacious Stupas Spoken by the Buddha*¹, Jetavana is praised as one of the eight efficacious sites because of this was the place where the Buddha showed the miracles. Others are Lumbini, Sarnath, Bodhgaya, Sankisa, Rajgir, Vaisali, and Kusinagar.

2.2 Jetavana and Migāramātupāsāda

A rich merchant of Shravasti named Anathapindika became Lord Buddha's follower when he met the teacher at Rajagriha. Anathapindika invited Lord Buddha and his disciples to Shravasti for the offering. As there was no vihar to receive him, Lord Buddha could not accept the request. Anathapindika returned home and spared no effort to build a grand Vihara of Jetavana in Shravasti to invite Lord Buddha to send the chief disciple Sariputta to go with Anathapindika to survey the location, and they found that the only suitable site was the park of Prince Jeta, son of Prasenajit. However, the prince said in jest, "I will sell my garden for as many pieces of gold as it takes to completely cover the ground!" On hearing this, Anathapindika was exhilarated and took gold coins from his treasury to pave the ground of the garden, as Prince Jeta had suggested. When only a small portion of the land remained uncovered, the prince begged to retain it for himself, saying, "The Buddha is really like a plot of good land and I too should sow good seeds in it." He built a temple on the remaining portion of the ground. Lord Buddha went there and said to Ananda, "As the ground of the garden has been purchased by Anathapindika and the trees have been given by Prince Jeta, this place should be called Anathapindika's arama of Jetavana-Vihara." (Bauddh, 2008; Prajnananda, 2000, Jetavana, 2019)

To the east of Jetavana was situated the monastery known as Migāramātupāsāda (or Purvarama) erected by Buddha's eminent female lay disciple, Visaka (also known as Migaramata), the Buddha's chief female lay disciple. Lord Buddha spent six out of twenty-five rainy seasons retreat in Shravasti at Migāramātupāsāda. During the last twenty years of his life, when the Buddha was living at Sāvatti, he divided his time

¹ *The Eight Great Efficacious Stupas Spoken by the Buddha* (Chinese: 佛說八大靈塔名號經) Taishō Tripiṭaka T31, No. 1685

between the Anāthapīndikārāma at Jetavana and the Migāramātupāsāda, spending the day in one place and the night in the other and vice versa (Migaramatupasada, 2019).

2.3 Modern-day pilgrimage to Jetavana

Outside of Shravasti is located the stupa where the Twin Miracle (Pali: Yamaka-pātihāriya) took place. The site of the Jetavana monastery is the main pilgrim destination, with meditation and chanting mainly done at the Gandhakuti (Buddha's hut) and the Anandabodhi tree (the second-holiest tree of Buddhism). The space covered by the four bedposts of the Buddha's Gandhakuti in Jetavana is one of the four avijahitattānāni (unchanging spots); all Buddha's possess the same (Gandhakuti, 2019). Jetavana is currently a historical park, with remains of many ancient buildings such as monasteries, huts (such as the Gandhakuti and the Kosambakuti) and stupas. Jetavana has been developed as a place of pilgrimage, both for Buddhists from India and abroad. Many countries in which Buddhism is a major religion have established temples and monasteries in Jetavana in the style that is typical for the respective country. Thus, pilgrims and visitors have the opportunity to experience an overview of Buddhist architecture from various cultures.

3. Method

3.1 Instructional Medias

The authors have been to Jetavana two times from 2004 to 2015. The authors made more than three hundred slides of PowerPoint and videos on site introduction personally. The pictures in the PowerPoint were explained with notes in Chinese. The authors on site also made some short videos personally.

3.2 Experimental Processes

The students, who took the general education course of the university in central Taiwan, from three classes totally one hundred thirty-one students, fully participated in the learning. After two weeks totally four hours of learning, the self-rating scale, and questionnaire were used to collect the response of the students.

4. Result

Participants were 130 undergraduate students of the university in central Taiwan who come from three different general education courses. Among them 40 % (n=52) was males and 60 % (n=78) was females.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

There are twenty questions in the self-evaluating scale, the scale was scored ranging from 4(very understanding) to 1(completely does not understand). Question1 to Question10 shown in Table 4.2. Question 11 to Question 20 is compared to the former ten questions by asking “After....” Also, there are seven questions in the questionnaire to collect the opinions of the students. Table 4.2 presents the frequencies of the answer in the questionnaire.

Table 4.1 Questions in the self-evaluating scale

No.	Question
1	Before I learned the teaching of "Humanity Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand the geographic location of Shravasti?
2	Before I learned the teaching of "Human Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand the history origin and construction origin of Jetavana?
3	.Before I learned the teaching of "Human Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand that Jetavana was offered by Prince Jeta and Anathapindika?
4	.Before learned the teaching of "Human Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand the allusion that Sāriputta assisted Anathapindika to supervised the construction of the vihara, once fighting with Tirthika (non-Buddhist)?
5	Before I learned the teaching of "Human Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand the history that Lord Buddha had spent 24 times annually summer retreat in Shravasti?
6	Before I learned the teaching of "Human Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand the history that Lord Buddha once in Jetavana preached Diamond Sutra, Amitabha Sutra, etc.
7	Before learned the teaching of "Human Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand the allusion that Lord Buddha once rose from Jetavana to Trayastriṃśa heaven, preaching Dharma for his mother Māyādevī.
8	Before I learned the teaching of "Human Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand the allusion that king Udayana made Buddha statue by sandalwood, king Prasenajit made Buddha statue by gold because Lord Buddha once rose from Jetavana to Trayastriṃśa heaven and preached dharma three months.
9	Before I learned the teaching of "Human Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand the event that Xuanzang went to Jetavana for the ceremony, recorded in the "Great <i>Tang Records on the Western Regions</i> ".
10	Before I learned the teaching of "Human Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", did you understand the allusion that It is one of the four avijahitattḥānāni (unchanging spots) the site of the bed in the Gandhakuti Jetavana?

Table 4.2 the items of the questionnaire and the answer data

item	Question	very agree	agree	a little agree	disagree
1	Through the pictures and films, which the teacher personally visited Jetavana to introduce in the class, I have a specific understanding of the appearance and meaning of Jetavana.	N=43 33.1%	N=87 66.9%	N=0 (0%)	N=0 (0%)
2	Through the pictures and films, which my teacher personally visited Jetavana to introduce in the class, I am more impressed with the human thoughts of Jetavana.	N=38 29.2%	N=91 70.0%	N=1 (0.8%)	N=0 (0%)
3	Through the pictures and films, which my teacher personally visited Jetavana to introduce in the class, it enhances my interest in learning.	N=59 45.4%	N=70 53.8%	N=1 (0.8%)	N=0 (0%)
4	Through the pictures and films, which my teacher personally visited Jetavana to introduce in the class, it enhances my motivation to visit the holy place of worldwide religions.	N=46 35.4%	N=75 57.7%	N=8 (6.2%)	N=1 (0.8%)
5	Through the pictures and films, which my teacher personally visited Jetavana to introduce in the class, open my vision and enhance my worldview?	N=52 40.0%	N=77 59.2%	N=1 (0.8%)	N=0 (0%)
6	Through the teaching of "Humanity Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", it lets me feel like multi-culture learning.	Yes N=130,100%		No. (N=0, 0%)	
7	Through the teaching of "Humanity Thoughts of Buddhist Holy Place Jetavana", I feel that we should respect all religions no matter one has religion or no?	Yes N=130,100%		No. (N=0, 0%)	

4.2 Paired Samples Statistics and Test

There were ten pairs in the self-evaluating scale, from Question 1 to Question 20. The method of pair samples t-test was used to confirm the significance of statistics. The results as shown in table 4-3.

Table 4-3 Paired samples test

	Questions No.	Mean	S. D.	Pair Mean	Pair S.D.	t value
Pair 1	Q1	1.55	.558	-1.877	.693	-30.86***
	Q11	3.43	.497			
Pair 2	Q2	1.53	.600	-1.908	.676	-32.19***
	Q12	3.44	.498			
Pair 3	Q3	1.57	.634	-1.846	.752	-28.00***
	Q13	3.42	.525			

Pair 4	Q4	1.42	.526	-2.000	.704	-32.38***
	Q14	3.42	.496			
Pair 5	Q5	1.50	.560	-1.962	.762	-29.37***
	Q15	3.46	.531			
Pair 6	Q6	1.66	.591	-1.815	.724	-28.60***
	Q16	3.48	.531			
Pair 7	Q7	1.62	.548	-1.846	.687	-30.63***
	Q17	3.46	.500			
Pair 8	Q8	1.57	.556	-1.885	.711	-30.21***
	Q18	3.45	.500			
Pair 9	Q9	1.72	.696	-1.731	.843	-23.42***
	Q19	3.45	.499			
Pair 10	Q10	1.51	.560	-1.954	.692	-32.21***
	Q20	3.46	.531			

N=127 ***P < .001

From table 4-3, the ten pair's test all reaches the statistical significance, shows that after learned the teaching of "Humanity thoughts of Buddhist holy place Shravasti"; the students significant agree their understanding of the main ideas of Humanity in this holy place.

5. Conclusion

Improving humanities literacy is one of the important goals of general education. Multi-teaching can best enhance students' interest in learning, static pictures, and short films on the spot, storytelling interspersed with innovation, and flexible use of diverse and interesting teaching materials should stimulate more students' interest in learning, boost their learning attitude, enhance students' willingness to learn and focus, thus improving their learning effectiveness. By visiting the Buddhist Holy Shravasti in person, take pictures of the historical remains, record narration and video, on the application in the teaching of general courses, can improve students' interest in learning. Students under the teacher personally guidance of Buddhist scriptures people, things, times, places, have a more profound experience and learning.

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An investigation into in-service teachers' practice of online professional learning

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative study examined Indonesian in-service language teachers' practices of online professional learning. To this, ten teachers participated in the study where they were asked to attend an online learning program for teachers provided by the Center for technology and communication, Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia. During the online sessions, teachers' activities in the program were recorded and at the final session teachers were asked to write reflections about their experiences. The collected data from the teachers' activities and reflections were analysed qualitatively. Findings of the study showed that teachers' feel positive towards the online learning program (i.e. motivation, time flexibility). However, teachers felt that the courses provided in the program did not fit their need. More importantly, teachers were observed to receive little support both from the school and the online learning instructors, particularly in addressing technical issues during the online program. While government is expected to perform need analysis prior to offering online programs for teacher professional development, the features of the online platform should be made user-friendly with online support as well.

Privilege Interrupted: Global Education, Compromise and Human Literacy

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents an original explanation for current differences in educational achievement in Canada, Finland, Great Britain, Singapore, and the United States. It examines the development of educational systems in countries where people are the mechanism for retrieving economic resources and those where people are the economic resource. Using data from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), educational policy analysis, and a historical examination of nation-building, the paper posits compromise and interrupted privilege as humanizing acts. When recognized as such, these social-cultural behaviors can be learned and serve as human literacy practices.

Keywords: compromise, global education, PISA , privilege

From these pages I hope at least the following will endure: my trust in the people, and my faith in men and women, and in the creation of a world in which it will be easier to love.

-- Freire, Paulo, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, 1970

Introduction

Countries with successful educational systems purposefully employ language that embodies education policies with meaning. Embodied meaning enables human literacy practices, which feed back into the culture-creation process. This use of language represents a complex adaptive system of communicative energy capable of adaptive and enabling interactions, producing emergent behaviors that allow for the embodiment of authentic, transformative, and communal practices within complex social contexts. In practice, our ability to embody language through practices and policies increases our human literacy aptitude, which allows us to recognize our humanity and the humanity of others.

This paper presents an original explanation for current differences in educational achievement in Canada, Finland, Great Britain¹, Singapore, and the United States. It examines the development of educational systems in countries where people are the mechanism for retrieving economic resources and those where people are the economic resource. Using data from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), educational policy analysis, and a historical examination of nation-building, the paper posits compromise and interrupted privilege as humanizing acts. When recognized as such, these social-cultural behaviors can be learned and serve as human literacy practices. While a number of OECD-PISA countries could serve the purpose of a global

¹ Because of historical references tend to use "United Kingdom" instead or interchangeably with "Great Britain" – this paper use "United Kingdom" as the reference for Britain.

education analysis, these five were selected because of each country's use of nation-building, privilege, and compromise in forming educational policies and practices.

Education as an important measure for understanding changes in the global economy is relatively new. Current global education definitions are embedded in definitions of global economics, which is the analysis of the international exchange of goods and services between countries as expressed in monetary terms. In this respect, global education focused narrowly on the amount of money going into a country's educational system with no assessment of the kinds of education the system produced (Coughlan, 2013). This limited examination of global education during a time when physical labor still provided the most fodder for international trade, while appropriate, was simplistic.

The fact that most goods and services exchanged in the global economy required cheap physical labor provided Great Britain and the United States additional economic strength. Before, during, and decades after the industrial revolution, both countries maintained near absolute control over and access to large populations of cheap human labor. Great Britain's economic power was rooted in the nation's history of colonization. The United States' economic power was rooted in the nation's history of slavery--labor only immigration practices.

Consequently, those nations also dominated comparisons of educational systems and achievements. One economic, educational issue is a nation's ability to understand how education informs its economic worth. For economies dominated by Anglo-European nations like Great Britain and the United States, from colonial to post-industrial times, education that trains a workforce to do specific tasks was appropriate. However, today's knowledge-based goods and services economies cannot use educational practices that mainly emphasizes training. While the word "education" is often used to describe learning made available to those in the workforce, it has two meanings that inform its application in practice. "Education" has two Latin roots: "educare," meaning to train and "educere" meaning to draw out. Acknowledging and including the dual meaning of "education" in this analysis is important because "opposing sides often use the same word to denote two very different concepts. One side uses education to mean the preservation and passing down of knowledge and the shaping of youths in the image of their parents. The other side sees education as preparing a new generation for the changes that are to come—readying them to create solutions to problems yet unknown" (Bass & Good, 2004, p.162).

In the years leading up to the 1990s, unexamined changes in national education policies in a variety of countries coincided with shifts in a global economy powered less by goods and services produced mainly from physical and skilled labor to one powered increasingly by goods and services produced by knowledge-based labor. Instead of a training "education," the changing economy needs a learning "education" that replaces the workforce approach that serves economic systems with a human approach that shapes economic systems.

The OECD has found that a country able to adapt its education policy to changing economies is best positioned to influence the global economy (OECD, 2016). For example, today's economy has increased the need for people with knowledge-based skills that they can adapt and apply to multiple real-life situations. Thus, a nation's economic strength depends on educational systems that produce people who can apply their knowledge to changing situations and participate in a

variety of social roles. Because the amount spent on education did not equate with the growth in educational attainment or correspond with changes in economic growth, the OECD realized it needed to reexamine the relationship between economics and education. In 2000, OECD developed the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). The PISA evaluates education systems worldwide by testing the skills and knowledge of 15-year-old students in member and non-member countries. Unlike national exams, the PISA tests are not developed from school curriculum but present culturally neutral questions, “designed to assess to what extent students at the end of compulsory education, can apply their knowledge to real-life situations and be equipped for full participation in society” (OECD, 2016). According to the PISA coordinator, reliance on national testing scores as a point of comparing global educational systems only provides “improvement by national standards [and] is not a measure of [global] success (Coughlan, 2013). OECD also uses questionnaires to gather additional context background information to get a fuller understanding of the symbiotic relationship between education and the economy.

To understand how successful Pisa countries/city-states create and work to sustain high educational achievement, focus on the “policy” must reflect on specific culture-creating processes, such as language and behavior. Therefore, one way to understand global educational achievement is to examine the language of the policies of countries with consistent high, steady, or increasing global education rankings, as measured by PISA since 2000. Finland, Singapore, and Canada represent some top performing countries with steady or increasing educational achievement. Since PISA assessments of global education began in 2000, the educational policies of these countries consistently result in high levels of educational attainment for an increasing number of their citizens regardless of a variety of socio-economic barriers. These countries’ educational policies have helped them become economic influencers. In contrast, Great Britain and the United States represent some former leading economic Anglo-European countries with current low-performing or decreasing global educational achievements, which have resulted in consistent low PISA rankings since 2000.

Historical Context

This examination of global education is complicated by the necessity of economic discussion. Any debate on education must include culture and the production, consumption, and transfer of wealth. Both education and economics result from human interactions; the complexity of the educational and economic systems deepen as human interactions move from local to community, from city-state to nation, and from international to global. When formerly economically insignificant countries began influencing the global economy, they interrupted the privilege economic dominant Anglo-European countries had enjoyed since the founding of the “New World” until the 1980s.

The disruption of Anglo-European countries’ historical economic dominance of the global economy by a diverse group of countries with little historical economic significance provides exigency for this examination of global education. Whereas Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Russia, Spain, and the United States once dictated international markets, each of these counties has seen declining economic influence that coincides with declining national educational achievement. Anglo-European countries competed in a constrained industrialized global economy, where rulers were few, fluid and economic success relied on the oppressive nature of labor-based goods and services. While the following countries may not generate more money than the aforementioned

countries, today, a growing number of economies from countries like Finland, Ireland, Japan, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan have increasing global economic influence² that coincides with increasing national levels of educational attainment. This diverse group of countries competes in a performative global economy, where rulers are fluid, and success relies on the freedom of knowledge-based goods and services. Among the multiple political, economic, and geographic³ changes that affect which countries shape today's global economic landscape, is one significant factor: each country's approach to national educational policies. The focus on educational policies that embody knowledge-based learning as the material for economic growth is the kryptonite currently disabling the economic old world order of Anglo-European countries. Countries most successful at cultivating reciprocal, adaptive education, and economic relationships engage the concepts of teaching and learning from a humanistic perspective.

Finland, Singapore, and Canada represent countries with little historical global economic and educational histories; however, because these countries gained independence after the 20th-century, a compromise was key to their nation building and governance processes. Britain and the United States represent Anglo-European countries with historical global economic and educational histories; however, because these countries gained independence before the 19th-century, the privilege was key to their nation building and governance processes. Reliance on a culture of uninterrupted privilege has left Anglo-European countries ill-equipped for the economics of global education. In contrast, the current leading countries in global education share a culture of economic and educational compromise. The global educational presence of countries like Finland, Singapore, and Canada represent the limitations of privilege and the utility of compromise as key characteristics in the cultural economics of global education.

Nation Building and Educational Policy

Finland, Singapore, and Canada are high-ranking PISA countries that have either gained or sustained their rankings since 2000 or the first year each country participated in the PISA tests. Finland and Singapore have strong national identities born out of histories of political oppression. Finland gained independence after World War II. Between Swedish and Russian rule, Finland suffered economic and political subjugation from the 17th century until 1945. By the time Finland became a global education leader on the PISA test, the country had 55-years to focus on conscious choices about nation building. As a result, Finland's national identity led to educational policies that moved from teaching citizens basic literacy skills (reading and writing) to cultivating knowledge skills.

Much like Finland, Singapore created a national identity that moved its citizens from basic literacy skills to educational policies that cultivate knowledge skills. What makes Singapore noteworthy in the global educational discussion is that the country did not gain independence from Britain until 1965. What took post-World War II countries like Finland over fifty years to achieve, Singapore achieved in twenty-five years. In 2009, Singapore participated in its first PISA test and ranked number one, higher than every other PISA country (OECD-PISA, 2009). While Canada, Finland, and Singapore have remained in the top fifteen PISA ranked countries, Singapore's PISA

² The absence of African countries (which include those mistakenly treated as "Middle Eastern") is noted as follows: the economic history of most African countries are outside the scope of this analysis.

³ For example, natural disasters.

results, from 2009 – 2015, resulted in the highest sustained rankings of any country during the six-year assessment period. It is important to note that these countries' impact on the global economy, as measured by OECD, predates PISA as an international assessment for education. It is reasonable to assume that the increasing impact made by countries with rising global economic rankings in the 1980s – 1990s coincided with changes in educational achievements.

Often overlooked and lumped in with other Anglo-European countries, Canada's presence as a leader in global education is peculiar. An initial examination of Canada's political history may not position it alongside Finland and Singapore. However, a closer examination of Canada's nation building efforts provides some explanation for why it is the only Anglo-European country with leading global education performance. Although Canada severed its last official tie to the British government in 1982, its nation building efforts began when France ceded territory to Britain after the Seven Years' War. The territory's nation building efforts progressed in 1867 with "the signing of the *British North America Act*, which formed the Dominion of Canada" (Proclamation, 1982). Over the next 100-years, "Canadians worked to gain political independence and sovereignty from Britain, and by 1982, Canada had all the elements of an independent nation except authority over its Constitution...After much political debate and negotiation in Canada, the British Parliament passed the *Canada Act* in March 1982. This act replaced the BNA Act and transferred all legislative authority to Canada, including the power to make changes to the Constitution" (Proclamation, 1982). Before the 1982 Canada Act, the power to amend the Canadian Constitution rested with the authority of the British Parliament.

Canada's ranking as a leader in global education is an anomaly because, unlike Finland and Singapore, the country did not have a history of high educational achievement before the 1980s – 1990s. However, Canada is the only Anglo-European country in the developed world with a consistent PISA ranking since the assessments began in 2000. Unlike Finland and Singapore, Canada is natural resource-rich. These factors make the countries ranking challenging to understand, OECD-PISA (2010) provide two reasons that make it difficult to understand the factors contributing to Canada's strong PISA performance:

First, Canadian education is governed at the provincial level; the federal role is limited, and sometimes non-existent. Thus each of the 10 provinces and 3 territories has its own history, governance structure and educational strategy. Second, because Canada is a newcomer to educational success, there has not yet been the array of visitors, scholars, and other interested observers who could generate the kind of secondary literature, which tells a story of Canadian success as a whole. (OECD-PISA, 2011, p. 66)

Adding to the challenge of unraveling the success of current PISA countries like Canada is an analysis of the effects of nation building practices for countries with rising global economic standings in a world no longer beholding to manual and skilled labor. In the industrial world, global economic wealth was generated by goods and services powered by people, too often used as disposable physical and skilled laborers by nation building practices that subscribed to brute-force and uninterrupted privilege resulting from being the winners of world wars. However, in the post-industrial and modern world, global economic wealth is powered by people more often as capacity builders in a relationship with ideas by nation building practices that subscribe to compromise and interrupted privilege.

Nation building and national identity require some degree of economic independence and the ability to build wealth. Contributors to building national identity are the ability to produce goods and services and harness natural resources in a manner that allows for profitable international exchange. Upon gaining independence, Finland, Singapore, and Canada did not have the same level of skills, infrastructure, or natural resources to create wealth through traditional methods of goods and services production. More established, industrialized countries were better prepared for such production and already dominated the global economy. Engagement in goods production would only restore oppressive relationships with other countries. Wealth created by tangible services (skilled labor, human services), required a literate citizenry, which these countries did not possess. Wealth defined by natural resources required resources and the skills to harness them, which Finland, Singapore, and Canada did not have. People were the one common resource in each of these countries. National identity required economic growth, so these countries invested in their most abundant resource – people. An oppressed past predisposed these nations to employ humanizing practices because their people were their only natural wealth-building resources. Canada, in contrast, did possess an abundance of natural resources, if not the infrastructure to access them. Canada's struggles to reconcile its French, British, and indigenous cultures, along with a desire to be a sovereign nation outside of British control, are reasonable factors contributing to the country's ability to privilege people over natural resources.

Independence and nation building for Britain and the United States began long before World War victories. Britain's success as a colonizer and both countries' gains as World War II victors provided the two nations definitive roles in shaping the global economy during the many years leading up to the late 20th century. For these Anglo-European nations, national identity and governance developed from centuries of uninterrupted privilege forged by violence and wealth generated from goods and services produced by physical labor. A physical labor force needs training, not educating.

Discussion

Language, privilege and compromise

Educational practices reflect a nation's governance system. Great Britain and the United States have governments formed from conflicts that produced centuries of uninterrupted privilege⁴. As the economic benefactors of colonization and the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade, Great Britain and the United States had access to a variety of natural resources, which enabled the countries to become economical leaders. These countries' early economic endeavors were imbued with violent, dehumanizing practices, which gave both countries access to an unprecedented number of human beings, who were easily labeled as "other." Anglo-European beliefs, values, and practices of "othering" those they conquered normalized objectifying people. Anglo-European independence, nation building, and governance developed from the privilege of winning in a manner that led to "the cultural inauthenticity of" the losers (Freire, 1970, p. 153). In Great Britain and the United States, privilege was reserved for men, and compromise - not a valuable tool – was usually a political courtesy most often extended to other Anglo-European countries. Due to uninterrupted privilege, the ideas of freedom, and an assimilation process that favored Anglo-Europeans, the

⁴ Privilege that has not been challenged but only allowed to benefit a select group of people – e.g., males, those with Anglo-European ethnicities, or those from select geographical regions, social class, religions

United States had access to some of the most educated minds of the twentieth century. The influx of well-educated immigrants fleeing oppression during and after World War II (Bok, 2013, pp. 21 - 22), provided the United States with scholars and experts eager to participate in American society.

As war victors, the governments of Great Britain and the United States developed without the significant need to address the racial and ethnic issues faced by countries that gained independence after World War II. Through its colonization system, Great Britain outsourced the resources that built its global-economic power. African-slavery, racial and ethnic immigration labor policies, and American assimilation practices reserved for those of European descent provided the United States with the racial and social barriers for its global-economic power. The economic results for Great Britain and the United States produced a system of privilege that remained uninterrupted until the mid-twentieth-century. Years of uninterrupted privilege meant that Great Britain and the United States were unprepared to respond to the changing educational needs of a knowledge-based global economy. However, independence and nation building and governance for countries in the late twentieth-century required compromise. As young independent countries, Finland, Singapore, and Canada had the benefit of nation building during a period of rapid economic change. For these countries, economics and education were clearly connected, and their efforts to build national identities required political compromise.

Compromise, unlike privilege, produces humanizing practices. The decision to govern and educate in multiple languages is one significant compromising characteristic shared by Singapore, Finland, and Canada. In the 1960s, Singapore's first Prime Minister, Lee Kuan Yew, articulated two goals: "to build a modern economy and to create a sense of Singaporean national identity" (OECD-PISA, 2011, p. 160). Nation building meant addressing social issues of a small nation with a diverse population: "Chinese, Malaysian, and Indian" and religious groups: "Buddhist, Muslim, Taoist, Hindu, and Christian" (OECD-PISA, 2011, p. 161). One significant use of compromise in Singapore's efforts to create a nation of "One united people regardless of race, language or religion" occurred when the government decided to recognize and teach "four official languages: Chinese English, Malay, and Tamil" (OECD-PISA, 2011, p 161). Even though Singapore has a one-party political system, its early use of compromising practices that recognized a multi-racial nation prides the country with humanizing opportunities, its former colonizer lacks.

Compromise was fundamental to Finland's governing systems because the country's first elections in 1945 resulted in "a parliament in which the seats were almost evenly divided between three political parties: the Social Democrats, the Agrarian Centre Party, and the Communists. In the 1950s, the Conservatives gained sufficient strength also to be included in major negotiations. Multi-party systems typically require the development of a political consensus in order to move any major policy agenda forward, and one priority around which such a consensus developed was the need to rebuild and modernize the Finnish education system. In addition to a multi-party governing system, Finland is also a multilingual nation.

Canada's use of compromise predates both Singapore and Finland. The presence of French and English speaking colonizers required a unique use of compromise. The French ceded its Canadian territory to the British, after the Seven Years War. Instead of exercising their privilege as war victors and dehumanizing the French settlers, the British allowed the French settlers, who were concentrated in the north, to retain their language, religion, and self-governance. In this respect,

Canadian governance developed from negotiated compromise. The relationship between French and English speaking Canadians recognized the countries' sparse population; the French settlers were better established, and France and Great Britain negotiated an exchange of lands. While France did cede its Canadian territory, it received other lands from Great Britain. In the 1700's Canada was large enough to accommodate both its French and English speaking settlers and, in the years to come, make governance by Great Britain their common oppressor.

The nation building practices of privilege and compromise are evident in the rhetoric nations use to describe themselves. The following national educational policy language examples focus on rhetoric that appears on government websites.⁵ The following list contains the vocabulary choices found in education-related descriptions available on government websites in the order each term appears in the description:

- Student (United States)
- Children, family (UK/Britain)
- Parents, "their" children (Canada)
- "All" people, "all" citizens, public authorities, "every" resident (Finland)
- People (used twice), community (used twice), "our" leadership, "our" citizenry, "our" young, "our" children, citizens, family, community (Singapore)

The United States and Britain's use of isolating language that is object-specific (student in the singular form, children and family without descriptors) does little to identify the stakeholders in each country's education policy. This use of language creates practices that dehumanize people, removing them from the center of each country's educational policies. However, Canada, Finland, and Singapore use inclusive language that is subject-specific (parents, children, citizens) and inclusive words (all, every, our) identify the stakeholders in each country's education policy. This language creates practices that humanize people, making them subjects at the center of each country's educational policies. An examination of these language practices are apparent in the terms found on government-sponsored websites:

United States

- ED's mission is to promote student achievement and preparation for global competitiveness by fostering educational excellence and ensuring equal access. (U.S. Department of Education [website](#))

United Kingdom (Britain)

- The Department for Education is responsible for education, children's services, higher and further education policy, apprenticeships and wider skills in England, and equalities. We work to achieve a highly educated society in which opportunity is equal for all, no matter what their background or family circumstances. (United Kingdom Department of Education [website](#))

⁵ Note: Educational rhetoric may differ between what the official government uses and language used within a country's provinces, regions, states, and other local governing bodies.

Canada

- In Canada, parents have the primary responsibility for educating their children. To assist them, provincial and territorial governments administer and regulate educational systems. There is no federal department of education and no national system of education. Instead, each province and territory has its own system of education. The educational systems are generally similar across Canada, with some variations between provinces and territories. (Government of Canada [website](#))

Finland

- One of the basic principles of Finnish education is that all people must have equal access to high-quality education and training. The same opportunities to education should be available to all citizens irrespective of their ethnic origin, age, wealth, or where they live. Education policy is built on the lifelong learning principle.
- The basic right to education and culture is recorded in the Constitution. Public authorities must secure equal opportunities for every resident in Finland to get education also after compulsory schooling and develop themselves, irrespective of their financial standing. In Finland, education is free at all levels, from pre-primary to higher education. Adult education is the only form of education that may require payment.
- The keywords in Finnish education policy are quality, efficiency, equity, and internationalisation. Geared to promote the competitiveness of Finnish welfare society, education is also seen as an end in itself. The broad lines of Finnish education and science policy are in line with the Europe 2020 Strategy.
- Decisions on the contents of legislation on education and research are made by the Parliament based on government proposals. The Government and the Ministry of Education and Culture, as part of it, are responsible for preparing and implementing education and science policy. (Ministry of Education and Culture [website](#))

Singapore

- The wealth of a nation lies in its people – their commitment to country and community, their willingness to strive and persevere, their ability to think, achieve and excel. Our future depends on the continuous renewal and regeneration of our leadership and citizenry, building upon the experience of the past, learning from the circumstances of the present, and preparing for the challenges of the future. How we raise our young at home and teach them in school will shape Singapore in the next generation.
- The mission of MOE is to mould the future of the nation by moulding the people who will determine the future of the nation. MOE will provide our children with a balanced and well-rounded education, develop them to their full potential, and nurture them into good citizens, conscious of their responsibilities to family, community and country. (Ministry of Education, Singapore [website](#))

When read in context, the terms show each country's current level of inclusive/subjective or exclusive/objective articulation of national education policy. Additionally, the role of these language practices extends to visual rhetoric. The value of education at the national level is evident not only in language choices but also in presentation. For example, only Finland and Singapore have multi-paragraph educational policies. As the following figures show, where governments locate national education policy information on official websites reiterates the narrative contained in the language of the policies.

Figure 1. Top of U.S. Department of Education homepage website.

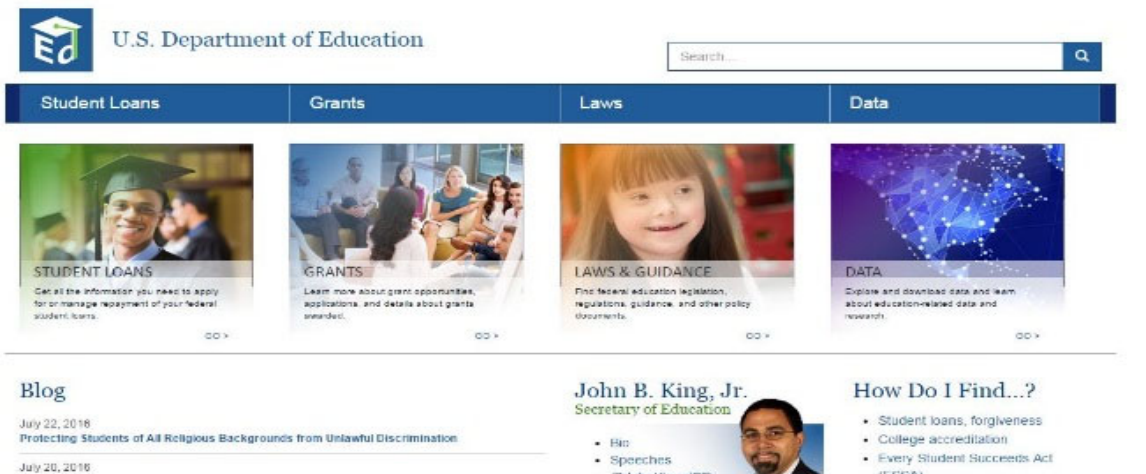
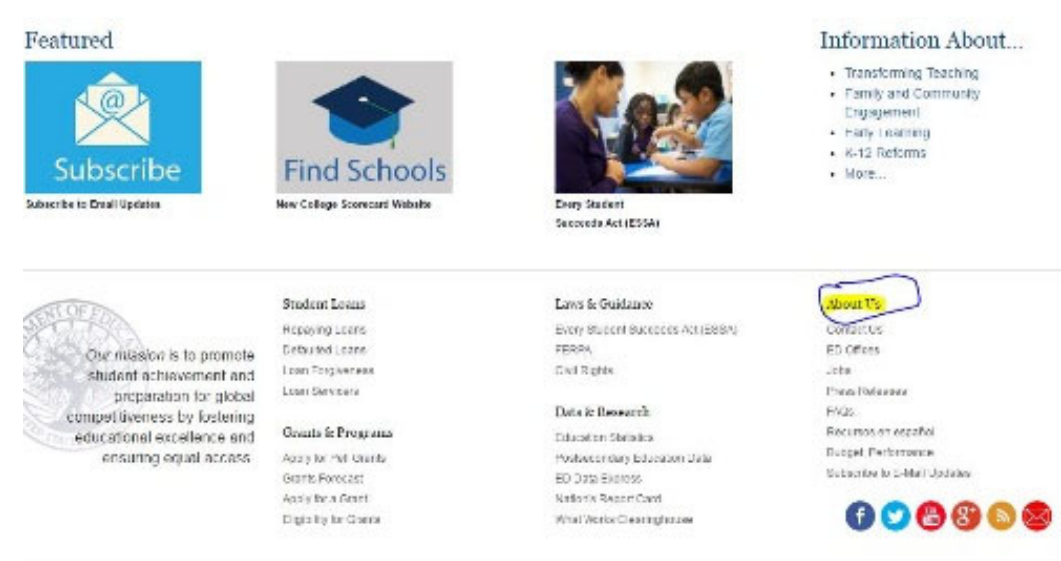


Figure 2. Bottom of U.S Department of Education homepage website.



This information is not easy to find on US Department of Education website. The U.S Department of Education website does not provide any obviously titled links that provide information about the country’s education policy. The highlighted links relate to costs (Student Loans, Grants), legislations (Laws), and assessment (Data). To find information about national education policy, the viewer has to select the “About Us” link (see yellow highlighted, circled area at the bottom of figure 2). The website’s presentation as visual rhetoric reinforces the language used in U.S. educational policy, which does not value subjectivity. In this sense, education remains a privileged resource available to those who can find it.

Figure 3. Top of United Kingdom Department for Education homepage website

Welcome to GOV.UK
The best place to find government services and information
Simpler, clearer, faster

Search GOV.UK

Popular on GOV.UK
[Universal Jobmatch job search](#)
[Renew vehicle tax](#)
[Log in to student finance](#)
[Book your theory test](#)
[Employment and Support Allowance](#)

Benefits
Includes tax credits, eligibility and appeals

Disabled people
Includes carers, your rights, benefits and the Equality Act

Money and tax
Includes debt and Self Assessment

Births, deaths, marriages and care
Parenting, civil partnerships, divorce and Lasting Power of Attorney

Driving and transport
Includes vehicle tax, MOT and driving licences

Passports, travel and living abroad
Includes renewing passports and travel advice by country

Business and self-employed
Tools and guidance for businesses

Education and learning
Includes student loans, admissions and apprenticeships

Visas and immigration
Visas, asylum and sponsorship

Childcare and parenting
Includes giving birth, fostering, adopting, benefits for children, childcare and schools

Employing people
Includes pay, contracts and hiring

Working, jobs and pensions
Includes holidays and finding a job

Figure 4. Bottom of United Kingdom Department for Education homepage website

Childcare and parenting
Includes giving birth, fostering, adopting, benefits for children, childcare and schools

Employing people
Includes pay, contracts and hiring

Working, jobs and pensions
Includes holidays and finding a job

Citizenship and living in the UK
Voting, community participation, life in the UK, international projects

Environment and countryside
Includes flooding, recycling and wildlife

Crime, justice and the law
Legal processes, courts and the police

Housing and local services
Owning or renting and council services

27
Ministerial departments

373
Other agencies and public bodies

The websites of all [government departments](#) and many other agencies and public bodies have been merged into GOV.UK.

Here you can see all [policies](#), [announcements](#), [publications](#), [statistics](#) and [consultations](#).

Find out [how government services are performing](#) and how satisfied users are.

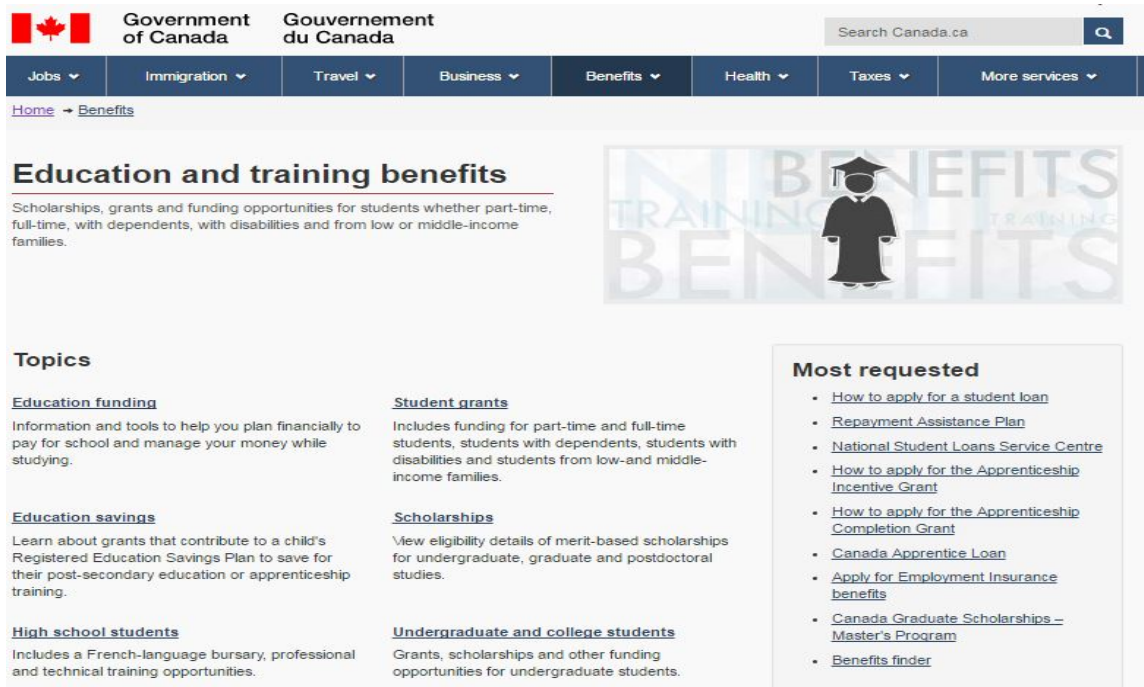
The United Kingdom Department for Education website appears to provide a link that might provide information on the country's education policy – Education and Learning. However, that link takes the viewer a page that does not contain a description of national policy but additional links areas about apprenticeships, finance and curriculum. To find information about national education policy, the viewer has to select the “government departments” link embedded in a sentence near the bottom of the homepage. This link takes the viewer to the Department for Education page, where a “What We Do” section provides information on national education policy⁶. Similar to the US, the website's presentation as visual rhetoric reinforces the language of an educational policy that does not value subjectivity. In this sense, education remains a privileged resource available to those who can find it.

⁶ After selecting the Education and Learning link then several other links, I found this information by typing “education” into website's search feature.

Figure 5. Top of Government of Canada homepage website.



Figure 6. Top of Government of Canada homepage website.



Canadian visual rhetoric embodies the nation's paradoxical context – its visual rhetoric looks like the United Kingdom and the United States but does not reinforce the language-based rhetoric of the nations' education policy. The website does not provide any obviously titled links that provide information about the country's education policy. However, after selecting the links available and reading the dropdown menus for each one, the viewer will find "Education and Training" listed under the "Benefits" link. This link does not contain a description of national policy but additional links, where many topics are related to costs. Finding information about national education policy requires typing "education" into the sites' search box. The search returned a list of items that includes a page titled "Education in Canada" and language on the country's education policy is listed prominently on the top of the page with access to links for all the provinces in the country. Thus, Canada's visual rhetoric and language-based rhetoric do support the same narrative – parents are responsible for their children's education and the country will assist. While finding the information may be challenging, as it is in the UK and US, once parents have the information they have the nation to assist in educational attainment.

The following figures for Finland and Singapore show how each country uses visual rhetoric to reinforce the subject-specific approach to national education. Both websites use clearly titled links related to educating people.

Figure 7. Top of Finland Ministry of Education and Culture homepage website.

The screenshot shows the top section of the Ministry of Education and Culture website. At the top left is the logo of the Ministry. To its right is the text "Ministry of Education and Culture" and "Opetus- ja kulttuuriministeriö Undervisnings- och kulturministeriet". Further right is an "Advanced search" box with a "Site map" link and a search button. Below this is a green navigation bar with links for "Education & ECEC", "Research", "Culture", "Copyright", "Sports", "Youth", "Church Affairs", "Libraries", "Ministry", and "Current Issues".

On the left side, there is a box with contact information: "Ministry of Education and Culture", "P.O. Box 29", "FI - 00023 GOVERNMENT", "Telephone +358 2953 30004", "Fax +358-(0)9-135 9335", and a link for "Contact information".

In the center, there is a "Mainpage" section with a paragraph: "Within the Finnish Government, the Ministry of Education and Culture is responsible for developing educational, science, cultural, sport and youth policies and international cooperation in these fields. The Minister of Education and Culture, Ms. Sanni Grahn-Laasonen is responsible for matters, which fall under the Ministry of Education and Culture." Below this is a headline: "World Press Freedom Day brings together over 1,100 media professionals from different parts of the world in Helsinki".

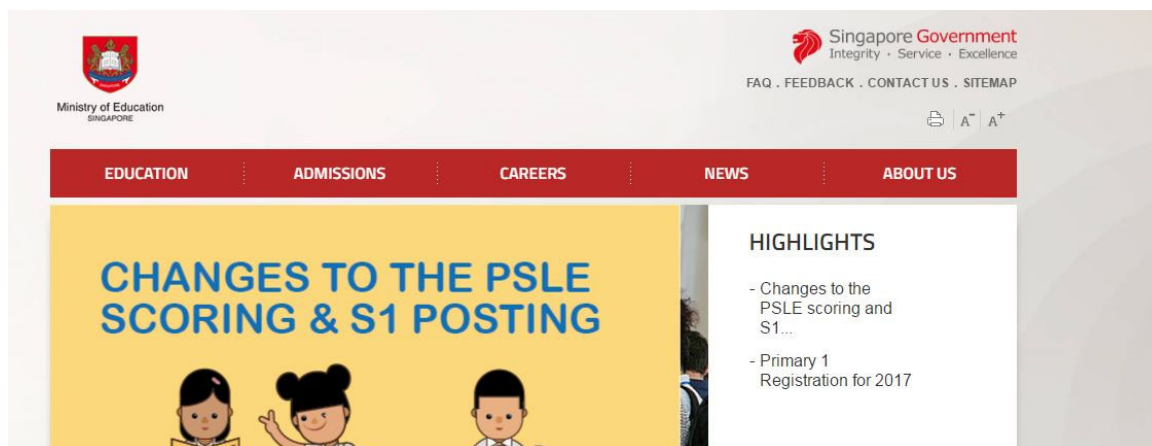
On the right side, there is a "Press releases:" section with two entries: "Risto Ruohonen to continue as General Director of the Finnish National Gallery" dated 02-06-2016, and "World Press Freedom Day brings together over 1,100 media professionals from different parts of the world in Helsinki" dated 26-04-2016.

Figure 8. Top of Finland Ministry of Education and Culture “Education & ECEC” page.



From Finland’s home page, information on education is accessible by selecting the first link – Education & ECEC. This page provides a short version of the nation’s policy and a dropdown menu with a link titled “Education Policy” – which provides a detailed description of national policy.

Figure 9. Top of Singapore’s Ministry of Education homepage website



Singapore’s website streamlines information even further by a main menu with single word titles. While a viewer might select the “Education” link first, it does not take a search or dropdown menu to find this country’s education rhetoric because the “About Us” link opens to a page that provides an introduction, mission and vision for national education policy.

One economic consequence of interrupted privilege for nations is the increasing necessity to extend trust and inclusion to historically disenfranchised peoples. For example, Britain and the United States’ use of “student”, “children” and “family” shows pedagogies that distance each nation from the responsibility of educating their people. The demands of twenty-first century economies require education policies that understand the contributive potential of all people and provide practices capable of developing the skills and abilities of more people. While nations with privileged educational practices continue to fail because they are incapable of producing the cultural economic changes required for today’s educational needs, interrupted privilege contains

the promise of compromise. Canada provides an example of how interrupted privilege can work to produce increasingly equitable educational practices. The use of “parents and “their children” in Canadian education policy language, demonstrates the promise of compromise. While language found in policies of Finland and Singapore demonstrate the results of compromise in action by humanizing their children and citizens, placing them at the center of education policies. All language use results in specific rhetorical leadership practices. Countries recognized as leaders in global education work to use more humanizing rhetorical practices in their education policies, practices, and make them available to all citizens – with an emphasis on children.

Human Literacy in the promise of compromise

The human literacy practices that result from language choices embodied in education policies, indirectly, become part of the characteristics OECD-PISA testing evaluates in assessing the complexity of education – economic relationships. In other words, economic changes reflect and require changing educational needs – according to the OECD-PISA (2011):

The effect of automation, and more generally of the progress of technological change, is to reduce the demand for people who are only capable of doing routine work, and to increase the demand for people who are capable of doing knowledge work. This means that a greater proportion of people will need to be educated as professionals to do such knowledge-based work. High-wage countries will find that they can only maintain their relative wage levels if they can develop a high proportion of such knowledge workers and keep them in their work force. Increasingly, such work will require very high skill levels and will demand increasing levels of creativity and innovation. This is not a description of one possible future, but of the economic dynamics that are currently in play. In the high-wage countries of the OECD, demand for highly-skilled people is increasing faster than supply... indicators mirror in rising wage premiums for highly-skilled individuals) and demand for low-skilled workers is decreasing faster than supply... Jobs are moving rapidly to countries that can provide the skills needed for any particular operation at the best rates. And the rate of automation of jobs is steadily increasing in both high-wage and low-wage countries. (p. 14)

Unlike the labor-based economy, where access to education worked well for practices of privilege, knowledge-based economies interrupt privilege and respond to practices of compromise. While the cultural economics of national education policies are susceptible to social change, the function of compromise remains a steadfast influencing characteristic in every educational system. Compromise creates privilege, which functions in two ways within social systems: 1) uninterrupted, which produces oppressive social practices, and 2) interrupted, which produces liberating social practices.

Compromise requires subjectivity from all parties coming together to put forth a mission. Whether or not that mission becomes behaviors and practices that favor more people instead of fewer people depends on “the leaders [who] bear the responsibility for coordination and, at times, direction— but leaders who deny praxis to the oppressed thereby invalidate their own praxis. By imposing their word on others, they falsify that word and establish a contradiction between their methods and their objectives” (Freire, 1970, p. 126). Thus, the promise of compromise to produce human literacy practices committed to education as liberation contain missions where the following characteristics constitute the cultural economics as an educational system:

- Cooperation as the work that fulfills the promise of compromise;

- Educational attainment that includes an individual's well-being (physical, emotional, intellectual) and access to adaptable learning opportunities;
- Leadership as the responsibility of the many, not the few.

PISA participation between 2000 – 2012 shows Finland, Singapore, and Canada consistently ranked within the top 20 as high performing educational attainment countries. However, the United Kingdom's and the United States' rankings decreased. In 2003, the United Kingdom's assessment response rate was too low to ensure comparability (OECD/UNESCO-UIS), and neither country has ever ranked above Finland, Singapore, and Canada.

While Finland and Singapore have developed multiple learning choices for students, both countries recognize teacher education must coincide with the demands of educating students. Finland and Singapore provide one choice for teacher education. In Singapore, the National Institute of Education is the only institution allowed to train teachers. To ensure teachers have the knowledge needed to educate children for the 21st-century, Singapore's "government ... funded a long-term Centre for Research in Pedagogy and Practice at NIE, which examined current teaching practices in Singapore classrooms, piloted new approaches and fed back the necessary changes to the ministry" (OECD-PISA, 2011, p. 166). Teacher education in Finland has been professionalized in such a rigorous, and research-based approach to studying education is comparable to studying law and medicine. Finnish teacher education requires:

The successful completion of a master's degree— which includes a bachelor's degree— in teaching takes, [which] in theory [takes], 5 years, but in reality the average graduation time is over 6 years, according to the Finnish Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 2007). There are no alternative ways to earn a teacher's diploma in Finland. (Sahlberg, *Kindle Locations 2275-2277*).

While other countries were developing integrated student-focused educational systems, the United States turned upon its children and watered down teacher education. The cultural economics of education for learning nations put people at the center of education policy, provide rigorous teacher education, and design educational systems that facilitate learning at multiple junctures.

The United States' decentralization of education and use of local autonomy has been cited as a continuous impediment to establishing a strong educational policy. Bok (2013) elaborates on this issue:

In principle, state officials should be able to persuade schools, universities, and community colleges to create a closer alignment between the courses taught in high school and the academic skills and knowledge required for college. Other countries have solved this problem... However, the marked decentralization of education in the United States, with its tradition of local autonomy, makes the problem of coordination especially difficult. Universities resist having to accept a statewide definition of college readiness. Many high school authorities feel that they have enough problems graduating students with the standards already in place without raising the requirements to conform more closely to college demands. (p. 90)

Bok's claim the decentralization and local autonomy overlook the fact the many other countries use have used the same governing approach to solving the educational alignment problem. OECD-PISA reports that decentralized autonomous educational systems are credited with advancing student learning and national education achievement in Canada, Finland, and Singapore (which is deliberately moving away from centralized government run educational systems). The system

works in these countries because education policies value people. Canada, Finland, and Singapore's focus on educating all children is a lesson the OECD-PISA recommends for the United States – as educated children are the best investment for ability and knowledge-based economies.

Conclusion

It is important to note two problematic realities for the cultural economics of education (global or local) as examined here: first, Human Literacy is a way of being that no country in this analysis has accomplished because being human and practicing humane ways of being with others has no mastery. It is always practice. Second, compromise requires trust, which cannot happen without valuing human beings. Thus, compromise as a cultural component of education is a human literacy practice that acknowledges, “trusting the people is the indispensable precondition for revolutionary change” (Freire, 1970, p. 60).

One significant commonality OECD-PISA data reveals that Canada, Finland, and Singapore are each nation's focus on the well-being of children. As the connection between the present and future, children are promises. Nations that come together to put forth a mission to invest in children have better results once individuals come together and work on completing the mission. Thus, compromise (reflection) and cooperation (action) in an educational context provide human literacy practices that begin with *educere* – the drawing out skills and abilities for the development and well-being of the future.

Singapore and Finland provide the most opportunity for learners to discover routes to developing their skills from compulsory education to higher education. Singapore refers to student educational choices as streams, while Finland uses the term pathways. Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States provide the least choices for students (see Appendix A for figures showing each country's educational system). Another comparison between these educational policies is that Finland and Singapore provide more learning choices for students, but limited choices for teacher education and Canada provide limited student choices and limited teacher education programs. However, all teacher education programs in Canada, Finland, and Singapore are rigorous and competitive. In contrast, the United Kingdom and the United States provide limited student learning choices but multiple avenues for teacher preparation. The quality of compulsory student education choices and teacher education programs vary. In some areas of the United States, it is possible to teach with a temporary emergency license.

The educational practices in leading OECD-PISA countries draw on many educational philosophies but emphasize individual ability within a context of structured expectations for basic literacy skills in reading, language acquisition, and math. To address issues of learner readiness, Finland and Singapore allow students multiple opportunities to move between liberal and technical programs (see Figure 1 and Figure 2 in Appendix A).

The cultural economics of global education is problematic for all nations. Part of the problem lies in the reality that uninterrupted privilege is susceptible to interruption. Interrupted privilege disrupts, and rightfully so, practices that implement the “concept of education [as] knowledge [as] a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing” (Freire, 1970, p. 72). This approach to education and the transference of

knowledge is oppressive because it denies the learner opportunities to discover his/her skills and abilities. The idea that humans possess abilities that differ enough from others that both educational concepts - educere (draw out) and educare (mold) – should be used to develop those skills includes are included in a number of educational philosophies.

While compromise provides the promise for countries to create human literacy practices, it does not provide clear direction for the future of education. Finland, Singapore, Canada, the United Kingdom, the United States have education policies at various levels of compromise and privilege. Each country suffers from different struggles; however, the leading PISA countries examined here share more humanizing characteristics, which increase their human literacy practices and are reflected in the design of their educational policy language and systems. Finland and Canada have decentralized educational systems that provide educational autonomy to local regions. Both countries provide holistic educational systems that include significant social services and that address economic disparities. Singapore is in the process of decentralizing its system and examining socioeconomic disparities.

Canada, Finland, and Singapore share some current successful cultural-educational characteristics. All three countries value human beings by providing high quality education to all children and demanding their teachers bring their full knowledge to their work. Canada and Finland trust their teachers and local schools. Each country values diversity by allowing students to learn in their mother tongues and recognize more than one language at the national level. However, the educational future has challenges.

While Canada provides equity and access for educating immigrant populations, support for low-income students continues to present province specific challenges. The country also faces increased issues regarding inclusion, as its teacher may not represent the full scope of Canadian populations. Additionally, it must address its teacher education requirements and the limits of its student tracking practices in secondary education.

Finland must reflect on the consequences of strengths, becoming weaknesses in the case of the nation's policy that children have the right to learn in their mother tongue. Challenging demographics from an increasingly diverse immigrant population makes the mother tongue policy difficult to implement.

Singapore's current vision includes becoming a learning nation. The OECD-PISA, (2011) cites "assessment system, which sets high standards but also inhibits innovation" and "teachers, themselves trained in a teacher-dominated pedagogy" (p. 171) as innovation challenges that prevent teachers from creating the pedagogical changes needed to have thinking schools and be a learning nation. However, even with its innovation challenges, PISA 2012 results show

Singapore students are better at problem-solving tasks that require exploring and understanding, representing and formulating, and monitoring and reflecting than tasks that require planning and executing. That said, this is in the context of Singapore students being still among the highest performing in planning and executing. (OECD-PISA, 2012, p. 1)

From a global perspective, Singapore's performance asserts the country's educational strength. However, the problem-solving abilities of today's 15-year old Singaporean may prove a significant

social issue as these children mature under the country's repressive political system. According to Amnesty International (2016):

The People's Action Party, whose founder, former Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew, died in March, continued to penalize government critics for exercising their right to freedom of expression. The media and human rights defenders were tightly controlled through revocation of [licenses] and criminal charges. Judicial caning and the death penalty were retained.

Thus, it appears Singaporean educational policy and political practices are at odds. The cultural economics of becoming thinking schools and a learning nation will challenge the country's one-party system.

The end of uninterrupted privilege for countries like the United States means an end to a culture of educational "banking" that is ill-equipped for the current changes in the cultural economics of global education. Freire (1970) articulates the uninterrupted privilege of education as "an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories, and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiqués and makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat. This is the "banking" concept of education, in which the scope of action allowed to the students extends only as far as receiving, filing, and storing the deposits. They do, it is true, have the opportunity to become collectors or cataloguers of the things they store" (p. 72). Thus, training and testing are the nexuses for educational policies in countries with histories of uninterrupted privilege. However, in countries, where compromise is integral to cultural economics of the educational social system, the teacher-student relationship cultivates the transfer of knowledge "through invention and re-invention, through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry human beings pursue in the world, with the world, and with each other (Freire, 1970, p. 72).

The educational culture in Singapore, Finland, and Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States show nations at various human literacy. Singapore, Finland, and Canada actively reflect on the values and practices that comprise their educational systems. Whereas, the values and practices that comprise the educational systems in the United Kingdom and the United States lack intentionality and reflection. Without intentionality and reflection, these two countries struggle to advance human literacy practices. Without language use capable of articulating the compromising *sense of community* there is only unauthentic leadership because "there is no true word that is not at the same time praxis" – action and reflection, policy and practice, rhetoric and humanity, compromise and privilege/cooperation – "Thus, to speak a true word in to transform the world" (Freire, 1970, p. 87). Human literacy practices are key components in cultures with successful education policies. Human literacy and economics of privilege and compromise occupy specific cultural roles in the current global educational landscape. As specific cultural, economic characteristics, privilege, and compromise are integral to a country's goal of becoming a learning nation.

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China's ambitious moves with artificial intelligence in educational reformation

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ABSTRACT

Artificial intelligence is one of the most emerging and promising inventions of advanced science and technology today. All the branches of sciences are busy with the applications of artificially intelligent technologies for better output in research, manufacturing, and supply chain management systems et cetera. Likewise, the educationists, especially from the fields of advanced learning technology, try to apply this technological innovation in education as much as they can. As a result, artificial intelligence is now being applied in educational settings in different ways. The People's Republic of China has made many policies and invested billions of dollars (\$150 billion) for developing and implementing artificial intelligent technologies in all the level of governance. Notably, The Chinese government emphasizes the educational system reformation through artificially intelligence technology so that education can be more productive compared to the current situation. The current study investigated to find out the early attempts, policies, investment, and historical development of artificial intelligence for usage in the educational practice in China. The study has been conducted through desktop analysis, content analysis, document analysis, and studying the literature from different sources such as academic articles, government publications, reports, etc. The current study found that the early attempt for the application of artificial intelligence was started by the 1970s in China that was far more moved by the 1990s and 2000s. Now the Chinese government has a new vision to promote artificial intelligence in education and to take the lead in artificial intelligence research and technology by 2030 in the world. Following the action plan of the government, Chinese universities have set up a number of departments and national level key laboratories for artificial intelligence development. The moves taken by the policymakers have been considered ambitious and revolutionizing for the educational transformation.

Keywords: artificial intelligence, pedagogy, intelligent tutoring system, augmented reality, virtual reality

Structured creative processes in the literary tour: The creativity in creative writing education

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ABSTRACT

In spite of the wide application in different disciplines nowadays, the concept of “creativity” in creative writing education still remains discussable and sometimes controversial. Apparently, creative writing education is a discipline closely related to language education, cultural studies and historical studies that share very similar or even the same teaching materials, approaches and methods. However, the objectives of creative writing education are fundamentally different. Whilst the use of language plays an important role in creative writing education, language training is not the ultimate goal of creative writing education, but a tool to achieve the goal. Although the theories of cultural studies are introduced in the creative writing courses to a great extent, they mainly serve as references to stimulate students to think critically and encourage them to observe things from various perspectives. In fact, some teaching activities of history studies (such as interview, field trip, etc.) are adopted in creative writing course, yet the main purpose of introducing those activities in creative writing class is to help students better understand the past, the community and its culture, the experience of the respondents, as well as to learn how to collect and analyze the data in a systematic approach. Thereby, the students will be trained to think outside the box and put their imagination into practice with these materials.

This article will study different types of literary walks in Hong Kong, analyze the development of their creative writing activities in the past 19 years. It will explore the different objectives between different types of literary walks. Then this article will probe into how the objectives of the activity help enhance students’ creativity at large by introducing the ways of observation and imagination together with cultural knowledge.

Keywords: Creative Writing, Theory of Education, Literary Tour, Creativity

I. Introduction:

In 2001, the Hong Kong Literature Research Centre of The Chinese University of Hong Kong began to host a large-scale literary walk in Hong Kong. Since then, the Research Centre has continued to organize literary walk with government, cultural and educational institutions. The nature of literary walks has become more and more diverse and abundant. In addition to visiting the places mentioned by the works of modern writers who have already passed away, the Research Centre has also invited some Hong Kong local scholars, writers, and educators to share their experiences in literary creation, literary education, and creative writing education, at the end of the literary walk, participants are encouraged to transfer their experience of visiting different Hong Kong areas into literary works.

In fact, describing a place in a literary work; reading and visiting a place mentioned in a literary work, is a process of the creation of "Topographical Literature", from this perspective, the literary walks organized by the Research Centre in the last 19 years is actually a large-scale of construction of Hong Kong literary landscape.

In addition to the Hong Kong Literature Research Centre of the Chinese University, other arts and cultural institutions in Hong Kong, such as the Hong Kong Arts Development Council, the Hong Kong Public Library, the Radio Television Hong Kong and the House of Hong Kong Literature have been promoting the writing of the Hong Kong community and the reading of Hong Kong local literature. The construction of literary landscapes is not a new literary phenomenon. However, as in the past two decades, Hong Kong has been constantly constructing literary landscapes through various literary works and activities. This actually reveals that in the past 20 years, the local identity consciousness has become stronger and stronger. The creative writing training in literary walks is actually a method to establish literary landscapes, to raise community awareness, and to strengthen local identity for the students.

This experience of literary walks in Hong Kong provides us a very good example to have a better understanding of some principle concepts of creative writing education. Apparently, creative writing education is a discipline closely related to language education, cultural studies and historical studies that share very similar or even the same teaching materials, approaches and methods. However, the objectives of creative writing education are fundamentally different. Whist the use of language plays an important role in creative writing education, language training is not the ultimate goal of creative writing education, but a tool to achieve the goal. Although the theories of cultural studies are introduced in the creative writing courses to a great extent, they mainly serve as references to stimulate students to think critically and encourage them to observe things from various perspectives. In fact, some teaching activities of history

studies (such as interview, field trip, etc.) are adopted in creative writing course, yet the main purpose of introducing those activities in creative writing class is to help students better understand the past, the community and its culture, the experience of the respondents, as well as to learn how to collect and analyze the data in a systematic approach. Thereby, the students will be trained to think outside the box and put their imagination into practice with these materials.

II. Different types of literary:

On May 4, 1987, Professor Lu Wei-Luan (better known by her pen name Xiaosi), a professor from the Chinese University published a series of articles on the theme of Cai Yuanpei, Lu Xun, Xu Dishan, Dai Wangshu and Xiao Hong in the "Sing Tao Daily • Star Bridge". The articles focus on the relationship between these Chinese modern literature masters and their stories in Hong Kong. Through this series of articles, Professor Lu hopes to let readers understand that Hong Kong is actually a successor of Chinese modern culture.

In order to spread this concept more effectively, Professor Lu decided to take the participants in the "literary walk" to visit the places full of literary history memories. On February 11, 2001, Professor Lu organized a literary walk for the Chinese Language and Literature Department of the Chinese University of Hong Kong and Hong Kong Education Bureau. More than 100 students from joined the tour and visited different places in Hong Kong Island which are closely related to the life of the Chinese modern writers mentioned above. The event was an unprecedented success and became the beginning of the literary walk of the Hong Kong Literature Research Center of the Chinese University of Hong Kong. The event was a great success and became an important model of a literary walk in the future.

In 2008, the Research Centre co-organized a Hong Kong literature tour with the Hong Kong Public Library and Radio Television Hong Kong. Different from the literary walk in 2001, the objectives of the literary walk in 2008 is not only for introducing the life and the works of modern Chinese writer, but also hope to introduce some ideas of creative writing through the sharing of several Hong Kong local contemporary writers, such as: Prof. Lu Wei-Luan, Ye Hui, Chen Zhide, Wang Lianghe, Chen Han, Hu Yanqing, Liu Weicheng.

There are other remarkable changes in the literary walk in 2008 is the bibliography proposed by the Research Centre. The bibliography of 2008 includes a series of works of the local contemporary writers in order to help the participants have a better understanding of the relationship between the writers and the literary landscape. One

more difference of the bibliography in 2008 is all the works selected are Hong Kong literature, the consciousness of Hong Kong identity is relatively obvious.

These two changes are not accidental, by comparing the literary walk in 2008 and the literary walk in 2010, it is quite obvious that literature appreciation, literature history study, and creative writing education played a less important role in the literary walk in 2010, however, the studies of customs culture and historical investigation have received considerable attention. The reason for this difference is strictly related to the different concepts in 2008 and 2010. The 2008 literature walk, aimed at:

because as long as the activities of the 2008 literature walks are compared with the next session of the "Hong Kong Literature Walk" in 2010, you can find the literature walk in 2010 in literature appreciation and literature history study. The composition of literary creation and so on is less than that of 2008, but the composition of customs culture and the historical investigation is heavier than that of 2008. This difference is obviously closely related to the concept of the two-day literature walk. The 2008 literature walk, aimed at:

*"let the famous writers and scholars lead readers to study their works, walk into their streets, touch the human landscape with their eyes and ears, explore the conception background and writing process, study the consciousness of local identity in Hong Kong literature, and taste Hong Kong through local writers, experience the local atmosphere through their works."*¹

As for the objective of the literary walk in 2010, it is:

*"The literary walk is guided by well-known writers and scholars, readers will find out local Hong Kong culture. By reading literary and historical works, readers can look back on the years that Hong Kong has gone through and pursue the imprint of Hong Kong's literary landscapes in the changing times."*²

If we compare the guest speakers of the literary walks in 2008 and 2010, we can see clearly that the focus of the two events is different. In 2008, the seven guest speakers were all pure literature writers. In 2010, however, among the six guest speakers, there are four of them: Ding Xinbao, Xiao Guojian, and Liao Disheng and Xu Zhenbang were historians and cultural studies scholars. It is quite obvious that historical and cultural studies played a more significant role in the literary walk in 2010. Comparing with the

¹ <http://rthk9.rthk.hk/elearning/littour/>

² <http://rthk9.rthk.hk/elearning/littour2010/background.htm>

two previous literary walks in 2001 and 2008, the literary walk in 2010 is a historical and cultural studies oriented literary walk, the role of literature education and creative writing education are relatively less significant.

III. From “Topographical Literature” to “Topographical Writing”

Topographical Writing is a relatively broad definition of the genre. It covers various writings with "Place", such as travel notes, geographical reports, local customs investigations, traveler's dairies, traveler's letters, military-strategic investigations, etc. These texts do not necessarily have rich literary and artistic values, but generally, have considerable practical functions.

As for Topographical Literature, it refers to some literary works with local themes and themes. Although "place" plays a key role in geography, there is a certain difference between Topographical Literature and other Topographical Writings.

In addition to the difference in value between literature and art, Topographical Literature also emphasizes the author's "local sense" compared with other Topographical Writings. In particular, the author's subjective feelings about the place. There are differences in the starting point of Topographical Literature and Topographical Writings, the interest in reading Topographical Literature is often to taste the "local sense" in the work, and the interest in reading Topographical Writings is to look for the information.

Even the same venue, if it is studied from the different perspectives of Topographical Literature and Topographical Writing, different messages will be received. For example, Yuk Tak Bathhouse, a shanghai style bathhouse which was located in Prince Edward Road West, if the reader receives it from the perspective of Topographical Writing, it is in a cultural and historical landmark as it is the first shanghai style bathhouse in Yau Tsim Mong District. However, if the reader receives Yuk Tak Bathhouse from the perspective of Topographical Literature, which means if we consider it as a literary landscape, it becomes a symbol of sadness and regrets as the famous scene of the separation of the main characters Li Bihua's novels: *Rouge* had taken place in it.

From 2001 until 2012, the Hong Kong Literature Research Center has continued to explore the possible modes of literary walks. Five literary walks have gradually established two types of literary walks: Literature and creative writing education-oriented (in 2001, 2008 and 2011) and Historical and cultural studies oriented (in 2010 and 2012). The major factor which determines the nature of the literary walk is the perspective of the reception of the literary works.

From an educational perspective, the literary walk is actually an interdisciplinary

activity involving multiple intelligences. Different types of literary walks can achieve multiple goals. In order to provide a different experience to the participants with various learning necessity, teacher and organizer of a literary walk could design their literary walk with a different orientation, different styles and different modes of literary walks have their own importance. However, since the focus of this article is on how literary walks can be used as a literary creation experience to encourage participants to construct literary landscapes, the following content will focus on Literature and creative writing education-oriented literary walk.

IV. From literary walk to the construction of literary landscape:

The construction of the literary landscape begins with the creation of the landscape into the literary works. As the literary works are repeatedly read, the connotation and the value of the literary landscape will continue to be deepened. Chibi, Yellow Crane Tower, Yumen Pass, and West Lake in Chinese classical literature are typical examples. From the perspective of Hong Kong literature, Yu Guangzhong's Shatian, Tolo Harbour and Chinese University; Shu Xiangcheng's Lei Yue Mun and Tsuen Wan, the To Kwa Wan Bay in the writing of Xixi; North Point, San Po Kong written by Leung Ping-Kwan, etc., also belonged to the classicized literary landscape in Hong Kong literature.

The literary walk of the Hong Kong Literature Research Center is mainly based on reading and field trips. When participants read and examine a literary landscape, the meaning and value of the landscape will be deepened, as a result of both literary works and landscapes, they are classicized. When the literary walk began to invite participants to write the landscape, the meaning is even more profound. For the landscape that has already been written, the new writing can continue to deepen and enrich the connotation of the existing landscape, and for the landscape which has not been written before, these writings are groundbreaking.

In the four years from 2012 to 2016, the Hong Kong Literature Research Centre has helped the participants produce 223 pieces of Hong Kong Topographical Literature. The literary landscape involved is even more concentrated in the 18 districts of Hong Kong. It is indeed a record worth remembering. Some Topographical Literature, such as *The rainy days of San Po Kong*, *At noon in Quarry Bay*, *The tree of the Pok Oi Hospital* by Sunny Mak Shu-Kin, the *Reminiscence* of Chan Tak-Kam, and *The lantern of the temple* of Tang Tat-Chi, etc., with the literary walks repeated again and again, these articles and their literary landscapes will be gradually introduced to the young readers and become more classical. Some of the landscapes that have not been written in the past, such as the "Zhu Rong Ji" in Sheung Wan, the Mei Xin Shu She in Mong Kok, the market in Sheung Shui, and the Tsuen Wan Sports Ground also became some new literary landscapes as they were recorded in the works of the participants of the

literary walk.

V. From the construction of the literary landscape to the construction of the consciousness of identity:

In the past two decades, the construction of literary landscapes through literary walks have been not only witnessing the flourishing development of literature education in Hong Kong but also made a more significant impact: the construction of the consciousness of identity.

In a book called "*La culture et le pouvoir: transformations sociales et expressions novatrices*" published in 1983, French sociologist Paul-Henry Chombart de Lauwe make a definition for "Identity":

*When an individual receives an identity, he will distinguish him from the others by name. When he has the past and self-awareness, when he takes his responsibility, he becomes a person. By developing his innate potential, and accumulating more and more extensive experience and knowledge, as well as social life from his own society, he constructed a personality [...]. The relative autonomy of the individual and the formation of personality can only be established through the relationship established with others and the collective social organization.*³

There are two points should be highlighted in the definition of Chombart de Lauwe. First, the identity of a person must be based on the collective of social organization. Another point is that one of the conditions for the establishment of personal identity is "Histoire."⁴ Human self-awareness is established by the "past"-- the experience of oneself, in other words, "memory", and by the relationship between human beings-- society and by memory. According to this point of view, there are also some ideas of another two scholars that should be taken as reference. They are Maurice Halbwachs and Pierre Nora.

Halbwachs believes that in personal memory, it actually contains a social level of memory. He believes that the reason why individuals weave their impressions about the past because they want to understand the past through society. Paul Ricoeur, a contemporary French philosopher, pointed out in his book "*Mémoire, L'histoire, L'oubli*" that the core view of Halbwachs can be summarized in one sentence: In order to remember, we need others.

³ Translated by writer of this article from Chombart De Lauwe, *La culture et le pouvoir :transformations sociales et expressions novatrices* , Paris, L'Harmattan, 1983. p.74 – 75.

⁴ In French 'Histoire' also means 'history' and 'story'.

Personal memory begins with a careful analysis of the experience of the group in which a person belongs, based on the basic information he obtains from the others, and then he constructs his personal memory. As Halbwachs wrote in his *La Mémoire collective*:

*If collective memories can produce strength and continuity among a group of people, it is actually because each individual in the group is remembering their members. We can reasonably say that each individual's memory is a point of view in collective memory, and this view will change because of the location, because of my relationship with other people in the group.*⁵

French historian Pierre Nora applied Halbwachs's point of view to the field of history and compiled a series of historical researches, *Les lieux de mémoire*, through this series, Noah tried to sort out the relationship between place and memory. What Nora did was not the traditional archaeological nor historical investigation, but to establish some memory road signs and to define some places that link the feelings and spirit of the French people's memory of history. These road signs and places are all inlaid with French culture and identity, and the work of Nora is to analyze how these places become the crystallization of the French collective memory.

Combining the views of scholars such as Chombart de Lauwe, Halbwachs, and Noah, we can sort out a concept: some of the "places" that link the time, space, and identity, including human value judgments, descriptions, and aesthetics. They all carry collective memories, and these collective memories will become the reference for each individual to construct their own identity.

Noah's research focuses on the relationship between cultural heritage landmarks, historical landmarks, museums, and collective memories, but if we carefully analyze the nature of cultural heritage landmarks and historical landmarks—especially intangible cultural heritage, such as national anthems, national heroes, etc. It is not difficult to find that there is a branded literary landscape with human value judgments, descriptions and aesthetics, and their carrier, Topographical Literature, is, in a broad sense, a cultural heritage landmark.

Looking at the literary walks with the above concepts, it is not difficult to find that whenever participants in literary walks deepen or construct literary landscapes through visits, reading, and writing, they are actually pursuing and constructing collective

⁵ Translated by writer of this article from Maurice Halbwachs, *La mémoire collective*, Paris, Albin Michel, 1997, p.94-95.

memories by exploring cultural landmarks, and asking for self-identity.

Professor Lu Wei-Luan introduced Hong Kong literary in "Sing Tao Daily" and organized literary walk because she wanted that her readers and the participants of the literary walk could remember the "forgotten by history", especially the relationship between Hong Kong and some famous Chinese modern writers, since the end of the Qing Dynasty. Through visiting some literary landscapes which carry collective memories, Professor Lu expected the participants of the literary walk could connect with the traditional culture and the tradition of Chinese modern literature.

VI. Conclusion:

In the past two decades, there have been many literary and artistic activities related to literary landscapes in Hong Kong. The literary and artistic organizations organize these activities, either to arouse public memory of history, or to promote literary reading and creation, or to respond to educational policies, the needs of the frontline teachers and to encourage the public to care more about the city...no matter what is the original intention of these events, once the events are associated with the literary landscapes, they will inevitably push the participants to face the traditional culture and collective memories, as well as identity issues.

The decisions of literary organizations to organize literary activities are often based on a variety of considerations which are more often subject to non-literary factors, such as funding, administrative costs, social recognition, etc., However, if different Hong Kong literary organizations in the past two decades, have been both being interested in the literary landscape at the same time, and they have been keeping organizing activities related to literary landscape, this may not be just a coincidence, but rather a reflection of collective unconscious of society. This phenomenon the Hong Kong social spirit reflected behind the phenomenon, as well as the articles written by the participants of the literary walks, are worthy of in-depth discussion by cultural studies and literary scholars. This is a valuable reference for exploring Hong Kong's growing consciousness of local identity in recent years.

The Challenges Faced by Undergraduate Students in Writing Research Term Papers: Myanmar Higher Education

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ABSTRACT

Research, by its very nature, is a critical challenging task that requires in depth knowledge of the subject matter, planning, care, and hard work. From the perspective of the students, this research attempts to analyse the challenges that are faced by undergraduates when they are writing research term papers in the final year at the University. The study target group consisted of undergraduates attending the final year at the respective University. Around 170 subjects participated in this study and they were from Arts and Science Departments who conducted their research term papers. The research tools of the study include questionnaire and informal interviews with students and teachers of the target groups. Clearly, the results show the various and common challenges that are faced by undergraduates during writing the research proposals and term papers such as: difficulty in deciding the topic for research, lack of good knowledge of the methodology, inability of finding modern, specialized and related references, lack of interest in research, lack of understanding of the subject matter, lack of time, writing the research proposals and projects in English as Foreign Language and research guiding. The study also attempts to give some suggestions / recommendations for developing the process of writing research proposals and research projects. Data have been drawn from the experiences of university undergraduate students of Myanmar universities. This research followed a mixed methods design where qualitative approaches, including interviews with teachers and focus group interviews with students, dominated the overall research process. This research first employed a questionnaire to gather responses from a number of university undergraduate students in Myanmar. The questionnaire data (largely quantitative in nature) were used to gain an overview of participants' perspectives, practices and challenges in doing their research. Based on the analysis of students' views and the interviews of the teachers, it is found that students face many challenges while composing and writing proposals and research projects. There are some recommendations and suggestions to challenges and help them do well in the earlier stage of writing research proposals and term papers. There should be more focus in the academic writing of English with more activities and training workshops. Supervisors should provide students with good guidance and help them in selecting the topics which have good materials and resources. Further research can be extended to identify the research challenges in each variable discussed in this study in details as it will be interesting and useful such as research ethics or motivation.

Keywords: Challenges, undergraduate students, research term papers, Myanmar

1. Introduction

The study examined challenges that undergraduate students face in conducting research in Myanmar Universities. In our view, the undergraduate level is a fertile ground for such an investigation. The paper makes use of descriptive surveys, focus group discussions and document analysis. Random sampling shall be used for descriptive surveys, while purposive sampling shall be employed for focus group discussions, which shall be conducted in different regions. One hundred and seventy Bachelor students filled in the questionnaire. Research data were analyzed and interpreted thematically. The study came up with 5 categories of some of the challenges that undergraduate students experience in their conduct of research. Research is a systematic investigation. Publication of the results is sometimes used as a measure of whether research is generalizable, but this is too narrow a measure for two reasons. First, not every study will produce results worthy of publication. Second, there are other ways that results can be made available to others. They may be presented at a conference. Once the university approves a research protocol, it must be reviewed at least annually, although university may specify a shorter review period. Amendments and changes to approved protocols must be approved prior to their implementation. The main reason for this practical research is to analyse the common academic challenges facing undergraduate students in the early stages of writing research projects in English. Students face various challenges in writing research in L2. Some of them might experience internal limitations which includes motivation while for some it would be external, as in related to proficiency in L2, understanding research methodology, experience, motivation. Since the research proposals and projects are in L2, good proficiency and the good knowledge of the specialization helps much in writing good research term papers. This research attempts to examine whether writing research term papers in English as Foreign Language (EFL) acts as a challenge for students in the earlier stages of conducting research or not. Another aim is to identify the major challenges undergraduate students face when they are writing research term papers as new process to them and to check whether the undergraduate students are familiar and aware of the challenges and difficulties of writing and conducting research term papers. In this work, we investigate the issues that motivate the undergraduate students in this stage to do well in writing research term papers and figure out the reasons that de-motivate them. Best and Khan (2009) investigated the challenges faced by postgraduate students in higher education institutions. They explored that student's challenges in doing research include difficulty in deciding the topic for research, lack of good knowledge of the methodology, inability of finding modern, specialized and related references, lack of interest in research, lack of understanding of the subject matter, lack of time, writing the research proposals and projects in English as Foreign Language and research guiding. Most importantly, the challenges faced students in writing research proposals were absence of standard format, lack of knowledge in identifying clearly relevant literature review, lack of good, adequate, and regular feedback from supervisors, lack of materials related to selected topics, and finally the time arranged for writing proposals was not adequate. This research was conducted to investigate undergraduate students' problems and challenges at Universities in Myanmar. The data were collected from 170 postgraduate students for the study through questionnaire and interview. The findings of the study explored that the challenges facing participants were mainly related to linguistic, cultural, institutional, and disciplinary issues. The most dominant challenges were (a) the difficulty in expressing ideas in L2 and (b) lack of References and resources. The major reasons for low proficiency in writing EFL contexts is due to various factors such as grammatical weakness, less practice, lack of motivation,

educational background, weaknesses in using appropriate lexical items when they write their graduation research projects. The study recommended that students should acquire specific knowledge to prepare research proposals. The courses designers and supervisors should have practical insight and clear identification of the students' skills and attempt to develop students' research proposals through courses content and activities in research methodology. Many interesting works are available in the literature which show clearly the good steps of writing research proposals / projects and can be useful for supervisors and researchers in the early stage of writing research.

2. Methodology

2.1 The Participants

The study includes 170 undergraduate students (90 students from Science and Arts Departments, 80 students from English Department) in their early stage of writing research and 49 university teachers from different specializations. They all study in Universities of Myanmar. The participants have been trained how to write research proposals and projects for one semester. Majority of them have done research proposals and projects.

2.2 Rationale of the Study

Students face many challenges and obstacles during their early stage of writing research proposals and projects in English as Second Language (ESL). The primary reason for this research is to address the common challenges in this early stage of writing projects in English. Another reason is to make learners and teachers (supervisors) aware of the various challenges faced by the students in this stage. Other reasons for this research suggest to give good steps for research in this stage. For instance, teachers can make use of L1 environment and can give students tasks and small research projects to conduct in L1 and make them familiar with research process. Therefore, this method would make researchers more secure and motivated to conduct researches in English henceforth. Another reason for conducting such type of the study is to highlight the importance of including research-based teaching that open and enhance student's cognitive abilities and facilitate in comprehending research process.

2.3 Research Questions

The study is designed to give answers for the following:

- (i) Is writing research proposal and projects in English as Second Language (ESL) acts as a challenge for students in the earlier stages of conducting research or not?
- (ii) What are the common challenges faced by the undergraduate students when they are writing proposals and projects as new process to them?

2.4 Data Collection and Analysis

Questionnaire and informal interviews are used to collect data from the sample of the study. The questionnaire covers five different areas, and each area includes several sub parameters and the main factors are: language challenges; specialization and discipline, methodology, references and resources, and research motivation as well as interest. The questionnaire has been translated into L1 to get accurate responses from the participants. Also, interviews with several supervisors were carried out to diagnose the problems and reach an ultimate solution. In the coding process, each variable and question is identified by a name, and is defined by a number of

acceptable codes or by a range of valid values. In general the variables are divided and categorized and given values, (Agree=3, Disagree=2, and neutral =1) as included in the questionnaire.

2.5 Language Challenges

In recent years there has been numerous research reporting on the role of language with regard to learners' learning a second or foreign language. In the present study the learners of English as a foreign language participated. Data were collected by means of a questionnaire and then they were analyzed. As a result of this study perceptions of challenges in writing of the participating students were identified.

Table 1: Responses of the participant students on language challenges in writing research proposals and projects as new process to them (n=170)

Sr No	Facing challenges in writing	Responses		
		Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	Facing challenges in writing research in L1	12.03%	-	87.97%
	Facing challenges in writing research in L2	60.21%	13.76%	27.03%

The data in Table 1 indicates that students face more challenges when they are writing in L2. Around 60 % of the students experience and encounter challenges when they write in L2 (English as Second Language (ESL) and more than 80 % prefer to write their research in L1 and during discussion with students, they said that they would perform better if the research proposals and projects are in L1. We can infer from Table 1 that the ability of conducting research proposals and projects itself is not a challenging process in L1 but writing in L2 is the common obstacle facing students in the early stage of writing research. This shows that some students have low proficiency in English which affects negatively their performance in writing their research projects. The data also shows that challenges in conducting research in L2 for the undergraduate students is because of the lack of enough vocabulary in L2, not able to form sentences in coherent and correct way, less experience in arranging information in a written texts, lack of understanding of the complex and new terminologies in L2.

2.6 Common Challenges

Research, by its nature, is a critical challenging task that requires in depth knowledge of the subject matter, planning, care, and hard work. Thus, common challenges have been investigated when students conduct a research.

Table 2: Responses of the participants on common challenges when they conduct a research (n=170)

Sr No	Five different areas	Responses		
		Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	Language challenges	60.21%	11.31%	28.48%
	Specialization and discipline	41.05%	2.90%	56.05%
	Methodology	48.91%	24.92%	26.17%
	References and resources	53.71%	6.41%	39.88%
	Research motivation and interest	33.33%	26.09%	40.58%

In this study, many challenges have been found including: Language challenges (60.21%), References and resources (53.71%), research methodology including formulating research questions and hypotheses, setting the background and introduction section, gathering information and data collection, objectives and references citation (48.91%), Specialization and discipline (41.05%) and Research motivation and interest (33.33%). It is noticed in item 2 for lack of research-related courses. The participants' good knowledge of their specialization helps them to do well while conducting research projects. Majority of the participants (56.05%) say that their specialization helps them do well in the research. On the other hand, some other participants (41.05%) are not with the idea that the specialization help in conducting the research. This is because they have some other reasons like the lack of good knowledge in writing in L2 and the methodology of research. Item 3 stated the need for the students: to mount regular workshops for research supervision and writing for students, to provide opportunities for teachers and students to carry out collaborative research work, to supply teachers and students with research guidelines so that they will not abuse and misuse each other and to motivate teachers and students to present conference papers at local and international conferences that teachers and students can polish their research experiences and skills. That way, both parties will be able to know what is expected of them in the supervision of research projects, as well as, their writing of the research reports. It is also noticed in item 4 that critical challenges were lack of library resources, lack of internet facilities, lack of library resources, and lack of computer literacy and lack of workshops which negatively impacted on the students' capacities to conduct research. Finally, it has been found in item 5 that 40.58% of the participants disagreed that they conduct their research because it is obligatory in their study / curriculum. 33.33% of the participants agree and they are interested in conducting the research. However, 26.09% of the participants are neutral. Data on question item 5 shows that students are having different reasons for writing and for their unwillingness to have research proposals and projects. 40.58% are interested in writing research proposals and projects, 33.33% are not interested in writing the research proposals and projects whereas 26.09% are having neutral views in this regard.

Interview Responses of the Teachers on Challenges for the Students about Research Methodology

Moreover, based on the analysis of the interviews of the teachers, we found that students face many challenges while composing and writing proposals and research projects. There are some recommendations and teachers' suggestions to challenges and help them do well in the earlier stage of writing research proposals and term papers.

Table 3: Responses of the teachers on challenges for the students about research methodology (n=49)

Sr No	Research methodology variables	Responses		
		Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	Lack of knowledge of research methodology	72.03%	11.08%	16.89%
	Facing obstacles in formatting research	60.21%	6.44%	33.35%

	proposals and projects			
	Lack of good skills in selecting research tools, data collection, and data analysis	40.85%	6.43%	52.72%
	Not following research ethics including plagiarism	51.67%	30.11%	81.78%
	Having a problem and challenges in writing and reporting the results	49.84%	11.48%	37.68%

Table 3 summarizes the challenges and the issues the participants face during writing research proposals and projects with respect to research methodology. It includes: Lack of knowledge of research methodology in general, facing obstacles in formatting research proposals and projects, having a good skill in selecting research tools, data collection, and data analysis, following research ethics including plagiarism, and having a problem and challenges in writing and reporting the results. Table 3 also explores that most of the participants face challenges in applying research methodology in general (72.03%) in formatting their research proposals and projects (60.21%), lack of adequate knowledge in selecting research tools, data collection, and data analysis (40.85%), and because of such prior challenges faced by students, the predominant challenge is to report the results especially coherently in L2 (49.84%). Another challenge noticed is that students are not able to report from sources during writing process. Cumming, Lai, & Cho (2016) found that many studies in L2 or in English as Foreign language (EFL) contexts show that learners are met with the complex processes of writing from sources. From the discussion of the participants' responses, the interview, and research tools, it is shown that all the factors addressed in this study are interrelated as each factor depends on the other.

Surprisingly the participants show that they have problems in understanding the research ethics and plagiarism (51.67%). In addition to the fact given in Table 3 about the methodology issues with regards to the research ethics and plagiarism, the informal discussions and interview show differently of the participants' views in the data and the supervisors say that the participants do not apply the research ethics. Similarly, Mhute (2013) showed that one of the common mistakes committed by students is plagiarism and it is better to avoid it as it is unethical and it's a standard issue. Some other reasons for not doing well in writing research with reference to methodology include: difficulty to find the research tools to suit the research topic and less and weak guidance for the students. There are not simplified research books help students know well the research methodology / good steps to write research.

Interview Responses of the Teachers on Challenges for the Students Related to the References in Writing Research

Table 4: Responses of the teachers on challenges related to the references in writing research (n=49)

Sr No	Sub-variables	Responses		
		Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	Having knowledge how to quote from	37.92%	31.44%	30.64%

	references			
	Being able to make use of online references and resources	51.67%	21.90%	26.43
	Having knowledge of the well-known, modern, and specific references which help in writing research proposals and projects	40.12%	23.22%	36.66%
	Having references and resources in the surrounding libraries	25.83%	13.42%	60.75%

Table 4 examined the challenges of the undergraduate students faced during writing their research proposals and projects with reference to the way how to quote and to get good references and resources which is the second biggest challenge in Table 2. Around 30.64% of the participants said that they do not know how to quote from the references and 37.92% of the participants do not face challenges when they quote from references. The rest of the participants took the neutral position (31.44%) when they are asked the challenges while quoting from references. Not surprisingly, with the spread of technology in hand, majority of the students (51.67%) make use of the online references rather than hard copy references and less number of the students use hard copy references while writing their research proposals and projects. The third question in Table 2 show that 40.12% of the participants have knowledge about of the well-known, modern, and specific references which help them in writing research proposals and 36.66% are not familiar with the famous references to help them do well in their specialization. Most of the participants (60.75%) agreed that there is a lack of the references and resources in the surrounding libraries where they are studying. Similarly, Al-qadiri (2016) found that the most needed references and recourses do not existed in the libraries and students have difficulties in finding them.

3. Results

Based on the analysis of students' views and the interviews of the teachers, we found some challenges and difficulties students face while composing and writing proposals and research projects. The most common challenge or difficulty students face while writing research proposals and projects in the early stage is writing in L2. The common challenges have been investigated on the following:

- (i) Writing the research proposals and projects in English as Second Language
- (ii) Selecting the right methodology of writing proposals
- (iii) Lack of good knowledge in specialization.
- (iv) Lack of references and resources
- (v) Lack of motivation in writing proposals and projects.

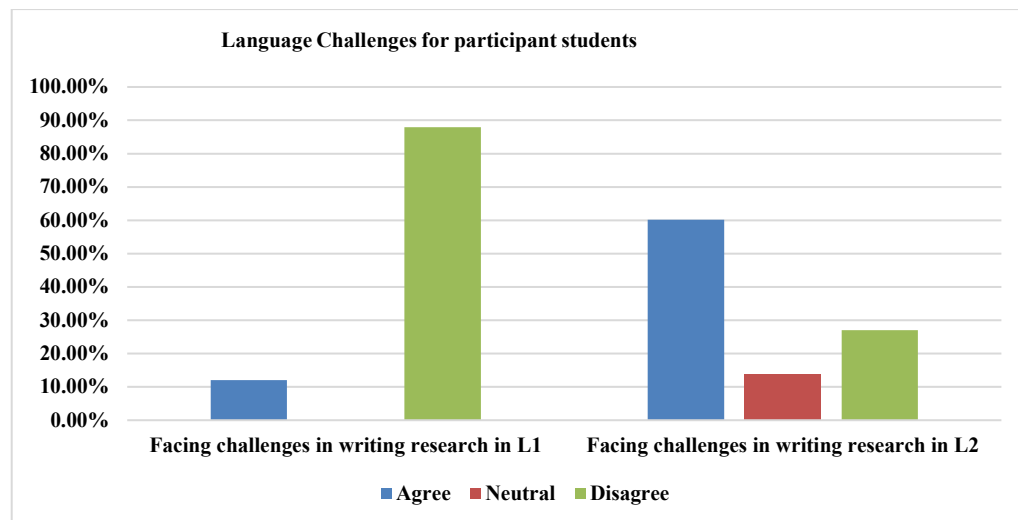


Figure 1: Responses of the participant students on language challenges in writing research proposals and projects as new process to them (**n=170**)

Figure 1 summarizes the relationship among all the factors affecting either negatively or positively the performance of students' writing research proposals and projects in L2 in the early stage. When we asked students about the reasons behind not being interested and motivated in the research process, they gave various reasons. (a) Generally, the research is in L2. (b) The participants did not select their research topic early. (c) Research affects concentration on the other subjects. (d) Lack of encouragement and providing awards. (e) Lack of experience in writing the research. Moreover, (f) the students are not interested in writing research projects because they are mandatory in their course study. On the other hand, some students said that they are interested in writing research due to many reasons. (a) There is a good academic atmosphere to gather participants with teachers. (b) The participants feel they can gain good experience in new things and they feel that they have achieved something crucial and substantial. (c) Acquiring in depth knowledge while conducting research projects is also one of the reasons to motivate the participants. (d) Getting high marks and prizes motivate undergraduates to write proposals and projects. Therefore, teachers should take this into account this and motivate learners by conducting competition and giving awards for the best research proposals or project. Low proficiency in writing in English in general quietly affects students' motivation and many studies have been carried out to highlight the strong relationship between lack of motivation and learning L2.

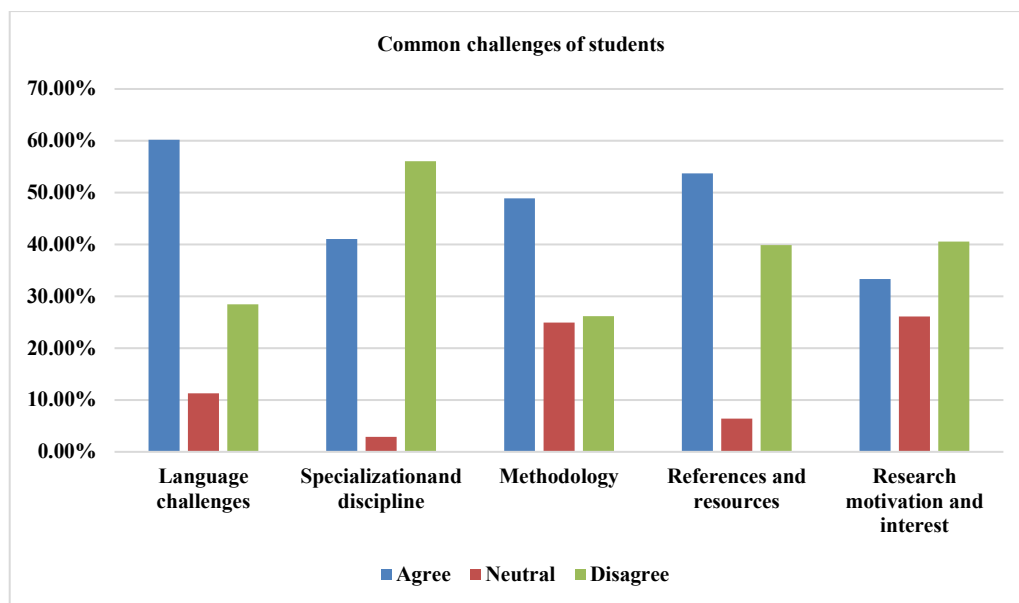


Figure 2: Responses of the participants on common challenges when they conduct a research (n=170)

Critical challenges were lack of library resources, lack of internet facilities, lack of research-related courses, lack of library resources, and lack of computer literacy and lack of workshops which negatively impacted on the studied students' capacities to conduct research. The study drew some conclusions from the findings. First, it concluded that no one set of challenges that research participants experienced in the conduct of their studies wholly impacted on the quality of their research projects. The five categories were mutually exclusive to each other.

4. Discussion

English in Myanmar is taught as Foreign Language (FL) and it is found that the predominant problems the students encountered were broadly (1) the weak academic level of the students might in English as medium of instruction and research or in specialization (2) the lack of well-equipped library with open access to e. resources and websites, and (3) students' difficult circumstances and their negative attitudes towards research projects. Some common mistakes include writing broad titles with no clear and focused content in the introduction. The statements of the problems were not stated clearly to guide the readers and writers were not able to identify the correct research techniques. The literature reviews were not adequate and the research methodology including research questions were not formed well. The study concluded that a high rate of undergraduate students had challenges in preparing research proposals, particularly the lack of proper guiding and supervision, and suggests some points to strengthening supervision and guiding skills. Writing skill is a difficult skill for most of Myanmar learners who learn English as L2 because forming a good piece of writing requires not only high proficiency of the Second language' linguistic rules but also demands good cognitive skills in organizing and presenting ideas. Myanmar-speaking learners usually have difficulty in writing as a productive skill which requires highly good cognitive and linguistic abilities. The study explored that the learners have a difficulty in presenting the ideas and they usually transfer the stylistic features from their L1. Not only learners are influenced by L1 but it is found that learners write long sentences and they keep repeating the same ideas around the topic and replicate phrases without targeting the main idea. Writing as process is challenging and writing anxiety is prevalent amidst learners of L2 and they fear from

writing process as it requires good command of the language and the ability of put forth the ideas coherently and logical manner. Many studies conducted on writing anxiety which we would like to highlight the challenges of EFL learners and how they receive anxiety. It is found that the productive skills, writing and speaking show high anxiety among learners more than other language skills, (Atay & Kurt, 2006). Many genuine steps and proposed studies have been done towards developing students' skills in formulating their proposals and research projects in effective way in their early stage of writing research proposals / projects in Myanmar. Alfakih (2017) investigated the impact of a training program on enhancing postgraduate students' research skills in preparing a research proposal. After designing a training program for improving skills of writing research proposals, questionnaire was used to given for the participants. Pre-test and post-test tool were used to get clear results for examining students skills. The results showed improvement and effectiveness of the training program in enhancing the student's skills and this was clear from the participants' performance between pre-test and post- test. The study's major recommendations included the need for the universities: to mount regular workshops for research supervision and writing for both teachers and students, to provide opportunities for teachers and students to carry out collaborative research work, to supply teachers and students with research guidelines so that they will not abuse and misuse each other and to motivate teachers and students to present conference papers at local and international conferences that teachers and students can polish their research experiences and skills. That way, both parties will be able to know what is expected of them in the supervision of research projects, as well as, their writing of the research reports.

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Teachers' Perceptions about Language Assessment: A Call for Training

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ABSTRACT

“Assessment” of foreign languages is an important area of examination because it is considered as an essential process influencing both the teaching and the learning practices and beliefs (Cohen, 1994). Moreover, it seems that perceptions that teachers have on assessment are likely to influence their assessment practices. This research is set up to explore teachers' perceptions of assessment in order to determine their beliefs, attitudes and views that affect their assessment practices. It also seeks to determine whether there are significant differences in teachers' perceptions of assessment by gender. Data were collected from a questionnaire survey with 130 teachers. Teachers' perceptions of assessment were measured through a calculation of the percentage. The findings revealed that university teachers who participated in the research reported favorable and positive perceptions of assessment. Participants considered the ultimate goal of assessment is to make decisions on teaching and learning. The majority of the teachers also perceived that the basic role of assessment is to raise learners' concentration on their efforts in learning. Furthermore, the usefulness of assessment in making students confident and in enhancing their performance was maintained by a large proportion of the participants.

Keywords: Assessment, perceptions of university teachers, assessment practices, gender differences.

1. Introduction

Reynolds, Livingston, & Willson (2006) argue that while many teachers love teaching, many are not very interested in assessing students. As a result, teachers tend to have a negative view of assessment. More often than not, this negative view stems from personal experiences. Terms such as assessment, testing and evaluation usually have a negative connotation as they are associated with anxiety, stress, pressure or failure. Moreover, tests play a powerful role in the lives of language learners (Shohamy, 2001). They provide information about both student achievement and growth, but tests are also used to provide rewards or sanctions for universities, teachers, and students. For instance, tests are used to determine who passes or fails a course, to control discipline, to threaten students, among other things. This is in part why so many people have a negative view of assessment. Something that could help minimize this negative perception is to understand the differences found in assessment, testing and evaluation. Assessment is “a term often used interchangeably with testing; but also used more broadly to encompass the gathering of language data” (Davies et al., 1999). In other words, an assessment is any systematic procedure to collect information about students. This information is then interpreted and used to make decisions and judgments about the teaching-learning process. Testing, on the other hand, is simply one way to assess, so it can be described as a procedure to collect and interpret information using standardized procedures. Finally, evaluation can be described as a “systematic gathering of information in order to make a decision”

(Davies et al., 1999). All these terms combined describe the classroom assessment process. Teachers gather information about what students know and can do; they interpret this information and make decisions about what to do next. Sometimes they quantify this data to assign grades and then make judgments based on them. What we, the authors, have learned from our experiences is that some teachers usually collect information at the end of the process and therefore the assessment cannot be used to enhance learning. Furthermore, what some teachers lack the most is the ability to use and interpret this information to guide the decision-making process. Another aspect that needs to be mentioned here is that the assessment component is recognized as an essential part of the curriculum, but it is the area in which many teachers express a lack of confidence and claim the least knowledge (Nunan, 1988). Moreover, teachers commonly conceive assessment as an isolated activity (separate from teaching); equate assessment to simply giving a grade or score, and view assessment as a summative process rather than an ongoing process.

Since the 20th century, recent studies have advocated for assessment as an important aspect and an integral component of effective teaching and learning (McMillan, Myran and Workman, 2002). Goodrum et al. (2001) maintain that effective learning occurs when correspondence exists between teaching, evaluation, and results. Therefore, due to its close relation with instruction and learning outcomes, assessment has a key role in learning. In this context, Goodrum et al. (2001) state that “assessment enhances learning, provides feedback about student progress, builds self-confidence and self-esteem, and develops skills in evaluation”. Classroom assessment is an essential aspect in the teaching process since it informs the teacher about what students think and about how they think. Assessment then helps teachers to recognize what students already know and what they need to learn. It is an important tool through which teachers can use to inform their teaching and the learning of their students. However, the way teachers perceive assessment may influence the way they teach and assess their students. Thus, teachers’ perceptions will build a foundation and rationale for the assessment practice they use in their classrooms. This research seeks to understand the meaningfulness of classroom assessment through teachers’ lenses. It is set up to investigate teachers’ perceptions of the role classroom assessment in teaching and learning.

1.1 Assessment

Assessment has been defined variously in the literature. Linn and Gronlund (2000) define assessment of student learning as a systematic process of collecting information about student progress towards the learning goals. They maintain that students’ performance can be measured in various ways, including “traditional paper and pencil tests, extended responses (essays), performance of authentic task, teacher observation, and student self report” (Linn and Gronlund, 2000). Similarly, Dhindsa et al. (2007) describe assessment as a key component of teaching and learning, “a systematic process of data gathering” about students’ progress. Therefore, assessment can be seen as the process of collecting information purposefully using different methods / strategies and tools for the purposes of informing decision. Thus, assessment is an integral part of teaching and learning which involves the process of gathering, interpreting and recording information related to student progress in learning and the effectiveness of the teaching strategies. It aims at bringing about improvement for both the teacher who is assessing and the students who are being assessed. Assessment enables teachers to gather information about the students’ progress as well as the extent to which methods of instruction used are helping the

students to achieve the intended learning outcomes. Through assessment teachers can explore better ways of supporting students' learning and regulating their teaching strategies. On the other hand, assessment helps the students to know the areas that they need to work hard so as to attain the desirable learning outcomes. Assessment is used to improve both teaching and learning and is crucial in ensuring the quality of education offered. It can contribute to enhancing quality of education if appropriate decisions and measures are taken based on the information revealed through assessment. However, determining what to assess and how to assess effectively and establishing remedial measures required, is a complex process. Other researchers consider assessment as a key tool for sustaining students' engagement in learning as well as for stimulating their commitment and efforts to research. This means that students are likely to focus and concentrate in their studies if they know that they will be assessed. Their commitment tends to correlate highly with the stake associated with the decisions to be made based on assessment they undertake. For instance, when promotion to the next class depends on attaining a certain pass mark score, they will tend to take studies more seriously than they would if the scores were to be used only for reporting purposes. Assessment also has an influential role in encouraging and motivating students' learning and in formation of good research habits. According to Linn and Gronlund (2000), encouragement and reward of individual efforts would have been difficult if there was no assessment and excellence in achievement would be less demonstrable.

1.2 Perceptions on Assessment Practice

Views or opinions held by an individual resulting from experience and external factors acting on the individual. The significance of the research lies on the fact that perceptions of teachers on assessment have implications on how assessment is implemented and on the use the information generated to enhance teaching and learning. In emphasizing the importance of perceptions, although teachers are trained to develop sound and valid assessment measures, their perceptions and beliefs may affect the way they teach and assess their students and their rational may influence the way students precede with learning and the way it is tested. It is well documented that assessment has a great influence in teaching and learning. The desire to ensure alignment of assessment with teaching and learning process has led to a growing interest to investigate teachers' perceptions of assessment and their assessment practices and skills. The purpose of this research is to explore perceptions of university teachers in Myanmar on assessment. Researching teachers' perceptions of assessment is important due to the fact that perceptions affect behavior (Brown, 2006). Thus the research is designed to investigate the perceptions of assessment held by university teachers in Myanmar.

2. Method of the Research

Assessment is an integral part of the language learning process and a powerful informed decision-making tool. Unfortunately, not many language teachers are trained to make assessment decisions that will engage and motivate students and, as a result, enhance learning. In this research, we present the results of a research that examines teachers' perceptions about language assessment and the way they use language assessments in their classrooms. The findings suggest that there is a significant difference in the perceptions that teachers have depending on the level of training they have in language assessment. Thus, we highlight the importance of providing

adequate training in language assessment for all prospective language teachers in Myanmar.

2.1 Research Questions

This research aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. How do university teachers perceive 'assessment'?
2. Does gender affect / influence teachers' perceptions of assessment?

2.2 Objectives of the Research

The major purpose of the research is to explore university teachers' perceptions of assessment in Myanmar. The research intended to achieve the following objectives:

- (i) To investigate teachers' perceptions of assessment.
- (ii) To determine whether there are significant differences in teachers' perceptions of assessment by gender.

2.3 Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaires are among the most widely used instruments in research studies. They are very useful for gathering large-scale information regarding different kinds of issues, such as language needs, communication difficulties, preferred learning styles, preferred classroom activities and attitudes, and beliefs (Nunan, 1988). Data of this research were gathered by means of a questionnaire survey developed by the researcher and administered to university school teachers in Myanmar. The questionnaire comprised two parts: one part included items concerning the demographic information of the participants; and the other consisted of items relating to teachers' perceptions of assessment. The internal consistency estimate of reliability for the questions was estimated to be .85. The use of piloting in the case of a questionnaire is necessary to establish whether it is too long or too short, the wording is not ambiguous, the type of questions and general format are easy to comprehend, the questionnaire is visually adequate, the questions are not redundant and the directions are easy to follow. In this research, the questionnaire was piloted with two English language teachers to check its content and written expressions. In this research, questionnaires were distributed to 130 English language teachers via email. The teachers' consent to participate in the research was sought and secured. They were assured that all the data collected were for research purposes only, and their confidentiality would be respected during the research.

2.4 Participants

Since the research is concerned with teachers' perceptions of assessment and the context is Myanmar EFL setting, the target participants are EFL teachers teaching in different regions in Myanmar. The sample included 130 university teachers who volunteered to take part in the research. It is to be noted that there are significantly higher number of female teachers, which is reflected in the gender profile of the participants (68 female and 62 male participants).

2.5 Data Analysis

This research uses cross-sectional design to gather quantitative data on the demographic information of the participants and their perceptions of assessment. It also aims at exploring any differences in perceptions relating to gender. The questionnaire is divided into two parts: items relating to personal information and items relating to teacher's perceptions of assessment. Descriptive percentage was used

in this research. Data are used to identify the frequency of perceptions of the participants and to capture any significant difference that may be reflected by gender.

3. Results

3.1 Demographic features of the Participants

Analyzing the first part of the questionnaire which is concerned with the demographic characteristics of the participants reveals the major characteristics of university teachers who willingly participated in this research. The following table 1 indicates the composition of participants by gender and by teaching experience.

Table 1(a): The composition of the participants by gender

Gender	Number	Percent
Female	68	52.30%
Male	62	47.70%
Total	130	100%

Table 1(b): The composition of participants by teaching experience (N=20)

Teaching experience	Number	Percent
Less than 5 years	11	8.46%
6 - 10 years	14	10.77%
11 - 15 years	23	17.69%
16 - 20 years	31	23.85%
21 - 25 years	19	14.62%
More than 25 years	32	24.61%
Total	130	100%

As shown in table 1, female teachers comprised of 52.30% percent whereas male teachers comprised of only 47.70% percent of the participants. The following figure 1 illustrates the composition of participants by gender.

3.2 Teachers' Perceptions of Assessment

Research question 1: How do university teachers perceive assessment?

This part of the questionnaire is divided into five sections:

- (i) The perceived purpose of assessment
- (ii) Teachers' views and attitudes on the role of assessment
- (iii) The perceived timing for conducting assessment
- (iv) The types of activities used for conducting assessment
- (v) A perceived source of assessment

Each section reflects teachers' understanding and views of assessment. Teachers were asked to indicate their responses to various statements that they were given regarding assessment.

(i) Perceived purpose of conducting Assessment

We examined teachers' perceptions of assessment regarding to the purposes of assessment. This is important because, in order to make an effective assessment, which improves learning, teachers' perception about assessment and the way how teachers understand assessment results should be changed. The analysis of the teachers' responses revealed their reasons for implementing assessment. The responses of the teachers are provided in Table 2.

Table 2: Teachers' perceived views on the purpose of assessment

Sr No	The purpose of assessment	No. of mentions (percentage)
1	Make decisions on teaching and learning	75.56%
2	Assign marks to students	37.02%
3	Rank students at the end of each term	57.61%
4	Evaluate students' learning progress	78.75%
5	Evaluate the effectiveness of the English textbook	34.33%

Based on the statistical findings presented in table 2, a large proportion of the participants (75.56%) indicate that the primarily purpose of implementing assessment is to make decisions related to teaching and learning. This entails that those university teachers perceive assessment as a necessary tool in guiding them in terms of "what to teach next" and "how to teach". Many researchers demonstrated also that the major aim of conducting assessment is to make decisions related to teaching and learning. They further argued that classroom assessment should provide feedback to modify the teaching and learning process. On the other hand, 37.02% of the teachers assume that they use assessment for the sake of assigning marks to the students and 57.61% believe that assessment is necessary to rank students at the end of the each term. This implies that university teachers were mostly concerned with the accountability function of assessment. Since they are required to generate and report marks and grades to each pupil based on his oral performance in the classroom, this shows that they put lots of emphasis on the formative type of assessment. This finding is consistent with Airasian (1994) who contended that "administratively, universities need grades to determine such things as student's rank in class, credits for graduation, and suitability for promotion to the next level". Similarly, in this research it was revealed that teachers had the university accountability conception of assessment. Furthermore, 78.75 % of the participants perceive the purpose of implementing assessment is to evaluate learner's learning progress. In this regard, the university teachers' emphasis on this particular purpose of assessment displays their regular consolidation and review of the learners' acquired knowledge.

They aim to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their learners through assessment and oral feedback. A small proportion of the participants (34.33%) indicate that teachers resort to assessment in order to evaluate the effectiveness of currently used English textbooks. Those university teachers can offer valuable insights about the efficiency of certain teaching practices and learning objectives since they ultimately seek to identify and criticize the elements and the parts of the textbooks that require revision, modification and change. Thus, their view is based on summative purposes. Finally, the analysis of the teachers' responses to the first part of the questionnaire displays significant variation that is attributed to differences in assumptions regarding the purpose of assessment.

(ii) Teachers' Attitudes and views on the role of assessment

Teachers' responses concerning their attitudes and views towards the role of assessment are analyzed and presented in the table below.

Table 3: The different attitudes and views towards assessment

Sr No	Teacher's attitudes and views towards the role of assessment	No. of mentions percent
1	Assessment raises students' concentration, motivation and engagement in learning.	50.00%

2	Assessment makes the pupil confident for his final examination.	56.03%
3	Assessment increases the workload for teachers.	48.76%
4	Assessment plays an important role in enhancing students' performance.	75.53%
5	Assessment significantly contributes in the improvement of the learning and teaching practices.	64.44%

Table 3 shows that university teachers have highly favorable perceptions of the role of assessment in enhancing learners' performance (75.53%), improving the learning and teaching practices (64.44%) and rising learners' concentration and engagement in learning (50%). The fact that the majority of the participants perceive assessment as a key tool to enhance students' performance and augment their concentration, motivation and engagement in the classroom setting reflects a motivational perspective. It is widely observed that students tend to focus and concentrate more on a subject matter if they already know that they will be assessed than if they know that they will not be assessed. Many scholars argued for the use of assessment to enhance students' performance and learning. Similarly, it is believed that the feedback motivates learners to research (Dweck, 2006). Dweck stated that, "Students are different. Some of them perform well, while others need to put a big effort to perform well. Therefore, I stimulate those students who may struggle to research by giving them feedback such as: you made a good job keep on doing it." However, some authors criticize this kind of feedback because it leads to increasing self-esteem of students. Instead, students should be motivated to learn in order to meet requirements of teacher. More importantly, they should know and understand their own progress. Respondents' perception on a statement that assessment makes the learner confident for his final examination was favorably high with a percentage of 56.03%. Statement that assessment increases the workload of teachers is agreed by a medium proportion of teachers as reflected by 48.76%. Teachers with such views tend to consider assessment as a burden for them rather than an important tool which generates useful information for enhancing both teaching and learning.

(iii) Perceived Timing of Implementing Assessment

The timing through which teachers deliver assessment is displayed in the following table.

Table 4: The timing of employing assessment

Sr No	Timing of employing assessment	No. of mentions percent
1	At the end of a module	49.06%
2	At the start of a module	18.34%
3	Assessment should be based on teacher convenience	57.6%

According to table 4, the analysis of the teacher's responses concerning the timing of implementing assessment reveals that a large proportion of the participants (57.6%) report that assessment should be conducted based on teacher convenience. While 49.06% of the participants suppose that assessment is to be implemented at the end of a module, 18.34% think that assessment should be conducted at the start of a module.

Their views can be explained as such: first, the practice of not assessing at the start of a module precludes the opportunity to modify / design teaching in response to student understanding (Prosser & Trigwell, 1999). Secondly, the practice of not allowing students to be assessed when they feel ready for assessment i.e. at the end of the module denies that students may need differential amounts of time to achieve desired learning outcomes.

(iv) Perceived Types of Activities for Conducting Assessment

EFL teachers have at their disposal a variety of classroom communicative activities that can be used in order to assess learner's performance. Table 5 below presents teachers' choice of activities.

Table 5: Types of activities used for conducting assessment

Types of activities used for conducting assessment	No. of mentions percent
Role-plays	50.17%
Oral interviews	43.08%
Picture description or stories	37.71%
Project-works	19.05%

According to the statistics presented in table 5, the majority of teachers favor the use of 'role plays', 'picture description or stories' and 'interviews' as useful communicative activities designed for assessing learner's performance. A small percentage of respondents 19.05% favor the use of 'project-works'. The use of 'Role plays' is strongly agreed by a total of 50.17% and 'picture description or stories' is strongly agreed by a total of 37.71% and 'interviews' is agreed by a total of 43.08%. This shows that when carrying out oral feedback, university teachers tend to highly focus on interactive activities which create an authentic and dynamic learning environment. Teachers who agreed upon the use of 'picture description' hold the assumption that pictures are ideally suited for eliciting language from learners. For this reason, they can be included in the assessment of individual learners. The use of 'Project works' is also agreed by a total of 19.05%. This implies a summative view of assessment. This type of activity is a great way to help students make real-life connections with the material, as well as increase motivation, collaboration and engagement. Hence, depending on their purposes and convictions, university teachers rely on diverse classroom activities for the sake of conducting assessment.

(v) Perceived Sources of Assessment

Teachers responses to the different sources from which assessment can be generated are displayed in the following table.

Table 6: Perceived sources of assessment

Sr No	Sources of assessment	No. of mentions percent
1	Teacher assessment	78.36%
2	Peer assessment	50.36%
3	Self-assessment	31.29%

The statistical information shows that teacher assessment is highly favored by a significant percentage of 78.36%. Self-assessment and Peer assessment are respectively favored by percentages of 31.29% and 50.36%. It seems that assessment

is closely intertwined with teacher-based assessment. This can be related to the role attributes to the teacher inside the classroom as the one who has the power to guide and direct the teaching process. Even the self based assessment should be supported and encouraged by the teacher. However, this disregard to the importance of peer assessment and self-assessment reflects teachers' unawareness of their benefits. In fact, peer assessment and self-assessment are important part of helping students "realize about their role in their learning and helping them participate in their learning more actively (Black & William, 1998b). Self-assessment and peer-assessment helps students to know about their own progress and what else they need to do to reach desired goals of course. More importantly, self-assessment and peer-assessment helps students to be a self-directed learner. Hence, the majority of the respondents reported a high preference of teacher-assessment at the expense of peer and self- assessment. However, recent studies advocate for including students in the process of developing assessment tools because student involvement in peer assessment adds more value to the learning process.

4. Discussion

In our experience we have found that in some language classrooms, assessment is not a continuous process and it tends to be more summative than formative, in the sense that the only feedback students get is their grades. When we observe foreign language classrooms, more often than not we notice that assessment is generally not used appropriately. Likewise, we find that language testing is not given the importance it should have. An example of this is that some teacher education and teacher-training programs do not offer extensive training in language assessment. As a result of this lack, tests and testing systems are often subject to abuse because test scores and test interpretations are put to a host of different uses. Thus, tests are frequently used unethically for purposes other than those they were intended for originally and do not facilitate the language learning process. Previous studies about language testing have highlighted the need for more research as regards the use of assessment practices in the Colombian context. Therefore, we feel we need to begin a conversation about the role of language testing in the classroom and in the language learning process. This is why it is critical to examine the perceptions that English language teachers have about the purpose of assessment, the use and interpretation of assessments and the impact that these have on the educational system and individuals. Research about teachers' perceptions of assessment is important because teachers' conceptions of teaching, learning, and curricula have a strong impact on how teachers teach and what students learn or achieve (Brown, 2006). The main goal of this research is to create awareness among the language teaching community in Myanmar about the importance of adequately and effectively using assessments in the classroom to promote language learning. Assessment practices are currently undergoing a major paradigm shift mainly because of the emphasis on standardized testing and its perceived shortcomings. Alternative assessments were proposed as a response to large-scale assessment instruments with the idea that they would enable educators to attend to differences in learners, address learning over a period of time, and include communicative performances in a variety of ways. Some of the most commonly used alternative assessment instruments or procedures are writing samples, journals, portfolios, classroom projects, and interviews (Brown, 2006). Chamot & O'Malley (1994) developed an approach that combines assessing thinking skills with language learning skills and content learning, so students would learn how to learn in an academic environment through English. Similarly, Short (1993) discusses the need for

better assessment models for instruction where content and language instruction are integrated. She describes examples of the implementation of a number of alternative assessment or approaches such as checklists, portfolios, interviews and performance tasks.

Results of this research point out that, generally, university teachers who participated in the research have highly favorable perceptions of assessment and they hold highly the motivational function of assessment. They also strongly agreed to the usefulness of assessment in improving the learning and teaching practices and in enhancing students' performance. Although most of the participants reported favorable perceptions of oral assessment and they acknowledge its importance, they seem to be facing a problem in employing effective oral assessment in their classrooms. Some respondents deem assessment as a supplementary load to their work in class and consider it necessary only for reporting purposes. They are unlikely to use assessment to design remedial measures for students because for them using assessment for reporting purpose is more important than using it in facilitating teaching and learning. To conclude with, this research advocates that training programs should focus on equipping university teachers with necessary skills for assessing their students and also encouraging them to appreciate the role of assessment rather than considering it as an additional workload.

4.1 Limitations of the Research

This research was limited by the fact that it has relied exclusively on the reported perceptions of teachers. It is likely that there is mismatch between what is being reported and what is actually practiced. Future studies could establish a relationship between perceptions and assessment practices. It could also be important to explore challenges that teachers are facing in implementing classroom assessment.

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Perceptions of University Teachers on Promoting Research in Teaching and Learning

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ABSTRACT

The focus of this research is to explore the strategies to promote research in teaching and learning used by higher education institutions, to investigate the ways in which pedagogic research can be facilitated and to find out the capacity for research-based practice in teaching and learning. The purpose of this study is to investigate how university teachers benefit from research experiences as part of their teaching and learning. The data were collected by electronic questionnaires (n = 186) at selected Universities. Myanmar Education programs guided teachers to use and conduct research in the teaching profession. The results indicate that student teachers value research experiences. Research studies promoted professional competences and supported students' growth toward evidence-based practice and 21st century skills. Active learning experiences reinforced this positive effect. The implementation of research studies, quality of supervisors and integration with other studies were crucial. According to the data, in order to promote research capacity relating to teaching and learning the first priority (81%) of the participants agree was to develop research orientated consciousness among staff. Initially this should be accomplished via socialization in certificated courses on teaching and learning which require a minimum level of pedagogic research for successful completion. Through these courses, staffs are encouraged to think of their professional practice as requiring investigation and evaluation using relevant theoretical frameworks with which to reflect on and analyse their teaching. In some institutions, opportunities also exist for more experienced staff to engage in Master's level programmes in which they must demonstrate high level critical reflection on the interrelationship between theory and practice and the ability to take and implement decisions based on analysis and investigation (O'Reilly, 1996). Some participants (73%) have addressed the lack of recognition and reward for establishing career routes which reward staff who are pedagogically research active. They require the staff member to take on a role for supporting teaching and learning generally and encouraging the investigation of teaching and learning issues within their departments. Another feature of strategies for supporting pedagogic research capacity 69% of the participants mention is the provision of a funding mechanism for small scale funding for research projects to promote investigation of innovations and / or evaluation of teaching and learning practice. The opportunity is provided for staff to develop their final report into a paper of publishable standard and includes getting feedback on the projects at public seminars / workshops as well as from the university. Acceptable papers are then published internally for dissemination across the institution. In order to ensure that the pedagogic research culture becomes embedded, additional assistance is provided at both institutions in the form of support networks. According to the responses of the 42% of the participants, the format of these networks differ in a number of ways,

however common mechanisms for supporting the research include: workshops on how to get published and how to upgrade investigations into a published paper, one-to-one support, email / newsletter notification of opportunities for publications and presentation at conferences, linking people across the institution with similar pedagogic research interests, teaching and learning research clusters designed to provide peer review of work in progress, and seminars for initial presentation of research results to test out ideas. Internal publication schemes are in place in both institutions as well. Papers are internally refereed and where appropriate given a designated ISBN. Some participants reported that only 23% the staff within university are themselves involved in research projects and are 'research active'. Another approach to building research capacity recommended by 64% of the participants is the appointment of Visiting Professors and Fellows whose responsibility is to lead the pedagogic research agenda through advice and guidance to staff and deliver a professorial lecture in the area of scholarship of teaching and learning. Bringing their experience, reputation and expertise from more research intensive universities lends weight and credibility to the application process for institutions that lack the track record in applying for large scale grants. A theme running through all these strategies is the way in which participants want to link to the institutional culture and enable staff to investigate and evaluate the professional practice in which they are already engaged. Thus, building research capacity in teaching and learning in HEI's requires understanding the dominant academic culture, the mission of the institution and the ethos of the teaching departments within them. If these understandings are then used as the basis for developing investigative pedagogic research projects, the research will be perceived as having immediate value and utility to both individual staff members and to the institution as a whole. These are important drivers for taking pedagogic research forward.

Key word: Perceptions, University Teachers, Research in Teaching and Learning

1. Introduction

Achieving an appropriate combination of teaching and research as the two key elements of education offered by the institutions of higher education in the world has been and is a challenging task for the educational leadership and policy makers. It is generally accepted that teaching is the most important factor that influences students' attainment, and evidence points to a link between high quality teaching and practitioners' ability to engage with and use research. Myanmar is not alone in facing the challenge of seeking to increase teacher engagement with and use of research. The Myanmar education system has many of the features that evidence suggests contribute to a research-engaged education system. However, it is possible to draw conclusions from the broader literature on encouraging evidence use: simply providing access to evidence is ineffective; programmes designed to increase skills need to address motivation as well as capability; interventions that support unstructured interaction are ineffective; changes to standards and policies need to be supported by measures to address skills and access to evidence; and initial teacher education and training has a vital role to play.

(i) Teacher Engagement with Research (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009)

This research has focused on how to encourage teachers to use research-based evidence, but there are different types of 'research-based evidence' that can usefully inform practice, and different ways in which teachers might 'use' research-based evidence. Any attempt to improve engagement with, and use of, research should be

designed with these differences in mind, because they point to intended outcomes that could look dramatically different.

(ii) Promoting Capacity for Research-Based Practice in Teaching and Learning (O'Reilly, 1996)

In order to promote research capacity relating to teaching and learning the first priority was to develop a teaching and learning research orientated consciousness among staff. Initially this was accomplished via socialization in certificated courses on teaching and learning which require a minimum level of pedagogic research for successful completion. Through these courses, staff members are encouraged to think of their professional practice as requiring investigation and evaluation using relevant theoretical frameworks with which to reflect on and analyse their teaching. In higher education institutions, opportunities also exist for more experienced staff to engage in undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in which they must demonstrate high level critical reflection on the interrelationship between theory and practice and the ability to take and implement decisions based on analysis and investigation (O'Reilly, 2008). For many staff members in the universities, their first pedagogic research has been a paper originally submitted as part of the coursework of a bachelor or masters' program. Another approach to building research capacity is the appointment of Visiting Professors and Fellows whose responsibility is to lead the pedagogic research agenda through advice and guidance to staff and deliver a professorial lecture in the area of scholarship of teaching and learning. They also assist in the development of proposals for external funding and by being associated with applications for research grants. Bringing their experience, reputation and expertise from more research intensive universities lends weight and credibility to the application process for institutions that lack the track record in applying for large scale grants.

(iii) The Culture and Values of Pedagogic Research within Higher Education Institutions (D'Andrea, 2000)

Building research capacity in teaching and learning in Higher Education Institutions requires understanding the dominant academic culture, the mission of the institution and the ethos of the teaching departments within them. If these understandings are then used as the basis for developing investigative pedagogic research projects, the research will be perceived as having immediate value and utility to both individual staff members and to the institution as a whole. These are important drivers for taking pedagogic research forward. The culture and values of Higher Education Institutions varies enormously. Although the institutions are very different in some respects they also have features in common. Nevertheless we would like to suggest that the following features are likely to assist in building pedagogic research capacity.

- (i) Certificated awards with a strong requirement to investigate practice in teaching and learning and the opportunity to receive tutoring
- (ii) Promotion routes which give recognition to those who successfully undertake pedagogic research
- (iii) Funding mechanisms, either internal or external which can provide pump-priming for small scale investigative projects
- (iv) Establishment of support networks to overcome staff isolation and to build the knowledge and skills of new research active staff to enable them to apply for grants and achieve publications in teaching and learning
- (v) Internal peer-reviewed publications to enable work-in-progress to be published
- (vi) External expertise via appointment of Visiting Professors and Fellows

- (vii) Link with pedagogic research
- (viii) Build on institutional mission and demonstrate value of the pedagogic research at individual, department and university levels

In order to ensure that the pedagogic research culture becomes embedded, additional assistance is provided at both institutions in the form of support networks. The format of these networks differ in a number of ways, however common mechanisms for supporting the research include: workshops on how to get published and how to upgrade investigations into a published paper, one-to-one support, email / newsletter notification of opportunities for publications and presentation at conferences, linking people across the institution with similar pedagogic research interests, teaching and learning research clusters designed to provide peer review of work in progress, and seminars for initial presentation of research results to test out ideas. Internal publication schemes are in place at universities as well. Research papers are internally refereed and where appropriate given a designated ISBN.

2. Methodology

There is growing recognition of the potential of evidence-informed practice in universities to transform teaching and learning and there have been a number of practical infrastructure developments over recent years, which aim to bridge the gap between research and practice. While these developments are resulting in some promising practice change, our new research briefing suggests that there is still some way to go to achieve evidence-informed practice across the teaching profession. The purpose of this study is to investigate how university teachers benefit from research experiences as part of their teaching and learning. The data were collected by questionnaires (n = 186) at selected Universities. Myanmar Education programs guided teachers to use and conduct research in the teaching profession. Specifically, we found that: research still has only a small influence on teachers' decision-making relative to other sources teachers were most likely to draw on their own expertise, or that of their colleagues, when making decisions about teaching and learning or whole-university change. Teachers were, on average, willing to engage with research evidence, and reported that their university climates were supportive of evidence use. However, it appears that this willingness and those positive climates were not yet consistently translating into evidence-informed decision-making across universities.

(i) Teacher Engagement with Research (63%)

There is growing recognition of the potential of research practice in universities to transform teaching and learning which aim to bridge the gap between research and practice. Table 1 in this research suggests that there is still some way to go to achieve research practice across the teaching profession. Funding mechanism is important for the internal and external research projects to promote investigation of innovations and / or evaluation of teaching and learning practice. Most were a type of grant to assist staff in preparing for applying for 'real' money from the Ministry.

Table 1: Responses of the participants on teacher engagement with research (n = 186)

Sr No	Factors on teacher engagement with research	Responses		
		Agree	No Sure	Disagree
1	Staffs are provided a funding mechanism for small scale research projects to promote investigation of innovations and / or	69%	5%	26%

	evaluation of teaching and learning practice.			
2	Acceptable research papers of the staffs are then published internally for distribution across the university.	57%	2%	41%
Avg		63%	3.50%	33.50%

According to Table 1, 69% of the participants report that they have a funding mechanism for small scale research projects from MOE and they could demonstrate an active approach to thinking about, investigating and promoting innovation and new approaches to teaching and learning for the benefits of current and future students.

(ii) Promoting capacity for research-based practice in teaching and learning (30.11%)

Increasing research capacity in teaching and learning of higher education is important to recognize that capacity for research-based practice in teaching and learning by the institutions was explored within which they are situated.

Table 2: Responses of the participants on promoting capacity for research-based practice in teaching and learning (n = 186)

Sr No	Factors on promoting capacity for research-based practice in teaching and learning	Responses		
		Agree	No Sure	Disagree
1	Staffs are encouraged to develop research orientated consciousness relating to teaching and learning.	81%	12%	7%
2	Staffs are encouraged to attend certificated courses on teaching and learning which require a minimum level of pedagogic research for successful completion.	27%	22%	51%
3	Staffs are encouraged to think of their professional practice as requiring investigation and evaluation using relevant theoretical frameworks with which to reflect on and analyse their teaching.	31%	18%	51%
4	Staffs are encouraged to attend workshops on how to get published and how to upgrade investigations into a published paper.	6%	27%	67%
5	Staffs are provided with one-to-one support, email / newsletter notification of opportunities for publications and presentation at conferences.	42%	11%	47%
6	Staffs are encouraged to link people across the institution with similar pedagogic research interests, teaching and learning research clusters designed to provide peer review of work in progress.	10%	26%	64%
7	Staffs are encouraged to attend seminars for initial presentation of research results to test out ideas.	35%	11%	54%

8	Staffs who are pedagogically research active are encouraged to have recognition and reward for establishing career routes.	27%	31%	42%
9	Staffs are encouraged to take on a role for supporting teaching and learning generally and encouraging the investigation of teaching and learning issues within their departments.	12%	6%	82%
Avg		30.11%	18.22%	51.67%

According to the 42% of the participants, some universities have addressed the lack of recognition and reward for establishing career routes which reward staff who are pedagogically research active. The staff members take on a role for supporting teaching and learning generally and encouraging the investigation of teaching and learning issues within their departments. Although 81% of the staffs are encouraged to develop research orientated consciousness relating to teaching and learning, only about half are provided with one-to-one support, email / newsletter notification of opportunities for publications and presentation at conferences.

(iii) Culture and values of pedagogic research within higher education institutions (34.30%)

In order to create optimal conditions for a balanced and strategic culture and values of pedagogic research in the institutions of higher education, universities must demonstrate a strong academic and research leadership, commit all the required resources, show operational flexibility, and last but not least, build supportive institutional culture. Only 23% of the staffs within the university are themselves involved in research projects and are 'research active' thus 64% of the participants agreed that Fellowships in teaching and academic development along with the teaching awards are central to the Universities' development of teaching excellence. This report focuses on the progression of teaching excellence at a strategic level through the Fellowships in teaching and academic development. They allow teaching excellence to be celebrated and disseminated within the University and more widely at national and international level through publications and conference dissemination.

Table 3: Responses of the participants on the culture and values of pedagogic research within higher education institutions (n = 186)

Sr No	Factors on culture and values of pedagogic research within higher education institutions	Responses		
		Agree	No Sure	Disagree
1	Research papers are internally refereed and given a designated ISBN at university.	1%	-	99%
2	Staffs within the university are themselves involved in research projects and are 'research active'.	23%	13%	64%
3	It is important for Universities to have appointment of visiting Professors and Fellows whose responsibility is to lead the pedagogic research agenda through advice and guidance to staff and deliver a	64%	1%	35%

	professorial lecture in the area of scholarship of teaching and learning.			
4	Certificated awards are strongly required to investigate practice in teaching and learning and the opportunity to receive tutoring.	51%	6%	43%
5	Promotion routes give recognition to those who successfully undertake pedagogic research.	89%	-	11%
6	Funding mechanisms, either internal or external provide pump-priming for small scale investigative projects.	32%	14%	54%
7	Support networks were established to overcome staff isolation and to build the knowledge and skills of new research active staff to enable them to apply for grants and achieve publications in teaching and learning.	15%	21%	64%
8	Internal peer-reviewed journals were published to enable research work-in-progress.	3%	11%	86%
9	Universities have link with pedagogic research.	26%	7%	67%
10	Universities build on institutional mission and demonstrate value of the pedagogic research at individual, department and university levels.	39%	8%	53%
Avg		34.30%	8.10%	57.60%

As academics, teachers may at times feel the attractions of teaching and research as opposing forces. Promotion processes, as well as their own desire to advance their field, usually require recognition to those who successfully undertake pedagogic research that 89% of the teachers agree to devote considerable time to research, publication, and presentation. On the other hand, teaching is one of their primary obligations as a scholar. They have a strike for the right balance. According to the data, 39% of the participants report that excellence in teaching and research are mutually exclusive. They consider the similarities between the two endeavors.

3. Result

With the development of economy, science and technology of Myanmar, the number of the university students has been increasing significantly over the past decade. In our teaching practice, we have introduced a research-oriented teaching / learning curriculum both in the undergraduate and postgraduate programs for the students and achieved some initial positive outcomes. In this research, we explore our practice and examine the important issues in research-oriented teaching / learning. Our practice and discussions may provide insights into promoting research-oriented teaching / learning and improving the quality of higher education program for students.

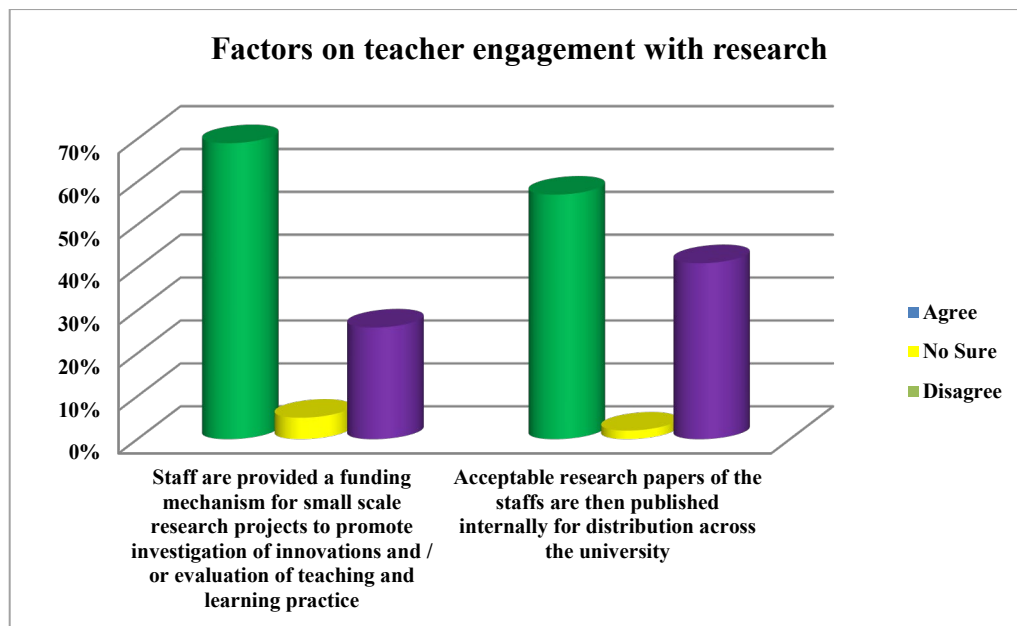


Figure 1: Teacher engagement with research

The Ministry of Education might consider providing funding and resources to universities that have active programmes designed to foster and promote research in teaching and learning as part of each Higher Education Institutions' strategy. The fund could be used more strategically to encourage research of teaching and learning. In particular, the link between research in teaching and learning with teaching quality needs to be investigated. All of these actions could contribute to capacity building, but a significant increase in research in teaching and learning depends on both national and institutional actions. The recent establishment of research and development centers to support learning and teaching in many universities which had previously not had such centers, is an opportunity - but they need to develop a research agenda and not be seen purely as service units. Such centers need access to adequate resources to be able to carry out significant research and move beyond small scale investigation of professional practice.

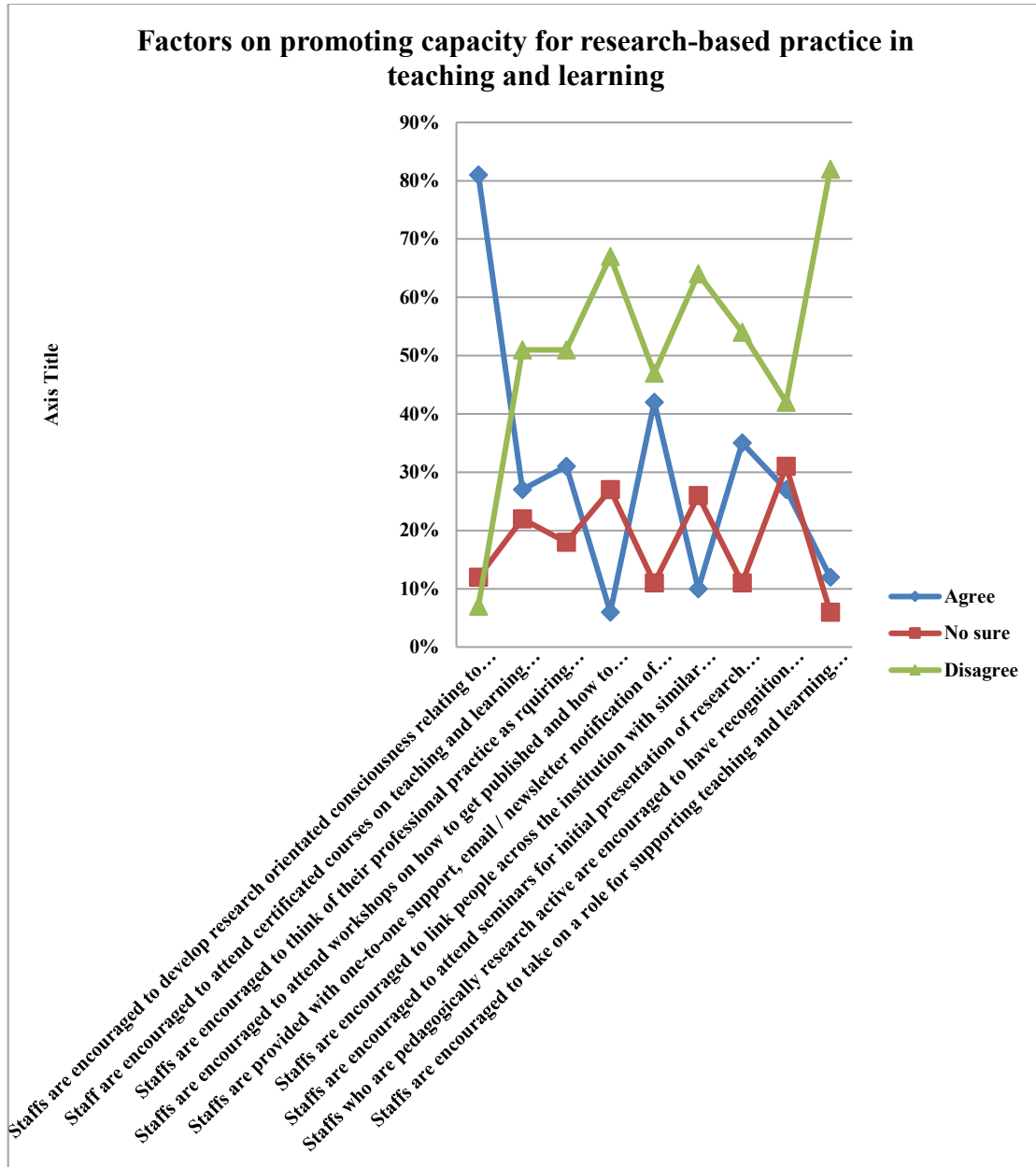


Figure 2: Responses of the participants on promoting capacity for research-based practice in teaching and learning

The establishment of research and development centers whose role would be to coordinate research activities within their university to lead collaborative research through projects based in a consortium of institutions, be a focus for publication of results and dissemination of findings emerging from the research, and manage funding for research in learning and teaching. Through research and development centers, there could be a major step-change in research activity in university, providing it was clear that their role was to support and encourage collaborative activity across all the institutions in their region. It cannot be overstated that one of the key factors in the success of building a capacity in research in teaching and learning is the creation of institutional infrastructures to address the task systematically. Whether the role is undertaken by a central unit or located within a faculty, the important requirement is that there should be academic staff with an

understanding of the research culture with resources and responsibility to work across the whole institution to achieve this objective (D'Andrea & Gosling, 2000).

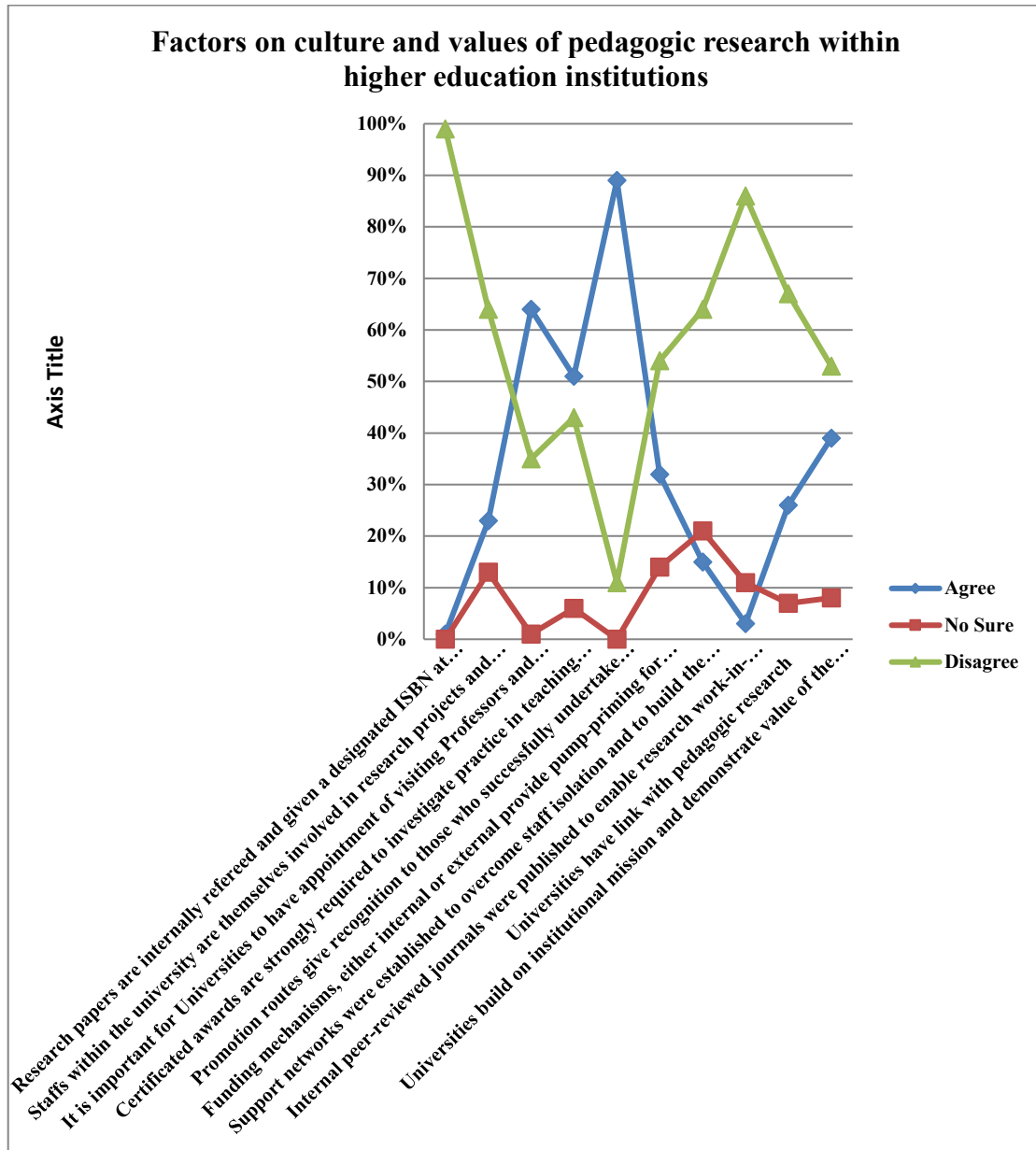


Figure 3: Responses of the participants on the culture and values of pedagogic research within higher education institutions

4. Discussion

Although some participants claim a strong link between discipline-based research and teaching the relationship between them is far from clear, and the research evidence in support of a positive relationship between research and teaching is at best mixed. In a recent review of the literature Jenkins (2000) concluded 'the international statistical research evidence questions a close functional relationship between staff research and teaching quality'. Linkages can be achieved by proposed are when course design which creates ways to build on staff research, and the methods of teaching and learning employed include involving students in investigation and enquiry-based activities. Brew (2000) has argued along these lines, 'If researchers recognize the

ways in which their activities parallel those of students and take steps to involve students in research like activities, research can inform practice in facilitating learning'. He also argues that lecturers need 'to foster student experiences that mirror their experience as researchers.' The link between research and teaching being suggested by Barnett and Brew is between the methods of researching and the methods of teaching. The possibility of the content of research influencing teaching is less clear and will vary from one discipline to another. In one study Jenkins (1998) found that the link between research by English scholars and their teaching was much stronger than between the work of researchers in Physics and their teaching. It is for this reason that pressure on staff to concentrate on maximizing their RAE scores tends to be a diversion from teaching rather than something which contributes to the quality of their teaching. The recent research has suggested that there is "recognition that there are some good scholars and university-level teachers who are not (and need not be) good researchers, and it may suffice that their teaching is informed by current research; moreover, not all researchers are good teachers". The same report confirms the trend towards the separation of teaching and research functions particularly in highly-rated departments. This undermines the case of research-intensive universities who claim that teaching is 'research-led'. Knowledge and understanding of the academic research culture, and learning and teaching in HE, is essential to having a credible leadership role in the development of the pedagogic research capacity. An additional factor which must be recognised as important in building the research capacity is the need to overcome resistance to the creation of what is perceived as yet another demand on staff. The current climate of continuing change in higher education has resulted in increasing pressures and a constant conflict of competing demands for staff time. University culture also values debate and discussion of ideas. Creating change in this context is best done by providing the opportunity to discuss the value of pedagogic research to the institution, the subject and the students. Establishing open forums to discuss the outcomes of pedagogic research and finding ways that it can be publicized and receive recognition are a few of the tactics which can be taken in coping with the resistance. It is therefore important to identify and make connections between staff with pedagogic interests. Staff members are ready to take this kind of research forward are isolated in departments where they are the only member of staff interested in pedagogic research. If they are brought together with others who have similar interests they then can create a critical mass within the institution who can influence others to consider becoming involved themselves. Even when the numbers of staff involved in pedagogic research remain a minority, if they are key staffs who have the respect of colleagues their example can be powerful and influential. Additionally, where departmental-based groups have formed, with an interest in developing research on learning and teaching, they can be as successful as central offices in creating a capacity for research on teaching and learning. In some universities, the approach has been to have a research group, led by a Professoriate with a focus on higher education. However such groups do not generally see themselves as having a cross-institutional responsibility for building research capacity related to learning and teaching. Presenting at conferences and fielding questions from the audience requires the same skills as lecturing. Designing an outstanding course outline and syllabus uses many of the same skills as putting together a literature review or grant proposal. Both teaching and research help them develop insight into their field, refine their communication skills, and draw on their ability to select and organize content in a meaningful way. They require similar skills. They agree that

improvement and advancement in one feeds back into improvement and advancement in the other.

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The Use of a CALL Program to Enhance the Language Performance of Low Proficiency Learners

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to investigate the use of a computer assisted language learning (ELLIS) program in enhancing the low proficiency learners' language performance. Furthermore, this study intended to recognise the reasons for the disparity if there was any between the scores attained for the ELLIS program and the final assessment. The sample population consisted of forty students who had to follow the Basic English subject at a University College. The participants selected their own mode of delivery i.e. CALL (ELLIS) or face to face (F2F). Pre-test, post-test, a pre-study questionnaire and a student experience questionnaire were the instruments for the study. The data were subjected to analysis through descriptive statistics, t-test, and thematic analysis. The results for the reading comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, speaking and listening components indicated that the differences between the two groups in their post-test scores were statistically significant favouring the F2F classroom learning mode. This means that the F2F control group outperformed the CALL (ELLIS) group rendering the CALL (ELLIS) remains as a tool to learn, F2F proved to be more effective in enhancing the performance of low proficiency learners'. Aimed at the potential reasons for the less effectiveness of the CALL (ELLIS) program, the study found that, the lack of interaction faced by learners between various aspects such as an instructor as well as other non-human aspects such as the courseware itself was identified. Apart from that, there is also a lack of interaction in the CALL learning environment. Thus, the findings of this study prompted the college academic board to revise the Basic English course. Instead of CALL (ELLIS) only, the university college look up the suggestion given that is a blend of CALL (ELLIS) program and F2F classroom learning to enhance the low proficiency students' language performance.

Keywords: CALL program, language performance, low proficiency learners.

1. Introduction

This initial chapter aims at providing the background and the rationale for the study i.e. to explore the language performance of low proficiency learners that framed within the field of computer assisted language learning (CALL). This chapter also consists of the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions and the significance of the study. The limitations of the study are also explained.

1.1 Background of study

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) dates back to the 1960s when it was first launched on university mainframe computers. According to Marty (1981), the PLATO project that began at the University of Illinois in 1960 is a significant landmark in the early development of CALL. Courses which solely use media (e.g., online courses) have been shown to be as effective academically as regular (offline) classes, especially with certain motivated students (Chenoweth, Ushida & Murday, 2006). Classes which incorporate CALL in the form of computer-mediated communication and automated online exercises have also been shown to produce positive results (Sanders, 2005).

A number of studies focuses either on the achievement of linguistic skills such as speaking, listening, writing and reading (Garrett, 1998) or on motivation (Skinner & Austin, 1999; Rico Garcia & Arias, 2000). Concerning grammar teaching, while some of the studies find a significant advantage of these techniques, others find no significant difference between CALL and other teaching methods. For instance, a positive impact of CALL has been found by Nutta (1998) investigating the effectiveness of computer based instruction compared to teacher directed instruction on the acquisition of English as a second language.

While a number of studies have compared CALL and face-to-face education in an academic setting, there is still little evidence about how effective the CALL is for continuing education and for those students at the low proficiency level. A great number of researchers have tried to identify the problems confronted by low English proficiency students by examining the differences between successful and unsuccessful learners. These two groups of learners are usually distinguished by their academic performance in tests, examinations, or learning tasks. Studies found that major differences lie in aptitude (Skehan, 1998), learning strategies (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Gan, Humphreys & Hamplyons, 2004; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1990; Wen & Johnson, 1997), beliefs (Huang & Tsai, 2003), and learning behaviors. For

example, the behaviors of underachievers have some characteristics. They lack good learning attitude, motivation, or persistence. In class, they need more personal attention, take longer time to finish a learning task, often skip class or attend class late, and often delay or do not submit homework assignments (Chang, Chiu & Lee, 2000; McLaughlin & Vacha, 1992; Slavin, 1989).

A number of studies focused on the effectiveness of CALL compared to other teaching mediums similar to normal classroom teaching for example, face to face classroom teaching, using textbooks in teaching, the teaching material from CALL, and more. The majority of the studies comparing CALL with a more traditional face-to-face approach has been done in academic settings and has shown no significant difference between the two modalities. This study attempts to apply CALL on the low proficiency learners and compares this approach to a F2F classroom approach.

1.2 Statement of problem

Education plays a major role in a nation's development. Technology is a way forward in education. Technologies assist education institutions in the teaching and learning process. Higher institutions are utilizing computer technology in teaching and learning and Masterskill University College of Health Sciences is one of them. The University College has invested a sum in incorporating technology into learning.

In the teaching and learning of the English language, the Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) - English Language Learning Instructor System (ELLIS) has been installed for the teaching and learning of Basic English subject. Students without a credit in the SPM English subject are required to take the Basic English subject because it is a college compulsory subject and a requirement for graduation. Learners who scored well with the CALL (ELLIS) program seem to have gained in their language abilities but did not score well in the college-based Basic English final exam. However, the researcher of this study has observed students' in CALL not performing up to standard for language performance generally. Hence, the researcher was interested to conduct a systematic approach to collect the information as feedback for curriculum improvement.

With that as the background, this study investigated the effectiveness of the college CALL (ELLIS) program in enhancing the language performance of the low proficiency learners. By language performance, this study investigated the various language skills (reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary, listening and

speaking). In particular, the study attempted to answer whether the CALL (ELLIS) program can lead to better results than F2F classroom learning for low proficiency students. Additionally, this study identified the causes for the disparity if there was any between the scores obtained for the ELLIS program and the students' language ability.

1.3 Objective of Study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of the college CALL (ELLIS) program in enhancing the language performance of low proficiency learners by addressing the following questions:

1. Which instruction method is more effective as measured by the learners' pre and post-test results on the Basic English final exam: ELLIS or F2F classroom learning?
2. According to the learners' opinion, in what ways ELLIS helps or does not help the learners?

1.4 Significance of the study

The findings of the study would be one of the important sources for the policy-making decision on the Basic English Subject's curriculum revision and the choice of the instructional mode of teaching and learning in the future for the academic board of Masterskill University College of Health Sciences (MUCH). The findings will provide empirical evidence for the University College to decide on carrying on with the CALL (ELLIS) program or increasing the number of teachers to lecture the F2F or increasing the number of instructors to train the CALL (ELLIS) program. Thus the direct beneficiary from the study is the English unit of the University College and the findings were of immediate significance for the Basic English subject.

Second, the study contributes to the field of CALL by comparing ELLIS program that is a Computer Assisted Language Learning program with a F2F approach in enhancing the language performance of low proficiency learners. Thus the scope of the study gives importance to the low proficiency students in the CALL research field. The limitations of the study will be discussed in the next section.

1.5 Limitations of study

Increasing the number of respondents would be of great help to develop a more reliable conclusion. The number of respondents should be increased to obtain a more normal distribution of the data. For instance the small number of subjects, small

number of observations, or no specification of the amount of time spent on the task, may be accounted for by flaws in the experimental designs. Time is another factor of limitation because the duration of the study was only for 8 weeks and it might have affected the level of knowledge, lesson comprehension and the familiarities of instructional mode. Therefore, a longer period of time might produce different results.

Another limitation is related to the participants' responses to the questionnaire. Biases might happen if the respondents did not answer the questions according to their own judgment, but rather follow friends' answers especially for general questions. Hence, future studies should consider these limitations and seek for other better option to categorize the respondents and make effective use of resources and the respondents.

Control and experimental groups were not tested for similarity before the study. Furthermore, the language adeptness might be different according to age group. Therefore, the proficiency level of the sample might show a discrepancy because most of them were school leavers and a number of them left school earlier. Thus, those who left school earlier might be with better language exposure. Hence, the control and experimental groups should be analyzed for similarity before the study to develop a more consistent conclusion.

2. Literature Review

In the previous chapter, a preface for a study of investigating the effectiveness of a college CALL program in enhancing the language performance of low proficiency learners was presented. This chapter elaborates on the issues regarding Face to Face (F2F) classroom learning, the development of CALL, the impacts of CALL in the language learning process, the effectiveness of CALL, relevant studies on CALL compared to face to face (F2F) classroom learning and the effectiveness of CALL on the low proficiency learners.

2.1 Face to Face (F2F) Classroom Learning

Face to face classroom learning is the normal and the traditional way of learning. The face-to-face teaching and learning allows learners to engage in an experimental verbal dialogic process that contribute to the negotiation of meaning through social interaction. Face to face classroom has many positive qualities that help the learning process. Learning in the classroom opens to a wide variety of learners, and these learners all have a style of comprehending certain subjects that connect to the need of being in the presence of a teacher.

Language skills were given main attention when talking about face to face learning. Holden, Susan, and Mickey Rodgers (1998) studied that the four basic language skills are: listening, speaking, reading and writing. In the 1970s and 1980s, the four basic skills were generally taught in isolation in a very rigid order, such as listening before speaking. However, since then, it has been recognized that we generally use more than one skill at a time, leading to more integrated exercises. Speaking is a skill that often is underrepresented in the traditional classroom. This could be because of the fact that it is considered a less-academic skill than writing, is transient and improvised (thus harder to assess and teach through rote imitation). Latest textbooks stress the importance of the language learners working with other students in pairs and groups, sometimes the entire class. Pair and group work give the students the chances to take part more actively. Nevertheless, supervision of pairs and groups is essential to assure that everyone participates as equally as possible. These sorts of activities also provide chances for peer teaching where weaker learners can find support from stronger classmates in the face to face classroom learning.

Intentionally, dozens of CALL programs are currently available on the internet, at prices ranging from free to expensive and other programs are available only through university language courses. Thus the present study examined the effectiveness of a CALL program in enhancing the low proficiency learners' language performance. According to the hyperpersonal communication theory, participants interacting over the computer should form more positive impressions of their partners and rate the interaction as more desirable than individuals interacting Face to Face (Walther, 1995). In contrast, Patterson's (1991) functional model of communicative behavior predicts that participants interacting fact-to-face will form more positive impressions of their partner. However, the lack of empirical findings demonstrating this inhibited us from making this prediction confidently.

2.2 Development of CALL

CALL is the acronym for Computer Assisted Language Learning and it is related to the utilization of computers for language teaching/learning. CALL was first taken from Computer Assisted Learning (CAL) which refers to the learning involving the use of the computer, usually by means of an interactive-computer system. The students and the computer interacted with one another were free to select any topic or solve their problems. CALL is a learning material derived from CAL which is implemented to language. The utilization of the computer is primarily directed to make provisions for the language learning tutorial program. By employing CALL, the students are able to relate their learning behavior to the "source" of information about

the target language and provide opportunities to engage in interaction issues regarding the change of methods of language teaching.

The application of CALL also extends to the use of corpora and concordances, interactive whiteboards, Computer-mediated communication (CMC), language learning in virtual worlds, and Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL). An alternative term, Technology-enhanced language learning (TELL), also emerged around the early 1990s: e.g. the TELL Consortium project, University of Hull. A combination of face-to-face teaching and CALL is usually referred to as blended learning. Blended learning is designed to increase learning potential and is more common than pure CALL (Pegrum, 2009: p. 27).

2.3 Impact of CALL on the language learning process

Using CALL has effects on teaching and learning as well as on different proficiency level of students. As the teaching tools offered through CALL were gradually becoming more reliable, the development of CALL brought about a revolution in the teachers' perspective. Nowadays, CALL is gaining immense popularity in foreign language teaching and more and more educators and learners are supporting it. However, applying CALL in teaching also has some effects depending on the learners' proficiency level.

Many studies have attempted to assess the impact of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) on learning. Learning is a social activity. It requires many activities and it involves not only the students and a teacher but also the students and other students or even the students and the educational media. Language learning can be done without being accompanied by a real teacher. A computer can act as if it is a teacher. Many teachers conduct teaching learning process through a computer as a medium. Computers can be a good medium to help the students learn English in an easy and interesting way. Through a computer, the students can learn more than the language itself. Indeed, they will be given a chance to know more about the language. Of course, there are some advantages and disadvantages of utilizing computer in the language learning process.

One way to obtain a glimpse of the perceptions of the benefit of media or CALL on the students' language learning is to examine technology or software choices made by the learning institutes in comparison with traditional way of learning, survey the teachers on their perceptions of the effects of technology in their classrooms, survey the students who have been exposed to technology in language classes, and observe

the students while they are using technology to determine the strengths and weaknesses of its perceived effects.

2.4 Effectiveness of CALL

A number of studies focus either on the achievement of linguistic skills such as speaking, listening, writing and reading (Garrett, 1998) or on motivation (Skinner & Austin, 1999, Rico Garcia & Arias, 2000). Concerning grammar teaching, while some studies find a significant advantage of these techniques, others find no significant difference between CALL and other teaching methods. For instance, a positive impact of CALL has been found by Nutta (1998) investigating the effect of computer based instruction compared to teacher directed instruction on the acquisition of English as a second language. In her study, computer based instruction students obtained better scores than teacher-directed students. The results guided the researcher to conclude that computer-based instruction can be an effective method of teaching L2 grammar.

Similarly, Nagata (1996) investigated the efficiency of intelligent CALL (involving intelligent feedback) on the acquisition of Japanese post positions by English-speaking students. One group of the students was assigned to the Computer Assisted Language Instruction (CALI) condition and the other group took the workbook instruction condition. The experimental group obtained better scores in production than in comprehension. In addition, the students in the CALI group had significantly better attitudes towards their instruction than the students in the workbook group. The researcher concluded that the study demonstrates an advantage of an intelligent CALL program over a workbook instruction.

Other studies are less optimistic. Liou, Wang and Hung-Yeh (1992) compared two groups of Chinese speaking students learning English in two different learning conditions: one experimental group attended a ten-week CALL course while the control group was taught the same content in a paper-and-pen homework condition. On the basis of a questionnaire evaluating the subjects' attitudes, the authors concluded that the combination of classroom instruction and grammatical CALL might be helpful, "or at least not detrimental". But their survey did not demonstrate that CALL plus instruction would be more efficient than instructions plus homework.

2.5 Relevant studies on CALL compared to Face to Face (F2F) Classroom Learning

Most of the studies comparing CALL with a more traditional face-to-face approach has been done in academic settings and has shown no significant difference between

the two modalities. However, Johnson et al. (2000) compared learning methods in human resource developments and showed that the students in the technology-assisted group perceive the instructor more positively and rate the overall course quality higher than their counterparts in the face-to-face group.

Computer assisted language learning is one of the most exciting enhancements to contemporary education. As with any instructional mode, the quality of CALL courses varies, but the potential, often met and still expanding, as well as on parity with F2F. Aragon et al. (2002) investigated the students' success and reported comparable success for both learning types. Similarly, Piccoli et al. (2001) showed that learning performance is comparable between the students utilizing technology-assisted learning and those learning from face-to-face instructions.

In a research, Murray (1999) focused on the effectiveness of interactive video program and stressed the importance of experiential learning. Thus, the F2F classroom learning as the experiential learning assumes an interactive nature of learning through experience (Osland et al. 2001). According to Osland (2001) technology-assisted learning may be less effective for some aspects of language skills. For example in face to face classroom learning, by engaging in live speaking drills or role plays, students can recognize their speaking problems directly that enables them to reflect on enhancement and develop their language abilities for similar scenarios in the future.

Further, Ansel (1992) and Hartoyo (2006) studied that technology assisted learning may better support aspects of language learning pertinent to vocabulary, reading, or grammar because of the convenient access it offers to learning materials which students may study repetitively at their preferred time and pace. The CALL program is different from traditional books that can be carried around and studied wherever and whenever they wish: on a train, at home, in the middle of the night, and so on (Ansel, 1992; Hartoyo, 2006, 31). Meyer K.A (2003) also believed that the technology-assisted learning can facilitate certain teaching methods better than others.

On the other hand, the concern here is the simplistic approach to blindly interject new technology into the classroom without thoughtfully matching student learning problems with appropriate technology use (Bush, 2008). As Cohen's (2001) study shows that the learning medium leads to different learning preferences. The learner's preference was significant to circumvent inadequate results for the study to find whether the CALL-ELLIS program enhanced the low proficiency students' language

learning performance.

Hence, programs similar to CALL (ELLIS) are educational opportunities that are planned and organized learning experiences designed to augment the knowledge and skills for those who are in higher studies institution. Therefore, the effectiveness of the computer assisted language learning program depends on how a teacher and a learner exercise it.

2.6 Studies on effectiveness of CALL on the low proficiency English learners

Many researchers have tried to identify the problems faced by the low English proficiency language learners by examining the differences between successful and unsuccessful learners. These two groups of learners are usually distinguished by their academic performance in tests, examinations, or learning tasks. For example, the behaviours of underachievers have some characteristics. They lack good learning attitude, motivation, or persistence. In class, they need more personal attention, take longer time to finish a learning task, often skip class or attend class late, and often delay or do not submit homework assignments (Chang, Chiu & Lee, 2000; McLaughlin & Vacha, 1992; Slavin, 1989). Moreover, those mistaken or uninformed beliefs about language learning may lead to dependence on less effective strategies, resulting in indifference toward learning, poor cognitive performance, classroom anxiety (Horwitz et al. 1986) and a negative attitude to autonomy (Victori & Lockhart, 1995, p. 225).

Furthermore, the inability to use the English language learning strategies is also common among the low proficiency level students. Ho (1999) surveyed the students of a technical college in Taiwan and found that there exist significant differences between proficient and less proficient learners in their use of English learning strategies. Chen and Huang (2003) made a similar comparison and the results showed that the students with high English proficiency reported higher frequency in language learning strategy use than did the low English proficiency students.

In another research Gan, Humphreys, and Hamplyons (2004) examined the learners' attitude, strategies, and motivation by engaging 18 college students from China, through interviews and diaries to distinguish between successful and unsuccessful EFL students. They found that unsuccessful students commonly put emphasis on vocabulary and grammar. These students "have a deep-seated belief that a basic vocabulary must be mastered before any other learning activity could take place" (p. 235). Additionally, the students generally experienced "a sense of learning

helplessness" and "loss of confidence" (p. 236).

As for strategies, unsuccessful students did not take any measure to strengthen their vocabulary or use cognitive strategies to preview and understand a lesson (p. 236). The study also pointed out that these learners lacked self-management ability to complete the lesson and the initiative to improve their English through their own efforts. Finally, according to the study, due to their passive and frustrated learning process, the unsuccessful students had almost no motivational experiences to keep them moving on in learning. Khaldieh (2000) also highlighted that learning strategies can influence performance on a task.

Further, the relationship between make efforts on language learning strategies and the students' proficiency level is far clearer. More proficient language learners use a greater variety and often a greater number of learning strategies (Anderson, 2005; Bruen, 2001; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wharton, 2000). Differences between more and less proficient language learners have been found in the number and range of strategies used, in how the strategies are applied to the task, and in the appropriateness of the strategies for the task.

Mayer (2003) believed that technology-assisted learning can facilitate certain teaching methods better than others, which means that the appropriate question to ask is not simply whether technology-assisted learning is better than face-to-face learning but rather which aspects of technology-assisted learning benefit which kinds of learners in acquiring which types of knowledge. Thus, it is important to utilize the suitable program for the students' level. If it is not correct for their level, the activity cannot be prevented from becoming a chaos of uncertainty (Higgins, 1988).

Relating to the (Higgins, 1988) study, the lesson aspect of ELLIS suits the low proficiency students in several ways. First, it simplifies the learning process. As Huang and Tsai's research (2003) showed, the low English proficiency students usually perceive English as difficult. ELLIS exercises can make it seem easier. Secondly, the exercises are particularly useful for reinforcing vocabulary and grammar which unsuccessful learners believe they must enhance (Gan, Humphreys & Hamplions, 2004). Thirdly, low proficiency learners are not capable of utilizing language learning strategies (Chen & Huang, 2003), and doing ELLIS exercises helps them develop some of the strategies, including memory, cognitive, compensation strategies etc. Most importantly, practicing on the computer can improve students'

academic performance which is critical to their self-efficacy and motivation to learn.

Piccoli et al. (2001) also stated that learning performance is comparable between students using technology-assisted learning and those learning from face-to-face instructions. Programs similar to ELLIS are educational opportunities that are planned and organized learning experiences designed to augment the knowledge and skills for those who are in higher studies institution. Therefore the effectiveness of the computer assisted language learning program depends on how a learner exercises it.

Therefore, in the current study the low proficiency learner's background studied by the researcher through a pre study questionnaire to observe the same low proficiency learners. The pre study questionnaire administered to the learners to identify their level of proficiency, computer usage ability and mode of study preferred. Thus the researcher utilized this instrument to provide the study results to accurately show the effectiveness of the CALL (ELLIS) program.

The majority of the studies comparing CALL with a more traditional face-to-face approach has been done in academic settings and has shown no significant difference between the two modalities. The current study attempted to fill this research gap by validating a similar number of subjects for control and experimental group, assign a similar task by using the same syllabus to CALL (ELLIS) group or F2F classroom learning group, and indicate the amount of time spent on lessons to ensure a comparable study. This study highlights whether the CALL (ELLIS) helps the low proficiency learners and investigates the significant differences between CALL (ELLIS) and F2F classroom learning. In the next chapter, the researcher will explain the methodology of the study in detail.

3. Research Methodology

The Masterskill University College of Health Sciences invested a CALL program called ELLIS. Students performed in CALL but did not show their language ability. Therefore, the primary aim of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of the University College CALL (ELLIS) program in enhancing the low proficiency learners' language performance in comparison with face-to-face (F2F) classroom learning. The researcher was also interested to study the students' opinions on the CALL-ELLIS program in enhancing their language ability.

In view of the above, this chapter explains the design of the study and the procedures pursued in the collection and analysis of the data. It consists of research questions,

research variables, research site, participants, data collection instruments, data collection procedures, and finally the data analysis procedures.

3.1 Research questions

The study is essential to provide answers to the following questions:

1. Which instruction method is more effective as measured by the learners' pre and post-test results on the Basic English final exam: ELLIS or F2F classroom learning?
2. According to the learners' opinions, in what ways ELLIS helps or does not help the learners?

3.2 Research site

The English Unit that is one of the divisions under the Centre of General Studies, a part of the Associate Studies Department in Masterskill University College of Health Sciences was identified as the site of this study. Furthermore, that was the researcher's place of work so it eases the data collection. The computer laboratory and a classroom were the venues for the CALL (ELLIS) class and F2F classroom learning respectively.

3.3 Participants

The study had utilized purposive sampling method to select the participants. After that participants' selections of medium of learning were considered as a deciding factor for grouping. The research employed 40 students aged between 18 – 20 years old from the total number of 112 students from the Diploma in nursing course (0903/04) intake.

3.4 Data collection instruments

The study conducted in the course of qualitative and quantitative mixed study methods. The researcher conducted an experimental study and used a pre-study questionnaire, a pre-test, a post-test, and an ELLIS program experience questionnaire for this study. The pre-study questionnaire was utilized in the study to find out the students' background. A pre-test and a post-test were utilized to answer the first research question to determine whether there was a significant difference between CALL (ELLIS) group and F2F classroom learning group. Consequently, an ELLIS program experience questionnaire was utilized to answer research question two and to find out whether the CALL (ELLIS) program helps or does not help the low proficiency learners.

3.5 Data collection procedure

The study consisted of ten sessions over the course of eight weeks. The participants were briefed on CALL (ELLIS) program and F2F classroom learning in the first session. Then, the participants were given a pre-study questionnaire to respond. Subsequently, forty selected students as the sample of the study were assigned into two groups according to the pre-study questionnaire. Twenty students were assigned to an experimental group that received CALL (ELLIS) courseware and another twenty students were assigned to a control group where F2F classroom learning instruction was conducted. Consequently, a pre-test was administered to both CALL (ELLIS) and F2F group learners in the first session.

Starting with the second session to the ninth session, the CALL (ELLIS) group went thru the CALL (ELLIS) program in the ELLIS language laboratory and the instructor only provided technical assistance when it was necessary. The F2F classroom learning group was carried out in a traditional classroom and used exactly the same syllabus as CALL (ELLIS) program and materials from the ELLIS Student Workbook. Both groups utilized the same syllabus and setting for Basic English subject with 5 contact hours in a week. In addition, the same lecturer instructed the ELLIS program and lectured in the F2F classroom learning as an attempt to control the teacher variable.

3.6 Data analysis procedure

The quantitative data included scores from the tests and ratings from the questionnaires measured by SPSS a widely used standardized instrument. The qualitative data included responses to questions on the pre-study questionnaire and the questionnaire was analysed using content analysis as an appropriate tool.

This chapter presented a detailed account of the research question, research variables, research site, participants, data collection instrument and procedure of the research. Previous literature described that there was a significant difference between the effectiveness of CALI (Computer-Assisted Language Instruction) as compared to non-CALI instruction. This is while fewer materials concerned effectiveness of CALL program for low proficiency students is readily available. This systematic research design revealed the findings of this study in the chapter four.

4. Results and Discussion

The aim of the present study is to investigate the effectiveness of the Masterskill University College's CALL (ELLIS) program in enhancing the low proficiency learners' language performance. This chapter reports the results of the data analysis

related to the data obtained from the use of computer assisted language learning CALL (ELLIS) and F2F classroom learning on reading, grammar and vocabulary, speaking and listening components for the Diploma in nursing students. Furthermore, this chapter primarily reports the results of the study after analyzing the quantitative data including the scores on tests and ratings in questionnaire measured by SPSS. The qualitative data includes responses to questions on the pre-study questionnaire and students' experience questionnaire analyzed using content analysis as an appropriate tool.

The researcher used a pre-study questionnaire, a pre-test, a post-test, and an ELLIS program experience questionnaire for this study. The test items for each instrument, procedure on how to conduct the CALL (ELLIS) and the F2F classroom learning group and the actual data collection were described in Chapter 3. The data were documented, transcribed followed by data analysis as outlined in the previous chapter.

4.1 Research question 1: Which instruction method is more effective as measured by the learners' pre and post-tests results on the Basic English final exam: ELLIS or F2F Classroom Learning?

In the reading comprehension section, the mean for the pre-test for the control group is 2 and the experimental group is 3.2. In fact, this ensures that the students from both groups were low language ability students. The mean for grammar and vocabulary component of the pre-test for the control group is 2.8 and for the experimental group 2.9. As the results indicate after the treatment, the students who were taught by F2F significantly performed better than the students who were taught by the CALL (ELLIS). This showed a negative effect on CALL (ELLIS) for reading comprehension as well as grammar and vocabulary sections.

According to Ansel (1992) and Hartoyo (2006), technology assisted learning may better support aspects of language learning pertinent to vocabulary, reading, or grammar because of the convenient access it offers to learning materials which students may study repetitively at their preferred time and pace. However, in this study the CALL (ELLIS) group depends to the language laboratory that can only be accessed in restricted hours. Whereas the F2F classroom learning group could practice the reading comprehension exercises even after the class hours with the module provided. Thus, the low proficiency learners' in CALL (ELLIS) group did not perform well in their post test compared to F2F group students who could revise the lesson whenever they wanted with the module given.

In the listening section, the mean for the pre-test for the control group is 2.20 and for the experimental group is 2.65 which indicate that these students were low language ability for this component as well. This may be because most of the students in both groups could not even capture or understand the meaning of the simple English dialogues in the pre-test. During the pre-test (the listening section) most of the students, in both groups, asked the teacher to translate the instructions of the pre-test in Malay language.

As the results indicate, the students who were taught by F2F significantly performed better than the students who were taught by the CALL (ELLIS) in post-test. This showed a negative effect as well on CALL (ELLIS) for the listening component. This may be related to the students' learning ability. Murray (1999) studied the effect of interactive video program and stressed that:

The importance of being a member of a community and engaging in activities by saying that: We learn a language by becoming members of a community of practice. Being a member of a community means getting to know people, engaging in activities, and having a physical space as well as an identity within that community (p. 192) (Murray, 1999).

Thus, the listening section was practiced by F2F students in the classroom setting where they faced each other and had the chance to communicate with each others on the subject matter. Therefore they performed better than the CALL (ELLIS) group.

Based on the researcher's observations of both groups, the students in the experimental group tried to communicate to the instructor in the English language by asking a few questions to clear their queries in the pre-test. This showed that they were interested in speaking activities which may be one of the reasons for them obtaining better scores than the F2F classroom learning group in the pre-test.

Indeed, the results showed that the F2F classroom learning was the effective instruction to gain scores on the speaking section of the Basic English final exam compared to the CALL-ELLIS instruction for the low proficiency learners. Thus, the F2F classroom learning as the experiential learning assumes an interactive nature of learning through experience (Osland et al. 2001). According to Osland (2001):

Technology-assisted learning may be less effective for some aspects of language skills. For example, by engaging in live speaking drills or role plays, students can recognize

their speaking problems directly that enables them to reflect on enhancement and develop their language abilities for similar scenarios in the future (Osland, 2001).

To sum up on the findings of the reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary, listening and speaking sections, it can be said that there were significant differences in regard to the scores of Basic English final exam for the CALL (ELLIS) and compared to the F2F classroom learning environment, hence, less favorable to the CALL (ELLIS) environment.

Thus the results indicated that the F2F classroom learning instruction method was an effective instruction as measured by the learners' pre-post test results on the Basic English final exam compared to the CALL (ELLIS) instruction for the low proficiency learners.

4.2 Research Question 2: According to the learners' opinion, in what ways ELLIS helps or does not help the learners?

In overall, the students experience questionnaire showed a negative result on the CALL (ELLIS) program. The use of Intro Level in CALL (ELLIS) was unhelpful for majority learners' in the experimental group for the reason that the program did not develop the language performance that may be related to the suitability of the program to this students' level, the program did not pave the way to build language-learning awareness, lack of guidance in the CALL (ELLIS) program, the program did not develop intrinsic motivation for learning English, the CALL approach which adopted facilitation rather than overt teaching was not received well and other factors as the duration, without translation and technical problems.

No matter how simple computers and CALL programs are, students should realize the advantages of the current CALL program in order to avoid misemploying CALL programs and get its maximum benefits for English teaching and learning. The Intro Level of the program did not develop their language performance that may relate to the suitability of the program level to this level students'.

The possible assumption is that it might have been easier for them to approach the lecturer and get clarification about the lesson in the F2F classroom learning compared to CALL (ELLIS) program. This is since the role of the lecturer as a teacher in the F2F classroom learning that teaches the students. In contrast, the instructor in CALL (ELLIS) program can only instruct the students. Thus, the CALL (ELLIS) which adopted facilitation rather than teaching was not received well. Furthermore, the low

proficiency students' required to be assisted by a teacher as they were very dependant learners and needed guidance. The significant improvement made by the F2F group may be related to the lesson and teaching method was well-received. The F2F groups' lesson and teaching method allowed them to refer back to their lessons, notes and exercises even after the class hours. Thus they scored better than the CALL (ELLIS experimental group).

In view of the above, many aspects were suggested by the students to be improved by the college such as lengthening the duration of the course, providing manual guide, picking and choosing to do certain components in the program or demolishing the test component, reducing the questions in the program and skipping the unnecessary components in the program. Moreover, blended learning was also suggested by the students for language enhancement possibilities.

In a nutshell, the researcher experienced that computer background knowledge or preference shown in method of learning did not affect students to score better in the ELLIS program. Interestingly, CALL (ELLIS) students who preferred computer assisted language learning admitted that they would learn better with the F2F language learning classroom. Thus, the cumulative empirical evidence pertaining to learning effectiveness thus remains equivocal. Bernard et al. (2004) suggests that the impact of technology-assisted learning is not significant, consistent with Clark's (1983) contention that the delivery medium has only marginal effects on the outcomes of planned instruction, measured according to learning effectiveness or satisfaction.

As a result, the present study concerning the effect of computer-assisted language learning on improving low proficiency students' language ability revealed the fact that employing F2F is quite effective in the context of low proficiency learners, though the results of this study are not conclusive and more studies are required in this regard.

5. Conclusion

This chapter consists of four sections: summary of the findings, implication, recommendations and conclusion. First, the summary presents an overall account for all parts of the research. Second, the researcher discusses and describes the implications of the findings presented. Third, the recommendations for future research and the conclusion are presented. Finally, the suggestions for future research are put forth.

5.1 Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of the college CALL (ELLIS) program in enhancing the low proficiency learners' language performance. The study also aimed at finding out the causes for the disparity between the scores obtained for the ELLIS program and the students' language ability.

A pre-study questionnaire, a pre-test, a post-test, and a student experience questionnaire were used to investigate the effectiveness of the college CALL (ELLIS) program in enhancing the low proficiency students' language performance. The data was analysed using SPSS and content analysis.

The results for the reading comprehension section showed that the difference between the two groups in their post-test scores was statistically significant at the 0.013, $p < 0.05$ level, favoring the F2F classroom learning group. The results for grammar and vocabulary section showed that the difference between the two groups in their post-test scores was statistically significant at the 0.0004, $p < 0.05$ level, favoring the F2F group. This showed a negative effect on CALL (ELLIS) for reading comprehension as well as grammar and vocabulary components.

According to Ansel (1992) and Hartoyo (2006), technology assisted learning may better support aspects of language learning pertinent to vocabulary, reading, or grammar because of the convenient access it offers to learning materials which students may study repetitively at their preferred time and pace. However, in this study the CALL (ELLIS) group depends to the language laboratory that has limited access. Thus, the low proficiency learners' in CALL (ELLIS) group did not perform well in their post test compared to F2F group students who could revise the lesson whenever they wanted with the module given.

The results for listening section showed that the difference between the two groups in their post-test scores was statistically significant at the 0.0009, $p < 0.05$ level, favouring the F2F group. This showed a negative effect on CALL (ELLIS) for the listening section. The researcher found that the listening section was practiced by F2F students in the classroom setting where they faced each other and had the chance to communicate with each others on the subject matter. Therefore they performed better than the CALL (ELLIS) group.

The results for the speaking section showed that the difference between the two groups in their post-test scores was statistically significant at the 0.008, $p < 0.05$ level, favoring the F2F classroom learning group. The researcher found that the F2F

classroom learning as the experiential learning model assumes an interactive nature of learning through experience, from reflection and conceptualization to action and then enhanced experience (Osland et al. 2001). Technology-assisted learning may be less effective for some aspects of language skills. For example, by engaging in live speaking drills or role plays, students can recognize their speaking problems directly and concretely (i.e. concrete experience), which enables them to reflect on how to improve (i.e. reflective observation) and develop intuitions or general rules (i.e. abstract conceptualization) for similar scenarios in the future (i.e. active experimentation). Indeed, the results showed that the F2F classroom learning was the effective instruction to gain scores on the speaking section of the Basic English final exam compared to the CALL (ELLIS) instruction for the low proficiency learners.

This study tried to investigate the effectiveness of the college CALL program in enhancing the low proficiency language learners' performance. Based on the results obtained from the t-test and content analysis, it can be concluded that CALL proved to be a tool to learn but F2F proved to be more effective in enhancing the low proficiency language learners' performance. Initially, the CALL (ELLIS) students showed preference to be in the CALL (ELLIS) group. But at the end of the study, they were very disappointed because the program did not help them to score better in Basic English final examination and they opted that they would learn better in the F2F classroom learning.

The study also found the primary causes for the disparity between the scores obtained for the ELLIS program and the students' language ability from the CALL (ELLIS) students' opinion. The potential causes for the ineffectiveness of the CALL (ELLIS) program was lack of guidance in the CALL (ELLIS) program compared to the F2F approach which was crucial and the CALL approach which adopted facilitation rather than overt teaching which was not well-received. Furthermore, the CALL (ELLIS) program was not helpful for a majority of the low proficiency learners' in the experimental group. This is possibly because of the unsuitability of Intro Level of the program for this level of students' that caused them not to develop their language performance. Besides that, the CALL (ELLIS) program did not pave the way to build language learning awareness and did not develop the students' intrinsic motivation level for learning English. There were also other factors that caused the ineffectiveness of the CALL (ELLIS) program such as the duration of the program, limited access, without translation mode and technical problems.

In addition, the students' computer competency level and the instructional mode

selection did not show a significant impact on their results. The researcher concluded that incorporating CALL into teaching low proficiency students in this University College was not effective compared to F2F classroom learning.

5.2 Implication of this study

There were both theoretical and pedagogical implications obtained by the researcher through the study to enhance the low proficiency learners' language performance. The findings of the study is one of the important sources for the policy-making decision on the Basic English Subject's curriculum revision and the choice of the instructional mode of teaching and learning in the future for the academic board of Masterskill University College of Health Sciences (MUCH).

According to the findings, a computer is a tool and medium that facilitates people in learning a language, although the effectiveness of learning depends totally on the users (Hartoyo, 2006, 11). Thus the results indicated that the CALL (ELLIS) Program was not an effective instruction to gain scores on the reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary, listening and speaking section of the Basic English final exam compared to the F2F classroom learning instruction for the low proficiency learners.

Based on the researcher's observations it is suggested that reading comprehension exercises after the technology assisted class hours with the Student Workbook as was given in the F2F classroom learning could benefit the low proficiency learners' to enhance the reading comprehension skill. Accordingly, technology assisted learning may better support aspects of language learning pertinent to vocabulary, reading, or grammar with the convenient access which students may study repetitively at their preferred time and pace. According to Ansel et al (1992 in Hartoyo, 2006, 31), the CAL program is different from traditional books that can be carried around and studied wherever and whenever they wish: on a train, at home, in the middle of the night, and so on.

Thus, normal classroom learning can be blended with the ELLIS program as a blended approach for the instructional mode of teaching and learning in the future for the Basic English subject. Furthermore, the findings of the study also suggested the instructor to translate the incomprehensible lessons. The researcher discovered that low proficiency learners believed that they lacked the special abilities to learn English well, learning English was really difficult; translation was an important skill to help them grasp the meanings of English texts.

Many aspects were suggested by the students to be improved by the college such as lengthening the duration of the course, choosing to do certain components in the program or demolishing the test component, reducing the questions in the program and skipping the unnecessary components. The University College is not allowed to modify the sequence of the program as it should be according to the authorization policy. However, in order to enhance the low proficiency learners' language performance the University College should consider changing the level of the program from Intro Level to Basic Level.

The research findings also have pedagogical implications. The students were not excited with the game, lesson quiz and test aspects because of the instructor just facilitated if there were any technical problems rather than overt teaching. Lack of guidance in the CALL (ELLIS) directed the student to opt for a blended approach to learning. The lesson and the teaching method were not well received without assistance from a teacher. Due to the limitations of computer's artificial intelligence, computer technology is unable to deal with learners' unexpected learning problems and response to learners' questions immediately as the teachers do in the F2F classroom learning. Thus, students' also suggested that the program needed to be guided by a teacher. As a result, the University College needs to increase the number of teachers to lecture the F2F or to increase the number of instructors to train the CALL (ELLIS) program to carry out the Basic English subject.

Training in computer literacy for both students and teachers is essential, and time constraints may pose additional problems. The teacher can adapt, improve and compensate for shortcomings in the software. The teacher must feel comfortable in the computer lab and with the medium in order to be able to use it effectively. Thus, training needed for teachers to have enough technical knowledge about computers, the ELLIS program and Instructors' Utilities in the program to develop more reliable results. After exploring the Instructors' Utilities the instructor can easily monitor the students' performance and provide further explanations about the programs' administration while learning. The students looked-for a lecturer as a teacher in the learning who teaches and clear their doubts. Perhaps this can help the students to score better in the future.

Thus the direct beneficiary from the study is the English unit of the University College and the findings will be direct implication for the Basic English subject. The study contributes to the field of CALL by comparing ELLIS program that is a

Computer Assisted Language Learning program with F2F approach in enhancing the language performance of low proficiency learners. Thus the scope of the study gives importance to the low proficiency students in the CALL research field.

5.3 Recommendations

Several recommendations can be made for future research that complements the research undertaken in this study by extending the regions of investigation. Needless to say, the use of CALL alone may be insufficient in the teaching and learning for low proficiency learners'. However, creating more opportunities for CALL might show a clear picture.

Future research can be done on the Basic English subject focusing more on the improvement of language performance for low proficiency students at MUCH. A comparative study can be conducted by increasing the number of respondents would be of great help to develop a more reliable conclusion. The Basic English subject studied with longer period of time might produce different results; one in a long semester and the other one as usual for 8 weeks duration.

The students' were categorized as low proficiency students'. However, the language proficiency might be different according to age group. Thus, control and experimental group recommended to be tested for similarity before the study can also be the focus of the future research.

It is important to use the appropriate program level according to the students' proficiency level to get its maximum benefits for English teaching and learning in the future. If it is not correct for their level, the activity cannot be prevented from becoming a chaos of uncertainty (Higgins, 1988). The suitability of the software for low proficiency students' needed to be studied to produce reliable results. The researcher recommended the University College to conduct future studies that utilizes other software other than the ELLIS program to compare the suitability for the low proficiency learners'.

The study demonstrated that the CALL (ELLIS) for low proficiency students in this particular college did not work very well. Preference showed that CALL (ELLIS) program could be incorporated as a blended learning with the F2F classroom learning assisted by a teacher. The results of the present study are not conclusive and more research studies on CALL and F2F learning group are required.

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Uses and Limitations of Questionnaires in Social Research

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ABSTRACT

News media, government agencies, political parties want to know what the public thinks; associations want the opinion of the members; companies want to know how their products are received by the public. Large companies also want to assess the attitude of their employees towards the organization. In every field of research, a survey is necessary to assess the situation and plan accordingly. The best way to collect all the information is through surveys. Surveys can be conducted in various ways like telephone interviews, personal interviews, mail surveys, email surveys, internet surveys, computer direct interviews or questionnaires. Each method has its own advantages and disadvantages and much depends on the target audience. The advantages and disadvantages of using questionnaire have been explored in this research. The questionnaire is a structured technique for collecting primary data in a marketing survey. It is a series of well written or verbal questions for which the respondent provides the answers. Written surveys or questionnaires are the backbone of successful surveys. First and foremost, 95.87% of the participants agree that questionnaires are the best medium to collect responses for a particular case. A specific research method would depend upon various factors like details needed, available funds, the sample size and the location. Once the decision to conduct the research through questionnaire has been taken, it is important to scientifically design the questionnaire so as to fetch the most useful responses. Secondly, 92.70% of the participants suppose that questionnaires and survey allow them to gather information from a large audience. Thirdly, 89.21% of the participants agree that questionnaires are one of the most affordable ways to gather qualitative data. 88.89% of the participants also mention that when data has been quantified, it can be used to compare and contrast other research and may be used to measure change. 85.08% of the participants also agree that questionnaires are practical to gather data. 83.81% of the participants also mention that questionnaires are easy to analyze and data entry can be done easily through the help of computer software packages available. 81.59% of the participants report that questionnaires offer actionable data. 79.68% of the participants agree that a mail questionnaire gives the respondent the flexibility to complete it at his convenience. 77.14% of the participants agree that questionnaires reduce bias. Mail questionnaires may result in certain amount of bias but anonymous questionnaires are more accurate. There is no interaction with the researcher who cannot influence the responses of the respondent. The respondent is relaxed and can give an honest opinion. Written questionnaires are less intrusive than other forms of research for instance like the telephone interviews. It has also been found that if a follow-up letter is sent along with another copy of the questionnaire the respondents are encouraged to respond who otherwise might not have. Thus it increases the number of responses. Another way to improve the number of responses is if some sort

of reward is assured to the respondents. For exploratory research open-ended questions help the respondents to better express their views. According to the 78.25% of the participants, one of the major disadvantages in written questionnaires is that the inability to probe responses which is possible in face-to-face interview. Secondly, 76.19% of the participants report that when questionnaires are too long and include irrelevant questions, survey response fatigue occurs. Another major drawback mentioned by 74.13% of the participants is that when questionnaires are sent in the mail it is difficult to ascertain that the response is from the same person who the questionnaire was meant for. Housewives respond for their husbands; children respond for fun and business executives may hand it over to their sub-ordinates to handle it. 69.37% of the participants agree that questionnaires cannot fully capture emotional responses or feelings of respondents. According to 60.79% of the participants, one of the major disadvantages in written questionnaires is that participants can always choose a questionnaire platform that has accessibility options built in. Another major drawback is the low response rate. Low response results in inaccurate statistical analysis. Response rates vary widely from one questionnaire to another. Another disadvantage mentioned by Questionnaires does not allow any flexibility to the respondents. Respondents normally want to qualify their responses and providing space for comments can, to some extent, overcome this disadvantage. Comments on responses are the most useful in assessing responses as they provide insight into the information Questionnaires ask for personal details like contact details and this puts off many people. They refrain from giving out these details for fear of misuse. Questionnaires cannot be used where people are uneducated and are unable to read and understand the questionnaire. Clarifications cannot be sought in written questionnaires which is possible in interview questionnaires. We can conclude saying that questionnaires have advantages while certain things should be kept in mind before launching the survey. The questionnaire should be short and simple to make it effective. The questionnaire should start with an introduction and a welcome message. Including 'don't know' or 'not applicable' in the responses would fetch more honest responses as the respondents do not feel coerced to respond just anything. If the questionnaire is neatly laid out and well-planned respondents would be more willing to go through it than even give a second glance at a clumsy paper. The questionnaire should start with easy to understand questions and gradually build up so that respondents to not fall out mid-way. Any survey can provide 'some' answers but choosing sensible questions and administering it with care can change the results dramatically, thereby paying dividends for the efforts put in.

Key words: Uses and Limitations, Questionnaires, Myanmar Context

1. Introduction

At the beginning of any type of research, it is important for the researcher to determine the most appropriate methodology to carry out the study. The Dictionary of Sociology (1998) defines methodology as a "the methods and general approach to empirical research of a particular discipline". It is implied that various methods exist to approach a particular research problem, and the researcher should give his or her own set of methods considerable thought. While factors such as time and costs certainly play an important part in deciding how to approach a particular research problem, the subject of the research itself should ultimately determine the methods used. A good researcher will evaluate all available options prior to making a decision as to which methods to adapt in the light of being the most useful for the study at hand. Scandura and Williams (2002) note that the impact of management studies often

depends 'upon the appropriateness of the research methods chosen'. This further highlights the importance the researcher needs to place at the selection of the right approach if the end-result is expected to be valuable and meaningful from a management perspective.

The construction, application and evaluation of the questionnaire call for skill. Developing and interpreting questionnaires demand great care and preparation. Questionnaires typically are administered via a personal or telephone interview or via a mail questionnaire. Newer methods include e-mail and the Web. The wordings of the questions have to be unambiguous and easily understood. Proper sequence of the questions has to be maintained. It is advisable to test the questionnaire in a small group before conducting the final survey. A well structured questionnaire has definite advantages. When large samples and a large geographical area have to be covered questionnaires are cost effective compared to face-to-face interviews? Most people have had some experience in answering questionnaires and hence are not apprehensive when asked to submit responses. When the most appropriate research method - or a mix of various methods - has been established, it is time to start what Gilbert (2001) calls *detective work*: "Social research involves detective work. Researchers begin with a problem and then ask a number of questions about it, such as 'what?', 'who?', 'where?', 'when?', 'how?' and 'why?'" A variety of quantitative and qualitative research methods are available to the researcher, ranging from interviews, questionnaires, observation, experiments, to case studies. This paper will focus on the method, namely questionnaire. A questionnaire is essentially a structured technique for collecting primary data. It is generally a series of written questions for which the respondents has to provide the answers (Bell, 1999). Care has to be taken in creating a questionnaire. If a questionnaire is well designed, it will motivate the respondents to give accurate and complete information; as such, it should provide reliable and relevant data in return. However, some researchers may use a questionnaire as a means of collecting reliable data in a rather deductive approach in order to test existing theory. The findings of this study will hopefully give valuable information on uses and limitations of questionnaires in social research. Objective of the study is to explore advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires in social research.

1.1 Advantages of Questionnaires (Source: Bell, 1999)

(i) Questionnaires are inexpensive.

First of all, questionnaires are one of the most affordable ways to gather quantitative data. Especially self-administered questionnaires, where we do not have to hire surveyors to perform face-to-face interviews, are a cost-efficient way to quickly collect massive amounts of information from a large number of people in a relatively short period of time.

(ii) Questionnaires are practical.

Apart from being inexpensive, questionnaires are also a practical way to gather data. They can be targeted to choose and manage in various ways. They offer a way to gather vast amounts of data on any subject. They can be used in a wide variety of ways.

(iii) Questionnaires offer a quick way to get results.

It's quick and easy to collect results with online and mobile tools. This means that we can gain insights in as little as 24 hours (or less!), depending on the scale and reach of your questionnaire.

(iv) Scalability

Questionnaires and surveys allow to gather information from a large audience. Online can be used to literally distribute the questions to anyone and anywhere in the world. This means that for a relatively low cost, we can target a city or a country.

(v) Comparability

When data has been quantified, it can be used to compare and contrast other research and may be used to measure change. This makes monthly or yearly questionnaire more and more valuable over time. Improving comparability implies that errors due to translation have to be minimized.

(vi) Easy analysis and visualization

Most survey and questionnaire providers are quantitative in nature and allow easy analysis of results. With built-in tools, it's easy to analyze the results without a background in statistics or scientific research. These results can be put in a wide variety of charts and tables to present them to the boss, colleagues, clients or customers.

(vii) Questionnaires offer actionable data.

The more data we gather, the clearer the painting becomes. All this information gives marketers the capability to create new strategies and to follow trends in audience. Analyzing data and building reports can be used to generate predictions and even create benchmarks for follow-up questions or questionnaires.

(viii) Respondent anonymity

Online and email surveys allow respondents to maintain their anonymity. Mail-in questionnaires also allow for complete invisibility, which maximizes comfort for those answering. Even phone interviews are not face-to-face, thereby making it a more private communication. This concealment puts respondents at ease and encourages them to answer truthfully; however, there is still a human touch to these phone interviews. Digital questionnaires give the best sense of anonymity and privacy.

(ix) Questionnaires don't have time constraints.

When using mail-in, online or email questionnaires, there's no time limit and there is no one on the other end waiting for an answer. Respondents can take their time to complete the questionnaire at their own leisure. As a bonus, they will often answer more truthfully, as research has shown that having a researcher present can lead to less honest and more social desirable answers.

(x) Questionnaires can cover every aspect of a topic.

One of the biggest advantages is being able to ask as many questions as we like. Of course, it benefits the marketer to keep each individual questionnaire short, since respondents may find a long questionnaire frustrating. However, since they are efficient, cost-effective in nature and have an easy mode of delivery, there is no harm in creating multiple questionnaires, each covering a subtopic of the main subject, that build upon one another.

1.2 Disadvantages of Questionnaires (Source: Bell, 1999)

(i) Dishonest answers

While there are many positives to questionnaires, dishonesty can be an issue. Respondents may not be 100% truthful with their answers. This can happen for a variety of reasons, including social desirability bias and attempting to protect privacy. Stop dishonesty in its tracks by assuring respondents that their privacy is valued and that the process prevents personal identification.

(ii) Unanswered questions

When using questionnaires, there is a chance that some questions will be ignored or left unanswered. If questions are not required, there is always that risk they won't be answered. Online questionnaires offer a simple solution to this issue: make answering the question required.

(iii) Differences in understanding and interpretation

The trouble with not presenting questions to users face-to-face is that each may have different interpretations of your questions. Without someone to explain the questionnaire fully and ensure each individual has the same understanding, results can be subjective. Respondents may have trouble grasping the meaning of some questions that may seem clear to the creator. This miscommunication can lead to skewed results.

(iv) Hard to convey feelings and emotions

A survey or questionnaire cannot fully capture emotional responses or feelings of respondents. Without administering the questionnaire face-to-face, there is no way to observe facial expression, reactions or body language. Without these subtleties, useful data can go unnoticed.

(v) Some questions are difficult to analyze.

Questionnaires produce a lot of data. Multiple choice questions can be tabulated and graphed, but open-ended questions are different. Open-ended questions allow for individualized answers which cannot be quantified and must be reviewed by a human. Too many open-ended questions can produce a flood of data that can take forever to analyze. That's why it's important to select the right type of question as a questionnaire is only as effective as its questions.

(vi) Respondents may have a hidden agenda.

As with any sort of research, respondent bias can be an issue. Participants may have an interest in the idea. Others may be influenced to participate based on the subject of the questionnaire. These proclivities can lead to inaccuracies in data, generated from an imbalance of respondents who see the topic in an overly positive or negative light.

(vii) Lack of personalization

Customization is the prevailing marketing theme. Any piece of marketing material is at risk of seeming impersonal unless time and care are taken to personalize it. If we are unable to add touches of personalization, some potential respondents may be put off and ignore it. This can be particularly difficult when the questionnaire or survey is taken voluntarily on a website, regardless of purchase or email.

(viii) Unconscientious responses

Every administrator hopes for conscientious responses, but there is no way to know if the respondent has really understood the question or read it thoroughly before answering. At times, answers will be chosen before fully reading the question or the potential answers. Sometimes respondents will skip through questions, or split-second choices may be made, affecting the validity of the data.

(ix) Accessibility issues

No matter what form of delivery is used, lack of accessibility is a threat. Surveys may be unsuitable for users with a visual or hearing impairment, or other impediments such as illiteracy. This should be considered when choosing to do research in this manner. Always choose a questionnaire platform that has accessibility options built in.

(x) Questionnaire or survey fatigue

We have all received survey invitations and the trend of companies using customer feedback surveys is up. This means that some level of survey fatigue is setting in with respondents.

2. Research Methodology

A total of 160 volunteer teachers who are doing research at university participated in the research. The research was conducted by a set of questionnaires with a modified Likert three-scaled pattern of agree, not sure and disagree. A total of 160 questionnaires were returned and the result has been presented here. The questionnaire included two parts: uses of questionnaires in social research and limitations of questionnaires in social research. In distributing and collecting data, university teachers who have academic, research and professional experience: conference experience, presentation experience and publication experience, and the nature and duties of the research position: supervisor and co-supervisor from different specializations participated as respondents towards uses and limitations of questionnaires in social research.

Table 1: Respondents of the participants towards academic, research and professional experience and the nature and duties of the research position in terms of specialization

Sr No	Specialization	No of Respondents (%)	Academic, Research and Professional Experience			The nature and duties of the research position	
			Conference Experience	Presentation Experience	Publications Experience	Supervisor	Co-Supervisor
1	Botany	5.00%	10.53%	5.40%	7.69%	8.57%	7.14%
2	English	16.67%	10.53%	13.51%	11.54%	8.57%	7.14%
3	Economics	20.00%	15.78%	18.93%	19.23%	20.00%	23.81%
4	Geography	10.00%	10.53%	8.11%	7.69%	5.71%	4.295%
5	History	5.00%	10.53%	8.11%	11.54%	8.57%	7.14%
6	Law	5.00%	5.26%	5.40%	3.85%	5.71%	4.76%
7	Myanmar	25.00%	26.31%	27.035	26.92%	28.57%	23.81%
8	Psychology	13.33%	10.53%	13.51%	11.54%	14.30%	11.91%
		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

According to the data, table 1 shows the average percentage of the respondents or faculty members who have experience in using questionnaires as they have a task to do research in their respective fields.

2.1 The Advantages of Questionnaires

In general, it can be observed from the data in table 2 that the opinions of the respondents regarding the uses of questionnaires in social research are positive.

Table 2: Responses of participants' views on the uses of questionnaires in social research

Sr No	Statement	Responses		
		Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	Questionnaires are one of the most affordable ways to gather quantitative data.	89.21%	8.89%	1.90%
2	Questionnaires are a practical way to gather data.	85.08%	8.89%	6.03%
3	Questionnaires are quick and easy to collect results within online and mobile tools.	95.87%	4.13%	0%
4	Questionnaires and surveys allow you to gather information from a large audience.	92.70%	7.30%	0%
5	When data has been quantified, it can be used to compare and contrast other research and may be used to measure change.	88.89%	5.40%	5.71%
6	Most survey and questionnaire providers are quantitative in nature and allow easy analysis of results.	83.81%	13.97%	2.22%
7	Questionnaires offer actionable data. (The more data you gather, the clearer the painting becomes.)	81.59%	16.19%	2.22%
8	Online and email questionnaire surveys allow respondents to maintain their anonymity.	77.14%	21.90%	0.95%
9	Questionnaires don't have time constraints. (When using email questionnaires, there is no time limit and there is no one on the other end waiting for an answer. Respondents can take their time complete the questionnaire at their own leisure.)	79.68%	15.87%	1.11%
10	Questionnaires are able to /can ask as many questions as you like.	65.39%	24.13%	10.48%
Avg		83.94%	12.67%	3.39%

According to the data a questionnaire can be placed on the website or emailed to the customers. These methods have little to no cost, though strong targeting is necessary if researchers want to have the highest possible response rate receive the most accurate results. Still, no matter what type of questionnaires they pick, it will be more

affordable than outsourcing to a market research. From statement 3, a total of 95.87% of the respondents reported positive opinions in relation to the statement “Questionnaires are quick and easy to collect results within online and mobile tools.” However advantageous questionnaires are in social research, there may also be disadvantages of questionnaires in social research. These are some disadvantages of questionnaires.

2.2 The Disadvantages of Questionnaires

According to the data from table 2, it can be generally assumed that there may be weaknesses of questionnaires in social research. In total, 78.25% of the participants expressed their opinions towards the statement “The trouble with not presenting questions to users face-to-face is that each may have different interpretations of the questions.”

Table 3: Responses of participants on the limitations of questionnaires in social research

Sr No	Statement	Responses		
		Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	Respondents may not be 100% truthful with their answers.	74.13%	16.98%	8.89%
2	Some questions will be ignored or left unanswered.	53.81%	33.01%	13.18%
3	The trouble with not presenting questions to users face-to-face is that each may have different interpretations of your questions.	78.25%	11.75%	10.00%
4	Questionnaires cannot fully capture emotional responses or feelings of respondents.	69.37%	21.74%	8.89% ⁰
5	Some questions are difficult to analyze. (It's important to select the right type of question as a questionnaire is only as effective as its questions.)	51.59%	16.98%	31.43%
6	Respondents may have a hidden agenda. (Participants in a survey may have an interest in the product, idea or service.)	60.16%	31.27%	8.57%
7	Any piece of marketing materials is at risk of seeming impersonal unless time and care are taken to personalize it.	53.33%	33.49%	13.18%
8	There is no way to know if the respondent has really understood the question or read it thoroughly before answering.	49.05%	33.33%	17.62%
9	Participants can always choose a questionnaire platform that has accessibility options built in.	60.79%	25.87%	13.33%
10	Survey response fatigue occurs when the result of surveys that are perceived as too long and include questions irrelevant to the respondent.	76.19%	10.79%	13.01%

Avg	62.67%	23.52%	13.81%
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While there are many positives to questionnaires, 74.13% of the participants agree that dishonesty can be an issue. Respondents may not be 100% truthful with their answers. This can happen for a variety of reasons, including social desirability bias and attempting to protect privacy. Among the participants 76.19% also agree that some level of survey fatigue is setting in with respondents.

3. Results

Surveys can be conducted in various ways like telephone interviews, personal interviews, mail surveys, email surveys, internet surveys, computer direct interviews or questionnaires. Each method has its own advantages and disadvantages and much depends on the target audience. The advantages and disadvantages of using questionnaire have been explored in this research. The questionnaire is a structured technique for collecting primary data in a marketing survey. It is a series of well written or verbal questions for which the respondent provides the answers. Written surveys or questionnaires are the backbone of successful surveys. First and foremost, almost all the participants agree that questionnaires are the best medium to collect responses for a particular case. A specific research method would depend upon various factors like details needed, available funds, the sample size and the location.

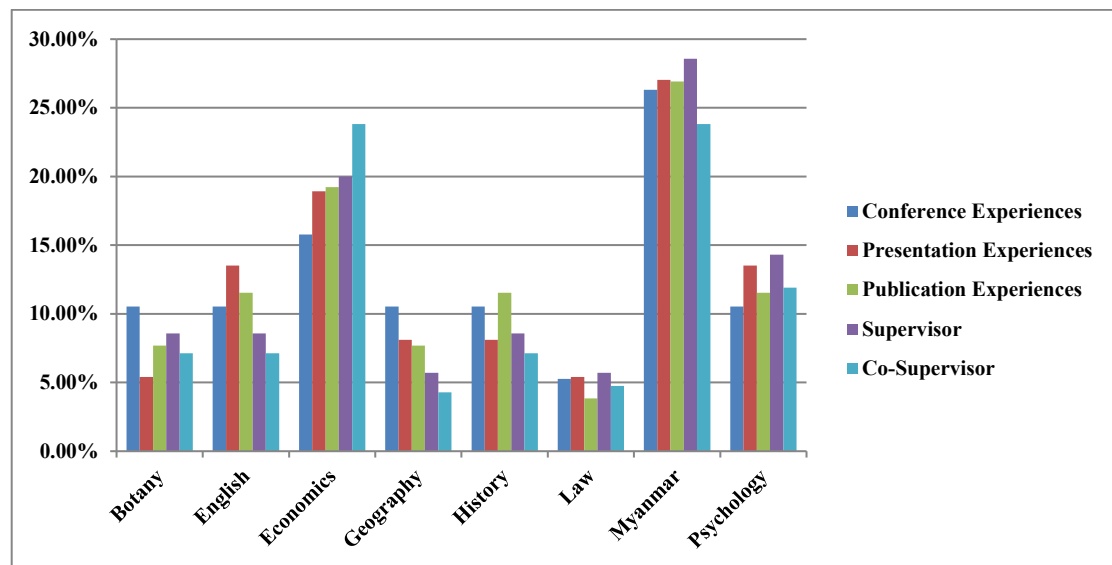


Figure 1: Respondents of the participants towards academic, research and professional experience and the nature and duties of the research position in terms of specialization In this research, university teachers who have academic, research and professional experience and duties of the research positions from different specializations participated as respondents towards uses and limitations of questionnaires in social research.

3.1 The Advantages of Questionnaires

The main advantage of using questionnaires is that a large number of people can be reached relatively easily and economically. A standard questionnaire provides quantifiable answers for a research topic. These answers are relatively easy to analyse.

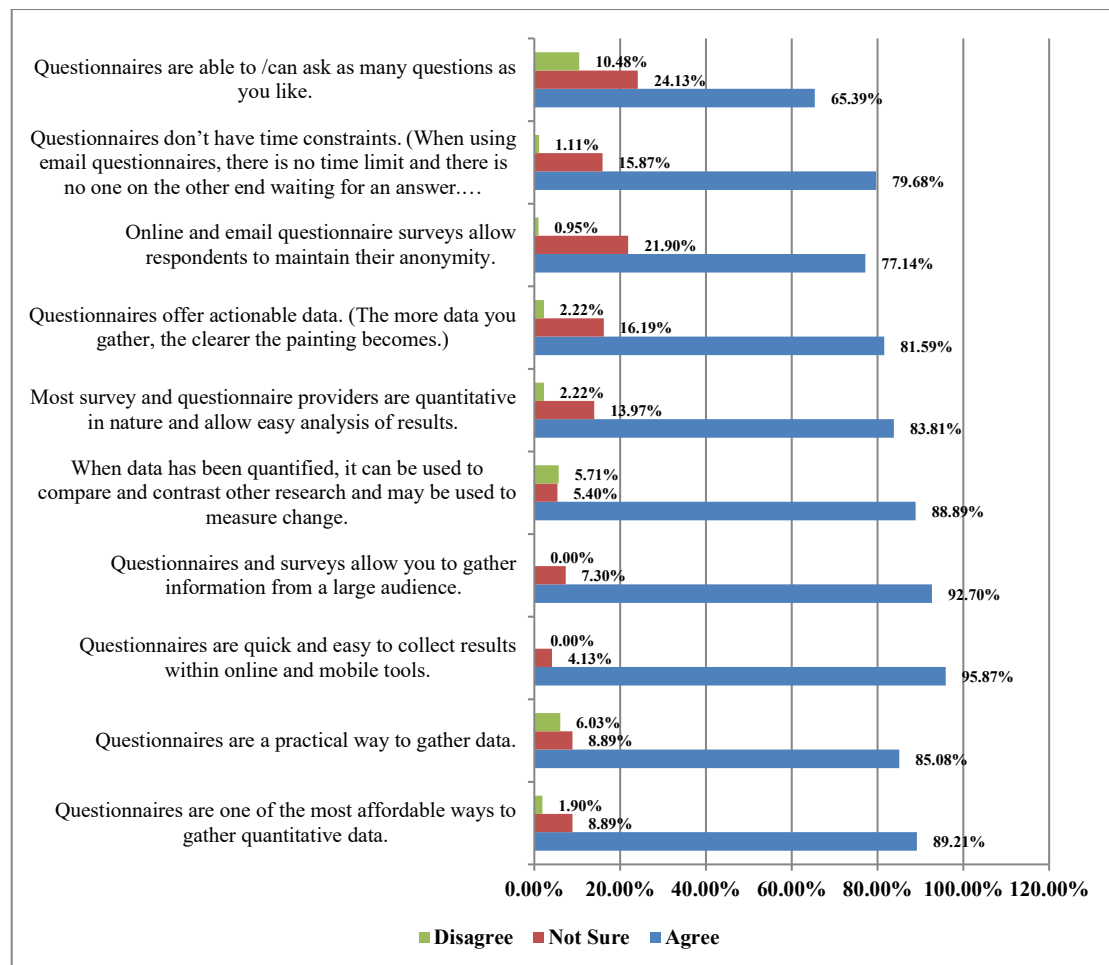


Figure 2: Responses of the participants' views on the uses of questionnaires in social research

According to the data, 85.08% of the respondents said that questionnaires are a practical way to gather data. Among the respondents, 92.70% reported that large amounts of information can be collected from a large number of people in a short period of time and in a relatively cost effective way. Over 50% of the participants response that questionnaires can be carried out by the researcher or by any number of people with limited affect to its validity and reliability. The statement “The results of the questionnaires can usually be quickly and easily quantified by either a researcher or through the use of a software package.” is said by 77.14% of the respondents. The statement most survey and questionnaire can be analyzed more 'scientifically' and objectively than other forms of research is agreed by 83.81% of the participants. Among the participants, 88.89% mention that when data has been quantified, it can be used to compare and contrast other research and may be used to measure change. 89.21% of the positivists believe that questionnaires are one of the most affordable ways to gather quantitative data. In total, 95.87% of the participants positively mention that questionnaires are quick and easy to collect results within online and mobile tools.

3.2 The Disadvantages of Questionnaires

Questionnaires are not always the best way to gather information. For example, if there is little previous information on a problem, a questionnaire may only provide limited additional insight. On one hand, the investigators may not have asked the right questions which allow new insight in the research topic. On the other hand, questions

often only allow a limited choice of responses. If the right response is not among the choice of answers, the investigators will obtain little or no valid information. Another setback of questionnaires is the varying responses to questions. Respondents sometimes misunderstand or misinterpret questions. If this is the case, it will be very hard to correct these mistakes and collect missing data in a second round. A badly designed questionnaire can annoy and frustrate the respondent to the extent that the responses can be intentionally tailored to give the wrong picture. The fundamentals of questionnaire designing have to be understood – who are the respondents, what the aim of the survey is, what type of questions can be asked, what responses should be built in, how to lay the questionnaire and how to test it.

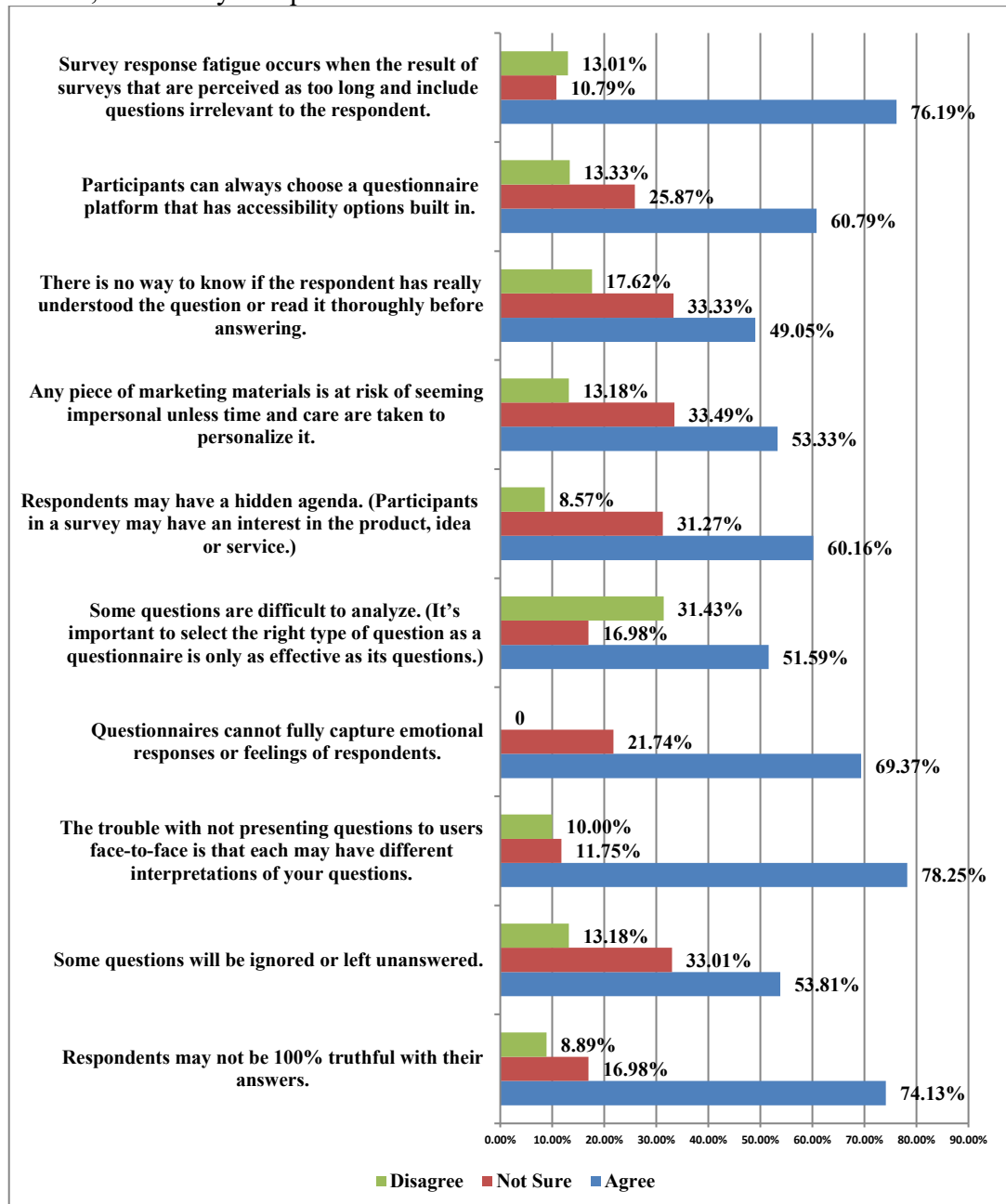


Figure 3: Responses of the participants towards limitations of questionnaires in social research

According to the data, 78.25% of the participants agree that the trouble with not presenting questions to users face-to-face is that each may have different interpretations of your questions. It is argued to be inadequate to understand some

forms of information. And also 69.37% of the participants state that quantitative research is simply an artificial creation by the researcher, as it is asking only a limited amount of information without explanation. 74.13% of the participants mention that there is no way to tell how truthful a respondent is being because respondents may not be 100% truthful with their answers. 60.79% of the participants agree that questionnaires lack validity as participants can always choose a questionnaire platform that has accessibility options built in. 49.05% of the participants mention that there is no way to know if the respondent has really understood the question or read it thoroughly before answering. There is no way of telling how much thought a respondent has put in. The respondent may be forgetful or not thinking within the full context of the situation. According to 69.37% of the participants, questionnaires cannot fully capture emotional responses or feelings of respondents. People may read differently into each question and therefore reply based on their own interpretation of the question - i.e. what is 'good' to someone may be 'poor' to someone else, therefore there is a level of subjectivity that is not acknowledged. The statement some questionnaires are difficult to analyze is agreed by 51.59% of the participants.

The responses of the participants towards the limitations of questionnaires in social research are shown in figure (3). It is clear that the participants agree that questionnaires are one of the most affordable and practically useful ways to gather quantitative data in doing social research. However, this research also deals with the limitations of the questionnaires. There is a level of researcher imposition, meaning that when developing the questionnaire, the researcher is making their own decisions and assumptions as to what is and is not important. Therefore they may be missing something that is of importance.

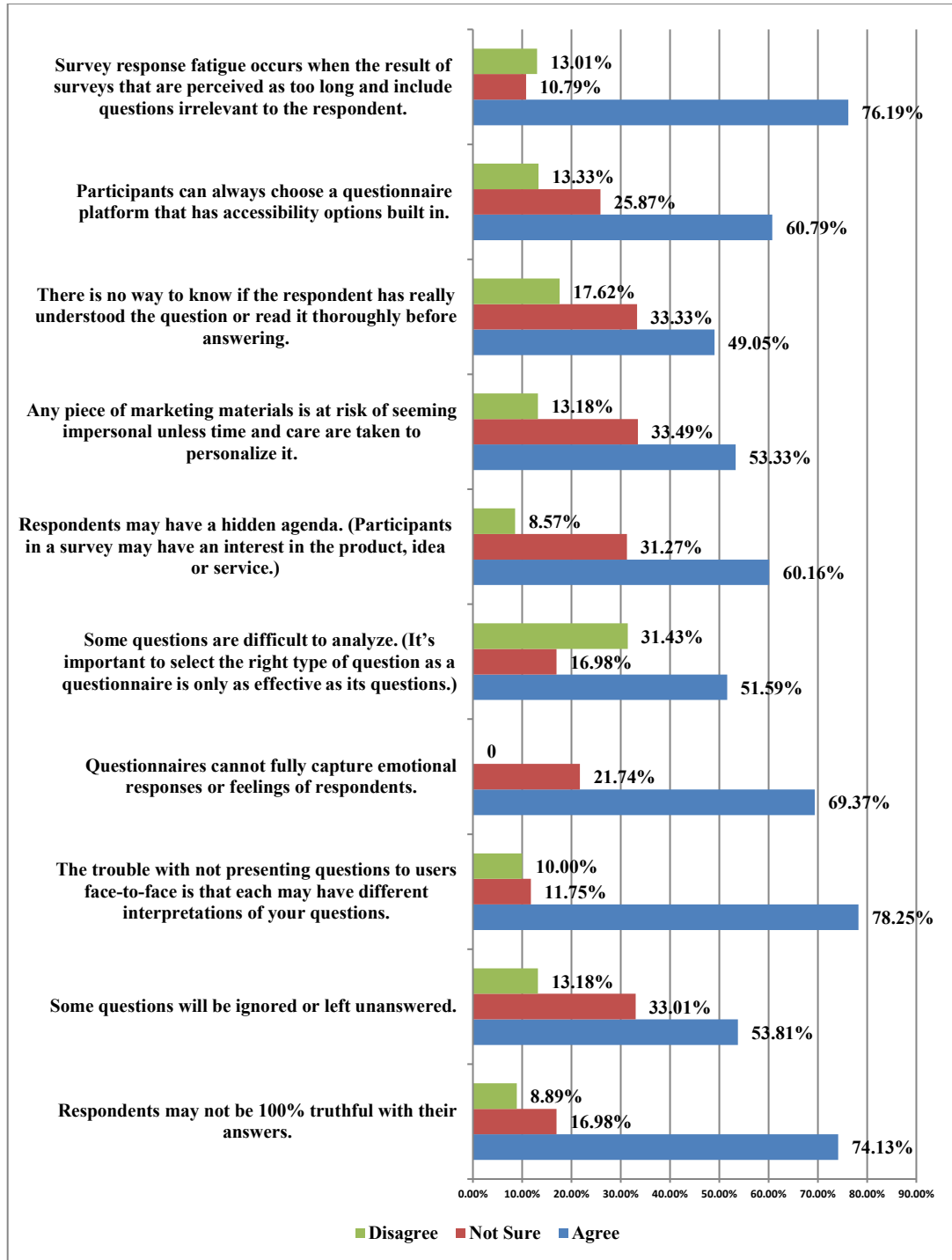


Figure 3: Responses of the participants' views on the limitations of questionnaires in social research

Participants (74.13%) describe that respondents may not be 100% truthful with their answers the limitations of questionnaires with regards to the expected outcome, which might for example highlight trends or attitudes. Another limitation of questionnaires can be found in the structure of the method itself. Fixed-choice questionnaires generally assume an un-stated general knowledge of the topic being investigated, and force the respondent to answer questions that he or she might be ignorant of, have a different understanding of based on personal perception, or which are influenced by exogenous factors such as education, culture, age, or societal status. 76.19% of the participants agreed that survey response fatigue can occur when the result of surveys

that are perceived as too long and include questions irrelevant to the respondent. A questionnaire has no means of correcting this; the outcome might thus be slightly biased at best, or plainly misleading. According to the responses in item 3, 78.25% of the participants agree that questionnaires are standardized so it is not possible to explain any points in the questions that participants might misinterpret. This could be partially solved by piloting the questions on a small group of students or at least friends and colleagues. Open-ended questions can generate large amounts of data that can take a long time to process and analyse. One way of limiting this would be to limit the space available to students so their responses are concise or to sample the students and survey only a portion of them. Respondents may answer superficially especially if the questionnaire takes a long time to complete. The common mistake of asking too many questions should be avoided.

4. Discussion

As with every research method, there are pros and cons. We have gathered the biggest treasures and pitfalls so the best possible decision can be made. The biggest advantages like cost efficiency, scalability and quick results have been discovered in this research. But also disadvantages such as respondents with their own agenda and a possible lack of personalization.

4.1 Strengths

According to the results, questionnaires are easy to analyze, and most statistical analysis software can easily process them. They are cost effective when compared to face-to-face interviews, mostly because of the costs associated with travel time. This is especially true for studies involving large sample sizes and large geographic areas. Written questionnaires become even more cost effective as the number of research questions increases. Questionnaires are familiar to most people. Nearly everyone has had some experience completing questionnaires and they generally do not make people apprehensive. They are less intrusive than telephone or face-to-face surveys. When respondents receive a questionnaire in the mail, they are free to complete it on their own time-table. Unlike other research methods, the respondent is not interrupted by the research instrument. On the other hand, questionnaires are simply not suited for some people. For example, a written survey to a group of poorly educated people might not work because of reading skill problems. More frequently, some people are turned off by written questionnaires because of misuse. If administered properly, questionnaires can prove to be an excellent method to obtain quantitative data about people's attitudes, values, experiences, and past behaviour. Questionnaires allow the researcher to gather a significant amount of data at relatively little cost. Questionnaire distributed by post can be posted to the target group, and the latter can choose to answer whenever it is most convenient for them. Email acts as another delivery channel, and can reduce costs even further. Of the two main types of questionnaires, descriptive and explanatory, questionnaires allow the researcher to gather data either to explain different phenomena or to explain cause-and-effect relationships between different variables respectively. There are additional benefits as well. User responses can be precoded, eliminating transcription errors. Written questionnaires reduce interviewer bias because there is uniform question presentation (Jahoda, et al., 1962). Unlike in-person interviewing, there are no verbal or visual clues to influence a respondent to answer in a particular way. Many investigators have reported that interviewer voice inflections and mannerisms can bias responses. Written surveys are not subject to this bias because there is no interviewer. On the other hand, the lack of

an interviewer limits the researcher's ability to probe responses. Well-designed questionnaires include clear and concise instructions on how they should be completed. These must be very easy to understand, so use short sentences and basic vocabulary.

4.2 Limitations

One of the main drawbacks of questionnaires, especially ones served through the post or electronic mail, is the often-low response rate. Response rates for postal questionnaires can be low. Incorrectly or illegibly filled out questionnaires, or even missing answers, will inevitably influence the quality of the data obtained, and have the potential to further lower the number of useable questionnaires. Questionnaires do not offer the researcher the opportunity to follow up ideas and clarify issues - one of the main strengths of interviews, as chapter three will show. Consideration needs to be given to all aspects of the questionnaire, from design to selecting the correct target-group, in order to obtain the maximum amount of reliable and valuable data. Participants note that questionnaires are not particularly suited for research that requires a significant amount of open-ended questions, for which a (semi-structured) interview might be a better method to pursue. Structured questionnaires often lose the "flavor of the response", because respondents often want to qualify their answers (Walonick, 1993). By allowing frequent space for comments, the researcher can partially overcome this disadvantage.

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Critical Thinking in the Language Classroom: University Teachers' Perceptions

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ABSTRACT

Critical thinking has been recently introduced and gained a high position in foreign language teaching (FLT) settings so that nowadays enhancing critical thinking in learners is considered one of the foreign language teachers' tasks. Many different factors can affect learners' critical thinking skills. Language teachers can help learners develop critical thinking skills. Critical thinking refers to the individuals' ability to think and make correct decisions independently. Nowadays enhancing critical thinking in learners is considered one of the foreign language teachers' tasks due to its high position in foreign language classrooms. There are various factors affecting language learners' critical thinking skills. Among these factors is the assessment methods used. Therefore, through managing the ways of assessing language learners' ability, language teachers can help them develop critical thinking skills. In this research, some suggestions for language teachers to make sound choice of assessment methods and activities have been explored. Critical thinking has an impact on students' interpersonal skills. By thinking critically and seeing things from different angles, students become more open-minded and empathetic, better communicators, more inclined to collaborate with their peers and receive and discuss their ideas. Thinking more about students as individuals, it is possible to say that critical thinking helps develop their creative side by allowing their thinking process to run more freely, and explore more possibilities. It will make them better decision-makers, and with practice, also help them save time to make those decisions. In particular, this research explores English language teachers' perceptions about the significance of critical thinking for language teaching and connections between critical thinking and language teaching methods. This study adopted the mixed methods research strategy by distributing a self-administered questionnaire form to the teachers, conducting interviews with selected teachers and observing classroom activities at selected universities. The results of the study suggest that the ultimate majority of those teachers (91%) recognize the central role played by critical thinking in effective language pedagogy. They also suggest a tendency for employing practical aspects of critical thinking teaching methodologies in the English language classroom to more holistically prepare students for further academic studies and their future careers in the workplace.

Keywords: Critical Thinking, Language Classroom, University Teachers' Perceptions
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1. Introduction

Critical thinking is believed to be one of the crucial skills that should be taught to students in academic settings (Hooks, 2010). This is rationalized by the fact that critical thinking not only improves the overall degree of information acquisition - and therefore students' cognitive abilities (Tsankov, 2017) - but also augments the degree to which students are able to scrutinize knowledge related to particular and diverse disciplines, such as English language, history and biology (Hooks, 2010). However, despite the importance of this concept, the existing body of knowledge regarding the most helpful teaching practices to enable the development of critical thinking skills is still comparatively limited when compared to other aspects related to teaching, such as motivation or assessment. Teaching critical thinking presents a significant challenge in environments undergoing radical changes in their academic practices and policies. Significant efforts have been made in Myanmar to bring it in line with other countries where there have been changes in the educational approaches; an example of this is the introduction of new technologies and the use of social networks to facilitate teaching and learning. The approach to education in the country is still largely characterized as 'traditional' since memorization of textbooks remains the most common teaching and learning practice. Posing 'why-questions' is still seen as form of rebellion and generally considered culturally inappropriate, negative, and prone to generate uneasiness among individuals. Although there are studies conducted in Myanmar that acknowledge the importance of teaching students critical thinking skills and training teachers to implement strategies to attain this goal, there are still very few studies that aimed to investigate effective and useful teaching practices that may promote the development of learners' critical thinking skills. The findings of this research may help teachers to decide on the most useful teaching practices to enable the development of critical thinking skills and positively affect students' learning. There exists a substantial drive for the implementation of new teaching technologies and innovative teaching practices in the Myanmar academic sector. In addition, the government of Myanmar has recently initiated a large-scale educational reform project aimed at improving the school curricula and teaching competencies. These governmental decisions and policies have very practical implications for Myanmar teachers who now face a wide variety of pressures from the stakeholders involved in the educational process to deliver results in terms of student performance. This may create a conflict in terms of adhering to new curricula, implementing innovative technologies, and at the same time trying to foster critical thinking. The main aim of the study is to identify the most frequently adopted teaching practices for improving the critical thinking skills of students in universities.

1.1 Definitions of Critical Thinking

It is believed that critical thinking mainly refers to the cognitive processes related to information processing and evaluation (Salmon, 2013). Through critical thinking, an individual is able to make inferences based on the provided data and evaluate the available knowledge with respect to the dimensions of validity, reliability and generalisability. One critical remark against this definition is that there exist a wide variety of skills, models and approaches to critical thinking, such as induction, deduction and abduction. Another perspective on critical thinking is that this skill serves as a tool for decision-making. This entails that critical thinking is generally seen as an essential skills in cases in which an individual is required to make a choice based on the facts available in the macro-environment. Overall, it can be stated that critical thinking is required both in the academic setting, in which this dimension directly affects learning and comprehension, and in everyday life due to the need to consume

and synthesise large amounts of information. That said, the success of critical thinking is largely dependent on the cognitive skills and abilities possessed by a particular individual. Thus, critical thinking constitutes a mastery, which is achieved through possessing and developing mental capabilities related to understanding as well as by objectively evaluating insights from different sources. The importance of critical thinking skills is high in academic settings in which students are regularly required to reach their own conclusions from the evidence provided by academic sources and teachers (Ennis, 1962). On the other hand, it is admitted that while the aforementioned critical thinking capabilities could be innate, there is a great degree of emphasis on teaching the students to display a higher degree of critical thinking to raise their academic competency and improve their overall life skills. Nosich (2012) reported on the elements, the procedures related to general cognition and on making inferences from the available data. While these processes form the core of critical thinking, there are also general and discipline-specific standards that serve as filters for the results of the initial critical thinking process. For example, the existing body of knowledge on the subject suggested that the standards may be related to six characteristics, namely background insight, understanding, implementation, evaluation, integration and appraisal. The key implication of this result was that in order to display developed critical thinking skills, students had to adhere to strict guidelines regarding the consumption of information. In turn, the degree, to which the inquirers were able to elicit their own understanding through the outlined dimensions, could be augmented by the academic professionals by employing specific teaching practices and initiatives. There also exists an alternative approach to modeling critical thinking, which advocates that all inquirers go through six stages of critical thinking mastery (Paul and Elder, 2005). More specifically, such a transformation passed through the phases of being an unreflective, challenged, beginning, practicing, advanced and master thinker. Although this conceptualization is justified in that it covers the major steps towards critical thinking development, it is ambiguous whether the stages are applicable to all inquirers irrespective of their cognitive abilities (Moon, 2007). Moreover, the framework of Paul and Elder (2006) posited that external influence was required for students to begin developing their critical thinking capabilities. While this may be justified, this would place the motivational focus of learning critical thinking almost entirely on outside factors, such as teachers and the academic curriculum (Moon, 2008).

1.2 Influence of Teaching Practices on Students' Critical Thinking Skills

Researchers and educators have advocated for some key teaching practices and strategies aimed at improving students' critical thinking. For instance, using mixed educational tactics and flipped classroom models were considered as highly beneficial methods by Smith et al. (2018). The empirical evidence gathered by the researchers suggests that integrating critical thinking strategies into the curriculum of the disciplines was a reasonable way of enhancing students' critical thinking capacities (Smith, 2013). A similar result was achieved by placing theoretical lectures outside of regular classroom activities and instead focusing on practical assignments which would traditionally be considered as homework. It is also believed that frequently asking evaluative questions in class regarding the current discipline-specific assignments faced by the students could provide the learners with sufficient material and motivation to improve their critical thinking. This could be expanded further by relying on engagement and active pedagogy. Two possible examples of the teaching practices associated with these dimensions are mentoring (one-to-one teaching) and initiating dialogues with the classroom with the aim of encouraging critical thinking. The key

implication of these arguments is that in order to develop critical thinking capabilities the learners have to be put into academic environments in which individual participation and finding their own resolutions to the classroom tasks are encouraged.

One critical remark that can be made against the above assertions is that implementing the discussed measures may be challenging and resource intensive. Adopting Nosich's (2012) concept of critical thinking as process-based approach, critical thinking mainly consists of elements, standards and discipline-centric factors. These are conceptualized as a sum of factors related to more specific factors: background insight, understanding, implementation, evaluation, integration and appraisal. In this study, critical thinking is also seen as influenced by the teaching practices adopted in the research setting. These methods include, but are not limited to, encouraging dialogue, establishing a positive classroom atmosphere, integrating critical thinking teaching into discipline curricula and providing the students with problem-solving tasks.

1.3 The right ways teachers have to develop critical thinking skills for their learners

Below is a list of some of the ways teachers have to develop critical thinking skills for learners. Ultimately this is as much about how teachers teach as it is about how learners learn. Developing critical thinking skills must be embraced and incorporated at the team level.

(i) Start early.

It's important to tailor the activity for the students, but it is possible to have them use their brains as early as possible.

(ii) Do not answer their questions right away.

Teachers want to help students by giving them the answers so they can move on with the task, but if the main goal is to make them think, you may want to give them time to find the answers on their own. Alternatively, have them work in pairs or groups and try to find the answers together. That is not just an opportunity to foster collaboration, but you may be surprised at how creative your students get.

(iii) Ask and encourage open-ended questions.

Teachers foster critical thinking by asking questions and having students think of the answers, but you will also be the model they will copy. Whenever the occasion calls, allow them to ask questions to you and their classmates. That will help you motivate inquisitive students, who may in turn become open-minded adults.

(iv) Help students develop their own ideas.

Teachers should not expect them to develop critical thinking skills overnight, without any support. They help them with their tasks by providing scaffolding – techniques / strategies to help them move progressively towards their goals (you can help them in their research, organize their thoughts, or put ideas in perspective), so they can not only complete the task, but also have a sense of achievement, which is a great motivator to keep working.

(v) Encourage students to think in new ways.

Creativity is the capacity to think in new ways, and to see associations and relationships that others may not have seen before. By encouraging students to do that, they will naturally become better thinkers and more creative people.

(vi) Encourage understanding and respect.

one of the consequences of exercising critical thinking is the development of intellectual empathy, which is the capacity to put oneself in someone else's place and understand their thoughts and feelings. By doing so, students are more likely to become fair-minded,

ethical thinkers. In that context, the notion of respect may be developed more naturally, but it should always be fostered, as in any teaching environment

(vii) **It is not just about science and facts.**

Critical thinking will not only make students intellectual empathy, but it will also help them become aware of their own knowledge and the need to address different ideas constantly – and through research and reasoning, they shall accomplish their tasks with integrity. So why not apply their skills to discuss issues from other subjects, such as Math, language, literature, History, Sociology, or even moral issues.

2. Methodology

This research aims to investigate teachers' perceptions of strategies they adopt to help their students develop critical thinking skills. This study adopted the mixed methods research strategy by distributing a self-administered questionnaire form to the teachers of university in the different regions of Myanmar, conducting interviews with selected teachers in the university. The research was conducted with teachers in selected Myanmar universities. Primary data in the form of questionnaire results and interviews was gathered to attain this goal. A total of 5 selected universities participated in the study with 182 teachers completing the questionnaire and 52 teachers being interviewed. The teachers must remember the role as teachers, and the things they should do to reach the end goal, which is to make them think. In that regard, there are some things teachers should consider:

- (i) What are teacher's perceptions of critical thinking?
- (ii) What are their perceptions of students' ability to think critically?
- (iii) What are their perceptions of the role they have to play when incorporating critical thinking in their lessons?
- (iv) What are their perceptions of the most beneficial teaching strategies to foster students' critical thinking skills?

2.1 Data Collection

(i) What are teacher's perceptions of critical thinking?

Following the mixed methods research strategy, the questionnaire responses were converted into percentage to visualize the most basic trends and patterns in the variable definitions given by the participants.

Table 1: The teacher's interview responses towards variable definitions of critical thinking (n=52)

Sr No	Variable Definitions	Responses		
		Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	Critical thinking is one of the major life skills which is hugely important not only when studying, but also during everyday life and work.	77%	16%	7%
2	Critical thinking is how well you are able to compare and contrast different points of view.	62%	24%	14%

3	Critical thinking is required to make conclusions and inferences on the basis of what is available to students.	59%	33%	8%
Avg		66%	24.33%	9.67%

For instance, 77% of the participants stated that “critical thinking is one of the major life skills, which is hugely important not only when studying, but also during everyday life and work”. Moreover, the definitions of critical thinking provided by the interviewees were frequently aligned with the frameworks of such authors as Nosich (2012). For example, 62% of the participants stated that “critical thinking is how well you are able to compare and contrast different points of view. Only 59% of the participants agreed that critical thinking is also required to make conclusions and inferences on the basis of what is available to students. In spite of such awareness, the main issues faced by the university academic professionals may constitute a barrier to the application of such ideas. Students’ behaviour was cited as one of the key challenges for teaching practice effectiveness. Some of the participants argued that “in some cases, students actively refuse to go beyond the subjects”. At the same time, there were highlighted problems related to school curricula and resources.

(ii) What are their perceptions of students’ ability to think critically?

The investigation was carried out using a qualitative approach, using a sample of lecturers from institutions of higher learning. Most participants argued that “there is a conflict between new methods of teaching, which are focused on critical thinking, and the traditional paradigms of learning followed for a long period of time in Myanmar” while “limited resources” were also mentioned by them. These assertions were confirmed by the observations made by the researcher in the following table.

Table 2: The teacher’s questionnaire responses towards their perceptions of students’ ability to think critically (n=182)

Sr No	Variable Definitions	Responses		
		Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	Critical thinking skills of the students were underdeveloped.	65.70%	21.33%	12.97%

The teachers frequently struggled with controlling students during classes, which hindered their ability to introduce practices related to critical thinking. In addition, the teachers were frequently forced to follow traditional curricula, thus significantly limiting the amount of time allocated to critical thinking development activities. This resulted in many teachers (a total of 65.70%) reporting that the critical thinking skills of their students were underdeveloped.

(iii) What are their perceptions of the role they have to play when incorporating critical thinking in their lessons?

The results of the study suggest that the ultimate majority of those teachers (91%) recognize the central role played by critical thinking in effective language pedagogy.

Table 3: The teacher’s questionnaire responses towards the role they have to play when incorporating critical thinking in their lessons (n=182)

Sr No	Variable Definitions	Responses		
		Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	The teachers have to play the central role when incorporating critical thinking in their lessons.	91%	3%	6%

Many of the interviewed teachers recognised the importance of critical thinking and were highly aware of the benefits of developing the critical thinking skills of the students, but also emphasized the challenges and problems when trying to embed critical thinking skills into their classroom activities. The results also indicate teachers' preference for aligning their teaching methods with the functional-communicative approach, related to Ennis' (2011) critical thinking categories. They also suggest a tendency for employing practical aspects of critical thinking teaching methodologies in the English language classroom to more holistically prepare students for further academic studies and their future careers in the workplace.

(iv) What are their perceptions of the most beneficial teaching strategies to foster students' critical thinking skills?

The teachers usually help their students with their tasks by providing scaffolding, so they can not only complete the task, but also have a sense of achievement, which is a great motivator to keep working.

Table 4: The teacher's questionnaire responses towards their perceptions of the right ways teachers have to develop critical thinking skills for their learners (n=182)

Sr No	The right ways teachers have to develop critical thinking skills for their learners	Responses		
		Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	Start early.	87%	1%	12%
2	Do not answer their questions right away.	62%	14%	24%
3	Ask and encourage open-ended questions.	84%	4%	12%
4	Help students develop their own ideas.	76%	15%	9%
5	Encourage students to think in new ways.	68%	21%	11%
6	Encourage understanding and respect.	58%	22%	20%
7	It is not just about science and facts.	51%	26%	23%
Avg		69.43%	14.71%	15.86%

Over 80% of the participants stated that it is important to tailor the activity for the students, but it is possible to have them use their brains as early as possible. 84% of the participants also agreed that teachers foster critical thinking by asking questions and having students think of the answers, but you will also be the model they will copy. That will help you motivate inquisitive students, who may in turn become open-minded adults. However, 76% of the participants stated that teachers should not expect them to develop critical thinking skills overnight, without any support.

The critical thinking teaching strategies are regarded as the relevant variables in this study. Critical thinking in the classroom is important in a number of ways. First, it helps students strengthen their problem solving ability and helps them make decisions by excluding guess work. Additionally, critical thinking helps students increase creativity and teaches students how to prioritize time and resources, thus allowing students to

adapt quickly in an environment where such skills are needed. Critical thinking is a skill that students will need in high school, college, life, and in their careers. By teaching critical thinking skills in the classroom, educators are preparing students for the future ahead. The following table shows the teachers' views on strategies in which teachers can use to encourage critical thinking in the classroom:

Table 5: The most beneficial teaching strategies to foster students' critical thinking skills

Sr No	The most beneficial teaching strategies	Responses		
		Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	Positing open-ended questions to the class	84%	13%	3%
2	Focusing on performance tasks	76%	18%	6%
3	Comparing and contrasting different perspectives	68%	25%	7%
4	Examining old and new information	59%	31%	10%
5	Comparing diverse input material	44%	37%	19%
6	Considering different perspectives and representations of reality	52%	39%	9%
Avg		63.83%	27.17%	9.00%

The findings suggest that positing open-ended questions to the class (84%), focusing on performance tasks (76%), and comparing and contrasting different perspectives (68%) were the most beneficial teaching strategies to foster students' critical thinking skills. The findings also highlight that these capabilities are affected not only by the teaching practices, but also by other factors related to the broader academic environment, such as university resources. The results of the present research may help university teachers to select and implement teaching strategies and consider factors that may lead to an improvement in students' critical thinking skills. While this study focuses exclusively on teachers working in the universities of Myanmar, some of the findings can be potentially transferable to other similar educational contexts.

Although it is not possible to generalize findings, it is important to mention that the way education is structured in Myanmar has an impact on the general transferability of samples in educational research. This is due to the fact in the highly centralized educational system; all university in the country must follow exactly the same curriculum, adopt the same teaching approaches and processes, and employ the same testing instruments and assessment criteria. In order to increase the reliability of the data collection instruments, the questionnaire and interview questions were revised and adjusted according to the input received by another academic in the field. According to Cohen et al (2011), such steps can potentially increase the internal validity of the research tools. Similarly, a sample of the qualitative and quantitative data analyzed was submitted to an experienced academic in the field of education for a reliability check. No significant discrepancy was found in the categorization or in the analysis of the findings.

3. Results

In this research, participants are firstly examined to have responses towards variable definitions of critical thinking. Such interview can lead to the development of the ability to evaluate sources and points of view and then select the best option.

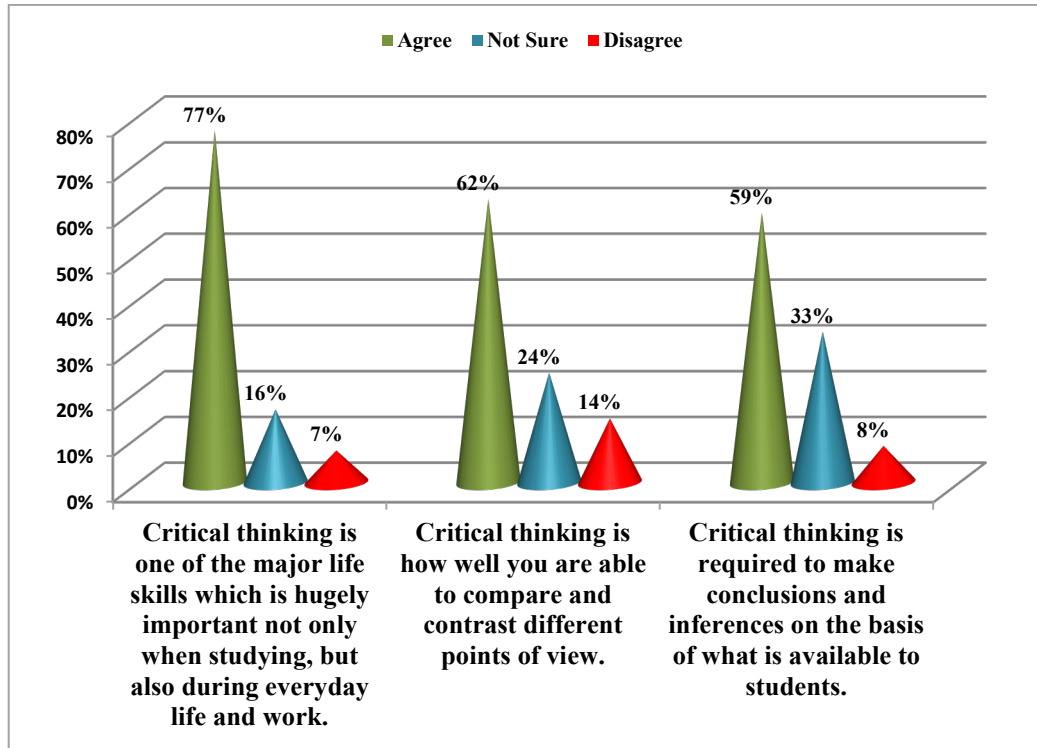


Figure 1: The teacher’s interview responses towards variable definitions of critical thinking (n=52)

The above findings in Table 4 and 5 are interpreted as meaning that posing more open-ended questions in the classroom can improve the critical thinking skills of the students of the universities in the regions of Myanmar. While closed-questions require one restricted alternatives with the right and wrong answers being determined by a key or the teacher’s set answer; open-questions instead require learners to analyse the question, evaluate how their knowledge can be relevant to the answer, consider different options and opinions, and then decide on the best possible reply.

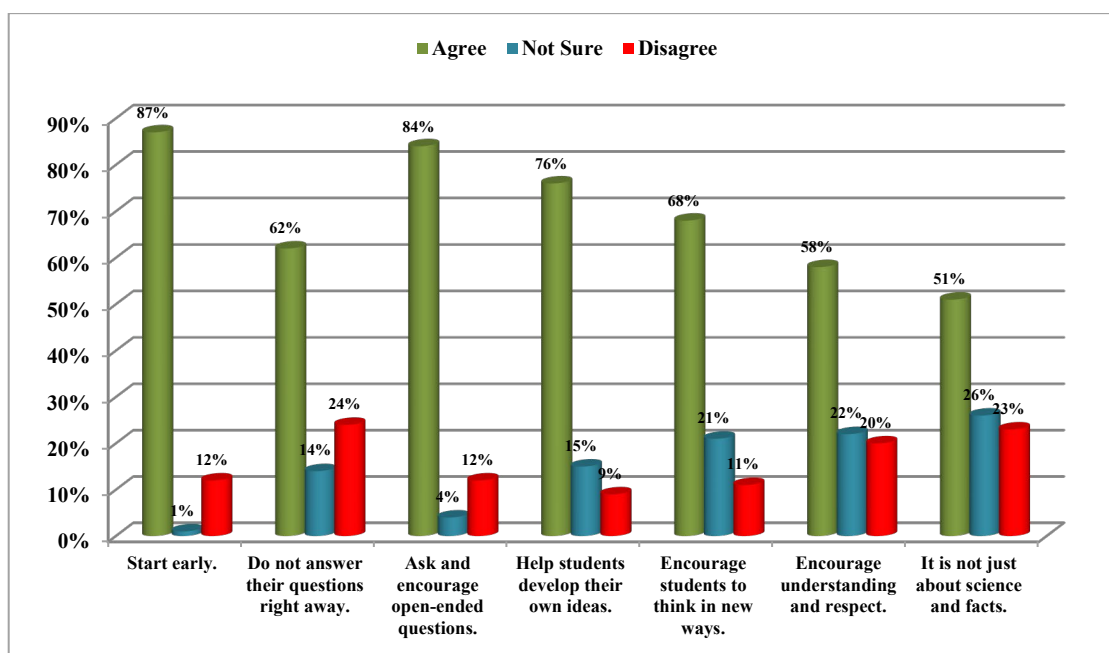


Figure 2: The teacher's questionnaire responses towards their perceptions of the right ways teachers have to develop critical thinking skills for their learners (n=182)

Furthermore, discussing the participants' possible answer can lead to the reinforcement of the knowledge acquired in the process or a change in perspective with new knowledge being created. One of the most important findings of this research was that teaching critical thinking goes beyond the considered teaching practices and is depended on such factors as classroom discipline and school curriculum. Thus, the university teachers should be encouraged to modify their approach with respect to start early. However, it is asserted that the efficiency of such techniques may be further improved by relying on innovative teaching methods and integrating the outlined tactics with these platforms. For example, asking and encouraging open-ended questions can be employed by the teachers in order to improve educational outcomes related to critical thinking. The implementation of such solutions may require investing on university resources. It is unknown whether all university would be able to follow this recommendation.

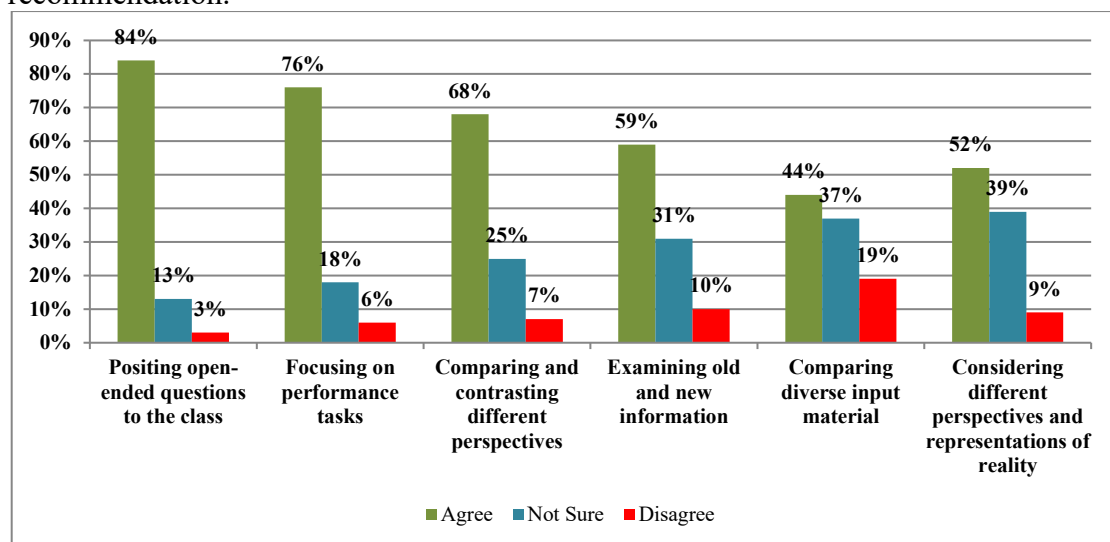


Figure 3: The most beneficial teaching strategies to foster students' critical thinking skills

Finally, positing open-ended questions to the class can also enhance the critical thinking capabilities of the learners in the academic setting. Practical tasks typically require students to critically examine their ideas, knowledge and beliefs to achieve the task. However, such important variables as establishing a positive classroom environment or verbal praise were not effective within the chosen study context. Thus, the teachers are playing the central role when incorporating critical thinking in their lessons. Overall, the findings of this research are consistent with the work of Larsson (2017) who exemplified the role of phenomenology in teaching critical thinking. In addition, the vital role played by practical tasks and open-ended questions is in line with the key arguments presented by Browne and Freeman (2000), and Cargas et al. (2017). The key implication of these outcomes is that more attention should be devoted to the outlined practices in the university.

The results of the study in Figure 4 suggest that the ultimate majority of those teachers (91%) recognize the central role played by critical thinking in effective language pedagogy. They also suggest a tendency for employing practical aspects of critical thinking teaching methodologies in the English language classroom to more holistically prepare students for further academic studies and their future careers in the workplace.

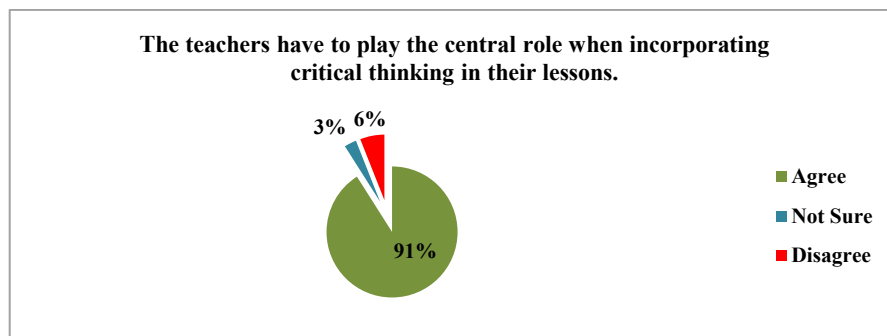


Figure 4: The teacher's questionnaire responses towards the role they have to play when incorporating critical thinking in their lessons (n=182)

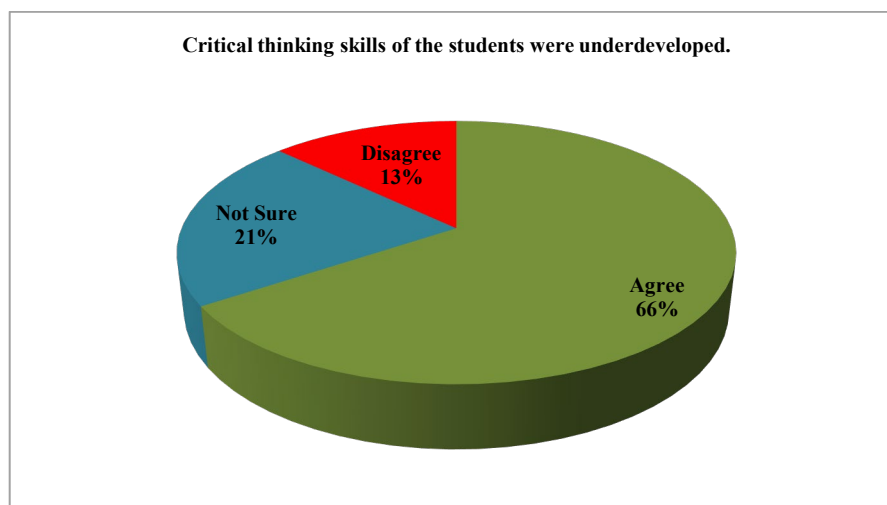


Figure 5: The teacher's questionnaire responses towards their perceptions of students' ability to think critically (n=182)

As a result, the critical thinking skills of the students were only evaluated as underdeveloped by the surveyed teachers. The development of critical thinking skills goes thus beyond adopting certain classroom teaching practices and is also affected by broader factors related to the academic environment. Addressing the fourth and final objective of the study, practical recommendations are provided for the teachers employed in the university.

One notable finding is that many participants reported difficulties with the classroom behaviour of their students. Providing a stable educational environment should give the teachers more opportunities to implement the key techniques aimed at improving the critical thinking skills of their students. Nevertheless, it is difficult to provide specific suggestions regarding this aspect based on the available primary evidence. The findings of this study also show that school resources and traditional curricula were considered as significant barriers for the implementation of the teaching practices beneficial for critical thinking. This was aligned with the core framework of Nosich (2012) who noted that critical thinking was inseparable from the overall educational environment expressed through the most relevant standards and discipline-related conditions. This finding puts the emphasis on the all stakeholders involved in the educational process to aid teachers in fostering the critical thinking skills of the students instead of posing additional challenges and problems. That said, it remains uncertain and still subject to

further research which specific educational strategies or reforms could be implemented by the Myanmar government to achieve such goal. The overall consensus established in this study was similar to the discussion presented by Salmon (2013). More specifically, it was shown that critical thinking is generally perceived as a highly important cognitive skill directly related to information processing and evaluation. The broader implications of critical thinking (decision-making capacities) are also indirectly supported in the study via the interview transcripts. The participants of this study are aware of the benefits of critical thinking and consciously strive towards developing the mental abilities of their students. This outcome exemplifies the overall importance of critical thinking in the academic setting. On the other hand, this particular outcome may have been caused by the sample composition, which would limit its generalizability.

This finding seems to suggest that most teachers perceive that their lessons were enjoyable to students. They also felt that their own enjoyment of the classes they teach was also a good indicator. In addition, the students' own preparations for the material to be learned would contribute to their ability to think critically. It is important to take into consideration the arguments of Horwitz (1990) that a teacher's perceptions were not shared by their students. Their students may actually be looking at the same situation from vastly different perspectives. However, the results do not seem to support Horowitz's argument. These students seem to enjoy their class as evidenced from the comments from the students' feedback questionnaire.

In conclusion, it was stated that the critical thinking skills of the students in the academic setting could be developed through particular teaching practices, such as establishing a positive learning environment, mentoring, focusing on practical tasks, posing open-ended questions, comparing and contrasting different perspectives etc. It was suggested that implementing these methods could lead directly to students improving their critical thinking capabilities. Nonetheless, only open-ended questions, comparing and contrasting, and practical tasks passed the benchmarks of statistical significance. This may be explained by stating that the educational process in Myanmar faces significant challenges related to teacher awareness, school resources, school curricula and student discipline.

4. Discussion

The concept of critical thinking was featured in taxonomies a few decades ago. Critical thinking is a complex process that requires higher levels of cognitive skills in the processing of information. The teachers' perceptions of critical thinking among students influence their behaviors in the classroom. It has been found that teachers perceive they are teaching critical thinking to their students and believe that critical thinking will provide the intellectual stimuli that will facilitate critical thinking. The evidence of critical thinking among students was perceived to be their ability to explain to ideas and concepts in their own words. Some teachers did not seem to understand the requirements needed to cultivate critical thinking among students. Although teachers perceive that they are encouraging critical thinking in the classroom, they are merely focusing on the comprehension of the subject matter. Moreover, this research focused exclusively on the teachers' perspectives and practices and thus lacks a student centric perspective with regards to data collection and analysis. While the students may be unaware of the complexities of the educational process related to critical thinking, it may be beneficial to gather their perceptions on the teaching practices that can be employed to foster their critical thinking skills. Furthermore, in order to fill in the gap in the literature, future studies could be done in different education stages (elementary and intermediate university) and in all universities to allow academics and teachers to

consider possible similarities and differences among learners' thinking skills according to gender.

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**Impact Study of Computer Aided Learning Program under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Case of Rural
Elementary School in Godhavi Village of Gujarat**

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Abstract

In recent years there has been a technological invasion in every sector of society. This research paper aims to assess the relationship between primary education and digital technology under the government's scheme, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan through a case study in two primary schools in the Godhavi area, Sanand district, Ahmedabad. The aim is to understand the impact of e-learning on students through the teacher's perspective while critically evaluating the implementation process of government policy. The paper reviews the current social, cultural and administrative structures and suggests probable solutions to derive equitable and proportionate benefits from the program to bridge the digital divide and enhance digital literacy.

This research primarily aims to evaluate the impact of such 'digitisation' in terms of quality of education, level of integration or displacement towards conventional methods of teaching, the satisfaction of learning, hindrances in implementation along with possible significant solutions to boost the purpose of grassroots level government policies. The observations depict that e-education program under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is creative and useful in its purpose and capacity, but deeper ethnographic observations reveal that e-education still remains a form of 'entertainment' rather than a powerful learning tool because of lacking implementation efforts. Long term solutions involve participatory efforts and cultural willingness that first places the need for basic education at a level of importance in the eyes of the beneficiaries, later followed up by digital education and its derived benefits. The key to effective policy implementation and bridging the digital divide lies heavily on internal socio-cultural changes than external ones.

Keywords: e-education, digital divide, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, primary education

Introduction

This is the 21st century, undeniably the fastest growing era in terms of technological penetration and innovation. Our lives are rooted around technologies where mobile phones have replaced our daily alarms, communication is through instant messaging, economic transactions are digitised and political propaganda equates to social media activism. The impact and pervasiveness of technology on every aspect of our lives has shaped our cultural mindsets, commodified values and materialised success. We now live in a Networked Society, (Manuel Castells, 2004) where there's an evident shift from the industrial means of production to skill focussed work. If one's not a part of the infinite network encapsulating the society, they're restricted from availing basic socio-economic benefits and necessities.

Interestingly, to avail equitable benefits of the digital age, structured capacity and contextual premises has to be laid at the grassroots level. According to the 2011 Census Report of India, 70% of the Indian population live in rural areas where agriculture is their primary means of livelihood. Contrasting to quantitative magnitude of agrarian population, the world is increasingly driven by the service sector led urban area, with a contribution of the agrarian sector to the country's overall GDP falling by over 50% from 1999 to 2013 (World Bank, 2013). The rural-urban divide has worsened still with the negligible growth opportunities to expand the tertiary sector in rural areas. Why isn't the rural India sufficiently tapped as a viable supply source to meet existing demands of one sided economic expansion? One of the key factors aggravating the divide is poor literacy rates. The urban literacy rates stands at 86% in contrast to 71% in the rural areas. (Census of India, 2011). The means to impart literacy is the process of education which isn't seen as a basic human right as much as its seen as an additive luxury. The reasons primarily observed for such urban-rural divide accounts for lack of availability of schools in inaccessible

remote areas of villages and poor quality of education in the schools that exist. Imposed and internalized discrimination in terms of gender disparity, poverty, caste, class, creed or religion are factors that deem individuals “worthy” of education. To promote education equity massive resource allocation and large scale intervention is required to create mindset changes at the grassroots level. This is not doable without the imperative policy support. Attempts by development facilitators have prioritised the need for basic education across it’s development planning policies. Very recently in the 2018’s Union Budget of India, digitalisation of rural education was a key area of focus for policy makers. A staggering amount of 100 billion was allocated to enhance broadband connectivity across the country’s villages to provide a push to the existing digitization efforts.

One of the already existing policies, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (Education for All), introduced in 2000, has been implemented by the Government of India in partnership with the State government. It’s primary aim remains to ensure universal primary education for every child across the country. The computer aided learning (CAL) program taken up under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) made use of newly set up smart classes to disseminate education. Its objectives involve bridging the digital gap by supplementing classroom teaching with interactive multimedia content, prepared in collaboration with private organisations. The following study aims to assess the impact of this policy in terms of its implementation through a case study of two primary school in Godhavi, Bopal, Gujarat. For any development policy, introduction never equates implementation. True diffusion of any innovation can only occur once it’s accepted and absorbed by the masses. Hence, to evaluate its impact and current status the following key objectives have been kept in mind:

- Awareness about a government policy and it’s derived benefits

- Assess the availability, accessibility and functionality of digital technology
- Understand whether the technology has been integrated or displaced traditional means of teaching
- Know about the level of teachers training, frequency of use in comparison to textbook teaching
- Assessing the psychological impact on the student's learning output through the use of technology
- Level of government assistance and quality of technological modifications
- Parent's point of view on the use of technology and its impact on their child's learning capacity
- Key hurdles in implementation process
- Probable solutions to the issues

Review of Literature

N. Postman's concept of 'Media Ecology' (1968) traces the historical development of communication technology and its symbiotic relationship with the society. During the Industrial age the most valued element was the manual labour which made use of analogous communication tools required for manufacturing processes to produce material outputs. With the coming of the Information Age (1973, Daniel Bell) manual labour is now replaced with 'educational skills' that produces 'data' and adds to the knowledge of interactive databases. To flourish, any society must be a part of the following enormous 'networked system' or they're bound to be outcasted and deprived of socio-economic benefits. This "convergence of communication and computational technology" (2004, Manuel Castells) gave birth to the new superpower of the 21st century: Information Communication Technology (ICT). Its presence today is entrenched very evidently the base of the societal superstructure forming an inevitable part of our lives

and thinking. Thus, Marshall McLuhan's concept of 'Technological Determinism' (1964) is surely at the peak in the age of neoliberalism where capitalist political ideology commodifies culture, influencing the impact, purpose and viability of media use.

The concept of ICT is parochial for countries that are still on the periphery of the larger development model and are struggling to be a part of the 'networked structure'. According to the International Journal of Scientific Research and Education (2016), India's primarily a developing nation, still holding strongly to its agrarian roots catering to 75% of its rural population. Rogers and Shoemaker (1971), argue that

“nothing is more important for India's development today than the transfer of ideas from one person to person. It is essential to discover effective channels of communication in rural India. A combination of media is the most effective way of reaching people with new ideas.”

This notion of the transfer of ideas can most effectively take place through the promotion of primary education at the rural levels. Literacy rate in India lingers at 74 per cent (2016, International Journal of Scientific Research and Education). The population is rapidly growing with ever widening economic and social disparities indicating that low literacy rates would only worsen inequalities. To achieve self reliance as aimed under the new development paradigm, education must be encashed as the most powerful tool for empowerment. Traditional and conventional methods of teaching strike their own limitations in terms of capacity, cultural, economical and time constraints. As a growing nation it becomes crucial to keep up with the changing dynamics between the teacher, learner and conventional

teaching methods. Thus integration of education and ICTs to aid classroom learning process can be a beneficial bet.

Various studies by scholars admit to technology making education more interactive, participative, flexible, user friendly and customised. It helps curbs the digital divide while contributing to the overall literacy levels. UNESCO (2002), Antony Gracious (2009), Clements and Sarama, (2003), Glaubke (2007), NAEYC and Fred Rogers Center, 2012 concluded that the infusion of technology in education has been seen as a means to enhance and extend not only the textual knowledge but allow students to gain technological literacy reducing digital divide and gaining better social skills. The key to successful implementation of any new technology is to ensure its implementation, acceptance and continuous evaluation within the dynamic environment. (1962, Rogers).

Its well known that policy lays the foundation for any intervention in national ecosystems. India is a federal country with the subject of education featured in the concurrent list of the Constitution, thereby making both the Union and the States' responsible for it. The policies and practices of the Government try to reflect the present need of the society and uphold the fundamental right to education for every Indian. As a response to the demand for quality basic education at the grassroot level, there was a conscious effort towards convergence of programmes and approaches concerning realization of the goals of Education for all - the country has launched the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) in the year 2000. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is Government of India's flagship programme for achievement of Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE) in a time bound manner, as mandated by 86th amendment to the Constitution of India making free and compulsory Education to the Children of 6-14 years age group, a Fundamental Right. In

view of the success achieved during the first phase, the programme was extended to 15,000 upper primary Schools in 2008-09 and the coverage has been nationwide. The computer aided learning (CAL) program taken up under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) promotes setting up of smart classes to impart e-education that aid curriculum learning. The educational association trained 100 government school teachers to combine basic computer literacy for using computers for teaching for classes IV and V. Teachers are oriented through a 12 day training package covering computer basics and operations, digital content transaction and content mapping..The program is largely a private-public partnership model that is supported by private companies like Azim Premji Foundation, Intel. The private sector's involvement adds to the quality content development and software maintenance. (2005, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India)

The effectiveness of ICTs in improving the learning outcome has been mandated so far, however there are contrasting studies highlighting the fact that great intentions never led to substantial changes until those intentions are materialised and implemented strategically. Different scholars including Neeraj and Anitha (2010), Nachimuthu and Vijayakumari (2007), Agrawal (2006), Peat and Franklin, (2003), Postman, (1990) , club different observations conclusively to state that, while the notion of 'computer aided learning' comes across as a learning tool, it'll only be a device without any utility in the absence of internet. In other words, availability of technology does not necessarily imply accessibility. Moreover, capacity, contextual and cultural constraints in the backward rural areas deepen implementation issues. Thus the question that stems is whether the Computer Aided Learning program curb the digital divide or simply reflect waste of resources and poor monitoring?

Despite its importance, conventional means of teaching cannot be completely done away. This statement has been under explored in the studied literature. High unfamiliarity with digitisation, deeply entrenched cultural notions, the traditional ‘Guru-Shishya’ (teacher- student) values that Indian ethical system represents must be retained but modified to make use of the technological boom that ICTs present. For this reason, what’s sustainable, is the integration of digital means and traditional methods of teaching to impart information and stimulate creativity amongst the students. This research primarily aims to evaluate the impact of such ‘digitisation’ in terms of quality of education, level of integration or displacement towards conventional methods of teaching, satisfaction of learning, hindrances in implementation along with possible significant solutions to boost grassroot level government policies.

Research Methodology

Research Approach

The following research is an impact study that aims to assess the overall effect of digitisation on education in Godhavi region of Ahmedabad, Gujarat, under the government policy of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan.

For the purpose of this study, a triangular method of research has been used. Quantitatively, it makes use of survey research design that involves assessment of primary schools in the Sanand district of Gujarat through the use of questionnaires. Qualitatively the method opted is of field observation. The reason for choosing these two government run schools out of several others in the same area was the fact that CAL

(computer aided learning) under SSA was functionally implemented in only these two institutions for a period of five years.

The data collected will be analysed to refute or support the qualitative assessment of content, existing literature, attitudinal and cultural perceptions prevailing with regard to the research objectives.

Sampling

The method of purposive sampling was used to develop the sample of the research under discussion.

According to this method, which belongs to the category of non-probability purposive sampling techniques, sample members are selected on the basis of their knowledge, relationships and expertise regarding a research subject (Freedman et al., 2007).

In the current study, the sample members who were selected were the teachers and parents associated to two government primary schools in the Ghatlodia area of Ahmedabad, Gujarat. The researcher chose the school because of the socio-economic conditions present, the active implementation of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan through the use of smart boards and computer labs i.e. existing infrastructure enabling digital education, which makes it relevant to the study and also fits the time frame and resources of the researcher. The sample size involves 50 teachers and 10 parents, catering to the third grade students, making a total of 60 respondents. The sample selection criteria was subjected to the limited availability of staff in these schools. The duration of the research is a week long period, incorporating the field work.

Method of Data Collection

After the pilot testing and all necessary modifications, the questionnaires will be administered directly to the chosen sample for the study in the form of personal interview. Considering the language constraint it's necessary to introduce the respondents with the purpose of research and gain their trust to extract information from them. The questions will be posed to them in the form of a personal interview and their responses will be recorded objectively using voice recorders and through written notes.

The questionnaire (Appendix) focuses on teachers. It initially analyses the accessibility of the available technology in terms of usage, training and frequency. The second set of questions assess whether digital technology has helped enhance conventional teaching methods or displaced them and its impact on student's performance. Lastly, it seeks to extract different implementation hurdles in context to the government policy and dig out probable sources of solutions.

Method of Data Analysis

The results procured from the quantitative study will be graphically represented using pie charts and bar graphs. This is done to represent the key points within the vast majority of the data accumulated. It aims to convey a general trend impacting the research question and further compare it to field observations.

Key areas of focus for field observation includes understanding the attitude, behaviour of the respondents, assess the current content on rural education and the use of e-education, and statistical data comprising of the literacy rate, ICT4D penetration and implementation hurdles. It will make use of grounded theory to

draw qualitative inferences from field work. The following study aims to strike a balance between factual, quantitative approach while including subjective accounts based on qualitative analysis to provide a comprehensive result.

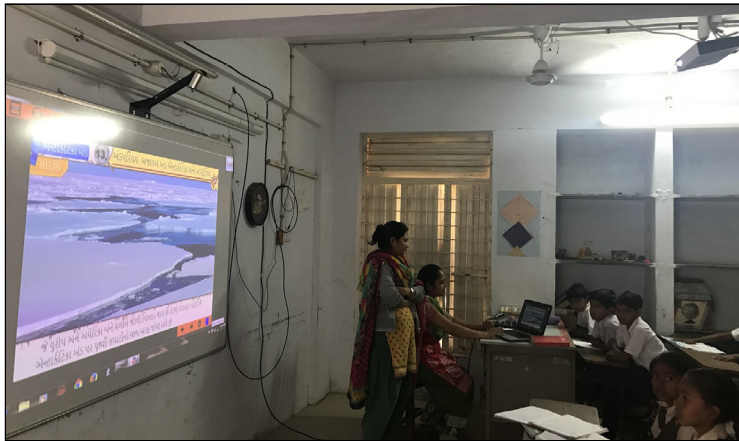
Result

Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative analysis through ethnographic fieldwork aims to form a descriptive capability based on primary and unstructured data. The general observations from the fieldwork are as follows:

Post the 2001 Gujarat Earthquakes, government schools were provided with funds to reimburse the losses endured. From the total amount provided, 10% of the funds were saved separately and returned to the central government who then used it to implement the SSA program in Gujarat with collective support of the state government. The course module adopted in primary schools under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is called 'Pragna', which is an activity based learning approach. It involves several stages of learning a particular state curriculum based topic which includes classroom teaching, group work with peers and one on one student teacher interaction. Subjects covered in the Pragna course involves: Gujarati, Hindi, English, Environment Studies, Mathematics and science. The nature of use of such e-modules was to aid classroom teachings if a concept was difficult to comprehend by the students or to make topics 'entertaining'.

The key issue that was prevalent in both the schools in an overlapping manner was multiple technical difficulties and poor maintenance mechanism. Most of the studied literature stated that the key hindrance leading to poor implementation is improper teachers training or lack of infrastructure. Upon observing the physical settings, my observations largely differed from the reviewed content. In terms of availability, all the schools were well aware about the benefits derived under the programme and also had self sufficient infrastructure to make use of digital software.



Smart classrooms in the primary schools

Specific teams of teachers in both the schools were well trained by private companies over a duration of one week to make use of the computer technology and surf the internet. Basic knowledge of using a browser, saving and accessing files, downloading content, editing and preparing presentations were taught to the teachers over the course of time. In places where the teachers felt stuck to operate, the students readily assisted them. The young students seemed fascinated by the use of technology as most of them lacked any form of digital infrastructure in their homes. Their attention span was the longest during audio

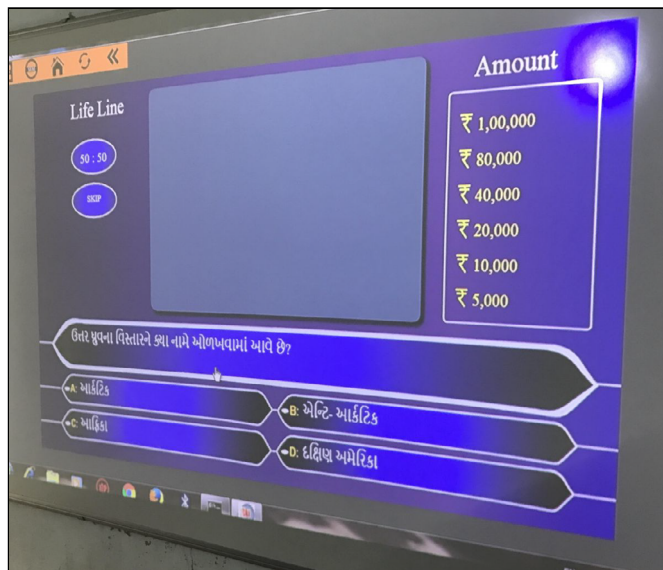
visual classes as compared to other routine lectures. However from the conversation with teachers, most of the parents of these young students worked as labourers in the nearby farms and thus had negligible time or understanding to intervene in their child's education to assist them. Their limited education stood as a constraint in their understanding of the importance of education.

This reflected in the cultural constraints of their mindsets rooted in the widely prevalent gender divide. Most of the girls in the fifth grades had their marriage finalised by their families and were set to be married off in another one or two years. When the researcher asked them about their wish to study, they felt that their 'biological destiny' was to be a mother and take care of their families. Studying was only a momentary phase of their lives. Besides that, the children had no strict attendance policy in place and the teachers had to comply to a child's 'family commitments'. Lack of fear of any consequences made them carefree enough to not take school seriously. However the teachers noted that on days of film screenings or classroom sessions followed by audio visual learning, the turnout was higher.

A very interesting observation was the fact that a lot of respondents felt that certain teachers who were exceptionally good with their subjects were often restricted to their classrooms. Thus through the use of technology, their expertise can be recorded in a series of lectures for future preservation or to fill information gaps of students lacking a teachers guidance. Such priceless content can also be uploaded online or can be used to build academic modules for future generations.

Currently, the lessons were stored as e-learning modules in a computer hard drive and were accessed through a projector. All the e-content was in sync with the textbook based curriculum and aimed at

closely assisting their textbook learning. The teachers followed a specific methodology of teaching the class conventionally before making use of e-modules to build greater understanding and handout practise interactive assignments. The modules made use of popular culture representations to appeal to the students- For E.g.



Kaun Banega Crorepati format of practice questions : e-Module

Practice assignments formatted to represent the popular game reality shows such as ‘Kaun Banega Crorepati’ to add entertainment value to education and generate better class participation.



Lack of functional computers in classrooms

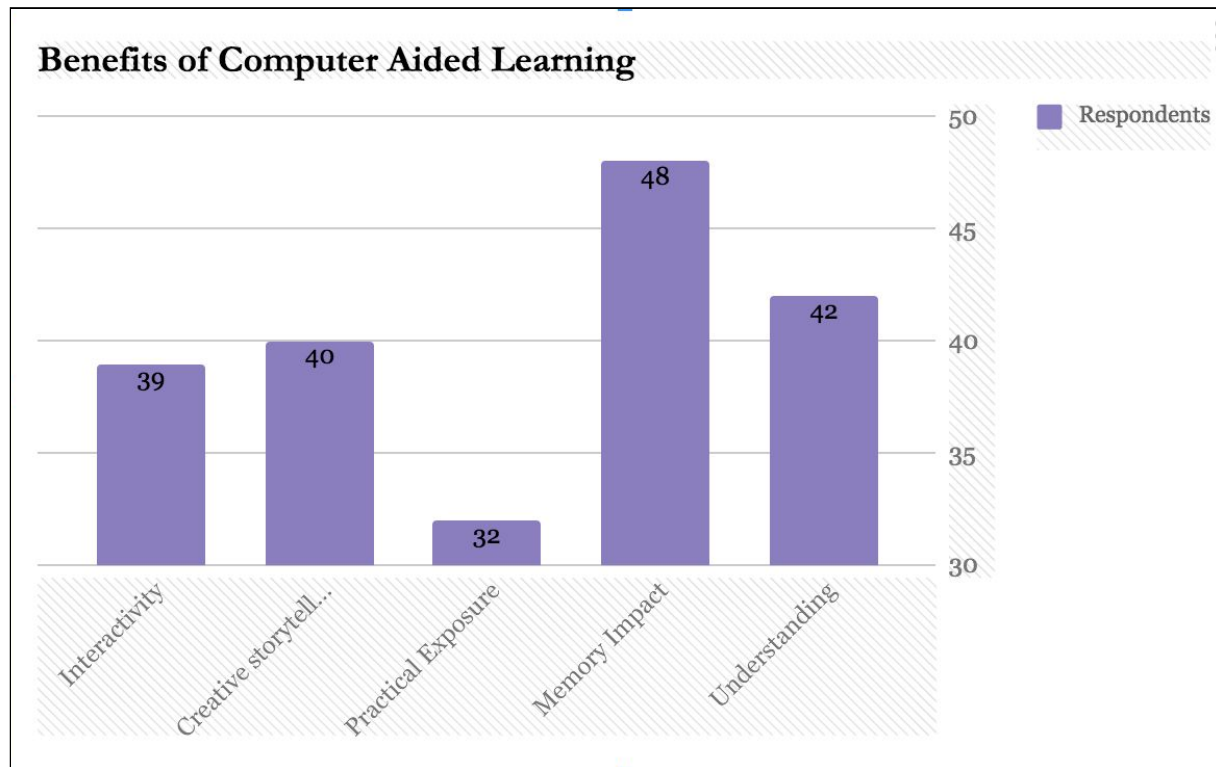
Irrespective of such interactive designs, most of the classrooms had non functional computers and disruptive electricity supply. Only around one smartboard per primary grade functioned properly. Thus, the overall implementation lacked in terms of external functionality and excelled in terms of intentional utility.

Quantitative Analysis

A survey was conducted for this research through a questionnaire. The sample size included 50 respondents, of which were 40 were the teachers of the primary school. They were aged between 35-50 years and all of them were females. Rest 10 respondents were parents of the students.

In terms of the 'e-content' provided under the scheme, the respondents were well satisfied with its usability and utility. It's developed through public private partnership and is very well planned. The teachers were asked about the benefits they think are derived from the use of smart classes and computer technology. All of them stated that a student certainly retains the content longer than learning via conventional teaching methods. The audio visual content tends to engage multiple senses and thus fasten the cognitive understanding of the content received. Adding onto another common response was the ability to convey a complex topic in a simpler form i.e. ensure better understanding of tougher concepts. Teachers found this useful in specific subjects like science where practical experiments and processes can be visually taught to the students. Technology also engaged students through interactive and creative storytelling means, as agreed by 39 respondents. The attention span of students in the primary schools is very short lived, hence the use of bright colours, animations, sound, cartoon characters and friendly easy to read fonts can attract and most importantly retain the student's attention.

Another key observation was the poor involvement of the parents in the child's learning process. Narrowed awareness reflected in the responses elicited from the parents, wherein all of it involved standardised view of e-education assisting memory retention only.



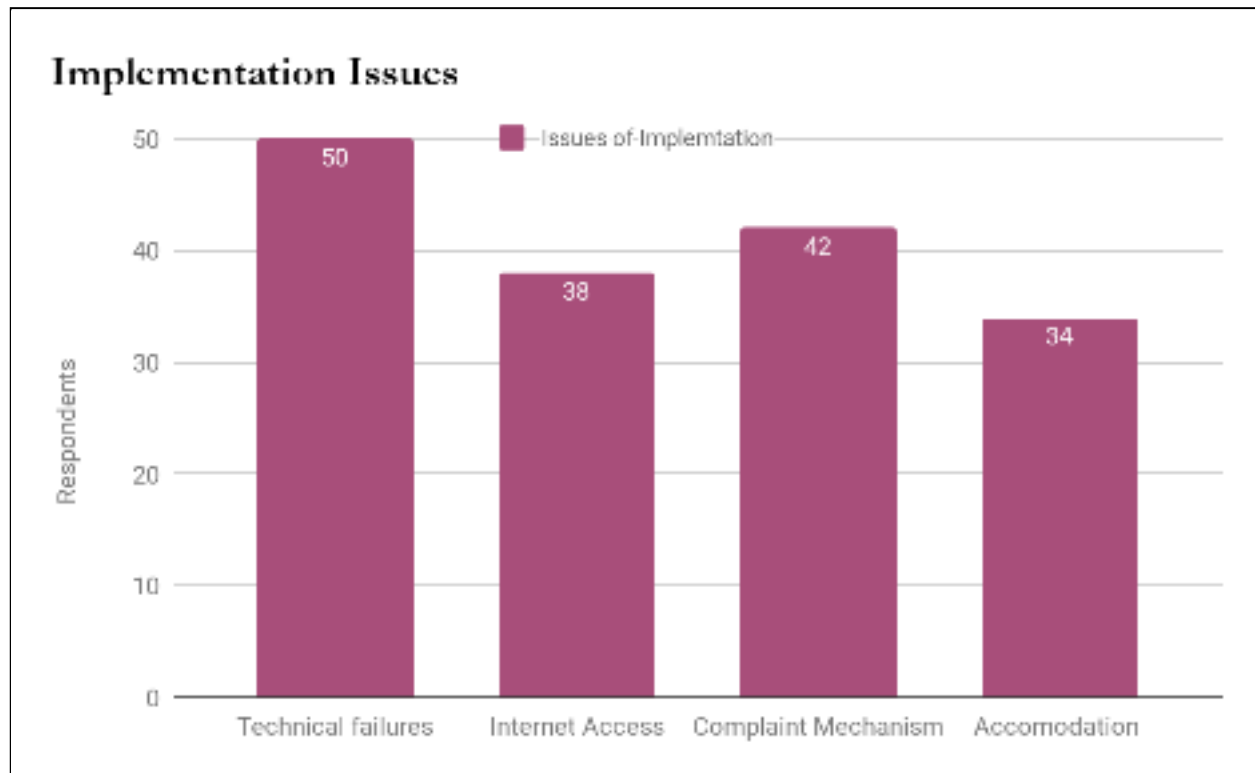
Further the research also covered the key issues of implementations in the primary schools. As known and complemented by existing literature, technical failures in terms of breaking down of computers, poor network connectivity, common power cuts, lack of hard drive storage and hence extremely slow speed of access were common issues observed in almost all the responses. 38 out of 50 teacher respondents stated that even while the research was conducted, their internet hasn't been working since the past few days. This is a common problem, as availing faster broadband connection in these far fetched rural areas isn't 'possible'. The teachers explained how the e-modules occupy a lot of software space. The hard drives made available under the scheme offers only 128 GB of storage whereas minimum need is of upto 1 TB. Consequently, hanging up of the software and crashing of the computers applications due to information

overload prevents the teachers to use the existing content effectively, let alone download new content.

Also, the irregular power cuts often lead to loss of unsaved data abruptly, wasting time and efforts of the teachers.

Another common issue which 42 out of 50 respondents spoke of was the irregular complaint mechanism in place. Since the government engages in the public private partnership model for technological support and redressal, the teachers are left with no option but to only contact the district government official in charge, who then contacts the technical engineer. This long routed process takes up unnecessary time to extract a response. Most of the engineers often come for inspection without any tools or briefing as to what the problem is, only to go back and extend the issue for another few weeks. Hence, it's normal to face technical failure in any institution but lack of proper complaint mechanism in place convert minor glitches into functional redundancy, extinguishing the purpose of implementation.

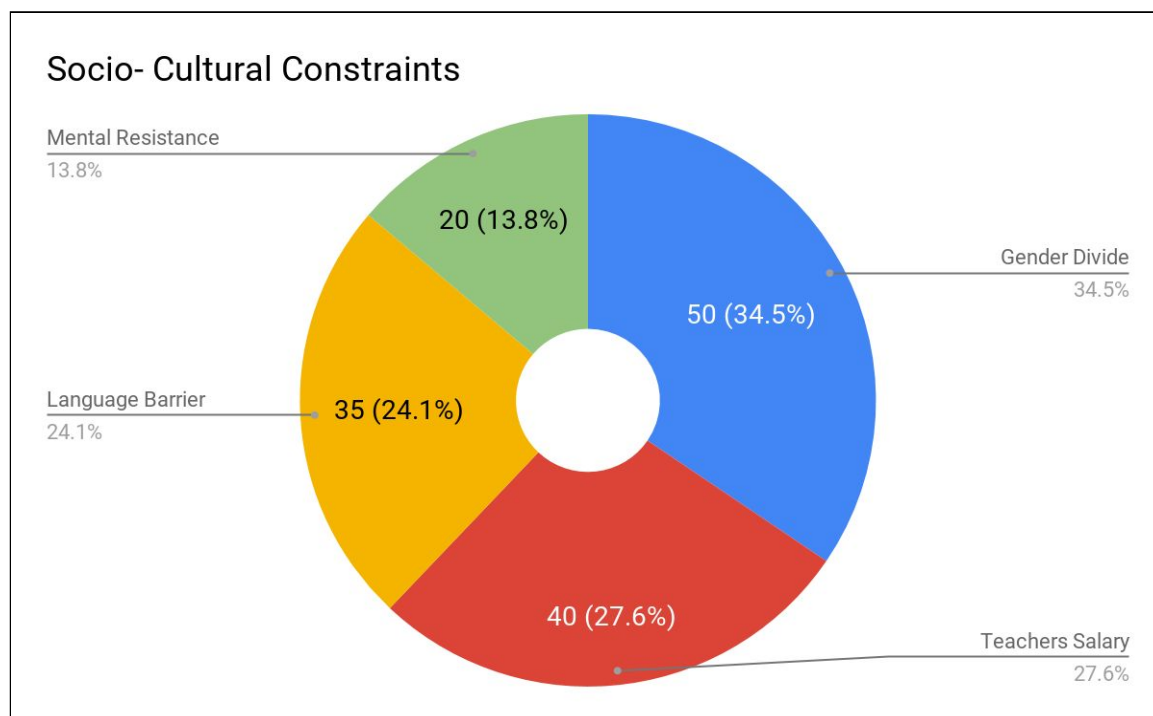
Lastly, 34 of 50 teachers stated that for certain grades, the computer room was the only room with a smartboard. This limits the accessibility for the students as the time tables have to prepared in a manner that no two classes clash. Restrictedly only one class at a time can access the smart board while the rest engage in conventional teaching. This prevents the full utilisation of the technology.



The previously discussed points catered to external implementation issues which can be improved through the involvement of development facilitators as well as the keen monitoring practice of the state. But every development program tends to face challenges internally as well.

In context to the capacity constraints, the responses suggested several social, cultural factors also hinder the successful working of the CAL model under SSA. Out of the 50 respondents, 40 (27.6%) of the teachers stated that deduction in the salary of the primary staff was a major factor of frustration and discouragement for them. The fact that the primary students due to their tender age require intensive

active involvement of the teachers, yet their salary structure wasn't directly proportionate to the amount of work done by them.



The second largest socio-cultural factor affecting the CAL's effectiveness was the social stratification of the parents which defined the economic as well as the social background of the children. According to 34.5% of the respondents, gender divide is highly prevalent in the society with social evils like child marriage, dowry, sexual division of labour; deeply rooted within the mindsets of the parents. The student demographic in almost every class reflected larger population of boys as compared to girls. Most of them belonged to rural families engaged primarily in the agrarian sector or worked as part time shopkeepers. Hence their source of income was divided well within the priorities defined by their cultural upbringing, social stigmas and economic restrictions. The girls were seen to be related to

domestic chores and hence learning computers was not 'important' for them in their lives as it doesn't add anything of 'value' to them that can be used in their paternal home.

Another key constraint was the supremacy of English over local languages in our society. 35 out of 50 respondents stated that parents want their child to learn English as to them that's the true indicator of 'literacy' in the outside world, and also felt that the local language can be learnt at home too. This is also the notion of policy makers as certain subjects have YouTube links attached to the module for further learning. These videos are primarily in English, creating a language barrier for the child to comprehend. The teachers added that mixing different languages at a very early age for a child will only add to the confusion in learning terms and ultimately lead to conceptual confusion in both the languages. Local language must be stressed upon at the foundation age, followed by foreign language post primary education.

Lastly, 20 (13.8%) out of 50 respondents felt that the traditional teacher student relationship cannot and should not be interfered with through the use of technology. They felt that while it can supplement the teachings of a teacher, it shouldn't be incorporated within the classrooms as it serves as a mere distraction. This represented the cultural barrier to adoption of technology, seen as an invasion rather than an innovation.

Discussion

Through the findings of the qualitative and quantitative research, it's indisputable that CAL certainly improves the quality of learning as aimed under the SSA program. Yet it is not integrated with the education mechanism but outshines as a fascinating luxurious commodity for the students rather than a routine step integrated in the learning process. Certain probable solutions that can attempt to improve the state of functioning can be as follows:

Most of the students belong to the rural background and face accessibility barriers and restricted to their own geographical district. They even lack basic hardware and internet facilities at home. Thus through the use of smart boards facilitated by internet technology, they are provided with a window to the beautiful world beyond their imagination. One can never know what appeals to a young child or motivates them to stimulate their curiosity and wonder. This specifically works to a great advantage for academically weaker children than the brighter ones. Use of audio-visual tends allows them to learn using their strongest sensory ability without being restricted to writing or mere reading. Teachers can also demonstrate the utility of the internet to help the children understand that the idea of the internet is more than an academic module. Basic techniques like using GPS (Global Positioning System), accessing online dictionaries, making simple photo presentations; can add to the life skills of a child and make them more equipped to face the practical world. Moreover, screening of educational films/ videos once a week can help boost attendance and inculcate self prompted regularity within students.

Further it was observed that the teachers in government schools have different qualification level and experience even when teaching similar grades. In such situations, technology can be used very effectively

to fill the skill gap of teachers and ensure standardised learning for all. Other than that, it's paramount to concentrate on the need to empower teachers to facilitate e-education at the grassroots level. They are the key facilitators in the implementation and running of SSA and CAL scheme as they serve as a bridge between the policy makers and the targeted beneficiaries i.e. the students. Simple steps such as establishing a direct link between the teacher in charge and an IT technician will empower them. This will ensure faster redressal to issues from the root point of delays. The teacher's can also form collective self help groups where they assist each other to fill gaps in their digital knowledge and aim for self reliance in facing technical issues in operation.

Another hurdle is the unwillingness to put in extra efforts to improve the systems due to poor financial pay and non monetary incentives amongst the teachers. Primary teachers require greater involvement with students who are very active at a young age. Their efforts are not directly proportionate to their pay, discouraging them. Many of them haven't been paid the reimbursement cost of travelling to the digital training centres located in Gandhinagar under their digital training period as assigned under the SSA program. Poor follow up mechanism and such lapses creates a hostile attitude amongst the teachers towards implementation at their own personal bearing. Thus both financial and non financial incentives play an important role in management to foster a sense of ownership towards the larger community.

Thirdly, the parents must be looped into the process of learning through interactive engagements. Organising monthly demonstrations of the working of smart classes, showcasing digital literacy of the students to the parents or simply conducting teacher- parent workshop to literate them about the importance of education can bring about attitudinal and behavioural changes to the parents. It can

demonstrate the potential benefits of digital literacy and how it adds to the skill set of the students that'll add monetary value to them. Such economic incentive can work strongly for even those with resistant attitude to technology. Once the child leaves the protected environment of school, the teachings are lost and there is no incentive to continue back at home. Development has to be a continuous process. Parent involvement can go a long way in ensuring a child's holistic development and increasing digital literacy.

Fourth, the researcher is of the viewpoint that conventional teaching methods is the soul of education system in India. However, through the use of technology, this can be highly enhanced. As stated earlier, recording specific important lectures by highly skilled professors and uploading such content online can help solve the issue of illiteracy, lack of qualified teachers and poor access. This way technology can be used to preserve a pool of knowledge spatially and temporally.

Lastly, devising a standardised syllabus for state governments in their local language, which is in sync with the central government board, can also to a great deal remove educational disparities in the country. Usually the incentive to choose private education or urban cities as a preferred education hub is the presence of national/international board affiliated schools. If rural schools adopt the homogenous approach, it shall also serve as a marketing tactic and attract admissions which are usually declined due to the presence of 'state board'. This will give a boost to the reach and impact of the SSA program in the nation.

Limitations of the Study

The field work for the study involved the assessment of primary, government run schools. The correspondents seemed reluctant to answer at first due to the language barrier and self consciousness as their responses were being recorded. Shortage of time and limited number of responses lacked the empirical strength and involved subjective responses. Lack of previously available reliable data is also a concern.

Conclusion

Overtime definition of education has changed, from a theoretical to a practical application based approach. The low literacy rates in our country reflects in our overall performance as a nation. One of the key solutions to this lies in the effective implementation of social welfare schemes like SSA, currently in the 19th year of its implementation. The CAL program under the SSA scheme has brought in the notion of E:E ie. entertainment and education. Digitised education has enormous untapped potential exceeding beyond the notion of entertainment and literacy, impacting psychology, learning and cultural values of a student. Yet, to reap the benefits of the program, a collective effort at both micro and macro level is the need of the hour.

Absorption of innovation can only take place once it's benefits are understood, and implementation is followed by an evaluation. The research clearly shows that technology makes up a large chunk of the future of education. Yet, society is constantly evolving and so is technology. The drawbacks must be

worked upon efficiently before technological redundancy sets in, making the entire system obsolete. The concept of 'access' is poorly defined and needs reevaluation. Theoretical access is when a person has physical access to technology, like it was seen in the above studied primary schools. It can be quantified through numbers and policy targets. Yet, what truly matters is effective access. It refers to the desire, motivation and the ability to actually use a technology and reap benefits from it. This accounts for actual 'use' of the technology implemented by the government. While the motivation and desire do exist, the ability is hindered by several external constraints and positional socio-cultural nuances of the society. Having said that, the community welfare has to be put above personal gains defined by corruption, internal politics or laid back mindsets. Change always comes from within, it cannot be imposed but simply implied.

Appendix

Questionnaire : Teachers

- Are you aware of the digital benefits provided under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan ?
- How much is the availability, accessibility and functional use of computers?
- Are you equipped with formal training to use computers ?
- How frequently is the technology updated ?
- What's the frequency with which computer aided learning is imparted ?
- Do you feel the technology is displacing traditional, effective teaching methods for the worse or for the better ?
- What are the most prevalent problems faced in the implementation of e-education ?
- Is there a viable external support available to solve technical issues ?
- Is there a positive impact on a student's result while learning through multimedia ?
- Means to improve the status of e-education in rural villages ?
- Similarity with the textbook content and if digital technology aids it or adds on to it ?

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Brief Note: About the Author

Ambica Agarwal is a graduate from Lady Shri Ram College for Women having pursued Journalism in 2018. She graduated as Delhi University's gold medalist is presently running her own NGO, 'Maarg' in Ambaji, Gujarat, working towards promoting primary education amongst underprivileged tribal children. She also taught English as a high school teacher in a CBSE school in Ahmedabad. Her primary aim is to bring about educational equity across India.

Learning About Ainu Through Literary Texts

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Ainu, recently officially recognized as the “indigenous” people by Japanese government, has been the focus of couple courses I teach at J. F. Oberlin University in Tokyo, Japan. I use two literary texts, both crucial to the understanding of the Ainu experience, to teach a diverse student body coming from a variety of nationalities and academic disciplines. One is *Harukor: An Ainu Woman's Tale*, written by Katsuichi Honda, a Japanese journalist and writer. The other is *Our Land Was A Forest: An Ainu Memoir*, written by Kayano Shigeru, founder and director of the Kayano Shigeru Ainu Memorial Museum, and the first Ainu to be elected to the Diet. Honda’s book is a reconstruction of an Ainu woman’s life in Hokkaido about five hundred years ago, told in the first person through the fictional character Harukor; Kayano’s book is a “living testimonial” to Ainu people’s life, as the title suggests.

Harukor is used in a content-based course for Japanese students majoring in English at College of Global Communication, fulfilling requirements under ‘global studies’ category. *Our Land Was A Forest* is for a course designed for foreign students in our Reconnaissance Japan Program whose major of studies range from Japanese, Asian Studies, International Relations to Engineering and Business.

Although on April 19, this year, Japan enacted the law recognizing the legal status of the indigenous Ainu people, it is a regrettable fact that there is a general ignorance of Ainu history, culture and the current situation of Aiun people in Japan and elsewhere.

This is partially due to an obvious absence of Ainu in Japan's educational curricula. The courses such as the ones I teach fulfill an urgent need to address this issue.

I have been teaching literature courses and English courses using literary texts for many years at Oberlin University. I share a common concern with many colleagues in literature field that increasingly students shun away from taking literature classes. Even though I am a firm believer in studying literature, I feel maybe it's time to expand the scope of literature from conventional definitions. A few years ago I taught an Asian Memoir class to foreign students who come from typical humanity or social science majors, not literature, with surprising result. Unlike traditional kind of novels or short stories, memoirs and other personal narratives offer students a different kind of reading and learning experience, bringing together the historical, political, social, cultural, philosophical and personal experiences in a complex and sophisticated manner. Given the diversity of my student body in terms of their background and academic needs, these kinds of literary texts seem to work very effectively. These texts demand a transdisciplinary approach, naturally linking literature with other fields of studies such as history, politics, Asian studies, international relationships, and gender studies. As powerful stories, tumultuous, tragic but triumphant, simultaneously personal and political, they are easy to access, allowing students to engage with in a profound manner. They foster a critical reading and learning experience that transcends time and location.

Harukor and *Our Land Was A Forest* were chosen for these reasons. Although *Harukor* is not a personal narrative, Honda's choice to write it as a first-person tale by incorporating numerous Ainu oral stories and other accounts gives it a unique feeling of narrative intimacy like many memoirs offer. Although both books are treated as literary texts the emphasis for each class differs. With *Harukor* class, activities are designed more towards enhancing students' study skills, reading and communication skills since their native language is not English. However, this course is designed with a decidedly transdisciplinary perspective to expand conventional ways of teaching content-based courses in ESL/EFL.

Students reading *Our Land Was A Forest*, however, are encouraged to move from the text into researching other relative information including contextualizing Ainu history, Japanese government's assimilation policies and exploitation practices, as well as

other Ainu experiences. The course intends to challenge typical literature or history courses focusing on modern Japan.

Both books serve as excellent examples of how literary texts can be used for different purposes. Students can engage with the readings with a kind of passion not often seen in other courses I teach. Many have expressed a deep interest in Ainu's current situation and their demise as a result of institutionalized prejudicial and discriminatory practices. I can detect a genuine kind of empathy and deep reflection from their writings and discussions.

This paper will share these and other details of the courses such as the specific goals, both immediate and long-term, the courses set out to achieve; the structures and organizations of the readings; assessment; resources for historical and social contexts; results and revisions for the future.

Keywords: Ainu, literary texts, higher education, transdisciplinary approaches.

Guideline for the Development of Art Teacher Students In Art Learning Management for Diverse Student In The Inclusive Classroom

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to study the guidelines for the development of art teacher students in order to have capable of art learning managements for diverse students in the inclusive classroom. Data were collected for quality researches by studying documents and in-depth interviews of 12 people from sample groups which are: 1) elementary art teachers, 2) secondary school teachers, 3) art teachers at higher education, and 4) art teacher students who are currently practice teaching in school and are assigned to teach art in the inclusive classroom. Data synthesis results showed that art teacher students need to be developed in 3 areas which are: 1) developing knowledge as a variety of modern and diverse art content suitable for learners, learning management process and knowledge of psychology, 2) developing a positive attitude in order to understand the differences of students, have a good attitude towards students with special needs, and be able to communicate well with students, and 3) developing teacher professional practice in order to allow students to observe, teach with practicing arts in the inclusive classroom, and plan learning management by integrating art with cooperative learning techniques and Authentic measurement

Keywords: Art teacher student, Art learning management, Inclusive classroom

1. Introduction

Educational management for students with special needs is an opportunity to study with regular students in a normal school and to live in the community with others. Therefore, management of education in schools is an important step in the educational reform of Thailand (Uthairattanakit et al, 2003). Currently, there are 409,128 students with special needs studying in basic education schools nationwide, and most of them are with learning disabilities (LD) (Office of the Basic Education Commission, 2019) with learning management in the inclusive classroom. Teachers taught in the classroom must have skills and knowledge with understanding of learning management for diverse learners, including normal students and students with special needs. Thus, they must develop the ability to teach students in the inclusive classroom in order to be create the learning management and ensure that all students reach their

full potential. Art in the school is an important subject for the development of a wide variety of students in the inclusive classroom, especially building understanding and collaboration among students. As Reavis (2009) says that art was usually for students who had special needs in the inclusive classroom because the nature of learning art was a form of collaboration in the classroom. It was increased efficiency in participation in societies of students with special needs, and in line with what Anderson (1994) suggests that art education courses in the classroom was include providing opportunities for students with special needs in order to have the opportunity to learn through their original concepts In different activities. Therefore, the best learning environment must connect various perceptions and create experiences. The art is the content that encourages learners to achieve those most things.

Aside from the development of art teachers in schools, preparing the art teacher students to manage art learning for students in the inclusive classroom is very important. Higher education institutions must prepare students for knowledge, process skills and attitudes in order to give students opportunities to practice art management in the inclusive classroom. It can apply to the knowledge and abilities when being a teacher in a school after graduation, so the researcher studied the information from documents, research and interviewing related people to study guidelines for the development of art teacher students in art learning management in the inclusive classroom.

2. Research Method

The researcher studied the data from documents and research in order to synthesize it and define the topic in creating the in-depth interview. The study data has 3 main points, which are: 1) the concept of educational management in total, 2) the concept of developing the ability of art teachers, and 3) the concept of art learning management for diverse students in the inclusive classroom.

Next, the research would bring the information studied was synthesized to be used in the construction of structured interview forms. To study information related to general conditions and problems In the management of art learning for diverse students in the classroom, including at the basic level of education (Grade1 - 12) and guidelines for the development of art teacher students in the art learning management in the classroom with experts checking the quality of the content validity and suitability of the interview form.

The samples were interviewed consisting of 1) 3 elementary art teachers, 2) 3 secondary art teachers, 3) 3 full-time instructors in the art education program in higher education, and 4) 3 art teachers students internships for teacher professional

experience and gain assigned to teach art subjects in the classroom. Samples 1-3 were selected from people with at least 5 years of work experience. Data were collected from the in-depth Interview with sample groups selecting the network or snowball selection. (Bua-son, 2013) They started with a group of people who met the criteria specified by the researcher, and let that group specify the name of the person giving data of the next person to be in accordance with the criteria set by the researcher until receiving enough information.

The researcher analyzed the qualitative analysis from the study of documents and interviews by the content analysis, and then summarized the issues by categorizing into 2 items which are: 1) the general condition of art management in the inclusive classroom, and 2) guidelines for the development of art teachers in learning management for diverse students with the inclusive classroom.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Data synthesis results from sample documents and interviews regarded the general condition of the art management in the classroom was found that

3.1.1 The inclusive learning management provides an opportunity for all students to study together without discrimination. All students must receive equal and impartial attention. The inclusive learning should be the learning management for the group process so that teachers can take care of students thoroughly. The management of the classroom environment is also an important part. The inclusive learning management can be the art learning managements to develop students in the inclusive classroom.

3.1.2 Most common types of students with special needs in the classroom were Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Learning Disabilities (LD) and Autism.

3.1.3 The obstacles of art learning management in the inclusive classroom were that students and problems were different. For example, teachers must prepare a variety of activities for ADHD children, focus on molding works to train the body's control, and use the cooperative teaching for students to share for students with slow development. They must keep reinforcing and teaching repeatedly.

3.1.4 Art is an important subject for students in the inclusive classroom because art can help students create imagination, make students concentrate, learn through activities, learn to use materials, and integrate the arts with other subjects for students to understand the content. Art activities are easy to access, fun, and not stress. Students can show themselves. Art helps students to accept the differences of each other. It can build their self-esteem for them and help them with special needs to become self-worth.

3.2. The guidelines for the development of art teachers in Art learning management for diverse students in the classroom found that:

3.2.1 Knowledge development

(1) Art Knowledge: Art teachers

Student must have in-depth understanding in both art theory and art practice, it is necessary for students to create modern, essential and diverse artworks for students in the inclusive classroom.

(2) Psychological knowledge:

Psychology is another necessary subject to teach art teacher student, so that they can understand various feelings, emotions, and minds of their students. Strengthen ethics and organizing development activities for students are also important so that they can teach and deal with problems in the inclusive classroom.

(3) Learning management

Skills: Learning management is encouraging students to develop their own teaching techniques appropriate for the learners in the inclusive classroom regarding into account the types of students with special needs, ages, social and cultural differences, etc.

3.2.2 Development of positive attitude

(1) Understand the differences of

diverse students: Art teacher student have to understand children with special needs, have a good attitude towards students with special needs who learn with regular students in the inclusive classroom, plan their teaching carefully, and keep students happy as the most important parts.

(2) Able to communicate well with Students: Art teacher students should have a good attitude towards students with special needs, able to communicate with students, and have teaching techniques that make students not stressed.

(3) Being a good role-model: Art teacher students should have good manners and pay attention to students. They must love children, be flexible and have problem solving skills.

3.2.3 Development of professional teaching experience practice

(1) Teacher Professional Experience while studying (Professional Teaching Practicum): Provide students observe and teach in the inclusive classroom in order to have direct experience, to analyze the problem with solution, and to have the right attitude about students with special needs in the inclusive classroom.

(2) School teaching practices (Internship): Assign students to cooperative learning and group processes. Then, let's practice designing teaching activities that stimulate interests and fun. Moreover, practice creating learning management plans, problem solving and development of appropriate teaching media. Choose activities that

correspond to students' interests. Make students enjoy learning. Train students to integrate knowledge of other subjects with art because art can integrate all subjects. In addition, evaluate according to their real situations. It is necessary to authentic measurement for individuals or evaluate from different artworks according to their own aptitudes.

In addition, there are suggestions from interviews with sample groups about the art learning management in the inclusive classroom. Interviewers suggested that teaching art for students in the inclusive classroom must emphasize students' creativity and identities. For the inclusive classroom, parents should participate in the teaching and learning management in order to fit in the context of the classroom and cooperate with teachers in student development. Importantly, universities should promote both theory and practices for art teacher students. Then they have Teaching Practicum in the classroom within 2 semesters (Depending on the program of each university) to become familiar with teaching processes, make experience and develop art learning management for diverse students in the inclusive classroom appropriately.

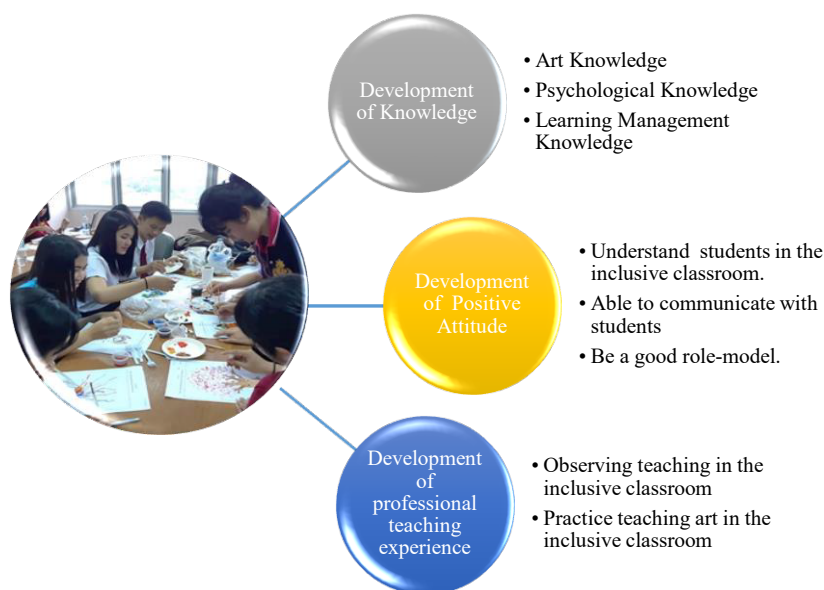


Fig.1. Guidelines for the development of art teacher student in art learning management for diverse students in the inclusive classroom.

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

The presentation of this research showed that art teacher students must develop their knowledge to have a solid foundation for applying in teaching and learning management. The art knowledge is very important to become an art teacher, which must have knowledge and understanding in his or her own subjects. The National Art

Education Association (2009) proposes that "art teachers must have a deep understanding in the context of visual arts" and UNESCO (2006) presents the roadmap in preparing art education teachers, "students who will be good art teachers need to have an effective teacher training program and connect students' prior knowledge, life experiences and the role of teachers in the future. Art education teachers need to understand the role of teachers and methods of negotiating with students as coaching students." Attitude is also necessary for future art teachers according to Anantrawan and Sangvanich (2016) implied about desirable characteristics of an art teacher for Learning Management in Inclusive Elementary Classrooms that an art teacher is an important person for instruction. He/she should have internal characteristics, including positive attitudes, good hearted, understand students, and thirst for knowledge. These internal characteristics will lead to the outer presence, including easy to approach, good temper, communication effectively with other teachers and parents.

Finally, students need to apply their knowledge and experience in observing, teaching and practicing in the inclusive classroom. All art teacher students cannot avoid confronting the problem of teaching students with many diverse differences. They must practice about teaching experience and learn about varied case studies In order to develop learning management by focusing on cooperative learning that will result in the better understanding among diverse students, as Klerk & Klerk (2018) concluded, "The empathic experiences of educators within their inclusive classrooms, which were explicitly specified in the findings of this study and substantiated by other literature, include the educators' ability to have intrapersonal proficiency; the educator's ability to show interpersonal understanding for learners with barriers; the educator having adaptive teaching skills; and situational aspects that play a role in the empathic experiences of educators. Educators in inclusive schools have been identified as the population group on which future researchers must focus, mainly because educators within an inclusive educational setting endure a variety of situations that impact on their educational experience. Also, educators can be seen as key in the transference of knowledge and skills to the learners and need empathy to do so in a suitable manner, and according to each learner's need. Programs teaching the importance of empathy and conveying empathic skills are necessary in the training of each educator.

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A Rasch analysis of university teachers and students' perception of using social media to promote an authentic learning environment

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ABSTRACT

This current survey attempts to explore university teachers and students' perception of using social media to promote an authentic learning environment. To this end, 249 university teachers and 329 students participated in the survey where they were asked to complete 27 items of A Social Media Authentic Learning Environment Inventory (SOMALEVI). Statistical Rasch analyses using Winstep software were performed to evaluate both teachers and students' responses. Findings of the study revealed that most of the participant positive views about the use of social media to promote authentic learning environment ($N_{\text{teachers}} = 247, 99\%$; $N_{\text{students}} = 309, 93.9\%$) while the rests showed their negative perception. The majority of those who perceive positive are female (64.53%) aged range 21-30 years (32.18%). Findings also indicate that social media provided opportunities for students to share their experiences and learning activities (MR1, LVI = -0.97), to offer students the opportunity to learn from experts (EP1, LVI = -0.82) so that they were able to obtain a lot of insight on particular issues (EP3, LVI = -0.70). It is interesting, but not surprising that both teachers and students found that social media benefited them with model and resources such as video, demonstration, learning files that enabled students comprehend the learning materials (EP2, LVI = -0.85). However, the study identified some critical issues regarding the use of social media for authentic learning environment, such as unsuitable real-life representation, difficulty to collaborate with others, and difficulty in recognizing their learning potential.

The Effects of Self-Assessment Strategy Instruction on EFL Learners' English Language Proficiency

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ABSTRACT

The present study was a quasi-experimental research using pretest, treatment, posttest, and delayed posttest. The participants were 60 Thai EFL learners, the first-year, non-English-major students. They were divided into 2 two groups of 30: an experimental group, and a control group. The experimental group received a treatment which was an instruction of self-assessment strategy. The control group did not receive the treatment but was developed through cooperative learning coached by the teacher. The instruments consisted of a test used as pretest, post-test, and delayed post-test, and a set of exercises for developing the participants' ability in diagnosing and assessing English language learning. The results revealed that the mean scores of the post-test and the delayed post-test were significantly higher than those of the pretest. Thus, the EFL learners' level of English language proficiency in both groups increased after training and the learned knowledge was likely to be in the long-term memory. However, it was found that the EFL learners who received the instruction of self-assessment strategy had higher scores than the learners who did not. Therefore, the instruction of self-assessment strategy with the experimental group had an effect on their English language proficiency since it promoted them to have a higher level of language acquisition as evidenced by the scores from the post-test and the delayed post-test which were higher than those of the control group.

Keywords: Self-assessment strategy, English language proficiency

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

How to effectively teach English as a Foreign Language (EFL) has been an issue for many decades. Since the learners who learn English as a foreign language do not use English in their everyday life, they do not have enough motivation to consistently practice to improve their English language proficiency. Thai EFL learners are also included. Their low motivation to learn English is one of the causes that affects their level of English language proficiency. Many studies indicated that instructional strategy is an important factor which influences the non-native English-speaking learners' development of English language skills. However, learning assessment strategy should be considered as a component that affects the learners' learning achievement. Over the past decades, it has been found that the assessment has been mostly conducted by the instructors while the learners have rarely been trained to use the assessment criteria to assess their own learning achievement. Their little knowledge of the criteria makes them unaware of the right direction for self-learning or self-development of English. Therefore, if the learners are provided with the knowledge about assessment, if they are trained to develop their skill for assessing and diagnosing their own English language learning, they will be able to seek the right direction for solving their language learning problems. In addition, since the learners construct the knowledge by themselves, they are likely to apply the skill to enhance their knowledge through self-motivated learning which can later become their lifelong learning skill. Thus, to promote the learners' ability in developing their own English language proficiency is to encourage them to learn by themselves. Training them to self-assess and self-diagnose their learning for more understanding their weaknesses that may lead them to understand how to solve their own problems, and the learners' self-development process of learning can be promoted (Bach, 2000).

Over the past decades, the focus on self-assessment approach has increased significantly due to the change of the pedagogical concept from the teacher-center approach to the learner-center approach. As a result, most instructional strategies are designed to promote students' self-learning. They are required to take responsibility for themselves, to develop the ability in self-controlling learning process, to share the knowledge learned with others. This approach is different from the assessment process conducted by teachers which has some limitations in promoting the learners' development with high-order thinking skill in controlling their own learning process. The approach encourages the learners to be aware of self-analysis (Hedge, 2000). The promotion of students' basic knowledge on self-assessing learning achievement to improve their learning can be categorized as a constructive learning in which each learner constructs knowledge or meanings of the experiences by himself/herself. There

are two components for conducting self-assessment: specifying the work standard, and making judgment on the quality of work based on the work standard specifications (Boud,1995). Self-assessment also creates formative learning which then can improve students' learning (Andrade and Du, 2007). It can be said that "self-assessment" is an assessment process for development. Through self-assessment, the learners can reflect, assess, and evaluate the quality of their own work and learning based on the set criteria. From the assessment results, the learners perceive their strengths and weaknesses for a better understanding of themselves and know what kind of weakness can be strengthened for further development (Andrade and Du, 2007). From the study results by Boud (1995), self-assessment of learning process is completely integrated into learning process and it cultivates learners' habit of learning progress assessment which is informative for them in considering if the next level of learning experience is possible, not too difficult for them to overcome, or if there is anything they need to fulfill to get ready for the next step of learning. Such process cannot only increase the learners' motivation for learning, but it can also promote the learners' self-reliance and responsibility for their own learning which can lead to the change from other-directed learning (learning as influenced by other people) to self-directed learning (learning as directed by oneself based on his/her own learning potential) or maximize the learners' self-directed learning habit. Brown and Hudson (1998) indicated that self-assessment helped promoting the learners' motivation in learning language. Dickinson (1987) explained that assessment is the first step to evaluation, an important goal of a study; therefore, training the learners to use the assessment strategies can give a positive result to their learning experience; it is an essential part of self-directed learning which helps forming an effective learning experience to the learners; it develops the learners higher sense of self-learning responsibility rather than putting their reliance on the instructors' responsibility for the learning outcomes.

1.2 Theoretical View

Through theoretical perspective of information processing theory (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968; Wickens, Gordon, and Liu,1997), humans process the information received from the environment in the manner of a computer, rather than merely responding to stimuli. The information is brought into the learner's brain and is first briefly stored as sensory storage. Next, the stored information will be transferred to the short-term memory or the working memory on two conditions: (1) it is an interesting feature for the learners to pay their attention to; (2) it is a known pattern or the previous experience that they have gained. The information in the short-term memory will last around 15-20 seconds but it is possibly available for about 20 minutes if the information is repeated. The information which is in the form of concepts, facts, and general

information, processes (how to do things), and images (pictures) will then be transferred to the long-term memory. The information processing approach focuses on consistent development process. The information transfer from the short-term memory to the long-term memory is considered important since it may exceed the capacity of the short-term memory then the learners will possibly forget or not remember it. From this point, teachers can help the learners who have a problem of excessive information in the short-term memory by promoting their noticing and attention to the most important information and then help guiding them about how to prioritize the information, or relating their new information to the existing one by reviewing or repeating it. Through this method, the learners will be able to remember the new information more clearly. Thus, storing and retrieving information in the memory system are the main focus of this theory. It can be concluded that humans' thinking process is similar to that of the computer in the way that the input is received through sensing then it is kept and processed by the brain and finally it is retrieved in the form of a behavior or output. In terms of second language learning, the starting point is from the "attention" paid to the received language data. The data are then kept in the short-term memory and if they are repeated, they will be passed to the long-term memory. When the learner wishes to produce language, he/she will retrieve the data from the long-term memory and connect them to the new data from the short-term memory and then produces the language.

To promote the language learners' ability in storing language information in the long-term memory, it needs an approach that can activate the memory which is called "consciousness raising". The approach focuses on drawing the learners' attention to a specific form of the target language (Rutherford et al., 1985; Fotos, 1993) in order to make them aware of that form. The method can be an explicit instruction of the language form in which the learners are directly provided with the knowledge of language form to promote their noticing and attention to the form. Schmidt (1990) indicated 3 aspects of consciousness for learning a second language: (1) awareness, (2) intention, and (3) knowledge. Among the three, the awareness helps developing noticing skill in the learners. Schmidt (1990) proposed the "noticing hypothesis" that what the learners notice from the language input will later become their knowledge for learning or intake for learning. No matter how much attention the learners pay to the language form that they have noticed with or without intention, the noticed information will become their knowledge for further learning. Thus, the noticing is an essential condition for second language learning as it is a process for transforming the input data into the learners' implicit knowledge which is the knowledge gained without realizing that learning is occurring. It is not taught (Ellis, 1990, 1994, 1997). The transformation process begins from the learners' noticing of language information and then it is kept

in the short-term memory. If the learners cannot remember the information at this stage, it means that it is not processed; so, it is not encoded into the long-term memory. As a consequence, the information is forgotten (Kihlstrom, 1984). It can be concluded that consciousness is essential for the retention of the experience or knowledge in the long run. However, if the intake is sent to store in the interlanguage system (IL), a language system developed on the learners' mind by themselves. It combines language information or the characteristics of the target language and the learners' first language. The learners' IL can be seen, for example, from their use of the vocabulary in the target language with application of the grammar from the learners' first language. The IL in the short-term memory which is sent to the long-term memory can also affect the learners' second language learning. The process of learning implicit knowledge

This study viewed that the learners' ability in assessing their own learning would help them know how to enhance their own language learning. Thus, it aimed at promoting the learners' English language proficiency through self-assessment strategy instruction based on the concept of information processing theory focusing on noticing, attention, and knowledge of the forms of English language. The theoretical framework for this study (as shown in Figure1) was adapted from a generic model of human information processing with three memory systems (Wickens, Gordon, and Liu,1997) and the process of learning implicit knowledge (Ellis, 1997).

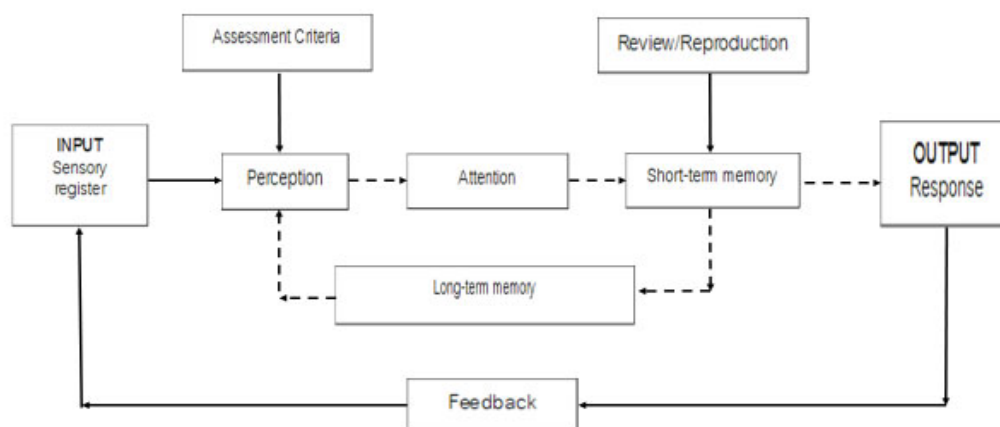


Figure 1 Theoretical framework for this study

1.3 Objectives

The objectives of the study were (1) to compare English language proficiency of the

participants before and after training through self-assessment strategy instruction; and (2) to compare the retention of English language learning in the learners who received self-assessment strategy instruction and those who did not.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The present study was a quasi-experimental research using pre-test, treatment, post-test, and delayed post-test. The participants were Thai EFL learners which included two intact EFL classrooms of 60 students in total, 30 for each. They were the first-year, non-English-major students. One group was an experimental group which received the treatment, and the other group was a control group.

2.2 Instruments

The instruments consisted of (1) a test which was used as pretest, post-test, and delayed post-test and (2) a set of exercises for diagnosing English language learning. The two instruments were designed based on the first three levels of cognitive domain: knowledge, comprehension, and application. The test was a 4-choice test with 100 items covering the content adapted from the reading and writing parts of the Test of English as an International Communication (TOEIC) which is an international standardized test. The construct validity of the adapted test was verified by 3 experts and the result was found acceptable ($IOC > 0.5$). The reliability (KR-20 or Kuder-Richardson Formula) was reported 0.728 indicating that the test as a whole discriminated among students with high performance and those with low performance. Thus, the test was considered reliable. The scores obtained from the test indicated the level of the participants' English language proficiency. A set of 4 exercises with assessment criteria of English language learning was designed to develop the participants' ability in diagnosing English language learning. The exercises included (1) identifying the forms of noun and verb, (2) identifying the positions of noun and verb in sentences, (3) assessing word ordering in sentences, and (4) forming sentences using the given nouns, and verbs. After each exercise and after completing all the exercises, the participants were required to take a short quiz to measure their learning. The content validity of the exercises and that of the quizzes were verified by 3 experts and the results were acceptable ($IOC > 0.5$). The score data obtained from the quizzes indicated the participants' English language proficiency formed during the treatment process.

2.3 Procedures

The procedures for data collection were conducted as follows: (1) one day before the

training, the English language proficiency of the two groups were pretested. Then, the experimental group were provided with the treatment – explicit instruction of the knowledge on the forms and the positions of nouns and verbs with the assessment criteria using the developed set of 4 exercises and the short quizzes. This group was quizzed immediately after each exercise to measure their learning achievement for each lesson. The 4 exercises and the short quizzes were also applied to the control group but the group was not provided with an explicit instruction of the language forms and positions as well as the assessment criteria. They were assigned to do group work studying the forms and the positions of nouns and verbs using dictionaries. The teacher helped facilitating the learning activities. The two groups were trained for two days. Then, immediate post-test was administered using the same test as used for the pretest. 4 weeks after the immediate post-test, delayed post-test for the two groups was administered to measure their retained learning.

3. Results and Discussion

The data were analyzed using statistical analysis. The results were shown in the following tables. With the total score of 100, the pretest means showed that prior to the training, the experimental and the control groups were similar on their English language proficiency as evidenced by the close mean scores of the two groups and a large p-value (> 0.05)

Table 1: Comparison of the Pretest Results

Group	N	Means	S.D.	t-statistics	p-value
Experimental	30	55.66	9.29	1.14	0.13
Control	30	52.87	8.32		

After training, the results were as follows.

Table 2: Pretest and Immediate Post-test Results in the Experimental Group

Scores	N	Means	S.D.	t-statistics	p-value
Pretest	30	55.67	9.29	6.49*	.000
Immediate Post-test	30	68.57	8.55		

*is significant at the level of 0.05 (one-tail).

Table 3: Pretest and Immediate Post-test Results in the Control Group

Scores	N	Means	S.D.	t-statistics	p-value
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Pretest	30	52.87	8.32	11.65*	.000
Immediate Post-test	30	59.63	9.92		

*is significant at the level of 0.05 (one-tail).

The results revealed that the immediate post-test mean scores both in the experimental group and the control group were statistically significantly higher than those of the pretest at the level of 0.05. Thus, the English language proficiency of the learners in both group was considered higher after training. Four weeks after training, the learners took a delayed post-test using the same test as for the immediate post-test. The results were showed in Table4 and 5 as follows.

Table 4: Pretest and Delayed Post-test Results in the Experimental Group

Scores	N	Means	S.D.	t-statistics	p-value
Pretest	30	55.67	9.29	9.08*	.000
Delayed Post-test	30	72.26	7.75		

*is significant at the level of 0.05 (one-tail).

Table 5: Pretest and Delayed Post-test Results in the Control Group

Scores	N	Means	S.D.	t-statistics	p-value
Pretest	30	52.87	8.32	13.44*	.000
Delayed Post-test	30	61.36	9.69		

*is significant at the level of 0.05 (one-tail).

The delayed post-test mean scores of the two groups were also found statistically significantly higher than those of their pretests at the level of 0.05. It indicated that the learners' English language knowledge gained during the training had been retained in their memory. This phenomenon was found both in the experimental and the control groups.

When compared across groups, the findings were as follows.

Table 6: Immediate Post-test Results in the Experimental and the Control Groups

Group	N	Means	S.D.	t-statistics	p-value
Experimental	30	68.57	8.55	3.381*	.001
Control	30	59.63	9.92		

*is significant at the level of 0.05 (one-tail).

Table 7: Delayed Post-test Results in the Experimental and the Control Groups

Group	N	Means	S.D.	t-statistics	p-value
Experimental	30	72.26	7.75	4.649*	.000
Control	30	61.36	9.70		

*is significant at the level of 0.05 (one-tail).

Through cross-group analysis, both the immediate post-test results and the delayed post-test results indicated that, between the experimental group and the control group, the learners' retention of English language knowledge gained during training was significantly different at the level of 0.05. It can be interpreted that although the learners' English language knowledge was retained in the two groups, the retention was different. The learners who were trained to have the assessment strategy had a higher performance than those who were not as evidenced by the mean scores of the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test. That is the knowledge retention of the learners in the experimental group was longer than that of those in the control group.

4. Conclusion

As evidenced by the mean scores of the post-test and the delayed post-test which were statistically significantly higher than those of the pretest, it can be concluded that the EFL learners' level of English language proficiency in both groups increased after training and the learned knowledge was likely to be stored in the long-term memory. However, it was found that the EFL learners who received the instruction of self-assessment strategy had higher scores than the learners who did not. Thus, the instruction of self-assessment strategy in the experimental group had an effect on the learners' English language proficiency since it promoted them to have a higher level of language acquisition. The study results reflect that the EFL learners whose language proficiency is at the beginner level needed to be trained to assess their own language learning through explicit instruction to focus on the language forms in order to draw their attention for noticing the forms which is a good start for them to practice transferring the new knowledge from the short-term memory system to the long-term memory system which will later become their life-long learning skill. The ability in self-assessment of language learning does not only promote the learners' language proficiency; but, also helps increasing their confidence in producing language and independently learn how to improve their own learning achievement. It is assumed that the higher level of proficiency, the higher independent the learners will be.

The findings can be applied for practice in many ways. First, the teachers who design a course for EFL learners with the focus on developing an effective foundation of basic English knowledge for the novice EFL learners may use the self-assessment strategy

instruction approach as their guidance or choices of learning and teaching activities which help the learners transfer the new knowledge into their long-term memory to be ready for automatic activation for communication. Second, the learners who study English as a foreign language can use a set of exercises with short quizzes as the tools to improve their students' English language proficiency.

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The Development of English Vocabulary Learning of Early Childhood Undergraduate Students through English Tales

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ABSTRACT

Early Childhood Undergraduate plays important role in kindergarten children's successful English learning. As an international language, basic English vocabulary words were likely instructed since the kindergarten level of education system in Thailand. This research had 4 objectives: 1) to elicit English vocabulary from 12 English tales, considered by experts from relating fields, for composing the tales for Early Childhood undergraduates, 2) to study the effectiveness of the implementation of the enhancing of English vocabulary for Early Childhood Undergraduates, 3) to compare the before and after effectiveness of the process, and 4) to find the efficiency of using the composed English tales. The sample comprised of 36 4th students, chosen by cluster-random sampling. The instruments were English tales, lesson plans, English tests and students' reflection process. The data were analyzed by percentage, mean, standard deviation, and t-test.

The findings were as the followings.

- 1) The 10 English vocabulary words from one tale, 120 words in total were taken and composed to be short and simple tales.
- 2) According to statistical significance at .05, it confirmed that the composed English tales implementation were succeeded.
- 3) According to statistical significance at .05, it showed that the students gained higher scores than the before test.
- 4) The result of efficiency during the process was at 95.60 but was decreased to be 69.20 when the process was finished. For the satisfaction of learning English vocabulary words through English tales, it was at high level, at 4.18.

Keywords: English Vocabulary, Vocabulary Learning, English Tales, Lesson Plan

1. Introduction

It is realized that English is an international language of the world. This language is used in many international organizations of global communications. It is mostly used in various types of media for varieties purposes. English becomes an important key to access to a broader range of information, connections, opportunities, and variety of perspectives on how social trends can be parts of children's advantages as their multilingual capacity including physical, emotional, social and cognitive development, that is, English immerge to children's learning properly and natural. In Thailand, English skills for communication is not the requirement of Early Childhood Teachers because English is not the compulsory subject in the central Early Childhood Curriculum. Many kindergarten schools, however, put English subject into their own curriculum in order to keep phase with the academic movement. The effectiveness of English teaching depends on teacher's "English competency." For Early Childhood teacher, an understanding of vocabulary words is the first step which is necessary for them to transfer to the children. It is believed that the amount of vocabulary words could be the good base language learning. vocabulary that Early Childhood teachers should acquire are short and simple vocabulary words which using in daily life as well as vocabulary word in academic areas. These two types of vocabulary should be taught without separation. It should be taught as part learning activities, that is learning with fun. Teaching units or learning units of preschool children should be selected carefully to make them be suitable to children's context. This concept allows teaches to integrate English vocabulary into their learning activities easily and lively. Children would be able to connect the vocabulary to their real life. If it can be done, children's learning activities, therefore, are meaningful. If all these strategies including awareness, careful vocabulary selection as well as fun learning activities, the positive result of the future outcome would be possible.

The selected vocabulary which the teacher inserts in various units allow the children to increase their English language experiences naturally. It relates to physical, emotional, psychological, social, and intellectual readiness. The desire of children's learning with fun feeling and want to learn is crucial for effectiveness. It creates a good attitude towards learning English which is the foreign language in Thailand. The teaching process is not focused teaching grammar or language for communication as intensive as adults. The example of teaching English at the Early Childhood at Demonstration School Phranakhon Si Ayutthaya Rajabhat University, It has comprised 7 objectives. They are 1) to let children know basic English vocabulary suitable for ages 2) to practice English listening skills suitable for ages 3) to practice speaking vocabulary skills Basic English phrases and sentences 4) to practice English alphabet

writing skills. 5) To prepare English reading skills. 6) To create good attitudes towards learning English in daily life. 7) to allow children to learn happily. These approaches were used on “Play way method” or “Learning through Playing” which were the response to the nature of children. According to studies, they were found that Thai children have a rather negative attitude towards English. Some children who are rather slow of gaining English skills but the effects were put to English teachers at childhood level. In fact, English has been instructed in school system since elementary school or from kindergarten to the higher levers. Some of the students are unable to communicate in English as it should be. This situation is likely, therefore, to relate to learning English at kindergarten level.

The data from Early Childhood undergraduates’ Practicum and instructional supervision of Early Childhood Education Program during the academic year 2014, found that the students on teaching practice, Early Childhood Education were assessed positively with high responsibility, creativity, good manner but they should be developed their English skill, they were speaking, listening, reading and writing. The lack of this knowledge and skills effected their teaching or learning activities in Early Childhood classroom because they could not integrated English properly to the lessons. Some students, therefore. avoid to do it. These issues were consistent with the problems in writing the teaching plans, found by the supervisors. They were the English lesson plans for kindergarten children according to the school policy. The missed points with the principles of early childhood education and development of young children were the teaching plans of writing, that was, the consonants A-Z. According to the target result, by the end of the plan which organized the experience activities every day without meaning or any relationship between the lessons that the children did to their context. This processes did not suit the nature and learning style of young children that should start with the “play and learn” method. The fun activities should contain meanings related to children’s acquired experiences. To build an understanding base of learning language with mutual- skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing at the a time. Teaching to write consonants or handwritten English alphabets is, therefore, is a teaching process that has almost no meaning to children at all. Vocabulary learning is essential for Early Childhood students because vocabulary are used in daily life of everyone. Creative (student) teachers can design their learning activities by using English vocabulary concerned with childhood. But it is important to know how to teach vocabulary to early childhood students who may feel nervous, dislike and have negative attitude to English. This is the reason why English tales are used in this study. As known, almost people like tales or stories. If they would like to understand the stories, then the vocabulary in the stories would be learned happily. Then this process could be put in the lesson plans by put the emphasis on learning objectives: reading, spelling

and writing.

Watcharee Ruamkid (2017) did a research and found that the early childhood undergraduates who enhanced vocabulary by exercise gained higher scores than before study with the statistical significance at .01 level. The retention of Early Childhood undergraduates after using plus vocabulary enhancement show difference. Furthermore, the satisfaction of Early Childhood undergraduates with the collaborative learning was at the highest level. The study pointed that grouping as a good technique to enhance English learning, too. According to the mentioned issues, the researcher was interested in studying English vocabulary learning of Early Childhood Undergraduates through English tales which are composed by the vocabulary words that are consistent with the unit of study

because the story is a part of the instruction and as a study media for teaching preschool children. It is what Early Childhood students are familiar with. They may encourage students to learn, remember and easily understand the meaning. Lastly, the experience of learning English vocabulary from stories may last long-term memory because of the context which related the vocabulary. This experience may allow the students to integrate the vocabulary appropriately with preschool children. This research was, therefore, conducted in order to solve the mention problems. It was expected to be beneficial to both the students and the quality of teaching and learning for preschool children as well.

2. Research Method

2.1. Process and instruments

This research was taken by applied mixed methodology approach. The 36 4th year students, in the second term of academic year in 2017, drawn by Cluster Random Sampling were used as the sample. The instruments consisted of English tales, lesson plan, English vocabulary writing test, and the satisfaction reflection. Both quantity and quality data were collected and statistically analyzed to find percentage, mean, standard deviation, t-test and content analysis. The first step began by surveying, collecting and grouping English vocabulary words from books and work books for young children. Second, these vocabulary words were considered and selected 10 words for each unit of relating lessons (total 12 units) by early childhood early childhood teachers and experienced educators. After that, 12 short and simple English tales were composed and reviewed again by the mentioned experience people. Then the 12 composed English tales would be checked for with IOC and suggestions. Lastly, the composed English tales were used with 12 lesson plans. It was 3 hour per each plan.

2.2. Lesson Plan

The 12 English tales were accompanied by 12 lesson plans which were developed to teach students. They consisted seven parts: topic, time, objective, content, activity, media & resource of learning and evaluation & assessment. The five objectives in each plan were: reading, spelling matching vocabulary & meaning, vocabulary, picture construction and vocabulary note taking. The content consisted three parts: ABC Phonics Song (for pronunciation observation and connect to writing). English tales and Vocabularies & Meaning. Eleven steps of activities were: 1) listening ABC Phonics Song 2) listening to the tale on the power point. 3) answering 3 question (what is about the story, which vocabulary, how to spell and write vocabularies) 3) reading and spelling each words with flash cards 4) matching vocabularies and meaning 5) reading, spelling and translating together 6) grouping and taking some chart papers and colors 7) constructing vocabulary picture by group 8) presenting vocabularies picture 9) visiting, sharing and reviewing each group 10) vocabularies note taking and the evaluation & assessment were follow up by five objectives.

2.3 English Vocabulary Writing

The English vocabulary writing test was the final test and used as pretest and posttest. The student had to complete the test by filling English vocabulary after Thai words (120 words). The tests were checked and scored, that is, a corrected word gets one mark, 120 marks in total. Pretest and posttest were analyzed by mean (\bar{x}), percentage, Standard Deviation and t-test.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. The developed English tales for English vocabulary learning

unit	English tales	Vocabulary Group	Vocabulary/words
1	My Body	Organ	Hand leg Mouth Nose Neck Foot Face Finger Head Eye
2	Wonder Toy	Toys and belonging	Book Pencil Bag Box Ball Phone Doll Jigsaw Game Slider
3	Rainy Season	Rainy Season	Rain Wind Wet Rainbow Water Umbrella Boot Cloud River Sky
4	In My Garden	Flower and vegetable	Jasmine Rose Sunflower Lotus Orchid Onion Cucumber Carrot Broccoli Garlic
5	Animal's World	Animal	Horse Cat Dog Bird Fish Pig Rabbit Lion Monkey Tiger

6	Variety Food	Food	Bread Rice Milk Noodle Salad Pizza Curry Soup Sweet Fruit
7	Funny Trip	Vehicle	Car Train Bus Boat Bicycle Motorcycle Truck Plane Helicopter Rocket
8	I Want to Be	Occupation	Teacher Driver Fisherman Soldier Policeman Doctor Nurse Farmer Merchant Singer
9	Where Will You Go?	Place	School Temple Market Hospital Supermarket Museum Airport Police station Zoo Park
10	Useful Fruit	Fruit	Mango Durian Watermelon Grape Orange Pomelo Banana Rambutan Apple Pineapple
11	Beautiful Color	Color	White Black Blue Green Yellow Red Pink Violet Orange Brown
12	Yes, I Can	Action	Eat Sit Stand Sleep Jump Walk Run Read Write Look

Table 1: English vocabulary in composed English tales



Yes, I can



Lek can stand,
stand, stand, stand.



Lek can look,
look, look, look.



Lek can run,
run, run, run.



Lek can walk,
Walk, walk, walk.



Lek can read,
read, read, read.



Lek can sit,
Sit, sit, sit.



Lek can sleep,
sleep, sleep, sleep.



Fig. 1 The example of one in twelve Tales developed to the research

3.2 The implement of enhancing English vocabulary in composed tales for Early Childhood Undergraduates was higher with the statistical significance at .05 level.

3.3 The effectiveness of English tales through English vocabulary learning of Early Childhood Undergraduates.

English Vocabulary Learning of Early Childhood Undergraduates were higher than before study. The Early Childhood Undergraduates gained the statistical significance at .05 level

	n	\bar{x}	S	t	p-value
Pretest	36	4.02	1.65	*12.581	0.001
Posttest	36	6.92	1.57		

* P < .05

Table 2 : A comparison of Pretest and Posttest Scores

Items	Opinion level	Meaning
Tales can support vocabulary learning	4.14	High
Tales can enrich vocabulary spelling	4.08	High
Tales can enrich vocabulary writing	4.14	High
Tales can enrich Tales translating	4.19	High
Activities during Tales studying such as vocabulary picture construction, vocabulary note taking can enrich vocabulary learning	4.17	High
Tales can stimulate vocabulary interesting	4.28	High
Tales content response to the objective of vocabulary learning	4.25	High
Tales can enrich vocabulary learning more	3.89	High
Tales are interesting	4.30	High
Including, Tales are suitable medium to use for vocabulary learning enrichment	4.33	High

Table 3 : Satisfaction of students to composed English Tales

3.4 The efficiency of English Tales through scores and Early Childhood Undergraduates' opinion

The efficiency of English tales to English vocabulary learning of Early Childhood Undergraduates was 95.60/69.20 while the opinion of Early Childhood Undergraduates with the English Tales was at 4.18, in high level.

	During process mean (10)	Percentage	Posttest mean (10)	Percentage
N =36	9.56	95.60	6.92	69.20

Table 4: A comparison between during process mean score and posttest mean score

Tales	Pretest	Posttest	t	p-value
1 My Body	5.61	8.25	6.282	.001*
2 Wonder Toy	4.72	7.03	5.652	.001*
3 Rainy Season	3.00	6.81	8.196	.001*
4 In My Garden	1.83	5.36	9.207	.001*
5 Animal's World	6.72	8.42	6.026	.001*
6 Variety Food	3.69	7.17	10.609	.001*
7 Funny Trip	2.36	5.22	8.176	.001*
8 I Want to Be	2.39	5.58	7.356	.001*
9 Where Will You Go?	4.33	6.94	7.763	.001*
10 Useful Fruit	3.89	6.28	6.418	.001*
11 Beautiful Color	4.86	8.08	7.474	.001*
12 Yes, I Can	4.81	7.92	6.512	.001*

Table 5 : A comparison t-test between Posttest mean score and Posttest mean score to 12 tales

4. Conclusions and Suggestions

It can be concluded that The Development of English Vocabulary Learning of Early Childhood Undergraduates through English tales are as the followings:

1. English tales for English vocabulary learning of Early Childhood Undergraduates consisted 12 composed tales . The vocabulary were classified into 12 tales. Each English tales contained 10 short and simple vocabulary: totally 12 tales and 120 words and they were related to children's daily life"or familiar with them.
- 2.The implementation of developed English Tales enhanced English Vocabulary Learning of Early Childhood Undergraduates gained higher scores with the statistical significance at .05 level

3. English Vocabulary Learning of Early Childhood Undergraduates were higher than before study. The Early Childhood Undergraduates gained with the statistical significance at .05 level because the tales were common to their context. It was interesting approach for everyone, not only children and well-planned activities in lesson plan helped learner to learn and remember English vocabulary from Tales.

4. The efficiency of English Tales to English vocabulary learning of Early Childhood Undergraduates was 95.60/69.20. The difference scores were caused by the time of practicing. After finishing each lesson plan, the students immediately wrote 10 vocabularies words on their book while they still remembered. After long timing, the vocabularies were almost totally lost. So, the scores of posttest were different from pretest. While the satisfaction of Early Childhood Undergraduates with the composed English tales was at 4.18, in high level because the tales were in their interests and made them to remember easily.

The further study should focus on:

1. The composed English Tales should be applied to enhance English Learning of teacher students every program.
2. The Research and Development Design for Providing English Tales of Early Childhood Undergraduates or other Undergraduate Majors.

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The Relationship between Writing Anxiety and Writing Performance of Thai EFL Learners

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to investigate the extent to which writing situations affected students' writing anxiety and to discover if there was any relationship between the writing anxiety and the writing performance of Thai EFL students. The participants were the intact class of 43 students majoring in English who enrolled in the English Paragraph Writing course. The data was collected using the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) adopted from Cheng (2004) and the paragraphs produced by the participants. The results revealed that the writing conditions affected the levels of writing anxiety; when the students were told that their paragraph would not be scored, their level of anxiety was low. However, when they had to write for the test, their level of anxiety was pretty high. The findings also showed that the writing score in high-anxiety condition was slightly lower than that of the low-anxiety condition. This study yielded additional interesting result that even though the writing scores were not significantly different, the correlation between the writing anxiety and the writing performance was rather high. It is; therefore can be concluded that there was a relationship between the writing anxiety and the writing performance.

Keywords: Writing Anxiety, Writing Performance, Foreign Language Anxiety

1. Introduction

Anxiety is defined as “nervous feeling caused by fear that something bad is going to happen” (Hornby, Crowther, Kavanagh & Ashby, 1999, p.44). Similarly, Grupe and Nitschke (2013) defined anxiety as “anticipatory affective, cognitive, and behavioral changes in response to uncertainty about potential future threat.” From these two definitions of anxiety, it can be generally defined as the feeling of an individual of being worried about the potential future threat.

Anxiety has been an issues in EFL context for many years. It is considered one of the factors that may encourage or prevent students from language mastery. In language teaching, especially in EFL teaching, foreign language anxiety is defined as a kind of anxiety which is situation-specific irrespective of the other kinds of anxiety but with a strong relation with language-learning context (Horwitz, 2001). Oxford (1999) defines language learning anxiety as, “fear or apprehension occurring when a learner is expected to perform in the second or foreign language” (p. 59). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) added from their study that language anxiety interferes with cognitive processing. Cope and Horwitz (1986) explained in more detail that foreign language anxiety can be the fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety and communication apprehension. It; therefore, can be concluded that foreign language anxiety is the complex feeling and behaviors of a person, caused by fear or apprehension, that associate with foreign language learning due to a specific context of the language learning.

Language anxiety is caused by different factors while the learners learning a foreign language. Perfectionism can be one of the causes especially when learners are anxious for their mistakes or when they are anxious about the presence of other people (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). Oxford (1999) added that the teaching and learning styles are also blamed for the emergence of language anxiety especially when the teachers' teaching styles do not match the learner's learning styles. Another factor, language testing, which can be obviously seen in any academic context as well as in an EFL context, is considered a big cause of stress on foreign language learning (Young, 1991). Language testing can cause anxiety when the tests formats are not familiar to the learners or when the content of the test are different from what has been taught in class.

Writing anxiety is commonly found in EFL writing classes. It is defined by Hassan (2001) as "a general avoidance of writing and of situations perceived by the individuals to potentially require some amount of writing accompanied by the potential for evaluation of that writing" (p. 4). Like Hassan, Topuzkanamis (2015) added that anxiety is the worry a person feels toward a task of qualified writing. Writing anxiety was found to result in negative effects on writing performance. It is an important factor that causes big problems in writing development and should be prevented from occurring in EFL writing classroom. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) stated that it is a cognitive blocking the students' understanding. It also results in negative influence on learners' communication (MacIntyre & Charos, 1995, cited in Negari & Rezaabadi, 2012).

A number of researchers have tried to identify the extent to which anxiety can affect writing performance of EFL students (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Hasan, 2001; Cheng, 2002; Kurt & Atay, 2007). One of the situation that causes high anxiety and is likely to be threatening and dangerous to language learners is testing. Spielberger and Vagg (1995, cited in Negari & Rezaabadi, 2012) stated that testing is the situation-trait that may prevent the learners to become proficient language learners.

The above literature has proved that writing anxiety plays an important role in EFL learning and EFL writing. However, the study on writing anxiety has been scarce. A number of studies have been conducted to explore the relationship between language anxiety and language performance in language classrooms (e.g., Cheng, 2002; Cheng, 2004; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996). Other studies have been conducted to identify the relationship between writing anxiety and writing ability (e.g., Saito & Samimy, 1996; Cheng, 2002). However, these studies were conducted in other countries namely China, Turkey and Iran, but a few studies on the relationship between writing anxiety and writing ability have been found in Thailand.

Studies on the relationship between anxiety and writing performance conducted in Thailand (e.g. Paritchut & Chinokul, 2014; D'souza, 2015) have not lead to a conclusive findings. Paritchut and Chinokul (2014) studied the levels of writing anxiety and the factors that caused writing anxiety and found that the students' anxiety was moderate to high and their anxiety had negative effects on their writing performance. The findings also showed that the anxiety was caused by different factors, mainly by an individual's limited proficiency of the target language, followed by thinking process and emotion respectively. Another study, D'souza (2015) compared the reading and writing anxiety in relation to classroom engagement and academic achievement of students in Thai universities. He found that writing anxiety was negatively related to academic achievement. From the studies above, the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance has been unclear. As an effort to fill this gap in the existing literature on writing anxiety and writing performance, the present study; therefore, aims at investigating the relation between the writing anxiety and the writing performance of Thai EFL students. It also studies the extent to which writing situations affects learners' writing anxiety.

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

This study was conducted at Loei Rajabhat University, a small unity in the northeastern part of Thailand. The intact class of 43 low-intermediate English majors who enrolled in a paragraph writing course were chosen to be the participants in this study. The students in this study were considered heterogeneous and they represented the normal language classrooms where English is learnt as a foreign language. The researcher believed that the students' heterogeneity can give a good picture of the levels of the writing anxiety and the relationship between their writing anxiety and their writing performance as it reflects the authentic English class in Thailand where English is taught as a compulsory foreign language. The class was scheduled to meet once a week with three periods of 50 minutes each. These participants had to attend the class regularly and they were told to write different kinds of paragraph and it was made clear to the students that written work was one of the course requirements, and they were required to submit every piece of their writing.

2.2 Materials and Procedures

The data for this study was collected using two pieces of students writing and the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) adopted from Cheng (2004). This questionnaire consists of 22 items to measure students' writing anxiety in three subscales: Somatic Anxiety, Cognitive Anxiety, and Avoidance Behavior. The participants had to answer the questions on a five-point Likert Scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The SLWAI is a good tool to measure what it means to measure as it has internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .91 (Cheng, 2004). The questionnaires were translated into Thai in order to avoid any misunderstanding that could be caused by language problems and three experienced English teachers were invited to review the accuracy of the translation and the questions were revised based on the comments received from the experts.

In the first class meeting, the teacher explained the course to the students. They are told that written work was one of the course requirements, and they were required to submit every piece of writing. Students were informed that they were invited to participate in a research project, and some parts of the scores collected from a normal classroom would be used for research purposes.

In class the students were taught how to write different kinds of paragraphs and they were also assigned to with both in class and as homework. After they submitted their works to the teacher, different kinds of feedback were given. Then they had to revise or edit their works before submitting their better drafts to the teacher again. However, as the purposes of the study were to identify the relationship between the writing anxiety and the writing performance of Thai EFL students and to study the extent to which writing situations affect students' writing anxiety, the situations in which students had to attend in order to fulfill the purposes of the study were set. After the students wrote their third piece of paragraph, they participated in a low-anxiety situation where they were assigned to write in the specific topic for 1 hour and were told that that piece of writing was only to see how they improved their writing after they had written a few paragraphs and the score obtained from that writing would not be included in their course assessment. It would be used for the research purpose only. Another situation, the high-anxiety, was their midterm examination where they had to write a piece of paragraph. It was done two months after the low-anxiety situation. After each situation, the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) adopted from Cheng (2004) was given to measure their level of writing anxiety. The data obtained from the questionnaire was compared to identify the relationship between writing anxiety levels.

The scores obtained from both pieces of writing were also compared to see the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance.

3. Results

The data obtained from the questionnaire of both situations were analyzed by calculating each participant's writing anxiety score. It was also analyzed by calculating the frequencies statistics of the ratings to each of the 22 items. Scores from the negative statements were reversed. Paired Samples T-Test was used to compare each set of the variables: two writing scores and the anxiety scores of the same students in two different writing situations. The analytic scoring rubric of Brown and Bailey (1984, cited in Brown, 2004) was adopted to score the two pieces of writing. To ensure the consistency in making judgments of the researcher on the paragraphs, the intra-rater reliability technique was employed. To apply the intra-rater scoring, all of the participants' writing was scored and rescored by the researcher (Brown, 2004). The scoring and rescored of the tests was two-week interval. The degree of agreement between the first scoring and the second scoring was 86% which was considered high. This indicated that the researcher was adequately consistent in scoring the texts.

From the SLWAI, the mean score of the writing anxiety were lower in the low-anxiety situation than it was in the high-anxiety situation. In the low-anxiety situation, the mean score was 3.07, and it was increased to 3.50 in the high-anxiety situation. A closer look at the results, it was found that the participants reported the highest level of writing anxiety in the high-anxiety situation for item 3 "While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated." and item 5 "I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions." by the equal mean scores of 4.2. For the low-anxiety situation, the participants also demonstrated the highest mean score of writing anxiety for item 5 by the mean score of 3.7.

Divided by types of anxiety, the participants has reported the highest mean score for somatic anxiety for item 11, "My thoughts become jumbled when I write English compositions under time constraint." by the mean score of 3.5 for low-anxiety situation. For high-anxiety situation, the highest mean score was reported for item 8, "I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure." by mean score of 4.1. In addition, the participants reported the highest mean score for cognitive anxiety for item 3 and 14 by the mean score of 3.5 for low-anxiety situation. Item number 3 was "While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated.", and item 14 was "I'm afraid that the other students would think my English composition was terrible if they read it." For high-anxiety situation, the highest mean score was also reported for item 3 by mean score of 4.2. For avoidance behavior, the highest mean score for both low-anxiety and high-anxiety situations was for item 5 "I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions" by mean score of 3.7 and 4.2 respectively.

The results from T-test shows that among 43 participants, the writing anxiety score occurred in low-anxiety situation increased 10.55814 points for high-anxiety situation (Table 1). The level of change was less than .05, and this shows that the participants' levels of writing anxiety were significantly different when they were assigned to write in situations with different conditions for writing. The standard deviations for the writing anxiety scores in two situations showed that the participants were more variable in low-anxiety situation than in high-anxiety situation (Table 1). In addition, Pearson correlation between the writing anxiety scores of the mentioned situations was .240 which was rather low. Since the significance value for the change in writing anxiety scores was higher than .05, it can be concluded that the increase of .240 point of the writing anxiety

score in the high-anxiety situation was affected by the levels of anxiety caused by the writing situations (Table 3).

Table 1: T-Test Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Low Anxiety Mean Score	67.465	43	10.34488	1.57758
High Anxiety Mean Score	78.0233	43	5.82069	.88765

Table 2: Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig
Low Anxiety Mean Score & High Anxiety Mean Score	43	.240	.121

Table 3: Paired Samples T-test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	\bar{x}	SD.	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Low Anxiety Mean Score & High Anxiety Mean Score	-10.55814	10.58369	1.61400	-13.81532	-7.30096	-6.542	42	.000

The second purpose of the study was to see if there is any relationship between students' writing anxiety and their writing performance. The results of t-test (Table 4) revealed that there was no significant difference between the two writing scores. The mean writing score for the high-anxiety situation had an increase of .39535 points in comparison with low-anxiety situation. Pearson correlation of the two writing scores was .744 which was considered a rather high correlation (Table 5 and Table 6). The significant value for the change of the writing scores is higher than 0.05; therefore, it can be concluded that the decrease of .39535 points of the writing scores in the high-anxiety situation was not due to the level of anxiety caused by the writing situation alone.

Table 4: T-Test for Writing Scores for Low-anxiety and Hi-anxiety Situations

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Low Anxiety Writing Score	16.7442	43	4.85059	.73971
High Anxiety Writing Score	16.3488	43	6.57877	1.00325

Table 5: Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig
Low Anxiety Writing Score & High Anxiety Writing Score	43	.744	.000

Table 6: Paired Samples T-Test

	Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	\bar{x}	SD.	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower				Upper
Low Anxiety Writing Score & High Anxiety Writing Score	.39535	4.39772	.67065	-.95807	1.74877	.590	42	.559

4. Discussion and Conclusion

4.1 Discussion

The purposes of this study were to study the extent to which writing situations affects students' writing anxiety and to investigate the relationship between the writing anxiety and the writing performance of Thai EFL students. The study revealed the results similarly to the previous studies that the students reported higher level of writing anxiety in high-anxiety situation than when they were assigned to write in the low-anxiety situation. Results of the SLWAI also showed that the participants showed the highest mean score for trying to avoid writing English composition in both writing situations, followed by the occurring of worry and uneasiness when they knew that their writing would be evaluated. This can be interpreted that they found writing situation uncomfortable that they tried to avoid writing in English. One of the reasons of the avoidance probably due to the worry and uneasiness that the students felt when they knew that their writing would be scored. This finding can also be supported by the writing anxiety score obtained in the high-anxiety situation which was significantly higher than that obtained from the same group of students writing in the low-anxiety situation. As stated above, the high-anxiety situation was the midterm examination where their writing was scored as a part of their course assessment.

T-test was used to compare the writing anxiety scores obtained from both writing situations and to compare the writing scores obtained from both situations. The results showed that when the students were told that their writing would be scored, their writing anxiety level was significantly higher than when they were told that their writing would not be scored. This showed that the assessment of the writing could be one of the reasons for their writing anxiety even though the t-test also showed that the relationship between the scores of two writing situations was rather low (.240). In addition, the standard deviation level was higher in the low-anxiety than that of the high-anxiety situation. This can be concluded that the students writing anxiety was less in common in low-anxiety situation than in the high-anxiety counterpart. It can also be assumed from the significant value of the change of the writing anxiety scores which was lower than 0.05 that the increase of the writing anxiety scores of the high-anxiety situation was not by chance.

T-test also showed that even though relationship between the writing scores obtained from the low-anxiety and high-anxiety situations was rather high, the writing scores obtained from both situations were not significantly different. In addition, the score obtained from the high-anxiety situation was slightly lower than that of the low-anxiety situation. Since the value of change was not significant, it can be concluded that the level of anxiety that the students experienced in the high-anxiety situation which was significantly higher than that of the low-anxiety situation can be blamed for this decrease. Cope and Horwitz (1986) stated that anxiety can be the fear of negative

evaluation, test anxiety and communication apprehension. It can interfere the cognitive process (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994) and is one of the factors that prevent students from being successful language learners (Field, 2004). Therefore, it be assumed that even though the writing for high-anxiety situation (the midterm test) was two months after the first writing situation and the students had learnt to write different kinds of paragraph after the first writing situation, the increase of writing anxiety level may negatively affect their writing performance.

4.2 Conclusion

This study investigated the extent to which writing situation affected students' writing anxiety. It also discovered if there was any relationship between the writing anxiety and the writing performance of Thai EFL students. The results showed that the participants experienced different levels of writing anxiety when they were assigned to write in different conditions. They reported higher degree of anxiety in a high-anxiety situation, when they knew that their writing would be scored, than in a low-anxiety situation, when they were told that their writing was only to see their writing development. It was also found that the same group of students wrote slightly better in a low-anxiety situation. These findings suggested that there was a relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance. In addition, we also learn better about writing anxiety that even though anxiety may result in learners' awareness for mistakes and lead to more attention on the learning activity, too much of it can be harmful and may prevent students from learning. The teachers; therefore, should try to avoid it to happen in a language class or try to decrease it as much as possible. The relationship between the teachers and students, the teaching techniques as well as the conditions of study should be adapted to help facilitate students' learning process and increase their learning achievement.

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Critical Literacy Theory and Practice

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Keywords: critical pedagogy, critical literacy, teacher education, theory and practice.

Introduction

In discussing teacher education preparation, Darling-Hammond, Bransford, and LePage (2005) assert, “Programs that prepare teachers need to consider the demands of today’s schools in concert with the growing knowledge base about learning and teaching if they are to support teachers in meeting these expectations” (p. 2). Following this assertion, the researchers raise three important questions for teacher educators to consider when preparing new generations of teachers (p. 2-3):

- What kinds of knowledge do effective teachers need to have about their subject matter and about the learning processes and development of their students?
- What skills do teachers need in order to provide productive learning experiences for a diverse set of students, to offer informative feedback on students’ ideas, and to critically evaluate their own teaching practices and improve them?
- What professional commitments do teachers need to help every child succeed and to continue to develop their own knowledge and skills, both as individuals and as members of a collective profession?

Darling-Hammond and colleagues (2005) further suggest that teacher educators need to equip preservice teachers with the skills to go beyond ‘covering the curriculum’ (p. 2) by preparing preservice teachers to teach in ways that will position diversity and equity at the center of teaching and learning. To achieve this, the next generation of teachers will need to learn and understand that teaching and learning involves more than knowing the right methods (Bartolomé, 1994). Comber (2006) notes that teaching should be recognized “as being situated, embodied, intellectual and political and, importantly, as being more complicated than simply being ‘effective’ or ‘ineffective’ (p. 61). Indeed, teacher education needs to promote diversity, equity, and social change. It needs to push preservice teachers to interrogate unexamined preconceptions; engage in critical discussions regarding issues of equity, power, and privilege; and learn pedagogies that will dismantle educational inequities in order to provide quality education for all students.

Theoretical Framework

Critical literacy has a strong focus on language and literacy education, and refers to approaches to literacy education that purposefully positions students and teachers to inquire about the effects of language, literacy, and power. Critical literacy is important in teacher education because it offers preservice teachers a framework to think about the social and political commitments in educating for democracy. For instance, critical literacy holds the power to situate preservice teachers to think deeply about:

- how teaching and learning occur in sociocultural contexts (Bloome et al., 2008; Brown, 2013; Freire, 1998);
- how dialogue and purposeful talk around texts is crucial in language and literacy education (Ciardiello, 2004; Leland et al., 1999; McLaughlin & DeVoogd, 2004);
- how language operates in powerful ways (Janks, 2000/2012; Fairclough, 2001/2003; Gee, 2011; Rogers, 2011);
- how literacy education and practice hold the power to transform sociocultural realities (Bartolomé, 1994; Freire & Macedo, 1978; Giroux, 1985).

Research Question

This paper explored the following research question: What does critical literacy look like and sound like in a practicum classroom of a preservice teacher beginning to enact critical literacy practices?

Methods

This study is a qualitative inquiry (Merriam, 2009). I employed ethnographic data collection methods (Heath, Street, & Mills, 2008) to explore how preservice teachers transform critical literacy theory into classroom practice. I followed four preservice teachers to document their enactment of critical literacy during their student teaching experiences. The data sources include one semester of observation in their Reading Methods course, one semester of observation in their student teaching field placement classroom, field notes, audio/video recordings of lessons, semi-structured interviews, artifacts, and documents. Data analysis was a recursive process. The data sources were analyzed in two cycles. The first cycle began with open-coding at the descriptive level, and the second cycle focused on axial-coding to locate recurring patterns and categories (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 1994). These categories were then examined across the data sources to locate themes that attended to each preservice teacher's critical literacy teaching and learning experiences. Of the four participants, one preservice teacher's critical literacy teaching and learning experiences will be presented in this paper.

Findings

The preservice teacher's critical literacy teaching and learning experiences illuminated the complexity of balancing teaching critical literacy within real-world, constrained contexts. For instance, the preservice teacher encountered the challenge of balancing power dynamics, a formal curriculum with pre-existing text materials, a defined time frame for each content subject, and the aspiration to enact critical literacy. In the face of these challenges, the preservice teacher negotiated with the pre-existing structures and power relations and transformed the *constrained* context into critical teaching possibilities.

Special Supports for Students in Junior High School in Japan

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ABSTRACT

This study is to examine the coaching for junior high school students who need special support in Japan: students with foreign roots, so-called gifted children, and students with dyslexia. A research practice was conducted for the investigation at Junior High School “N” in Hyogo prefecture. As a result, it was shown that public education didn’t provide sufficient support.

Keywords: Coaching, Foreign root students, Gifted children, Special support

Integration of Multicultural Education and English Lessons

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ABSTRACT

Learning language and culture is important to develop students' communication abilities. However, the current Course of Study (2011) for junior high school in Japan focuses on learning English language skills (4 skills: listening, reading, speaking, writing). In addition, the English textbook (NEW HORIZON English Course 2) uses only English and American culture for cross-cultural understanding, and the culture learning is biased. Therefore, it is necessary to incorporate multicultural education into English lessons.

The purpose of this paper is to develop lesson plans that integrate multicultural education into English lessons. The target students are 99 eighth graders (42 boys and 57 girls) at junior high school "T" in Wakayama prefecture. The lesson plan was designed not only to improve students' English skills, but also to foster them as global citizens.

Keywords: Multicultural education, English lessons, Lesson plans, Junior high school

Small Global Society through “Small Talk” in Elementary School English Classes

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ABSTRACT

The role to carry out "Small Talk" is important in all "Foreign Language Activity" classes because it develops a base of the communicative competence. A new official English curriculum, "Foreign Language," will start in 2020 as a subject in elementary school for fifth and sixth grade students. "Small talk" should be incorporated as process of foreign language education, according to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). However, it seems that schools are not implementing "small talk" enough. Therefore, we made four relatively short "small talk" conversations, which follow the guidelines set forth by MEXT. In order to help students' learning of the English phrases and vocabulary, we utilized a PowerPoint presentation. Repetition within the "small talk" conversations from previous lessons appears to have helped with acquisition, and students were able to adjust learned phrases to different situations. However, one difficulty we encountered was whether classes are equipped to handle the teaching materials we created. Classroom environment may be an important issue in the future.

Keywords: English education, Elementary school, Small talk, Global society

Effect of Musical Harmony on Education

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ABSTRACT

In this study, we investigated the effect that musical harmony has on education, we considered the effects of music to give to children to listen. In addition, we also researched how to teach how the charm of musical harmony can benefit children's education. Daily, people listen to variety of orchestral or piano music. During those times, people may feel their emotions changing with the change in the music. In this way, the emotions and sensations that music gives to humans originate from various elements of music, but the harmony aspect can be considered to be one of the most important elements. It was suggested that these musical effects can be utilized for class management and lesson creation in the education field by comparing the effects brought by musical harmony with the teaching materials.

Keywords: Musical harmony, Children, Teaching materials

The Counting of Word Suffixes to Predict Primary Stress Placement on Multi Syllable English Words

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ABSTRACT

Chinese students often make quite a few stress placement mistakes when they say multi syllable English vocabulary due to the interference of the traditional pronunciation patterns exhibited in their first language. Moreover, the shortage of stress-placing knowledge in the target language further corrupts the accent in their word-level utterance. This research seeks a solution to this problem with an “counting of word endings”. A method that predicts the primary stress in a polysyllabic word. Chinese learners of English who practice this supra segmental feature to remove the bad accent which interferes the intelligibility of their verbal communication to their English interlocutors. Students are first given a pretest of a group of polysyllabic words to expose how their natural English rhythm is, thus to see the how wrong they are in their stress patterns and stressing habits. The result of the pretest exhibited that a clear absent of English stress knowledge in students’ pronunciations. Students then received a 30-hour teaching intervention on how to predict s word’s primary stress by a set of algorithm of word suffixes. A posttest of a different group of long English words with same suffixes is given to the students again after the stress pattern tutoring sessions are finished. The improvement in scores in the posttest indicates the rate of students’ progress in their stress placement and intelligibility in their pronunciations and thus proves the effectiveness of this stress prediction drill intervention introduced.

Keywords: Supra segmental feature, Primary Stress Placement, Algorithm in Suffixes, Penultimate, Anti-penultimate

Introduction

Given the problems associated with the pronunciation of English by non-native American speakers, the purposes of this research were three-fold. The first purpose was to help Chinese college students understand that accurate pronunciation plays a key role in communication with other English speakers. Non-native speakers’ ability to speak SE reduce their odds of being rejected by native speakers of English and, at the same time, increases their opportunities to compete with other English speakers through

effective communication. In order to be competitive in the modern world, which recognizes English as the only universal world language, smooth and authentic English pronunciation is expected.

The second purpose was to provide Chinese college students with a simple approach to learning English word stress in order to help them learn to say English words more authentically. George S. Waldo, a Canadian linguist, formalized a system of stress rules for English vocabulary words by analyzing their morphological structures. His intent was to show non-native English learners, who possessed almost no knowledge of English phonology, which vowel(s) should have the primary stress when they encountered new words. Prator and Robinett (1972) asserted that familiarity with word stress rules “will give purpose and direction to students’ [oral] reading, and perhaps enable them to progress from the point at which they can avoid a given ‘error’ by conscious effort to the point where they make the correct sound automatically when they are thinking only of the meaning of the words” (p.xvii). They suggested that if the rules are skillfully carried out, they “can be of great value as a means of progressing gradually from the conscious to the unconscious control of a feature of pronunciation, as a way of adding one more analyzed element to the synthesis of normal speech” (Prator & Robinett, 1972, p.xviii).

Finally, the third purpose was to examine the effectiveness of Waldo’s system of stress prediction rules to justify their adoption by English language instructors. Waldo’s rules were examined using repeated-measure tests and a stress rule intervention procedure with a class of sixty Chinese college English majors to establish the results of word stress prediction rules on the participants’ pronunciation.

Over the last half century, the English language has risen to the pinnacle of the world’s linguistic hierarchy, giving native English speakers an advantage over others in international affairs, business and trade. Non-native speakers who wish to compete on a level playing field must acquire native-like accuracy in English pronunciation, for which accurate word stress is an essential prerequisite. According to Rubin (2005), word stress is key to comprehensibility in the English language. He says that non-native speakers can get by with fairly pronounced accents as long as they conform to English norms for intonation. Accurate placement of word stress enhances the comprehensibility of non-native speaker’s speech because accented English pronunciation resulting from stressing the wrong vowel often makes a non-native speaker sound strange and unintelligent, and therefore to be distrusted or dismissed by native speaker (Pathare, 2005). For instance, if a Chinese-speaking person wants to communicate effectively with an English speaker, the first thing he needs to do is to master English word stress patterns: Word stress is important in pronunciation and good pronunciation contributes to effective communication.

It is often said that “to correctly stress an English word appears to be one of the major difficulties in the pronunciation of English” (Wijk, 1966, p.124). Word stress in English is not a luxury that one can add or delete at will. It is an integral part of the English language. English speakers need word stress to communicate rapidly and accurately, even in difficult conditions (“Rules of word stress in English,” n.d.). If a person does not hear a word clearly, he can still understand the word because of the position of the stress. For example, even entry-level English students can easily and quickly differentiate between the words photograph and photographer by hearing only the first two syllables of these words. Pathare (2005) mentions that word stress is crucial in pronunciation because it affects syllables and the segments that constitute syllables, as seen in the stress alternation in English between certain nouns and verbs e.g., CONduct vs. conDUCT. Stressing a word differently can change the meaning altogether. As O’Connor (1973) asserts, “[I]n English, stress is a significant factor because it is an essential part of word-shape; words easily become unrecognizable if the stress is wrongly placed” (p. 194).

Method

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Questions

For the purpose of this study, the following research questions were developed:

1. Is there a difference between the number of correct word stress placements by both the control group and the experiment group after the experiment group is tutored in stress placement rules, as evaluated based on *Webster’s Dictionary* of dictionary words?
2. Is there a difference between the scores in the intelligibility of both groups assigned by native English speakers after the experiment group is tutored in stress placement rules?
3. Is there a correlation between the objective stress placement evaluation results and the subjective intelligibility scores for experiment group after the intervention?

Research Hypotheses

This study investigated the following corresponding research hypotheses:

- H10*. There is no statistically significant difference between the number of correct word stress placements by both the control group and the experiment group after the experiment group is tutored in stress placement rules, as evaluated based on *Webster’s Dictionary* of dictionary words.

H2₀. There is no statistically significant difference between the scores in the intelligibility of both groups assigned by native English speakers after the experiment group is tutored in stress placement rules.

H3₀. There is no positive statistical correlation between the objective stress placement evaluation results and the subjective intelligibility scores for experiment group after the intervention?

Research Results

This study presented information about the practicability of the stress prediction model rules for non-native English learners, such as Chinese college students. The findings are essential for college EFL teachers and administrators to understand students' challenges in vocabulary pronunciation. The following findings were drawn from the descriptive statistical results generated through the research hypotheses.

The first research question thought to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in the number of correct word stress placements on the 25 dictionary pronounced by 20 Chinese students in the experimental group before and after being tutored in stress placement rules. The results of paired-samples *t*-tests indicated statistically significant differences, from 11.00 to 19.25 points in the number of correct word stress placements between the pre- and post-intervention test scores. With the *t* value being -8.364, null hypothesis 1, which claimed no statistically significant difference in the number of correct word stress placements between two tests, was rejected. The statistical data suggested students improved significantly in the number of correct word stress placements after the stress rule intervention.

Research question 3 sought to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the intelligibility scores on the 25 dictionary words pronounced by the 20 Chinese students in the experimental group before and after being tutored in stress placement rules. The results of paired-samples *t*-tests suggested significant increases, from 70.60 to 89.60 points in the students' intelligibility scores between the pre- and post-intervention tests. With the *t* value being -6.074, null hypothesis 3, which claimed no statistically significant difference in the intelligibility scores between two tests, was rejected. The statistical differences in data between the two tests suggested students did improve their intelligibility after the stress rule intervention.

Research question 5 sought to determine whether the correct word stress placement in English vocabulary words positively correlated with the intelligibility of the English vocabulary words. Statistical results suggested a strong positive Pearson's correlation coefficient (.764) between the number of correct word stress placement and the score of whole word intelligibility on the 25 dictionary words. With the *t* value

being 20.435, null hypothesis 5 was rejected. The statistical data suggested that the more accurately the word stress was placed, the more intelligible the words sounded.

Discussion

Dale (1976) asserted that “the phonological differences probably contribute more than syntactic differences to difficulties in understanding between native and non-native speakers of the same language” (p.275), and mistakes in word stress are a common cause of misunderstanding in English (Pathare, 2005). A non-native speaker’s strong accent, although it might be comprehensible, irritates the listener and may invite embarrassment or ridicule of the speaker. The goal non-native speakers work hard to reach is the SAE pronunciation, which is easily understood and does not attract attention to itself at the expense of the message (Carruthers, from Long & Richards, 1987). According to Weeks (1996), “in China alone, there are more people starting to use English in some form than the total population of the United Kingdom [about 60 million]” (p.3). It is thus not surprising that strategies and methods to facilitate oral communication have always been an area for enthusiastic research in Chinese English language education.

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The Implementation of an Inquiry-Based, Technology-Infused Global Education Curriculum in a 1st Grade Classroom

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ABSTRACT

This study explores a teacher's implementation of an inquiry-based, technology-infused global education curriculum in a 1st-grade classroom setting. This study was focused on one unit, and conducted over the course of a five-week period, with one lesson taught each week. Data included the curriculum, three interviews, and observations of the implementation. Findings focused on the effectiveness of inquiry-based learning and technology-integration in a global education classroom.

The global education class at the school where this research was conducted was an active learning environment that focused on the universal values of equality, tolerance, cooperation, and inclusion, as well as learning about global literacy, environmental science, financial literacy, global demographics and geography, cultures, and endangered species. This global education class was carefully designed on this foundation, resulting in student-led discussions, projects, dialogue, and student-driven interest in topics.

Teachers in such environments can enhance global education classes by using inquiry-based learning and technology to meet students' needs and skills for success in a multifaceted world. In today's world, people are becoming more dependent on one another through our technology enabled connection with others in different parts of the world.

When teaching global education, teachers may cover a range of topics, building in new knowledge each year. Teachers are encouraged to teach through innovative technology to build the skills students need to be better prepared for their future. In order to accomplish those goals, teachers are encouraged to teach through inquiry-based learning. Inquiry-based learning using technology that is focused on global knowledge outcomes can be developed through compelling questions that are challenging and address a range of topics that enable students to think critically, creatively, and proactively in their society.

Keywords: Global education, inquiry-based learning, technology-integration, curriculum.

1. Introduction

The need to foster global knowledge, understanding, and build bridges between individuals and the world has been increasing through the years. In schools, global education classes are a way for educators to empower students to think globally and bring about change in society and the world. Over the years in my graduate program, I have been inspired to be part of this change in global education.

Given my experiences, I teamed up with a global education teacher to write a technology-infused, inquiry-based, global education curriculum for K-5. We completed the Kindergarten and 1st grade portions of the curriculum in the summer of 2018 and developed the framework for the 3rd and 6th grade. Table 1 displays the topics for each grade level.

Table 1. Topics for each grade level

Grade	Topics (Tagline)
Kindergarten	Fiction, Nonfiction- Fun: Learning Through Literacy
1 st	Traveling Around the World- Learning All the Way
2 nd	Endangered species: Research & Study
3 rd	Learning, Caring, Protecting: Activists in the Making
4 th	International Geography: Demographic and Culture
5 th	Financial Literacy: Budgets, Stocks, and Business
6 th	World Change: See it, Feel it, Be it

Much can be explored through global education, however when planning a global education curriculum, teachers should select topics in an informed way that will honor children's interest and needs. All children have the right to education and an important factor in that process is the teacher. Burnouf (2004) states that, education is meant to change people for the better and to create prosperous, productive, and meaningful lives. All nations of the world are related and there is no race or culture that is better than the other. This is all the reason more to teach social studies with a global perspective infused throughout with the themes, elements, and new understandings (p. 10-11).

The school where my partner and I worked on the curriculum is a new charter school that just recently opened its doors for rising kindergarten to sixth grade students. The school follows the Core Knowledge curriculum and includes innovative educational programs to help children develop and apply the skills needed for students to succeed in the 21st century. The school follows four key design elements that provide students with authentic learning, a nurturing environment, opportunities for collaboration, and technology skills. The school's mission is to provide authentic learning to improve the lives of students through a collaborative, nurturing environment, and its aim is to build a foundation for students' success in school, career, and life.

One of the unique aspects of this school is that it offers a kindergarten through sixth grade global education as a course. I have been part of the school as a parent, volunteer, room-parent, substitute, and through this project, as a partner with the global education teacher. During my time in the school, I have observed the global education students thinking creatively, critically, purposefully, as well as problem-solving real-world situations to take further action. The global education class offered at the school is student-centered and revolves around discussions, hands-on projects, inquiry-based learning, and technology integration. Through these experiences, students expand their knowledge and understanding of the world around them, which helps them become more globally competent, informed, and active global citizens.

In this research study, I focused on a 1st grade global education class and one teacher's implementation of a global education curriculum. I observed on the teacher's implementation of the 1st grade curriculum: *Traveling Around the World: Learning All the*

Way and measured the teacher's use of technology and her inquiry strategies to support students' learning. The research question for this study is:

How does a 1st grade teacher implement an inquiry-based, technology-infused global education curriculum in the classroom?

Related sub-questions are:

How does inquiry-based learning relate to global education?

How is technology integrated in a global education class?

How does the global education teacher's pedagogy positively influence students' global knowledge?

The primary goals of this research study was to see how a teacher prepared her students for the diversified world we live in and the ways the teacher was able to foster global knowledge and understanding among a group of first grade students.

2. Methodology

The research conducted here was a case study of how a teacher implements a technology-integrated, inquiry-based, global education curriculum. It also examined the ways the teacher was able to help students develop as global citizens, who will serve their community, nation, and world. A case study is a systematic process of research where the case study investigator plans, designs, prepares, collects, analyzes, and shares data through real-life context. As a result, case study evidence can derive from multiple specific sources, such as "documents, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation, and physical artifacts" (Yin, 2009, p. 98).

The case study examined in this research consisted of a global education teacher and a 1st grade classroom with 30 students. The case followed the teacher from the initial stages of the curriculum implementation through teaching a complete unit. Three interviews were conducted with the teacher as well as classroom observations of her teaching practice. Curriculum materials were also analyzed. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed, and the observations were transcribed. Relevant coding techniques were used with each stage of the data analysis.

2.1 Participant and Context

The participant in this study, Ms. Bailey (pseudonym) was a K-6th grade teacher at a charter school in Southeastern United States. Ms. Bailey was in her 2nd year teaching at the charter school and had no previous teaching experience. She earned her degree in History. The duration of the class was 45 minutes of instruction. The school was located in an upper middle-class community. The global education class was taught as a "specials" class, which is an elective class that is taught once or twice a week to a specific group of students at one grade level. Each lesson was taught for one a week, resulting in 4-5 classes per unit study.

2.2 Curriculum

In general, the 1st grade curriculum was about *Traveling Around the World*. Students were introduced to world geography and cultural studies through a "monthly adventure" taken to a country in the world. The students had a world map in their classroom, and throughout the school year, the countries visited were marked with a pushpin and a string, illustrating

the miles and distance traveled from one country to the other. The eight countries studied throughout the year were: Chad, Pakistan, Italy, Brazil, Canada, Australia, Russia, and China. This research study focused on one unit in the curriculum, Brazil.

Students also learned about the country's flag and other symbols. As an opening, the teacher reviewed content about the previous country. This set up the exploration of each new country. Students maintained a global education folder that consisted of their work and provided evidence about what they learned about the country. Within the notebook, each country section had a title page that included the country flag, with lines underneath the image for the students to write and reflect about the country they were learning about.

The curriculum included non-fiction and fiction books which students used to learn about the chosen country. Students' work with these books helped them to develop a deeper connection and understanding of the country and helped to support their literacy development and creativity.

During the unit examined in this research, the teacher highlighted important information about the country and facilitated student learning about various facts and information from numerous sources. Each unit was framed by a compelling question, and each lesson had a supporting question. Students were able to answer the supporting questions by completing formative assessments, such as discussions and other tasks. Units also included summative assessments, such as writing a few sentences to indicate what the students had learned.

The curriculum included multimedia materials that supported visual learning and innovative technologies incorporated in the lessons. An active learning environment was supported by technology and enriched by creating a strong connection among the various countries studied. Technology enhancements included, one activity where the teacher provided a live online camera shot of a city in the focus country, as well as other educational videos that enriched students' learning. The teacher also incorporated robotics (Ozobot) that enabled a focus on the geography of the country. The use of technology was designed to help students to become more actively engaged and helped them build curiosity to learn more about the world.

2.3 Data Collected

Data were collected from three sources; interviews, observations of classroom implementation, and the curriculum. A semi-structured interview was conducted at the beginning of the unit that focused on the implementation of the curriculum. A second and third interview covered the details of the implementation of the unit, as well as, expectations and focused reflections. The interviews followed a protocol and contained targeted interview questions (Appendix available upon request for the interview protocol). The first interview occurred before the unit was taught. The second interview occurred mid-way through the lessons. The third interview occurred at the end of the unit. Field notes were collected during each classroom observation (Appendix available upon request for observational protocol). Finally, the curriculum functioned as a third source of data for the analysis (Appendix available upon request).

2.4 Analysis of Data

Data for this research was derived from interviews, observations, and the curriculum. For the three interviews, a digital recorder was used. The interviews were transcribed, and the information organized according to the research questions and sub-questions. The data

were analyzed using a grounded theory approach, which provided a way to develop explanations supported by evidence. Grounded theory methodology “enables persons to take actions to alter, contain, and change situations. Furthermore, grounded theories can be revised and updated as new knowledge is acquired” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Copies of all the notes and transcriptions were coded as primary data. After organizing all of the transcripts by data type and completing preliminary coding, the data were reorganized according to categories. As categories began to emerge, the smaller pieces of data were matched to the categories, and as new data came in, the categories were altered accordingly. After organizing and analyzing the data, more formal codes were generated. As the findings became more concrete, themes in the data were color-coded making it easier to incorporate new data as it was collected.

Interview data, field notes, and students’ responses to the teacher’s active instruction were documented. There was a strong connection between the field notes and interviews. Codes emerged that supported the teacher’s pedagogy and students’ experiences in the classroom. As the data were organized and coded, interpretative findings emerged. They were validated and organized as more formal findings. The findings were triangulated between interview transcriptions, field notes, and curriculum data. This approach allowed a thorough examination of the data to ensure the conclusions were valid and trustworthy.

3. FINDINGS

This study explored the approaches used by a global education teacher to implement a technology-infused, inquiry-based global education curriculum about the country of Brazil in a 1st grade classroom. A single case of one global education teacher was selected with thirty 1st grade students. Interviews and observations occurred throughout the teaching unit involving the country Brazil.

Specifically, this study focused on inquiry-based learning and technology integration in a global education unit study about Brazil and analysis of Ms. Bailey’s implementation of the inquiry showed three findings that emerged:

1. Ms. Bailey did not fully implement all of the elements in the unit, but after partial implementing she was considering using inquiry in the future.
2. Ms. Bailey was not clear or comfortable about when to ask questions. In some lessons, she did not use the inquiry questions from the unit. She believed the questions were too rigid and above the students’ level.
3. Ms. Bailey believed students exceeded expectations and that they responded well to the inquiry. She was happy to see that students who typically didn’t participate started to respond eagerly and enthusiastically.

3.1 Implementation of a 1st-Grade Global Education Curriculum

Ms. Bailey was a novice teacher with two years of experience teaching global education at this school. She was one of the founding members of the school, a member of the PTA, and an active member of a conservation group. She has a strong passion for teaching and attended a World View Global Education Leaders Program to seek more knowledge about teaching global education. Ms. Bailey mentioned that she had not done anything like inquiry with her 1st grade students and said, “that will be a new thing to try.” When asked about the inquiry curriculum she was teaching, she said,

“We use a lot of books, we always use maps...They learn the continents, we look at big features that stand out, we look at landmarks...We’re looking at doing books, working on paper, we also watch videos...learning a few phrases from the languages spoken in the country...They love to draw...I like to be able to make it a little bit more three-dimensional in some way because we can’t go there, so I try to make it as multi-dimensional as I can.”

Technology was also a major feature of the lessons that included multimedia resources and robotics embedded in the unit. When asked about technology, Ms. Bailey’s initial response was,

“I’m not into technology...I like to do things that I think go together...we watch a video, that’s not technology at all, but that is the extent of what we do because I try to keep it simple. I try to keep it relevant and I have 30 children in a room, so it’s not like we can sit down and do technology ... that doesn’t work with this large group...I’m not a technology person, I’m never going to be a technology person ...we’re old school... like books, so like hands-on things and that’s what I feel is going to be more memorable for them as well in the end.”

However, Ms. Bailey hoped that students would eventually connect with the technology. There was some concern about students being distracted once they engaged with technologies, such as the robot. She mentioned that she feared “that they’ll see a robot and what they’re actually doing will kind of go out the window.” She was concerned that “they’ll be wanting to play with this robot and see it work, and that they won’t be thinking about where this animal lives.

Ms. Bailey had 30 students in her 1st grade class. When asked to compare different classes and teaching methods she has used in her classroom she responded that her students were “all eager and happy to be here.” The 1st grade class that was observed for this research was scheduled right after recess, which Ms. Bailey thought “might help a little bit more too, they’ve run and played.” The classroom was arranged in an open format with table-based work stations and a comfortable setting student to complete their assignments (Figure 1).

Teaching global education was new to Ms. Bailey. She was hired in the summer of 2017 after submitting a proposal to her administrators in the school about a potential elective class. She envisioned a course that cultivated students’ understanding of the universal values of inclusion, cooperation, equality, and tolerance, as well as environmental science, cultural studies, financial literacy, endangered species, and global demographics and geography. She recognized that the course would be a work in progress and that “in practice, I keep learning, and I’m having things added in all the time.” She relied on her personal teaching style and implied that she doesn’t follow a specific curriculum, and that “it’s my own curriculum.” Ms. Bailey emphasized that in planning the overall curriculum she “tried to choose one country per continent, a country that the students would be interested in.”

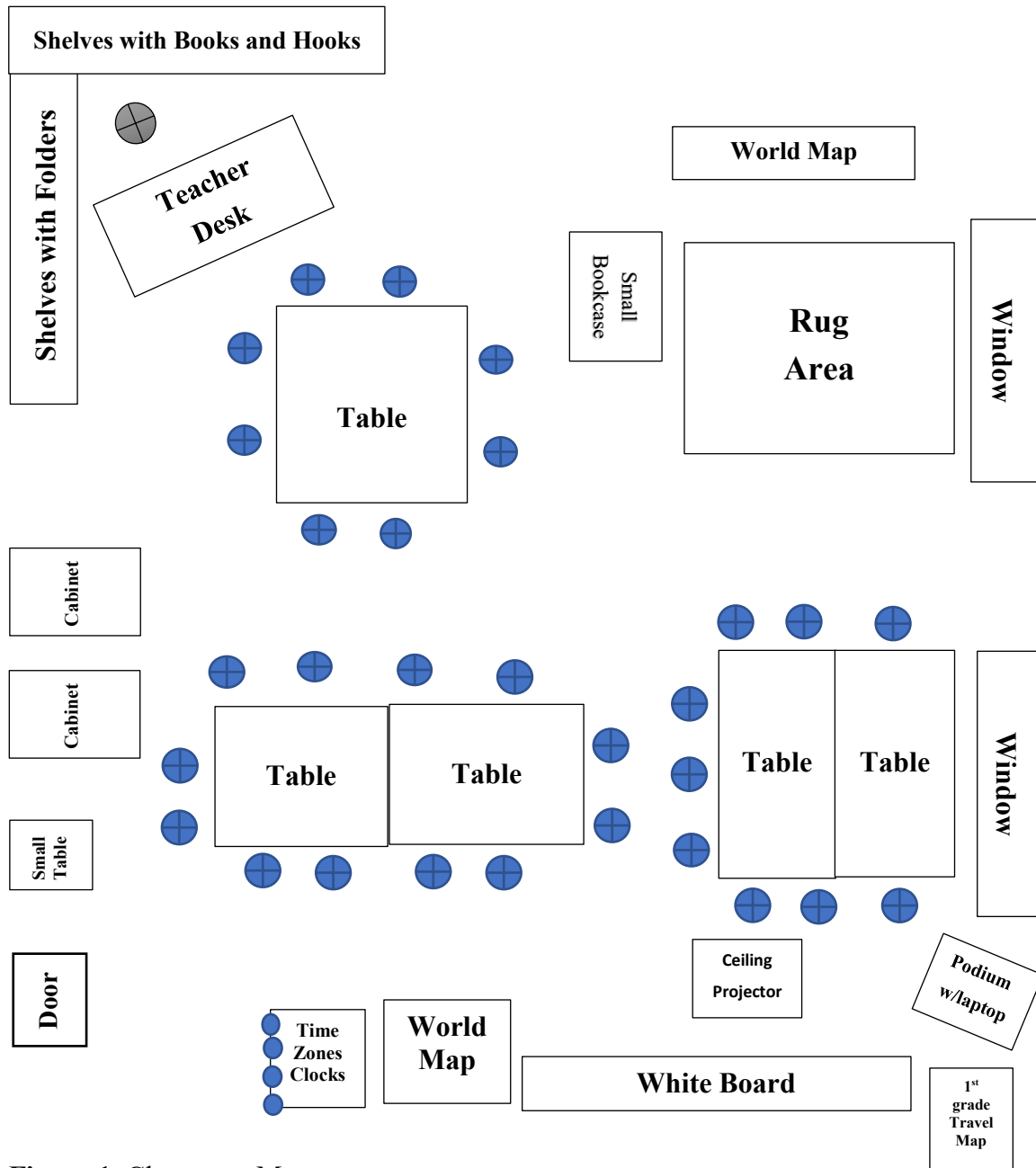


Figure 1. Classroom Map

Ms. Bailey was familiar with the structure of the Inquiry Design Model (IDM) after I introduced her to some of the online IDM materials and connected her with another teacher who uses IDM. Teaching through inquiry required that students remain engaged in their learning, thus allowing the teacher to provide a student-centered lesson. Inquiry provides the opportunity for students to share their thoughts in a safe space, connect content with personal experiences, and explore new ideas and deepen their knowledge. The inquiry-based learning method helped Ms. Bailey understand her students better and focus students’ learning on outcomes. When Ms. Bailey was asked about her thoughts regarding the inquiry based structure of the unit, she said, “I haven’t done anything like that so I’ll

have to see how it goes...that will be a new thing to try.” When she referred to the Inquiry Design Model and the inquiries that I shared with her, she said, “I haven’t done that inquiry method like the ones we’ve seen online. I need to try one, but with so many classes, it’s hard.” When asked if she would be using inquiry in the future, her response was, “my problem is finding time to like really plan it and do it.” One of the biggest challenges for Ms. Bailey was in using questions.

3.2 The importance of questions when teaching inquiry. As Ms. Bailey taught using inquiry, she confessed to simply stating the questions written in the lesson plans and then teaching the “lesson how I always did.” She was anxious about following what she viewed as a more structured curriculum with IDM. She said, “I feel more anxious, so I liked my pace where I know I’m going to do this story...watch this video...going to draw this picture.” In addition, Ms. Bailey said, with regard to inquiry, “it makes me more anxious to do things a certain way,” particularly having the questions written in a specified format. However, she also said it “would’ve been better to ask questions before we started,” when the students were ready to answer the questions. She also said that she was happy about the use of questions. While at the beginning, students “were not all ready” to answer the compelling question, it was “something good for me to do moving forward.” Overall, Ms. Bailey thought that it was good to have a compelling question that “we don’t have a concrete answer to...just open-ended.” She felt like such a question would allow students to develop their global understanding of the country chosen for the unit.

Ms. Bailey was more concerned about following the steps described in the lesson plan than focusing on the compelling and supporting questions. She said, “we didn’t use that question today. I see it there now, but I was just looking at my one, two, three, four” steps. At times, Ms. Bailey was not quite sure how to use the compelling and supporting questions. She confessed at one point,

“Is that when I ask it, or do I ask it every time? I didn’t obviously today, and I haven’t, because I didn’t even see it up here to be honest, because I’m looking at this and this and I’m stressing about what I have to do.”

There was a sense of hesitation and midway through the unit she stated that while she was not initially comfortable teaching inquiry, she would consider using it at a simpler level for her students in the future.

Despite Ms. Bailey’s hesitations, students responded to inquiry positively. About halfway through the unit, Ms. Bailey realized that students had “responded fine. They just answered the question.” As evidenced in classroom observations, students were eager to answer questions. Lots of students wanted to participate, often calling out with answers. As evidenced in classroom observations, students were eager to answer questions as well.

3.3 Student learning and questions during the inquiry. Ms. Bailey emphasized that for the inquiry-based lessons, the “questions were more rigid” than the approaches she had used in the past. At the end of the unit, when asked for her thoughts on teaching the unit for this inquiry, she said,

“I think it went well. I think maybe the [compelling] question might not have been the right question, How do we impact Brazil? I think that went way above of them, I could have thought of maybe a different question. I don’t know that they really made a connection with that so much, a little bit. Maybe a few kids did.”

Ms. Bailey assumed her students’ knowledge aligned with the learning outcome, and, as a result, the 1st grade students had done well. However, she added that she did not talk very

much about deforestation, and that “we talked about it probably three times.” Given that understanding deforestation was an important learning outcome, Ms. Bailey realized there was room for improvement.

When asked about modifying inquiry to help her students better understand the learning outcomes, she emphasized that “having questions ready at the end,” after reading the books was necessary instead of having the questions “come to me at the time.” Ms. Bailey realized that if she had read the books more closely and been better prepared ahead of time, inquiry-based learning would be more effective.

When asked about teaching another inquiry lesson, Ms. Bailey said, “I think I will think of questions to add into my lessons moving forward with 1st grade.” She noticed that students did respond well to inquiry, especially for one student who “never raised his hand for anything. I had him for two years, and he was really eager to participate, which is happy to see. I’ve never seen him raise his hands.”

Despite having no prior experience teaching global education through inquiry, Ms. Bailey accepted the idea after trying it with her students. She expressed excitement about students’ positive experiences with inquiry-based learning. Ms. Bailey also needed some time to adjust to this new teaching method and emphasized “I think I’ll add questions for sure like that, I’m thinking when I’m starting my unit.”

3.4A reluctance to use technology. The inquiry materials featured in this research were designed to take advantage of technology to enhance student learning. In practice, Ms. Bailey described her uses of technology as limited. She said that students “watch a video, [but] that’s not technology at all, but that is the extent of what we do because I try to keep it simple.” She emphasized that “the kids love to watch a live feed of the location that we’re learning about at that current time.” Ms. Bailey implied that she is an “old-school person.” She did not see the need for students to have access to computers when they were in her classroom. Ms. Bailey indicated that students “don’t get access to books as much as they need to,” therefore, she was reluctant with technology integration into the lesson because she found that books were a stronger foundation for the curriculum. She viewed technology, as “more than something that has a mind of its own that I’m scared of.” As a result, Ms. Bailey concluded technology was a tool “that wouldn’t be the thing that I’d ever embrace.”

The class size (30 students) also made her anxious, and doing things out of the ordinary was a challenge for her because she was hesitant about the unexpected. While the technology implemented was relatively simple, Ms. Bailey worried. “I have 30 children in a room, so it’s not like we can sit down and do technology.” Specifically, she was concerned about students using Chromebooks in the classroom, as it would be difficult for 30 students to bring in their computers into the classroom.

Ms. Bailey typically structured her units around books, videos, and drawings/writing, so the technology in this unit was new for her. In keeping with her reliance on using technology to deliver content, the second lesson in the unit included a Prezi Presentation, which presented different animals and sounds in the rainforest. Prior to the Prezi presentation, Ms. Bailey read a book aloud and the students answered questions related to the animals and the layers of the rainforest. Ms. Bailey then reviewed the layers of the rainforest. Afterwards, she scrolled through the animals in the Prezi presentation and asked “Which layer does the animal live in?” and other questions, such as “Why does it [a poison

dart frog] have bright colors?” Students also made observations during the presentation about the thickness of the tree branches and about the animals living in the water.

The next lesson, which featured robots, was more interactive. Students seemed to enjoy this lesson, and Ms. Bailey was more at ease and seemed rather confident. Ms. Bailey was initially “nervous about the technology part” and “didn’t feel like that fit in,” however, “it went well and they did fine with it...they got the overall message.” In contrast to the Chromebooks, she viewed students’ use of robots as enabling them to gain a better understanding of where the animals live. They “got the idea of moving between layers.” The robots lesson also had accompanying print resources, including 16 maps that were colored and labeled as the layers of the rainforest. Ms. Bailey was grateful for these print materials and mentioned, “that was a lot of work for you to make these...That wouldn’t be easy to do.” As it did take time to do each map, she stated, “that’s something I wouldn’t have had time to do.”

There was some thought to using these print materials online, but with the limited resources and Ms. Bailey’s reluctance, we decided to make the posters (see Figure 2).

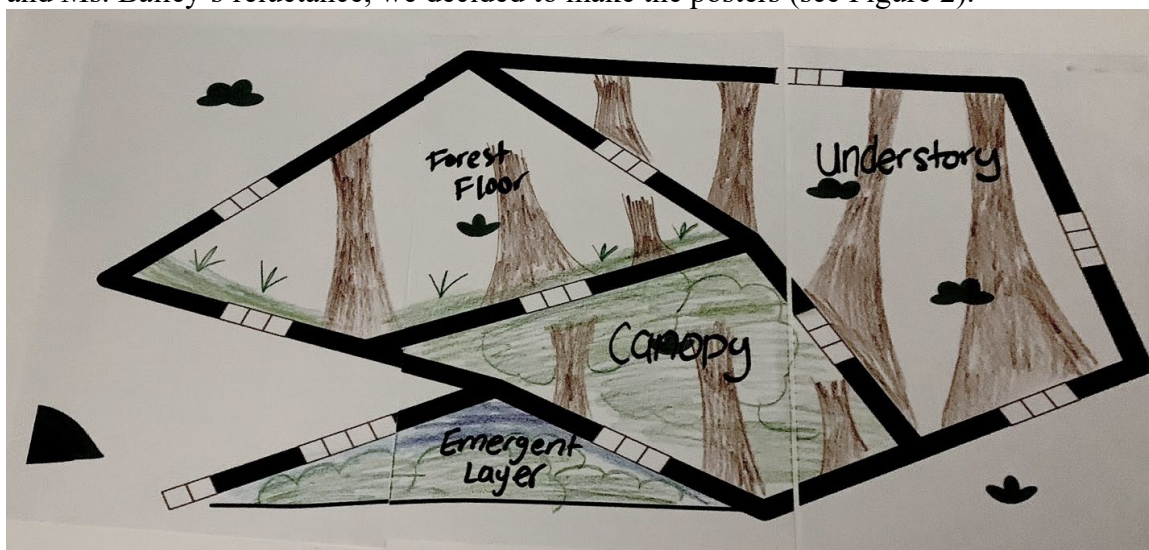


Figure 2. Coding Map Poster for Ozobot Lesson

The poster maps were presented to the students, and the teacher asked, “Does it look familiar?” One student stood up and matched the words on the poster map to the layers of the rainforest poster that was displayed next to Ms. Bailey. She also showed the students the code sheet, and asked them, “Does a jaguar go fast or slow?” The students responded, “Fast!” to which she responded, “But it does also go slow, especially when it hunts or when it’s sneaking around. Ok, so codes, red, black, red. It’ll slow down until it goes to the next code.” One student asked if the robots reads the words, and Ms. Bailey answered that it only reads the color codes, “So it’ll follow the code you color in!”

Ms. Bailey informed the students, “Yesterday, a monkey kept climbing up the tree!” to spark their imagination and the idea that the robots were functioning as the animal. She also made sure the students knew where each animal lived and told them that the robots can do tricks. All of the robots were calibrated before the lesson started, and it took about five minutes to divide the students into groups and spread out across the room.

There were also five 7th grade students in the room as teacher-helpers. One was a floater and made sure everyone was on task and the lessons were going right on time; the other

four had, on average, seven 1st graders in his/her group. Interactions between the students occurred, and in one group, the 7th grade student asked a 1st grade student to color in a code, and the student said, “But if it’s not good handwriting, the robot may not read it.”

Ms. Bailey sat with one group herself and began to look at the code sheet. She divided the codes among the students and said, “Let’s test it, we have 15 minutes!” When the robot started going over the code, she said, “It’s working! It’s doing a tornado!” One student in her group said, “I’m good at coloring!” The student colored in the code, and as the robot was moving on the map, he said to the robot, “Do you want to be eaten by a bird? Go, go!” The students were very enthusiastic. One student started giggling and said, “That was a dance!” Ms. Bailey laughed and said, “That was a turbo, that was the best one!” She gave a turn to another student to color in the code, and the student said, “Look, look how fast it went!”

One of the 7th grade helpers informed Ms. Bailey that they had only four minutes left. The students continued to color in the codes, and one said, “That was a funny dance, let him do it again.” In Ms. Bailey’s group, all of the students were engaged except one student who was sitting next to her. He was talking to himself and daydreaming. He came close to Ms. Bailey and informed her that he was not having fun. When their time was complete and the lesson was wrapping up, the students thanked the 7th grade students and lined up. The interactive part of the lesson that included robot’s integration took thirteen minutes.

Ms. Bailey commented “that robots work sometimes and sometimes they don’t...they have a mind of their own.” When asked about other ways the students could have gained the same understanding, without the use of technology, Ms. Bailey suggested other ways in which students “could have played a board game,” similar to the coding map posters.

The fourth lesson used video as technology (run time 2 min 48 sec) about deforestation from the National Geographic channel. Once the video finished, Ms. Bailey said, “Let’s talk about the video, we have four minutes left. What are the reasons for deforestation?” Students answered with words like, “Farming” and “Building houses.”

Ms. Bailey also added a few more reasons to the board, such as logging and mining.

In Lesson 5, the final lesson, she showed the students a rainforest song video while they were working on their global education folders and drawing their favorite animal in the rainforest. Overall, Ms. Bailey was “afraid of technology. The thing that probably scares me the most about teaching.”

3.5 Inquiry Design in the Classroom

The Brazil unit had one compelling question: “How do we impact Brazil?” and there were five supporting questions.

- (a) What is Brazil?
- (b) Why are the rainforests important?
- (c) How can technology impact the rainforest?
- (d) Is the relationship between humans and the rainforest good or bad?
- (e) How can we help Brazil?

3.6 Compelling question. It was challenging for Ms. Bailey to simplify the compelling question for the students. The role of the compelling question was to encourage students to think about the ways we impact Brazil and distinguish the commonalities and differences between the U.S. and Brazil based on the information presented throughout the lessons. The supporting questions addressed various aspects of the compelling question. When completing the formative tasks, students gathered basic information about Brazil and

identified and expressed their ideas about the rainforest, deforestation, and how changes in the rainforest affect animals. They categorized the layers of the rainforest and expressed how our relationships with animals affected their lives. The students then formulated and organized their ideas about how to best conserve the rainforest.

The compelling question challenged Ms. Bailey as she presented it to the students. She was focused on the order of tasks in each lesson, but could not connect with the question. “I don’t love that [compelling] question. I don’t see it myself, but I’ll ask it,” since students “might surprise me” when asked a compelling question.

3.7 Supporting questions. Supporting questions aligned with the compelling question and allowed students to connect the unit to their personal experiences. The first supporting question was, “What is Brazil?” The other support questions focused on the importance of the rainforests, technology and the rainforest, the relationship between humans and the rainforest good or bad, and how we help can Brazil and the rainforest. Ms. Bailey connected more closely with the supporting questions than the compelling question, although she was not explicit in sharing these questions with students. She asked the students other questions that related to the students’ personal lives and experiences for each of the supporting questions and supporting students as they move through the related tasks.

3.8 Students learning through compelling, supporting, and emerging questioning. In addition to the compelling and supporting questions that were part of the unit design, Ms. Bailey used emerging questions to guide students’ learning. The first emerging question that Ms. Bailey asked was, “What can we do to change our city?” Many students raised their hands and responded,

“No throwing trash on the ground”

“Don’t go fishing because there will be no more fish.”

“It’ll hurt the ocean.”

She rephrased the question, “How can we help the environment in our city?” Students mentioned,

“Use the 3 R’s [reduce, reuse, recycle] and help the environment.”

“Stop cutting down trees.

“Make compost for our gardens”

“Plant flowers.”

She then asked the students, “What do we have in common between us and Brazil?” Many students replied with various answers, including

“We’re all people.”

“We’re all mammals.”

“We both play soccer.”

Ms. Bailey informed the students that throughout this unit, they would think about the compelling question, “How do we impact Brazil?” Ms. Bailey was not as explicit with the first supporting question, however by the end of this lesson, if asked the supporting question, students would have been able to answer, “What is Brazil?”

The second lesson emphasized the Amazon rainforest in Brazil, as well as the layers of the rainforest, and which animals live in these layers. The supporting question in this lesson was, “Why are rainforests important?” Ms. Bailey started Lesson 2 with emerging questions such as,

“Why is it called Brazil?”

“Are there no seasons in the rainforest?”

“Do you think a jaguar can climb to the understory?”

“Which is the darkest spot? The brightest? The thickest?”

This lesson was heavily focused on facts, animals, and understanding the layers of the rainforest. Again, Ms. Bailey was not explicit with the supporting question, but it was reiterated in the third lesson, during which it was mentioned and asked before the students' robotics group work.

The third lesson focused on the animals in the rainforest and the students depicted the Ozobot robot as an animal and color-coded the poster map for the animal to move between the layers of the rainforest. The supporting question in this lesson was, “How can technology impact the rainforest?”

Ms. Bailey acknowledged that she was not sharing the supporting questions with students that point because, she “didn't know where to put that” question, as it “would've been better to have asked it before we started.” Nevertheless, she continued, by lesson three “they were ready for that question...which I was happy about...they weren't ready for this question when we started.” Students responded to this third supporting question, “Why are rainforests important?” with answers such as,

“Lots of animals live there”

“Oxygen comes from the rainforest”

“Lots of interesting plants.”

The fourth lesson was focused on the animals in the rainforest and connected deforestation and our relationship with the rainforest. The supporting question was, “Is the relationship between humans and animals good or bad?” Ms. Bailey read a classic book, “The Kapok Tree,” which focused on deforestation. Throughout the readings she paused and asked more emerging questions such as, “What happens if we cut down trees?” Students responded,

“We won't have any oxygen, and we can't breathe”

“Animals lose their homes”

“Animals lose their family.”

Ms. Bailey explained that some animals could become extinct. During the reading she asked, “Why do people cut down the trees from the rainforest?” and students responded by saying,

“To build stuff.”

“To get wood for fires.”

“To get wood for furniture.”

“Trees give us oxygen!”

Ms. Bailey explained cattle-ranching and mud slides to them which led her to ask, “How can we get people to stop cutting trees?” Students responded,

“You can chop a tree, leave its roots, and it will grow back.”

“Build a gate around it and write to not chop it down”

Students were also asked, “How can we get people to stop cutting trees?” They responded by saying,

“Tell them that not only animals are in danger, but you are too.”

The supporting question for the fourth lesson was shared but not emphasized. It asked, “Is the relationship between humans and the rainforest good or bad?” One student responded,

“We could hurt the animals.”

Another student related his family's experience with cutting down trees and how he saw a tree from the inside. At this time, the teacher said, very quickly and in a lower tone voice, "I only have a few minutes and I'm wondering if I'm going to be able to do everything I need to do."

Ms. Bailey asked another emerging question, after showing a brief video about the rainforest, "What happens if we cut it all down?" The students listed the disadvantages of cutting down trees and talked about how it takes a long time for the trees to grow back.

To conclude the unit, the fifth lesson contained a set of tasks that related to the compelling and supporting questions. In this lesson, students had to think of ways we can help Brazil. When Ms. Bailey asked another emerging question, "How can we stop cutting down trees in the rainforest?" They answered,

"We can try to cut down one tree and not all the ones that have species in them."

"We can call the tree police and they can come."

"Animals need their food and if we cut down trees, you'd feel bad for the animals."

"Maybe if we teach others about trees, they won't cut them."

"We don't think that trees give us oxygen."

When they thought about how animals were affected by deforestation, students mentioned that,

"When a family lives there, and rain falls, it can hurt the animals."

When the students speculated on the reasons the Amazon rainforest is being destroyed, they answered,

"What if those animals destroy your home since we destroyed their home? We should treat them like you want to be treated."

"If someone cuts down our tree, they may cut down theirs."

When asked about what they can do as 1st grade students to help the rainforest, they said,

"We can make posters that say don't cut down trees."

"We can cut a little part of a tree, and have it grow back."

Ms. Bailey asked the compelling question in Lesson 5: "How do we impact Brazil?" Students responded,

"We can leave [trees] the way they are."

"We can plant more trees, when they fully grow, animals can live there."

Supporting questions were designed to scaffold students thinking. In practice they were less important than the emerging questioning that Ms. Bailey had used to engage students' discussions that were based on their experiences and knowledge. Students expressed themselves in response to these emerging questions and provided their opinions on a range of issues. When students were provided with the opportunity to expand their thoughts, they engaged in thoughtful discussions and were willing to participate because their voices were being heard.

3.9 Factors Affecting the Implementation of the Unit

The lessons in this unit developed over time, but were adjusted as the unit was being implemented. Several factors played a role in those implementation adjustments. These included the unit design, the nature of the sources, finding the time to use inquiry, and the teacher's emotional state of mind.

3.10 The unit design. The five inquiry lessons in the unit were organized and structured to enhance Ms. Bailey's overall goals for her class. Each lesson had a title, list of materials, compelling and supporting questions, and a numerical order indicating the flow of the

lesson. At the end of each lesson students were supposed to write their answers to supporting questions on an exit slip. However, after the first lesson Ms. Bailey indicated that the exit slips idea did not work well with the students, and, as a result, were removed. Ms. Bailey thought her students were overwhelmed with the amount of writing they had to do. The purpose of the exit slip was to help students answer the supporting question and ease the transition to the next lesson, but it just did not work out. Due to time constraints, students did not reflect or discuss work at the end of most of the lesson tasks.

The format of each lesson was different. In the first two lessons, Ms. Bailey was the focus. The third lesson focused on the robot. In lesson four, students brainstorm solutions to help end deforestation, and ended up working as a whole group. Minor adjustments were made in lesson given, but they did not directly affect students' actions.

3.11 Sources. The materials for each lesson were described in the unit, and Ms. Bailey carefully prepared them for use in the classroom every week before the lesson began. The books were all checked out from the local library ahead of time. The handouts were printed and placed in their folders before the unit began. The layers of the rainforest poster was displayed prominently for students to use with every lesson. In addition, there were sixteen other maps and a set of markers and coding sheets for each group to use. Four Ozobot robots were also used as sources. In addition, all of the multimedia materials that Ms. Bailey used were pulled up ahead of time on the laptop to project on the whiteboard. Even with all of this preparation, Ms. Bailey made lots of adjustments when implementing the unit and using the sources.

3.12 Finding the time to use inquiry. When Ms. Bailey was first introduced to the inquiry unit, she was eager and interested to learn more about it. However, it was not a straightforward process for Ms. Bailey to understand the unit design. While the goal in designing the unit was to make it simple and easy for the teacher to follow, Ms. Bailey was concerned with “these steps, steps, steps, when you have to stop and look.” With regard to the overall curriculum, she was concerned that it was “just far more scripted than usual.” Nonetheless, she stated that she was going to adapt the unit to work given her approach to managing the instructional time.

Ms. Bailey's biggest issue was “finding time to really plan it and do it.” She reflected about the ways she could have modified inquiry and adjust for time by reading the some of the sources (i.e. books) aloud “then having questions ready at the end, instead of having the questions come to me at the time.”

3.13 Emotional state of mind. Ms. Bailey developed her own way to cope with challenges she faced in her teaching. She persisted with the same format she had used in previous lessons, but was willing to make more changes for this unit than other units in the curriculum. In the initial interview, she stated that it had been a very long day for her, and by the third class, she felt “more anxious.” Ms. Bailey liked to follow her own teaching pace, “where I just know I'm going to do this story this time, we're going to watch this video, we're going to draw this picture or color.” In contrast, the inquiry felt more scripted for her. In addition, when she knew she had to do something differently, she felt like it made her more anxious “to do things a certain way.” Ms. Bailey expressed concern that was “more technology” and the questions were “more rigid” in the inquiry unit that she was used to in her lessons. As a result, she worried that the inquiry teaching was “a little more...I don't want to say it...stressful,” because she knew that “someone is going to watch me and I have to follow this plan.”

The design of the inquiry also created some stress. Ms. Bailey confessed that she was “not initially comfortable” with the compelling and supporting questions, although students did respond positively, which surprised her. Her biggest concern was about the inferences that students might make from the questions about how we impact Brazil. “I don’t want them to stereotype. I’m always nervous about looking at different cultures, like looking at people specifically. I’m always nervous of that.”

Technology was also an area of concern and stress for Ms. Bailey. She confessed that she “was nervous about the technology part and I didn’t feel like that fit.” But as a result, the students did “well and they did fine with it, and I think they got the overall message that we wanted them to get in the end.”

4. Student Engagement

4.1 Teacher-led pedagogy. Overall, Ms. Bailey controlled the instructional pace of the inquiry lessons using a teacher-led pedagogy for most of the instructional time. In the first lesson in the inquiry unit, Ms. Bailey used a teacher-led approach, which took 36 minutes of class time, and students had seven minutes to complete a task (i.e. flag coloring sheet). In the second lesson, there was 25 minutes of teacher-led instruction, and the students again, had seven minutes to complete a rainforest diagram. Lesson three included 19 minutes of teacher-centered instruction and 13 minutes for students to complete the robots activity. The fourth lesson included 28 minutes of teacher-focused instruction, then a video and a brief discussion about the reasons for deforestation. The last lesson was 24 minutes to the teacher-led instruction and then students watched a video and drew their favorite animal in the rainforest, which took a total of six minutes.

At the start of each lesson, students reviewed the countries and continents they visited throughout the year. As they had only covered four countries and continents, this only took one minute at the beginning of class. Ms. Bailey showed them where they had “traveled” on the map of the world on the bulletin board. At the bottom of the map, there was space for the flags of the countries they visited. Ms. Bailey pointed to each flag and engaged in a call and response form of questioning. She asked, “Country?” With a unified answer, the students said, “Chad.” Then she asked, “Continent?” and with a unified answer, the students said, “Africa.” The other countries and continents covered in class were Pakistan-Asia, Italy-Europe, Canada- North America, and Brazil-South America. After this part of the lesson, Ms. Bailey pulled out the rainforest poster (Figure 3) and students named all of the layers. This manner of engagement with students during the lessons was consistent all throughout the unit.

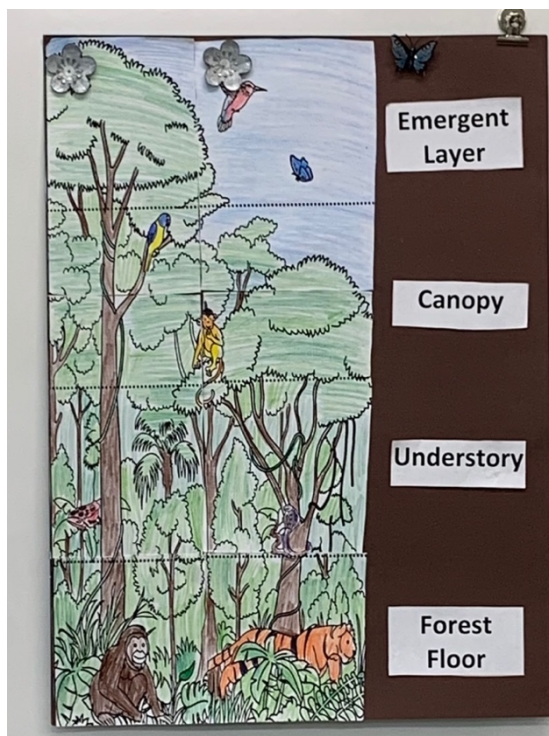


Figure 3. Layers of the Rainforest Poster

The approach preferred by Ms. Bailey was teacher-centered and the students relied on her to structure their interaction with sources and other materials. She presented the map, read the book, asked questions, and shared the video. Toward the end of class, students had a few minutes to color, draw, or record information they had engaged with in their global education folders. Early on in the unit, the other approaches suggested in the inquiry design (e.g. exit slips, discussion, small grouping) were not implemented. Ms. Bailey explained that exit slips and small group work were not effective in her 1st grade classroom because she found group work to be difficult because there were too many students. However, after the robotics lesson, Ms. Bailey came to believe that group work was possible. Nonetheless, Ms. Bailey continued throughout the unit to use a didactic approach that featured factual questions asked as they came to her mind during the lesson (Table 2).

Table 2 – Didactic fact-based questions used in the unit

What do cattle eat?
Is soccer popular in our country?
Brazil is the 5 th largest country, what is the 1 st ?
Which language do they speak in Brazil?
Why is it called the rainforest?
Do you think a jaguar can climb to the understory?
Which is the darkest spot in the rainforest? The brightest? The thickest?
Which layer does a bull shark live in?
Which layer does a monkey live in?
Where do we want the sloth to end up?
Who can eat a falcon?

Ms. Bailey had 7th grade students assist in the lesson that feature robots. She wanted to be more of a facilitator in this lesson, but she did take over one group when a 7th grade student helper had to leave early. However, in this lesson with the other 1st grade sections, Ms. Bailey was more of an observer and facilitator to students. She realized that students “definitely liked it,” but, she also noted that at least one student, “wasn’t interested and just sat with his arms crossed. So, I said, why don’t you get a book, and he was happy with that.” Ms. Bailey offered the following explanation for the students lack of interest in the robots.

That would be me probably as a kid. I kind of saw myself in him and I reflected, ‘I wonder why I didn’t say, okay come on, let’s get back in the group.’ You know, I didn’t even redirect him back. And then [another student] over here today was saying ‘that wasn’t fun for me.’ I didn’t do anything or redirect him either. If I could have floated around the room, I may have had him read a book too, but I couldn’t because we had that departure.

4.2 Student-centered pedagogy. During the times when the inquiry shifted to student-centered work, their efforts were almost always guided by emergent teacher questions. The teacher asked questions that required critical-thinking skills, and students responded willingly. Aside from the compelling and supporting questions, Ms. Bailey used other emerging questions that emerged during implementation of the unit such as, “What can we do to change the environment in our city?” Students responded,

“No throwing trash on the ground.”

“Don’t go fish, because if there are no more fish, it’ll hurt the ocean.”

Another question Ms. Bailey asked was, “How can we help the environment in our city?” Students responded:

“I know how trash comes to the ocean! Hurricanes!”

“When people have trash, throw it in the recycle...use the 3 R’s, and help the environment.”

“Stop cutting down trees!”

“Make compost for our gardens and plant flowers.”

Students communicated their responses about deforestation and concluded that,

“We won’t have any oxygen, we can’t breathe.”

“Animals lose their homes.”

“Animals lose their family.”

Students thought about the reasons why deforestation occurred and mentioned that people cut trees down “to build stuff,” as well as “make furniture,” and “get wood for fires.”

Ms. Bailey asked, “How can we get people to stop cutting trees?” The students’ responded,

“Tell them that not only animals are in danger, but you too.”

“You won’t have any oxygen.”

“You chop a tree, leave a root, it will grow back.”

“Build a gate around it and write to not chop down the tree.”

Students thought of ways to stop cutting down the trees, and said,

“We can try to cut down one tree and not all the ones that have species in it.”

“Not only animals, but we can also get hurt.”

“Cops would come.”

“Animals need their food, and if we cut down food, you’d feel bad for the animals.”

“Maybe a jaguar would eat ants.”

“Maybe if we teach others about trees, they won’t cut them.”

Ms. Bailey extended the discussion and asked, “What can we do as 1st grade students to help the rainforest?” The students said,

“We can make posters that say don’t cut down trees.”

“Cut a little part of a tree and have it grow back.”

4.3 Adaptations to engage students. Later in the unit (lessons 4 and 5), students were divided into groups to brainstorm solutions to end deforestation and answer a set of questions. Ms. Bailey altered those sections and made it into a group discussion. She indicated it was better when students had large group discussions instead of small groups because students seemed to have “handled the inquiry parts well in a group setting.” Ms. Bailey added “when I did it with a small group, it wasn’t successful.” Ms. Bailey thought if she had more help in the classroom, it would be possible to divide the students into groups, as she declared, “if it wasn’t just me and I had more help, it maybe would have worked.” When Ms. Bailey had the 7th grade students help in lesson with the robots, she thought the student engagement was better. “It would be a better idea to have more supervised groups, like when we did the robot group work with the 7th graders.”

4.4 Engagement with technology. When students used the Ozobot robots, they were excited and eager to code and watched the robot move from section to section on the map. Their time with the robots captured their imaginations. Students expressed their excitement.

“Do you want to be eaten by a bird! Go, go!”

“He said I’m in the canopy, I don’t belong there!”

There was a lot of laughter among the children, and they all enjoyed the collaboration. Ms. Bailey mentioned the greatest takeaway from this excitement was “the habit of getting them to work together. I never do that because it’s so many of them.” She stated, “I love that my small kids get to work with big kids. I love seeing them get involved and that is one of the things I want to happen at our school.” This was a learning curve and she “learned that it wasn’t too many,” and “it wasn’t too noisy.” The elementary students benefited from interacting with older students, in which Ms. Bailey emphasized that those were “the bigger lessons than the technology itself.”

5. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore how a global education teacher implemented an inquiry-based, technology-infused curriculum in a 1st grade global education classroom. Three findings emerged from the analysis of data.

1. Ms. Bailey did not fully implement all of the elements in the unit, but after implementing she was considering using inquiry in the future.
2. Ms. Bailey was not clear or comfortable about when to ask questions. She sometimes did not use the inquiry questions from the unit in some lessons, and thought these inquiry questions were more rigid and above the students’ level.
3. Ms. Bailey believed students exceeded expectations and that they responded well to the inquiry. She was happy to see that students who typically didn’t participate started to respond eagerly and enthusiastically.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The findings of this research reveal the approaches that a global education teacher, Ms. Bailey, used an inquiry-based approach to teaching and learning that featured technology-integration. Ms. Bailey was in her second year of teaching global education and was mostly comfortable with the content. She also understood the inquiry methods being used in the

unit as suggested by the Inquiry Design Model (IDM) and wanted to implement the plan as designed, but faced obstacles when putting the plan into instructional action. Ms. Bailey's integration technology was more limited and less effective.

With regard to the inquiry design, the compelling question for the unit helped establish related supporting questions and content that was to be taught related to Brazil. However, Ms. Bailey's lack of knowledge about inquiry-based learning affected the way she implemented the curriculum. Ms. Bailey said that she understood the compelling and supporting questions, but changes were made to fit with Ms. Bailey's teaching style. Given that Ms. Bailey was implementing a curriculum designed by someone else (i.e. the researcher), it was important to establish her comfort-level with the content knowledge, resources, materials, and information presented to the students. Clandinin (1985) describes that when "teachers are expected to facilitate someone else's intention" it is vital to account for teachers' perspectives. Researchers need "to understand the teacher as an active holder and user of personal practical knowledge" (Clandinin, 1985, p.364). However, if teachers do not perceive that they are active and personally involved, "the limited success of curriculum implementation" may result (Clandinin, 1985, p.364). Ms. Bailey's limitations with implementing the inquiry lesson may have resulted from her feeling as if her teacher-directed perspective was not accounted for in the design process. In contrast, "when the more vital teacher view is adopted, the importance of understanding teacher's personal practical knowledge is heightened and we are led to more adequate ideas of school reform" (Clandinin, 1985, p.364).

While the initial implementation did not go as planned, subsequent lessons were adjusted to account for what Ms. Bailey was learning about inquiry implementation. Her increased agency as the person responsible for implementing the inquiry lessons also seemed to empower Ms. Bailey as a curriculum designer and was reflected in her actions to make changes to the instructional plans. Ms. Bailey used additional teacher-centered pedagogical strategies at times, but there was also a steady emphasis on student engagement during the inquiry. The inquiry exercises prompted the students to think independently and critically about content, and Ms. Bailey noticed that the students were regularly engaged in the tasks and eagerly participating in class. Students were willing to express themselves and formed a deep understanding of the content as they communicated their knowledge through discussion during the inquiry. Students' collaboration through inquiry also positively impacted their learning and their engagement in the learning process.

Technology integration presented another opportunity for Ms. Bailey to develop agency with the inquiry unit. She had limited knowledge of technology in general and the robots featured in the unit in particular. For the most part, Ms. Bailey limited her implementation of technology by either controlling the uses of technology through direct instruction or, when she arranged for the 7th grade students to facilitate, by enabling others with more knowledge and comfort using technology. However, Ms. Bailey noticed a lot of laughter and learning when students were engaged with technology resources. She found that students used their imagination throughout the time period and came to appreciate the uses of technology, particularly the robots.

5.2 Planning an Inquiry

Ms. Bailey was exposed to IDM in the year prior to this research, and she had seen the structure and flow of the lesson plans from the C3 Archives. She met with another teacher who was using IDM in his classroom and learned about how it can enhance student

experiences in social studies. She was also provided with a list of technologies, resources, and journal articles to learn more about inquiry. The inquiry curriculum materials planned and implemented in this research were focused on the needs of students, and her efforts to “determine what students need to know, what they actually know, and what activities might be needed to bolster their knowledge” (Lee, 2008, p.63). Ms. Bailey benefitted from learning the IDM process, but she was skeptic about the use of inquiry early on. Ultimately, she decided she was willing to use inquiry in her classroom.

Ms. Bailey believed that as a global education teacher she needed extra help because global education teachers, as she put it “don’t exist.” She wanted to share ideas and collaboration with like-minded colleagues developed successful courses. Ms. Bailey possessed in-depth content knowledge about what she was teaching, and was passionate about her field of study. She relied on various sources, such as the local library, and external support when designing the curriculum.

5.3 Implementing an Inquiry

When implementing the inquiry unit featured in this research, Ms. Bailey used the pedagogical strategies she was most comfortable with, while extending her teaching methods to reflect some of the new ideas in the inquiry plan, particularly those related to technology. She discovered that students were engaged through inquiry and did not simply repeat facts. Through the use of student-centered pedagogies, Ms. Bailey encouraged student engagement and listened to their responses.

During the inquiry, students collaborated in many of the exercises. These collaborations occurred mostly in large groups, with the exception of the robots’ lesson, which was implemented in small groups. Through group collaboration, students, with Ms. Bailey’s support, were able to help each other build a deeper understanding of the lesson objectives. During these collaborative exercises, Ms. Bailey used an oral question and answer approach to implementing the inquiry. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993) claim, “oral inquiries provide access to a variety of perspectives for problem posing and solving...they are the least visible of the types of teacher research that are currently occurring” (p.30). Ms. Bailey’s implementation of this technique enabled multiple perspectives to be heard as it enhanced student participation and impacted her students.

Students’ work on the supporting questions and answers derived from their understanding and created opportunities for students to engage with one another, aligning with a central aim of early elementary education in social studies. At the same time, Ms. Bailey encouraged students’ perceptions of their world, and one way she did so was through nurturing students’ abstract thinking. Ms. Bailey used a mix of fiction and non-fiction books. Through non-fiction books, Ms. Bailey asked questions to students to imagine if a similar incident would happen in real life and how they would react. She taught and expanded their imagination through the readings and questions in class, as well as students interaction with the robots.

5.4 Planning Technology

Initially, the amount of technology planned for the unit was minimal. When the curriculum was first developed, there were videos and a virtual field trip included. As the unit was finalized, additional innovative technology was added. The Ozobot robot was the most obvious of these technology additions. However, it was a challenge for Ms. Bailey to connect with the technology applications planned in the unit. In particular, she viewed the content focused on the lesson on climate and rainforest of Brazil as something was more

“natural.” For Ms. Bailey, technology and nature were opposites. This rainforest lesson revolved around a map-based visual representation of the animals and the layers of the rainforest (Figure 4). This lesson also included the Ozobot robots representing animals in the rainforest that students used to interact with the map as they navigated through this visual representation of the rainforest.

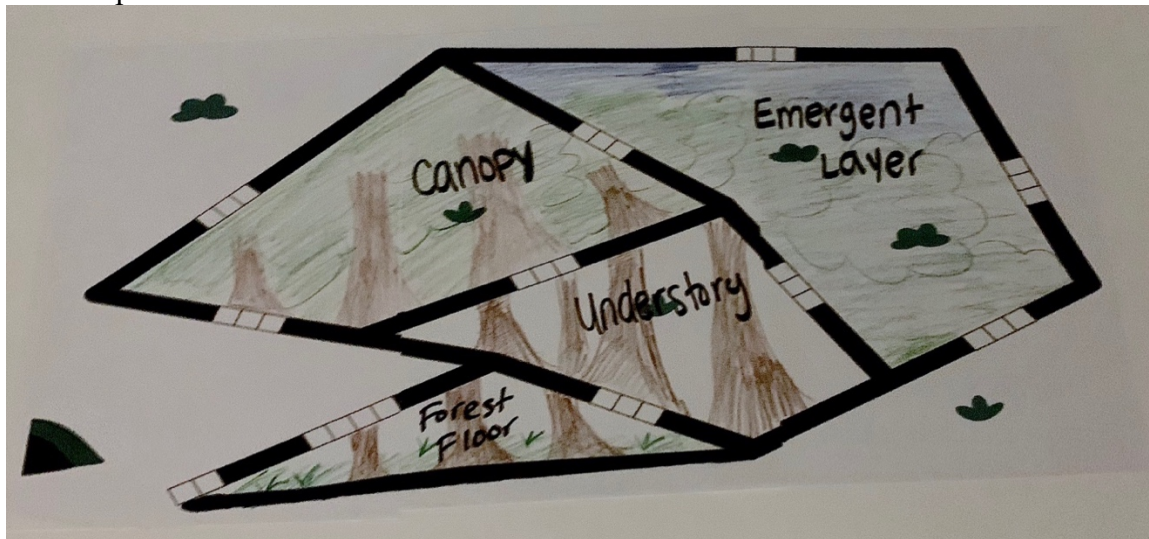


Figure 4. Coding Posters to use during the Ozobot lesson

5.5 Implementing Technology

When technology was integrated into the lessons, the use of it was more robust than Ms. Bailey expected. She identified herself as “not a technology person...not a big fan of technology.” Ms. Bailey was reluctant to use technology, however, in practice, she overcame her concerns about using technologies such as the robots and was engaged with the students when she led them through the task. Ms. Bailey perceived that students liked the robots lesson and it was not as distressing to her as she initially anticipated. At the same time, Ms. Bailey connected with the students who were not interested in participating in the robot’s lesson given that she had also been apprehensive. The implementation of this lesson also included older 7th grade students as facilitators; kids who knew more about the technologies and were more inclined to use them. The biggest takeaway for Ms. Bailey, was that the collaboration between the 7th graders and the 1st graders allowed them to listen to each other and learned to take turns.

5.6 Global Education Curriculum

This inquiry unit was developed, modified, and altered over a long period of time. From the initial brainstorming sessions to the final tangible lessons that were implemented in the class, the structure and format of the unit and lessons remained compatible with Ms. Bailey’s needs. When the development of the unit began, the idea was to make the lessons flexible so they could work with other grade levels in a global education classroom. Similar to Reimers (2017) notion of a dynamic global education curriculum, the idea was to not expect teachers to teach the lessons presented, “but that they treat this curriculum as a resource to help them design and evolve their own prototype” (Reimers, 2017, p.19). Although the Brazil unit was more scripted than had been originally designed, Ms. Bailey was still flexible in her implementation. She valued the support and collaboration with the researcher in designing the unit, and claimed to learn new teaching strategies. She also

expressed a new-found comfort in talking about the content and methods of the unit. Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) emphasize that “it is the combination of knowledge, skills, and dispositions about how to create curriculum and make curriculum decisions that enables teachers to be responsible practitioners and to learn from their own teachings.”

Ms. Bailey and the researcher created a personal connection with the curriculum. Clandinin (1985) notes that teachers who construct their own way of thinking through a “personal practical knowledge” method “develop and use a special kind of knowledge (p.362). This knowledge is neither theoretical, in the sense of theories of learning, teaching, and curriculum, nor merely practical, in the sense of knowing children” (Clandinin, 1985, p.361). Ms. Bailey’s special knowledge was “composed of both kinds of knowledge, blended by the personal background and characteristics” (Clandinin, 1985, p.361) that were expressed by her in specific situations.

5.7 Recommendation for Future Research

This case study examined how Ms. Bailey, a global education teacher in a charter school, implemented an inquiry-based, technology-infused curriculum in a 1st grade classroom. Ms. Bailey learned about the benefits of inquiry and the impact it can have on students. Ms. Bailey benefitted from her collaboration with the researcher who shared with her new approaches to inquiry-based teaching method and helped ease the process of technology integration into the unit.

A potential follow-up study with Ms. Bailey could provide additional data about what she has learned and how she might continue to grow in her knowledge and abilities with using inquiry.

After teaching inquiry, Ms. Bailey had a better sense of when to ask the compelling and supporting questions, and she acknowledged that asking the questions before diving into the content of the lessons created a better structure and enabled students to come up with better answers. Additional research might examine other issues of timing and how best to implement questions through specific sources and with particular sources. In addition, Ms. Bailey needed more structured time to prepare the inquiry. Again, additional research may provide us with insight about how best to structure teachers’ work designing inquiry lessons.

5.8 Limitations

As a single case-study, there were limitations to the findings in this study. The sample size was limited to one global education teacher and one section out of four classes. The class included thirty students in a 1st grade class. It was the only global education class at the school. This study provided data about the teacher’s implementation of inquiry and technology integration, but focused on a single inquiry within a larger curriculum. Ms. Bailey was purposely selected because she was passionate about this field of study and because she valued the opportunity to share her knowledge about the world with her students. Her enthusiasm for the content might not be representative of the broader body of elementary teachers who often teach social studies with little or no preparation in the content. This class was an elective at the school and students did not receive a grade. It provided an enriching environment for children to learn about and express understanding of the world around them. Future studies could incorporate additional inquiry-based learning and technology into the more mainstream classroom as more commonly taught in schools at an elementary grade level.

Another limitation to this study was time. Since only one unit was observed, there was no ability to determine whether the teacher would incorporate changes into future lessons. The main focus of this study was to see how Ms. Bailey implemented the inquiry design given the aims for integrating technology.

6. Conclusion

Ms. Bailey was cooperative and accommodating throughout this research. She expressed an appreciation for the experience of designing and implementing the inquiry lesson and said she learned and benefitted from collaboration. Ms. Bailey played a significant role throughout the entire curriculum development process, especially during the planning stage, and she provided insights about what worked best in the school structure and environment. The inquiry unit examined in this research required several modifications from the original design. Going forward, the unit will be modified given what was learned in this research and what was seen to be beneficial for students. This was Ms. Bailey's first time using an inquiry-based teaching method and innovative technology in a 1st grade classroom. She valued what she had learned throughout the process, and although she was initially reluctant to technology use, when asked if she will use inquiry in the future, she stated, "yes, I would, definitely."

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Appendix Available Upon Request

The Combination of Chinese Culture and Language in the 21st Century

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ABSTRACT

In this article, I will share my life experience starting as an informal teacher without a degree in education to obtaining my master's degree, authoring several Chinese language textbooks, and being honored with an excellence in teaching award. As a seasoned speaker at conferences, I will reflect upon the importance of balancing accomplishments achieved through education versus real-life experiences and the need for support throughout the journey from my parents, children, and students.

I would like to present this article in a PowerPoint format that will bring the joys and challenges of my life in teaching a hard language for people to learn while learning to have fun.

Keywords: Chinese Culture, Chinese language, Chinese Family and Education, Chinese Industry.

APPLIED EDUCATION PROGRAM ENHANCING EMPLOYABILITY OF GRADUATES IN CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

The competence of an applied education program is in imparting to its students the necessary expertise in order to practice professionally in the industry. Applied education is becoming increasingly popular as an essential pedagogy for construction education. The study compares the graduate competencies for building and construction education in Makkah, Saudi Arabia and Alberta, Canada. To achieve the study objectives, a comparison of graduate competencies identified by industry for construction management program in both locations is conducted.

The results suggest that the construction acumen, project management and leadership, business acumen, professionalism, and communications were considered as the most important and desirable graduate competencies. Other important competencies include building techniques, cost management, conflict resolution, ability to learn, contracts management, risk management, teamwork, and technological competency, procurement management. It is recommended that the breadth and depth of the core's syllabi ensure sufficient coverage of fundamental and extended topics on construction, and facilities management. Construction management programs should help to equip our students better to participate in the local and global construction industries that await them. The findings from this study would also be valuable for all academicians and researchers involved in the area of academic development in general.

Keywords: Construction, Management, Competencies, Applied education.

1. Introduction

As the Canadian population grows, so does the demand for residential and commercial property. Construction is and always has been a major player in Canada's economy. The construction industry employs close to 1 million Canadian men and women and chalks up volumes of \$123 billion annually (Arain, 2009). The construction industry also has been accounting for about 12 percent of Canada's GDP. The construction industry has a growing need for management professionals and effective project management, which are crucial for major building or renovation projects, especially given the growing complexity of large construction projects and construction-related law (Ling and Leow, 2008). For these reasons, positions in construction management increasingly require a specialized degree. Construction management requires a broad skill set in a variety of areas, and construction project managers are ultimately responsible for every aspect of their projects, including planning and scheduling project activities; managing employees, contractors, equipment and materials; project design; and budgeting.

Construction project management is the study of how the principles of scientific management are applied to construction projects (Kramer, 2005). It also covers

maintenance of existing buildings and management of construction companies. Various management tools and theories are used to solve problems relating to the planning and control of construction projects. The core establishes the professional basis for successful operations in development projects as well as a strong basis for advanced studies in related areas (Arain, 2007).

Construction projects are complex because they involve many human and non-human factors and variables (Arain *et al.*, 2004). The construction process can be influenced by changing variables and unpredictable factors that could derive from different sources. These sources include the performance of the parties, resources availability, environmental conditions, involvement of other parties and contractual relations (Arain and Low, 2003). As a consequence, the projects may face problems possibly causing delay in the project completion time.

It is commonly accepted that the construction industry has for many years been criticized for not developing consistent projects that are on time, within budget and with high quality standard (Arain, 2007; Ling and Leow, 2008). Generally, failure to deliver successful projects has been considered in relation to schism between design and construction, lack of integration, lack of effective communication, uncertainty, changing environment, and increasing project complexity (Arain and Low, 2003; Arain *et al.*, 2004; Arain, 2005a). Turner and Muller (2003) pointed out that committed people with high team spirit are essential for effective project management. Successful implementation of projects has always been a critical factor to the success of organization (Conrad and Sireli, 2005).

The rapid trend of globalization and technological changes have made difficult for construction organizations to survive in the competitive world (Babcock and Morse, 2002; Arain, 2007). Consequently, the importance of construction project management has been increased many folds. It is difficult to face the challenges of present international business arena without being more agile, adaptive and efficient. To develop the required expertise and resource, construction project management education is the key. In order to effectively operate in such competitive environment, the construction professionals should have project management knowledge and essential skills and competencies (Arain, 2007). The study compares the graduate competencies for building and construction education in Makkah, Saudi Arabia and Alberta, Canada.

2. Graduate Competencies for Construction Education

The construction industry is becoming increasingly global and the role of construction management professional now includes many front-end services, which increases the required skill set of new construction graduates (Choudhury, 2000; Kay 2001). Alternate contractual delivery systems, collaborative partnerships, new management initiatives, and global product markets require students to have a broader awareness of construction methods and project management issues (Kramer, 2005).

Due to the complex nature of present construction business environment, the organizations often undertake multiple projects which are varied in nature and call for more specialized expertise in project management (Arain and Low, 2005). The engineers are often assigned management responsibilities as a result of promotion to

higher level or due to the nature of work. Therefore, the engineering managers must have project management skills and ability to have the holistic view of the project from initiation till closing. The engineering managers have to work in an organizational setting that demands high degree of cross-functional integration. In order to effectively operate in such environment, the engineering managers should have required skill set and project management knowledge (Babcock and Morse, 2002).

Leading companies want and need graduates with solid foundations in both construction and project management, specific training in complex and challenging management problems, and sufficient workplace experience to assume leadership roles quickly. Construction Project Management program is a management-based course of study that prepares students for leadership roles in the construction industry. The program aims to provide participants with structured management and leadership techniques that will provide the basis for broader management decisions as well as on-site leadership in construction operations.

Graduates competencies of the construction project management program should be determined based on advice from leading regional industries, professional bodies, and the experience of other local and international for improving graduate's educational preparation for the construction industry (Arain, 2009). Program curriculum should be designed using a learner-centered model that provides choice, project based learning, opportunities for student interaction and active learning. Current best-practices in education, which encourage problem solving and critical thinking as key components of the learning process, should be employed.

Due to the technological advances in the IT industry around the world, the need for better project management skills is becoming more evident. Hartenian *et al.* (2001) pointed out that there is need that construction schools strive to improve the course offerings that incorporate the issues of complex dynamic environment. They particularly pointed out that the graduate students do not possess required knowledge of project management related skills. Arain and Tipu (2009) wrote that the issue of lack of project management skills has been realized by many technical schools and there is encouraging sign that schools are considering developing a complete project management curriculum addressing key competencies sought by the industry.

Management decides and implements the ways and means to effectively and efficiently utilize human and non human resources to reach predetermined objectives (Bryde, 2003). Project managers are expected to marshal resources to complete a fixed-life project on time, on budget, and within specifications. Project managers are the direct link to the customer and must manage the interface between customer expectations and what is feasible and reasonable (Arain, 2005a). They provide direction, coordination, and integration to the project team, which is often made up of part time participants loyal to their functional departments. Project managers must ensure that appropriate trade-offs are made between the time, cost and performance requirements of the project (Arain and Low, 2003; Arain, 2007). At the same time, project managers, unlike their counterparts, generally enjoy only rudimentary technical knowledge to make such decisions. Instead, they must orchestrate the completion of the project by inducing the right people and resources, at the right time, to address the right issues and make the right decisions (Arain, 2005b). Certainly, resource optimization for successful project management is a unique and challenging

task. Choudhury (2000) pointed out that the underlying reasons of the issues, such as time delays and high cost, could be lack of knowledge of the project management skills.

Many researches identified the graduate competencies for construction education that assist in increasing employability of construction graduates. The competencies include project management, leadership, business skills, professionalism, construction acumen, contracts management, research, communication skills, conflict resolution skills, cost management, procurement management, risk management, building techniques, technological skills, teamwork, ability to learn and global project management (Choudhury, 2000; Kay, 2001; Hartenian *et al.*, 2001; Babcock and Morse, 2002; Turner and Muller, 2003; Arain *et al.*, 2004; Conrad and Sireli, 2005; Karmer, 2005; Arain, 2007; Arain, 2009; Arain and Tipu, 2009).

The studies above discussed many graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates in the industry. The literature study assists in compiling a list of graduate competencies, as shown in Table 1 (Arain, 2013).

SNo.	Graduate Competencies for Construction Education
1.	Project Management: <i>Apply principles of project management to plan, scope, schedule, cost, resource, complete and evaluate construction projects.</i>
2.	Leadership: <i>Assume leadership role within teams to achieve the intended outcome.</i>
3.	Business Acumen: <i>Apply knowledge of business processes, organizational structure, management principles and financial requirements to core business practices such as human resources, business operations, financial management, information systems, organizational behavior, business negotiations and law.</i>
4.	Professionalism: <i>Integrate professional and ethical responsibilities that contribute to a safe and positive working environment.</i>
5.	Construction Acumen: <i>Interpret plans, drawings, shop drawings and materials information documents for different types of construction projects.</i>
6.	Contracts Management: <i>Prepare and negotiate contracts common to construction projects and the construction industry.</i>
7.	Research: <i>Apply research and analytical skills to solve problems within construction projects.</i>
8.	Communications: <i>Communicate effectively in both written and oral forms to a variety of audiences in a professional and ethical manner.</i>
9.	Conflict Resolution: <i>Apply conflict resolution strategies to resolve current and emerging conflict.</i>
10.	Cost Management: <i>Utilize current technologies and established practices to plan and manage construction budgets.</i>
11.	Procurement Management: <i>Incorporate procurement management skills to evaluate and select bids for materials and skills needed to complete construction projects.</i>
12.	Risk Management: <i>Incorporate risk management skills to evaluate and select construction projects</i>

SNo.	Graduate Competencies for Construction Education
13.	Building Techniques: <i>Demonstrate a robust knowledge of building techniques and construction methods.</i>
14.	International Project Management: <i>Differentiate and apply the management strategies and requirements for local versus international projects.</i>
15.	Technological competency: <i>Apply recent technological knowledge to manage projects.</i>
16.	Teamwork: <i>Assume various roles within teams to achieve an intended outcome in a professional and ethical manner.</i>
17.	Ability to Learn: <i>Demonstrate a capacity to learn through formal and informal methods, in order to confirm and extend their knowledge and skills when addressing new or emerging challenges.</i>

Table1: Graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates

The literature study forms the basis for the questionnaire survey to collect information on industry's perspective on graduate competences. The study is a unique research that identifies and compares the graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates in construction industry in Canada and Makkah, Saudi Arabia for the first time. The study sets the foundation for future larger research study on identifying graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates in the construction industry on a larger scale.

3. Research Methodology

Through the above literature review, the 17 graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates in the construction industry were identified. These provided the basis for the formulation of a questionnaire.

A survey of 32 professionals from the Albertan construction industry was carried out. They included vice-presidents, directors, senior managers, project managers, construction managers and project engineers. A total of 32 questionnaires were distributed personally to the respondents, together with an explanation on the purpose of the study and assuring them of anonymity.

In addition to collecting information via the questionnaires, face-to-face discussions using the questionnaires were also carried out to ensure that all questions were answered and the respondents have a chance to clarify any doubts with the research team. A 5-point Likert scale was used in the questionnaire to gauge the most important graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates in the construction industry. For Makkah Construction Industry feedback, the same graduate competencies list was used to gauge the most important ones. 30 professionals from the Makkah construction industry were asked to ranked the list of 17 graduate competencies identified by Arain (2013).

4. Background of Respondents

A total of 32 professionals from construction industry in Alberta, Canada were asked to gauge the importance of graduate competencies using a 5-point Likert scale. They included 14 professional from contractor side, 11 from consultant side, 3 from academia, 2 from governmental organization, and 2 from professional association. Table 2 shows the details of the responses.

Respondents	Responses received	Interviewed	Percentage
Contractors	14	14	43.76%
Consultants	11	11	34.37%
Academia	3	3	9.37%
Governmental organization	2	2	6.25%
Professional Association	2	2	6.25%
Total	32	32	100%

Table 2 Survey response rates

As shown in Table 3, of the 32 professionals interviewed, 5.25% were vice presidents, 21.87% were directors and 34.38% were senior managers. 18.75% of the interviewees were project managers, 12.50% were construction managers, and 6.25% of the interviewees were project engineers. Professionals were involved with the construction industry for more than 10 years; therefore, they were likely to be better able to assess the employability issues and graduate competencies sought by the construction industry. As a majority of the interviewees were professionally positioned at management level or higher, a certain level of accuracy in the data collected was assured.

Respondents	Appointments	Responses received	Percentage
Professionals	Vice Presidents	2	6.25%
	Directors	7	21.87%
	Senior Managers	11	34.38%
	Project Managers	6	18.75%
	Construction Managers	4	12.50%
	Project Engineers	2	6.25%
Total		32	100

Table 3 Professional interviewees' statistics

5. Analysis of Results

The data collected from the 32 questionnaires was analyzed statistically. As shown in the Table 1, the 17 graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates were identified from the literature review and

feedbacks from the professionals in the construction industry. The questionnaires containing 17 graduate competencies and section for feedback (additional competencies) were provided to the professionals involved in the construction industry. The graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates were analyzed and ranked according to their responses. As shown in Table 4, the 17 graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates in the construction industry were tabulated according to their means and standard deviations.

S No.	Graduate Competencies for Construction Education	Mean	Std. Dev.
1.	Project Management	3.62	0.64
2.	Leadership	3.62	0.58
3.	Business Acumen	3.56	0.64
4.	Professionalism	3.48	0.75
5.	Construction Acumen	3.64	0.73
6.	Contracts Management	3.14	0.59
7.	Research	3.22	0.64
8.	Communications	3.39	0.83
9.	Conflict Resolution	3.18	0.67
10.	Cost Management	3.21	0.92
11.	Procurement Management	3.07	0.58
12.	Risk Management	3.11	0.70
13.	Building Techniques	3.32	0.77
14.	International Project Management	3.25	0.65
15.	Technological competency	3.07	0.73
16.	Teamwork	3.11	0.70
17.	Ability to Learn	3.18	0.64

Table 4: Graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates ranked by construction professionals in the Alberta construction industry

Furthermore, the graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates in the construction industry were categorized into the most important ones as shown in Table 5. The results suggest that the construction acumen, project management, leadership, business acumen, professionalism and communications were considered to be the top five most important graduate competencies for construction education for the construction industry in Canada.

S No.	Graduate Competencies for Construction Education	Mean	Std. Dev.	RANK
5.	Construction Acumen	3.64	0.73	1.
1.	Project Management	3.62	0.64	2.

2.	Leadership	3.62	0.58	2.
3.	Business Acumen	3.56	0.64	3.
4.	Professionalism	3.48	0.75	4.
8.	Communications	3.39	0.83	5.

Table 5: Top five graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates ranked by construction professionals in the Alberta construction industry

The list of graduate competencies for construction education was provided to the 30 professionals involved in the Makkah region construction industry. The graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates were analyzed and ranked according to their responses. As shown in Table 6, the 17 graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates in the construction industry were tabulated according to their means and standard deviations.

S No.	Graduate Competencies for Construction Education	Mean	Std. Dev.
1.	Project Management	3.74	0.75
2.	Leadership	3.72	0.67
3.	Business Acumen	3.68	0.74
4.	Professionalism	3.56	0.64
5.	Construction Acumen	3.78	0.64
6.	Contracts Management	3.24	0.68
7.	Research	3.09	0.73
8.	Communications	3.51	0.74
9.	Conflict Resolution	3.38	0.75
10.	Cost Management	3.32	0.78
11.	Procurement Management	3.21	0.67
12.	Risk Management	3.33	0.63
13.	Building Techniques	3.49	0.67
14.	International Project Management	3.04	0.79
15.	Technological competency	3.19	0.70
16.	Teamwork	3.23	0.73
17.	Ability to Learn	3.22	0.69

Table 6: Graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates ranked by construction professionals in the Makkah region construction industry

Furthermore, the graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates in the Makkah region construction industry were categorized into the most important ones as shown in Table 7. The results suggest that the construction acumen, project management, leadership, business acumen, professionalism and communications were considered to be the top five most important graduate competencies for construction education for the construction industry in the Makkah Region. It is interesting to note that top most competencies

were exactly the same as was identified by Arain (2013) for Alberta construction industry.

S No.	Graduate Competencies for Construction Education	Mean	Std. Dev.	RANK
5.	Construction Acumen	3.78	0.64	1.
1.	Project Management	3.74	0.75	2.
2.	Leadership	3.72	0.67	2.
3.	Business Acumen	3.68	0.74	3.
4.	Professionalism	3.56	0.64	4.
8.	Communications	3.51	0.74	5.

Table 7: Top five graduate competencies for construction education for enhancing employability of construction graduates ranked by construction professionals in the Makkah region construction industry

6. Discussion and Conclusions

The study results showed that all graduate competencies were considered important by the respondents by professionals from Albertan Construction Industry. It is revealed through in-depth interviews that employers expect construction graduates to possess the key competencies to be beneficial part and prosper in the construction industry. It was interesting to note that the top graduate competencies for construction education ranked by professionals in both construction industries were identical, however it is pertinent to mention that international project management and research competencies were only major differences between the construction industries. The construction acumen was ranked as the most important graduate competency for enhancing employability in the construction industry. Considering the technical nature of the construction project management discipline, this was not unexpected. Many research studies have suggested that the construction acumen is the foremost skill that is sought by the construction industry. It was revealed through in-depth discussions with the professionals that ability to interpret plans, drawings, shop drawings and materials information documents for different types of construction projects is an integral skill that construction graduates should possess to be a beneficial part of the construction industry.

Project management and leadership were jointly considered as the second most important causes of low participation of professional women in the construction industry. The graduates of the construction project management program are expected to demonstrate sufficient knowledge of principles of project management application to plan, scope, schedule, cost, resource, complete and evaluate construction projects. Project management is all about providing efficient leadership at every level of the construction projects. Construction graduates should to able to assume leadership role within teams to achieve the intended outcome.

The results revealed that business acumen was perceived by both construction industries as the third most important competency for construction graduates. Business acumen would help construction graduate to participate in the construction organization beyond the implementation and management of construction projects. It

was acknowledged by the professionals interviewed that construction graduates should be able to apply knowledge of business processes, organizational structure, management principles and financial requirements to core business practices such as human resources, business operations, financial management, information systems, organizational behavior, business negotiations and law.

Professionalism and communication were considered fourth and fifth most important competencies for construction graduates respectively by both construction industries. It is evident that the construction industry requires professionalism as an integral component to encourage a conducive and professional environment. Construction graduates are expected to have ability to integrate professional and ethical responsibilities that contribute to a safe and positive working environment. Effective communication is an important attribute of project leadership, construction graduates should be able to communicate effectively in both written and oral forms to a variety of audiences in a professional and ethical manner. Construction education should address to these required competency to produce career ready professionals for the local and global construction industry.

In the face of this changing economic environment, existing and upcoming professionals in the construction industry must be adequately trained to adapt to different markets and cater to regional demands in a more internationalized market. The skills needed to be successful in the international market such as project management skills, construction acumen, professionalism, business acumen, construction laws and regulations, communication, and cultural knowledge will become increasingly vital for construction industry professionals who wish to compete in the global arena. Present student generation in construction-related disciplines is well aware of the changing market conditions ahead and realizes that they need to reach out to developing regions to expand and build their careers.

Furthermore, work integrated learning (WIL) is becoming increasingly popular as an essential pedagogy for undergraduate applied education. Active participation through WIL provides the students with an experiential learning experience in a professional environment in the industry. The initiative requires making WIL a core component of academic programs so that learners are compelled to participate and learn from the WIL experience. The challenges include resources to establish physical facility, finding industry-based placements for students to engage in WIL activities, formal articulations between academic institution and industry to support WIL. To overcome these challenges, the key strategy is the commitment from institutional leadership, and the commitment to support the WIL activities from within institutions and industry. Industry support and commitment are essential to training and enhancing practices that eventually be promoted based on WIL related activities in academic programs. It was noted that professionals from both construction industries have emphasized on the need of WIL in construction management programs.

Incessant pace in education development to train students in construction-related disciplines for working in local and global, emerging markets can help add a degree of flexibility to their arsenal, enabling them to have fewer restrictions, thus opening a wider venue of opportunities for them. This added flexibility can reduce the chances of construction professionals leaving the field for other professions, thus ensuring a more constant and stable supply of human resources. Overall, these combined advantages will ultimately lead to a healthier industry and promote a better image for

the entire profession. It is recommended that the breadth and depth of the core's syllabi ensures sufficient coverage of fundamental and extended topics on construction project management. Construction programs should help to equip our students better to participate in the local and global construction industries that await them. The findings from this study would also be valuable for all professionals, academicians and researchers involved in the area of construction education in general.

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Transmitters of East Asian Cultural Images about Majolica Tile Style in Taiwan

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ABSTRACT

The fad of cultural heritage in Taiwan after the 21st century raises the awareness of the civic consciousness, and historic groups are active in discussing the preservative values of cultural heritage. Whether old items / old houses in the life in our memory can be recognized as “cultural heritage” is worth a further reflection. In the 21st century, the historic knowledge and humane contexts are reconstructed, and it is necessary to redefine and revalue cultural items. How to conserve and replicate Majolica tiles as new cultural items or cultural creative works by the technology to broaden the appreciation and the experience of cultural items is also compulsory. It is also important to feature the fact that how resources like images of cultural items is promoted by the education of art. Professor Wu’s philosophies of this curation of cultural items are to feature the theme of representing and interpreting items and to reveal its close relationship with the peril of contemporary cultural assets. Professor Wu explores through the topic of cultural heritage, which was once material in the past life and are art works and cultural creative items at once. From cultural objects to art creation, the enlightenment can activate the interdisciplinary ability of the research and creation. It includes multilevel challenges and responses to material cultures and cultural heritage as well.

Keywords: Cultural Heritage, Majolica Tile, Hakka Huofang, ethnobotany, traditional pattern

Papers Brief Description

The Majolica tile of Europe was introduced to Taiwan, the alongshore areas of China, and the Southeast Asian countries for decorating houses in the early days, while Japan had started to establish its own manufacturing factories in the late Meiji period and the early Taishō period as part of its Westernization after the Meiji Restoration. Since Taiwan was ruled by Japan at that time, it had been one of the destinations that Japan exported its manufactured tiles to. Japan had soon replaced

UK to be the main exporting country for coloring tiles in East Asia due to its advantages of transportation and price. During the period of the Second World War (1932-1945), Japan had immigrants including Taiwanese recognized as 'Komin' (with Japanese citizen ID) to the three northeast provinces of China and set up the factories manufacturing coloring tiles. Therefore, China had also become a target market exporting colored tiles. Due to the wartime regulations of Greater East Asia War, tiles are not necessities during wartime; therefore the factories had gradually declined since 1940. The impact of not producing majolica tiles had extended all over the markets in East Asian and Southeast Asian countries around 15-20 years. In Kinmen, due to the prohibition of building subject to military reservation control, many colored tiles are retained. In Penghu, there are also a lot of ancient buildings and tiles with color patterns retained but because it faces shrinking population for immigrants. Penghu is located in the standard area of monsoon and in the whole winter it is under the monsoon when northeast monsoon passes Taiwan Strait between the autumn and winter. In addition, since there is no shielding of mountains in Penghu, the wind velocity in winter normally is between Force 4-8 and even up to 12. In the summer time, the wind direction becomes south wind at Force 3 in Penghu; it blows from the ocean to the land during the day and inverts from the land to the ocean at night. Because Penghu is a small offshore island surrounded by ocean, the small terrain causes rather weak air circulation between the sea and the land.

The wind velocity of the sea breeze in Penghu varies per season, and there are northwest wind in winter and southwest in summer. A lot of ancient buildings and tiles with color patterns are still retained in Penghu. On the other hand, at that time in Japan the houses were generally built with wood but seldom the solid colored tiles that are heavily lead-containing. Only in few of the public bathes and outdoor places can the similar Majolica tiles be seen. When the tiles were manufactured in Japan, the patterns were also changed to the local symbols such as Mount Fuji, chrysanthemum (flower), Chizuru (thousand cranes), shrine, and Torii (Shinto Shrine Entrance), etc. Presently in Japan there are still old plants manufacturing Majolica tiles to meet the small demand of cultural markets.

Normally in one pattern there is the combination of various plants of flowers and grasses symbolizing good luck, repelling evil spirit, and beautifying of these floral patterns. These emblems reflect the world view and hopes for this life of the human being. Majolica tiles had replaced the ceramics appliqué on the roof ridge, stone carving patterns, and are normally seen in the traditional buildings of Taiwan. With the Majolica tiles used in traditional buildings of houses and temples, the traditional patterns created by the masons and their techniques are impacted; the factory mass-produced majolica tiles with fair price now are affordable if the house owner

would like them to be tiled on the whole wall, therefore the tiles have changed the nature of the traditional house style in Taiwan. The process of getting inspired by the foreign cultures, rebuilding self-own culture, and choosing the patterns through free trade have gradually made the deviation between the identity of family and the individual value of the resident living in their family's house. There is the opportunity for mixing and changing the structure of community and society. The house tiled with majolica tiles represents richness instead of the symbol of social stratum. Any houses could be tiled; and the residents are able to choose where they like the tiles to be placed. Some of the old houses show the consistence and synchronicity of the tiles' patterns which means the old patterns of the house have not been fixed. Others may show the sign of different tiling being put together, which suggests that at that time there was a shortage of the specific pattern or the supply is unstable. It is the contradiction caused by not meeting the needs in the market or the traces of each renovation.

The one who is in occupation of an old house might be the Fujian people or the Hakka people and that may blur the cultural characteristic of a house. The new social order gradually built is the identity of Japan nationality that Japan colonists put on Taiwanese through the culture rebuilding process manifested in manufacturing old tiles.

The floral patterns on the Majolica tiles are often twisted in a geometric way, and the process of passing on has referred the Victoria style of England, the French Art Nouveau, or Arabic pattern culture. On the other hand, Japan referred the traditional patterns of the importing countries such as China, the traditional patterns of Southeast Asia. The design is good at applying diagonal, mitre angle, and octagon with twists to get the tricks of geometry in order to create infinity in the small tile with just a few inches and assemble the twists into richer and more colorful patterns with surrounding tiles. For example, vines, branches and leaves can be transformed into bending lines to represent prosperity. While the normally seen example in the traditional patterns of China is to express "the more sons the more blessings", therefore the offerings such as Buddha's hand, pomegranate, and birthday bun with bean paste filling are put in a plate or basket presenting to the Gods; in Taiwan, the patterns are generally the representation of locally produced fruits such as pineapple or banana. The pattern on the frame may have horizontally continuous waves or floral patterns and they can be assembled into the shape of window and combined into another pattern which is adjustable for tiling on the wall of a house by coping with the place.

Although the Majolica tile is only 6 square inches, the patterns are rich. The scholar, presumed that they were made by Japan in the 1920-40s. The ones used in

Taiwanese houses have the patterns of geometry, flowers and fruits, animals, and the patterns with blessing meaning. Japan has its own unique folkway and culture. Japanese people often have live stock or plant combined with insect to generate various patterns and philosophy, as well as develop into family crests. In Japan, commonly seen family crests include vine, papaya, cypress, paulownia and tangerine, water-plantain, takaba (eagle's feather), etc. and all of which have a story and symbolic meaning behind.

Observe Majolica tiles in details may lead one to notice the differences and parallels between Japan, China, and Taiwan. Then themes of bringing good luck for the family and rich harvesting of farming are good examples. Sugiura Kohei believes that "Undoubtedly, in ancient and early modern Japanese minds it was originally to combine with Asia. However, after the Meiji period, due to the wrong modernization and being suppressed by the power of Europeanization, plus the unfortunate twist, Japan had discarded the shackles of ancient Japanese and oriental customs." The words witnessed that the Majolica tiles exported from Japan to Southeast Asia, China, and Taiwan were impacted by the European markets. From choosing the patterns, the arrangement and color matching can find the context of Chinese and Japanese arts and vitality of folklore. If the theme is based on Chinese traditional culture, the scope and theory of East Asian can be once again displayed in the Majolica tiles. The author does not consider the way that Sugiura Kohei thought "discarded the Orient that is the umbilical cord of Japan from ancient times;" instead, there is the link between New Japan and the Orient by selling new coloring tiles.

From the Majolica tiles extending to the traditional patterns and festivals of China, it is then associated with self and ethnic group identity, the localized Chinese patterns in Taiwan, the Hakka grouping; therefore, solar terms, plants, and local culture become the critical imprint for people's life. Life memories, group identity, and subjective expectations are all symbolized in the painted patterns.

Conclusion: Cultural relics are the result of scientific specialization, and they are the collections of historical research value in the museum. They represent one dimension of the history for academic research. On the other hand, art is the artist's perception of emotions in the contemporary overall atmosphere, and the skillful creation based on the sensibility. The art reflects the whole era and the positioning of cultural relics. How does art describe the object of observation? For example, the geometric modules are applied on Majolica tile in its form and based on botany; the form of combing square tiles keeps on expanding in a geometric way, integrated into the surroundings in the wall or ridge to become a continuous pattern. The new visual form of Majolica tiles has been created in Taiwan that does not only explain the patterns of local plants and flowers, but also respond to the needs of Taiwan's cultural

and economic market. Influenced by the vintage trend, Majolica tile was made into cultural and creative commodity as well as an art work. Through these ancient artifacts, the modern people implement the virtual pattern space into the visual art space, imagining the civilization of the history, respecting the preservation of the old buildings, and then accommodate the allocation of plants and mascots in a tile smaller than 20*20 cm. The creation of an artist narrows the gap between art and cultural relics, and offers the understanding on the characteristics and biological genealogy of Taiwan's plants. Thus, the unique local artistic patterns to Taiwan and publicly recognized visual symbols are created.

Poverty a Block to Achieving Sustainable Development and Education in the Third World Countries, the Case of Malawi

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ABSTRACT

Poverty is the biggest challenge that has hindered and it continues to hinder sustainable development in general and sustainable education in particular which is endemic especially to third world countries which includes but not limited to Malawi and Africa. Poverty has been seen to be a major cause of most common global challenges namely; environmental degradation, instability and high levels of illiteracy. This paper focuses on how poverty poses a threat to sustainable development and education.

Keywords: Poverty, Block, Environment, Stability and Sustainable Development.

Curriculum Design in English Education: A Tool for Sustainable Development?

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ABSTRACT

Globalisation is a phenomenon that brings the world closer and closer. Different countries all over the world communicate and cooperate in various domain of the society's life. In fact, being part of the globalisation process, entails making every actors of the process come with their knowledge, their identity, or culture to make themselves or their country known at an international level. It's a new way of thinking, of behaving that emerges from that interaction as the world turns into a planetary village. People or countries learn to manage issues not only for their own well-being but for the well-being of the entire world. To do so, people need to have a common means of communication to interact in that world of diversity. As a matter of fact, the English language is with no doubt an important element in the globalization process. So the way English education is organized can be a key factor that contributes efficiently to implement global values with long-lasting effects. Human-beings being the best investment, any field of education should aim at setting an environment that will enable future generation to inherit a world where certain values are transmit to ensure a continual awareness about world issues from generations to generations.

The purpose of this paper is to inquire the importance of curriculum design in English education to determine in which way it can be a tool to serve sustainable education. What is the process of curriculum design? Who can be considered a curriculum designer? How can curriculum design present the English language as a tool for sustainable development? What consideration do teachers, lecturers, learners and even the society have for curriculum design in education?

Keywords: Curriculum Design, English Education and Global Values, Contextualization and Global Awareness, Sustainable Development and Society's Involvement

International Exchange Program between Riga and Kobe

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ABSTRAC

The main aim of this study is to measure how the exchange program, between our school and a school in Riga, influenced our students' awareness of global citizenship. Two students stayed in Riga for one week, and participated in the exchange program at a school in Riga and did research on a topic they had chosen. As a whole, the newly invented Riga program was successful in terms of the students' awareness of global citizenship.

Keywords: International Exchange Program, Global Citizens, Inquiry Based Learning

Teaching 21st Century Skills in ELT Classes: Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving in Particular. Is it Practicable? How?

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ABSTRACT

The 21st century skills have been recognized as this century's sensation in the educational field and have drawn much attention since the 80s of the last century. The implementation of those skills has been included in most school subjects in many countries around the world and there has been numerous research done in that matter. A short review of literature proved that there has been little discussion about teaching those skills in a second language (esp. English) teaching context. That is one of the reasons for conducting this research aimed at discovering the possibility and impact of implementing 21st century skills, namely critical thinking and problem solving in ELT classes. The main purpose of this research is to create and conduct lessons that enhance learners' critical thinking and problem solving skills in ELT class environment, and collect participants' and researcher's feedback to discover whether English classes could be conducted in light of the skills mentioned above and whether those skills could be a carrier or a barrier of the target language learning. Lessons have been designed and conducted with a small group of volunteer students who answered interview questions and after-class questionnaires. The results have revealed general positive feedback from the participants. Therefore, it would be advisable to conduct more specific long term research in the matter of teaching English as a foreign language with emphasis on clear implementation of the 21st century skills.

Keywords: 21st Century Skills, Critical Thinking and Problem Solving, Teaching English as a Foreign Language, Deep Learning

Role of Behavioral Economics in Making Choices

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ABSTRACT

Human beings do not tend to follow set processes and make decisions in an optimal fashion. Behavioral economics recognizes the heterogeneity of human responses and tries to examine the range of neglected factors that dominate the complex motive and intuition of an individual dealt while making day to day economic decisions.

Bound to the traditional predictions which are based on the assumption that it all comes down to maximizing the utility factor narrowed by self-interest, the view misses out on important factors like social preferences, real incentives, ideas about fairness, that may appear irrational within the standard economic framework. Evaluation of choices and preferences of goods, are strongly influenced by the effect of corresponding context, bounded rationality, intuitive judgment, biases and beliefs.

Choices are also made with insufficient and limited source of knowledge, feedback loops and the processing proficiency of an individual where there are unseen constraints under uncertainty. This paper has focused on the relevance of psychology in understanding the economic behavior and also the challenges it poses to standard economic assumptions. The paper is based on descriptive research method and has analyzed the behavioral factors which affect choice using an analytical approach. It has examined the growing contribution of psychological ideas that influence the cognitive and behavioral processes while perceiving 'happiness' and 'rationality' quotients. Thus, such events show mutual dependency and advance the scope of interdisciplinary exchange for an unabridged understanding of the study between human psychology and economic behavior.

Keywords: Cognition, Economic Behaviour, Human Biases, Psychology, Rationality.

Introduction:

For most part of the 20th century, the classification of a human being as *homo economicus*, dominated the field of economics. Under standard economic assumptions, the characterization of a being is presumed to be narrowly rational, capable of instantaneous learning, motivated by individual self interest and preoccupied with maximizing personal utility or satisfaction. Behavioral economists and psychologists are curious and also fascinated to study the abstract basis of decision making process

in contempt of insufficient information, bounded cognitive abilities and selective biases. Standard economic theory asserts that economic decisions are made by maximizing a utility function where all the relevant constraints and preferences are included and adjusted satisfactorily. This process, on the same side, is found to be more complex, driven not just by self interest but altruism, guilt, liking, with a capability of forgoing personal payoffs for an equitable distribution of gains; influenced by choices or a preference, and not just by the consideration of profit maximization but also, emotions; which evidently tie them to their surrounding.

Decision makers cannot be rational unless the decision maker has perfect control on the environmental factors as well as his mental capabilities. He has also argued on how traditional theories always perceive decision making from the view point of a rational actor' however, which is not the complete picture. The limitations of human computational ability and the influential effects of these limitations should also be considered and taken into account (Simon,1955). For example, different basic psychological phenomena can be very effective in shaping our day to day decisions, which we may be totally unaware of. The '*Default Effect*' in a nutshell, conceptualizes- the way to leverage bias and influence behavior. The most obvious reason perhaps, is that defaults work with people's tendency to procrastinate. Presuming that there is more time later in future, it is quite easy to go with the default option, and make a better and more informed decision sometime in future. Due to the susceptibility to defer, even a small occurrence of obstruction in their approach to certain outcome, can be enough to prevent them from reaching that outcome. One of the other reasons why default may also dominate a decision, is because some people might assume that defaults' signal something about everybody, about a majority, which has been chosen for a specific reason, in effect acting more akin to recommendation and validation. Such kind of a bias comes under the domain of '*Bandwagon Effect*'- a phenomenon where people continue to do something, irrespective of their own beliefs, which otherwise, are usually disregarded. Like the voting for a person who is seemingly more popular, and also due to the need of belongingness to the majority.

This, however, shows the inability to follow through intentions that are our own, seen as another big challenge, paradoxical to the decision making process.

Why are the success rates of new products so low? It maybe due to the failure to acknowledge the essentials of consumer psychology, which in itself is a study of why people buy things, and what are the fundamental cognitive routes that explain the consumers' choices and how they respond under the influence of marketing and external stimuli that convince people to purchase certain items. As it has been rightly

stated, ‘the concept of rationality *must* accommodate the diversity of reasons that may motivate choice’ (Amartya Sen)

Methodology:

The research strategy in this study was mainly a deductive one, based on the theoretical reflections of the research field, supported with induction, statements and theories provided by the documentation on economic practice that assists the working hypotheses. The primary research method was the quality method, which included collection of data from the field of literature regarding existing postulates and arguments. Data collection was done by studying multiple reports, surveys, articles, books and so on, which enabled to establish a unitary and coherent network of information.

Literature Review: The literature represents behavioral economics as a branch that is to a large extent based on the tendencies of human behavior, revealing the deviations in the mechanism of rational decision making. These deviations can be called as *cognitive biases*. Behavioral economics aims to bridge the gap between cognitive-economic abilities and emotional responses, i.e. subjective and psychological aspects of behavioral science, that distinguishes between the rational behavior from the traditional terms proposed in the classical and neoclassical school of thoughts.

‘Individuals interpret things around in relationship with others and do not have autonomy in thought; moreover they show uncontrolled reactions to certain stimulus such as free or zero, and have difficulty in making rational decisions when confronted with situations that require compliance with certain combinations of social standard like favoring friendly and affectionate applications and economic norms like paying bills’ (Ariely, 2008)

The coalescence among the fields of psychology and economics was postulated by Herbert Simon, where he promoted the concept of *Bounded Rationality*. According to him, there will always be a degree to which humans are capable of rational decision making, however, they will also always be confined to the nature of their emotions and cognitive limitations.

Psychology therefore, offers a sum of integrated concepts and intermediate generalizations, to correctly explain the varied phenomena of these diverse domains. According to a model suggested by Kahneman et al. and Shane Fredrick (2002) the relationship between preferences and attitudes are based on the following-

- (i) Most judgments and most choices are made intuitively
- (ii) Rules that govern the intuition are generally similar to rules of perception

Another area of research is that of decision making under certain risks or uncertainty and how people tend to make risk-averse choices in gains and risk-seeking choices in losses. People also avoid risks in one set of a framework and then seek risk in the same framework stated differently. These decisions are said to have an autonomy of rational control although are generally driven by the easy accessibility of emotional experiences. Thus, the role and influence of emotions and attitudes are predominantly impacting our process of decision making, emphasizing the concept of emotional intelligence. It is also said that the constant negative relationship between consumption and happiness may be related to the fact that people are unaware of what creates a state of happiness or unhappiness.

The key concepts of behavioral aspects in evaluating the choice architecture of a being, does not come from the assumption of rationality but rather from the assumption that rationality is, at least in some important respects, *bounded*. Human computational limits do matter and postulating them is essential to interpret and comprehend the principles underlying the process of decision making, Simon (1997)

The Interaction of Heuristics and Cognitive Biases

Cognitive biases have major and extensive hold over the pattern of decision making. They duly deviate the mind from rationality in calls of judgment. A subjective social reality is created and perceived from the input of one's surrounding and externalities. This also dictates their behavior in the social world, which generally leads to perceptual distortion, illogical interpretation, prediction of erroneous values to the outcome based on their *probability* of intuition and judgment.

These biases also, are comfortably adaptive in nature, as they lead to more effective and speedy action in effect. They enable faster decisions when the occasion of time is more important and valuable than accuracy. These biases are also called to be the 'by-product' of computational limitations, resulting from the lack of sound mental mechanism.

Economists have always criticized psychological researchers for its proclivity towards generating the lists of errors and biases, and in its failure to offer an apprehensible alternative to the rational model, but this can be just another way of saying that the rational models are psychologically unrealistic.

The influence of cognitive outline was brought to light in the studies of Gary Becker, Noble Prize winner, although not a follower of behavioral economics, argued that "when studying behavior can no longer be explained according to income or prices, the explanation can be found in the change of tastes" (1988)

There are two types of system in our mind. System-I is where the assessments are carried out involuntarily and effortlessly, while System-II determines and rationalizes the process unconsciously neglected by System-I.

System-I can be called as the 'Cognitive Ease' and System-II as 'Cognitive Constrain' according to Kanheman, in his book- Thinking fast and slow, 2011.

Humans tend to stay in the zone of ease, where there are no threats and a sign showcasing a balanced platform, with no redirection of attention. System-II is affected by the level of conscious efforts made in the moment due to the presence of unmet demands and needs.

When a person is in the state of ease, he tends to easily believe his external senses, trust his intuition casually, and feels that the current situation is comfortably familiar. But when he feels strained, he is more likely to be attentive and observant, feels less comfortable and make fewer errors, but also is less intuitive and creative than usual. Thus, due to the undemanding and adaptive nature of cognitive biases, he tends to fall back into the same pattern of different yet producing the same output, of tendencies which ultimately contributes to his zone of ease.

For example, the '*Framing Effect*' - drawing different conclusions from the same information. Very often, the mind is mislead into thinking that the conclusion may be right again, due to the representation of the same context of information in a different manner, deceiving the mind into reaching expedited results.

This is where the concept in terms of making judgments about the likelihood of an event based on the availability of an easy example, instance, or case that comes to mind, Heuristics- often known as the 'Thumb Rule' and inevitable 'Mental Shortcut' that usually involves focusing on only one aspect of a complex problem and certainly ignoring other possible reasoning ones. A customer may solve the problem of what bread to buy with the heuristic 'buy what I usually do' - People are often limited by the amount of time they have to make a choice as well as the amount of information they have at their disposal.

To take an example in regard with the foremost function of search and utility, a shopper called Rita, is in a grocery store deciding what bread to buy. There is a large aisle of different types and kinds of bread. From the large selection of potential choices, she narrows down to the 4 listed below. How can she decide what to buy?

(I) Utility and Satisfaction

Product	Price	Taste quality	Health quality
Budget	\$1	1	1

White	\$3	2	2
Whole-wheat	\$4	3	2
Superior	\$6	3	3

Where the characteristics are, 1= low, 2= medium, 3=high.

Source: Author's own

The standard way to think about the utility function (u) in economics is to assume that $u(x, TQ, HQ)$ as the utility she gets from having money x and a bread with taste quality (TQ) and health quality (HQ). Since utility is seen as the function of money wealth according to the standard description, after evaluating each choice we need to focus on how much money Rita will have after buying the bread.

Choice	Wealth	TQ	HQ	Utility
No bread	\$100	0	0	200
Budget	\$99	1	1	202
White	\$97	2	2	203
Whole-wheat	\$96	3	2	204
Superior	\$94	3	3	203

Rita can buy no bread, keep wealth \$100 and have utility 200 or pay \$1 for budget, have wealth \$99 and utility 202, and so on. Utility can be stated as a general measure of happiness or satisfaction. So, more the utility, the better and therefore Rita wants to choose the bread of highest utility. However, if we take Cardinal Utility into account, then we can say that 'Whole-wheat is better than Budget by the same amount as Budget is better than no Bread'

We can see here that whole-wheat offers the highest utility and so looks like the best choice. It does so because it offers the best trade-off of the quality for price. Rita is willing to pay the extra \$1 to \$4 that whole-wheat costs over other choices in order to improve the taste and health quality, but is not willing to pay a further \$2 to get the highest quality. We have, therefore, a prediction what Rita should buy. It is fine till she knows what maximizes her utility. Realistically, however, she probably will not know. Maybe she has never tried Budget or Superior, or maybe she did try them once but have forgotten what they tasted like, her preferences have changed or the manufacturers have subsequently improved the quality.

This lack of knowledge means that it is not enough for us to say Rita should do the thing that maximizes her utility.

- Why are heuristics used?

In order to cope with the complexity of the numerous decisions needed to make by an average person on a daily basis, people tend to use mental shortcuts- heuristics which provides a general rule for decision making. Thus, using heuristic is seen as a convenient and quick way to make better utility of the limited time and reach to a conclusion. However, the conclusion may not necessarily be effective and there may be possible alternatives which are more efficient and appropriate. Thus, these biases hinder the process of evaluating and estimating choices in the right amount.

Although, due to the impatient nature of a being, reaching to an outcome can mislead the brain to accept that this process is a valuable approach, as it is simplifying the cognitive rational approach. Yet on the same side, it also exposes them to make hasty judgment calls and sometimes incorrect decisions about the issues that are more complicated.

- i. One of the theories- *Attribute Substitution*, is a type of psychological process which is said to happen without conscious awareness. According to this theory, the decisions which demand computational estimation of choices are simply substituted by an easily presumed probability of choice. The base of choosing the easy yet not so completely known option under uncertainty is backed by our automatic intuitive judgment than the self-aware reflective system. This also answers the question of why biases persist even after a person is made aware of them. This theory is subsumed by an effort-reduction framework, where people invariably use techniques that scale down the effort of taking decisions. Thus, they end up relying on principles which reduce the hard task of comparing complex probabilities and conclude values on simpler and accessible judgmental operations.
- ii. An another form of attribute substitution, was interpreted in the study of Fritz Strack et al. (1988) illustrating the role of this attribution in a different context. College students responded to a survey in which included the two following questions in immediate succession. One being “How happy are you with your life in general?” and the second being “How many dates did you have in the previous month?” The correlation between the previous two questions was found to be 0.12 when they appeared in the order shown. Among respondents who received the same question in reverse order, the correlation was 0.66. A weak correlation was observed between both the findings, even with the same set of questions.

The psychological interpretation is inferential, but straightforward. An emotional belief was evoked in the respondents, charged by the evaluation of their romantic life, supplementing the judgment with easy access when the question about happiness was encountered next and therefore mapped out of the idea of ‘general’ happiness. In this interpretation, the respondents unconsciously failed to notice that they were answering a question that had not been asked- *Cognitive Illusion*, which can not only be in the domain of vision but can also be susceptible to bias beliefs and fundamental arbitrations.

-Factors affecting Heuristics

- i. *Availability*- The ease with which the instances or occurrences can be brought to mind, can contribute to the frequency of the probability of an event taking place in a situation. Reliance on availability leads to predictable biases, as the past experiences may dominate and deter our illusion, which may or may not be completely relevant to our present context. The likelihood of an event which easily and vividly occurs in our mind, is certainly overestimated. Thus, the role of availability can act as a reminder of the prominent instances taken place in the past, than compared with the instances of less recurrent classes.
- ii. *Affect Heuristic* - There are choices which weigh on the importance of theoretical framework that describes the ‘affect’ or the ‘quality’ (positive/negative or good/bad) than an economic preference, in guiding judgments and decisions.

Heuristic processing assumes that people simply and unconsciously or consciously prioritize their their emotional mechanism, in making choices of rationality but do not think about the long term consequence of that decision. This affect identifies two basic feelings – ‘Good’ (should be approached) and ‘Bad’ (should be avoided) or ‘Positive’ or ‘Negative’ based on which an emotional response is carried out, distinct from the ‘mood’ of a person. For example, a high benefit and low risk perception is attached and followed with the ‘Good’ feeling, whereas the negative emotional responses have an inverse effect. The affect- assessments are predominantly taken into account either before or after the cognitive rationality plays its role, since they are based on an emotionally charged experience in the past. Thus, these are said to be very powerful yet involuntary.

For a simple example, a dog is viewed differently from the perspective of a dog owner than a person who has been bitten by one. Another one can be a person who wants to

best invest their money in a firm will be keen on avoiding any shortfall to avoid financial loss. Thus, even sensible risk which can give substantial returns in future can easily be overlooked and underestimated due to our fear of losing money. Advertisers take advantage of this affect and often link their services with a positive emotion, leading the mind to take risks easily.

The 'Zero Price Effect' can account here in terms of options that have no downside or no cost, trigger a more positive affective response (Shampanier, K., Mazar, N., & Ariely D. (2007) Zero as a special price: The true value of free products (*Marketing Science*, 26, 742-757) It states that if there are two commodities on discount, commodity A valuing 0.14\$ which is now being sold free and the price of commodity B which is reduced from 0.15\$ to 0.1\$. But commodity B will still not be as powerful as the 'free' good. Because the 'zero price' creates a *happy* image in one's mind which is positively reinforced, motivating the person to opt for a free good rather than paying 0.1\$.

Prospect Theory and Loss Aversion-

According to a study, 'Losses are twice as powerful, psychologically, as gains' suggested by Tversky and Kahneman (1992) This implies that a person who might lose 100\$ on an unfortunate day, will *lose more satisfaction* than another person who randomly finds 100\$ on a fortunate day. While in the sense of rationality, feelings invoked in both the situations should have been equal and same, though in reality, is not the case. In cognitive psychology, *loss aversion* is a theory said to be deeply ingrained supplementing the tendency to *prefer* avoiding losses. Here, if we talk about the '*Endowment Effect*' which a bias that causes us to overvalue anything we '*own*' irrespective of its market value causing us to overestimate and magnify the value and importance of things once after we have established our ownership. Therefore, the selling point of price for consumption goods is higher than the buying price, because here, the choices and decisions are just not selfishly driven, but they are psychologically considered by preferring and avoiding losses than to receive, even, costless benefits though under the probability of risks.

This also showcases a certain reference point to which we evaluate and then draw a phenomenon of estimating our choices. Perception is said to be *reference-dependent*. To be able to compare the attributes provided by the current stimuli, our automated judgment system fundamentally goes back to the same type of stimuli that has triggered us in the past. By recalling the same, we tend to measure its utility and then analyze and predict the utility in the context of current stimuli.

In Bernoulli's model of utility, wealth index of an individual is seen as the carrier of value. An example can be used to compare and contrast the idea between theory of

utility and the prospect theory can be used here. ‘In utility theory, the utility of a gain is assessed by comparing the utilities of the two states of wealth, which is the current state and the upcoming probability. For an instance, the utility of getting an extra \$500 when your wealth is \$1 million is the difference between the utility of \$1,000,500 and the utility of \$1 million. And if you own the larger amount, the disutility of losing \$500 is again the difference between the utilities of the two states of wealth. In this theory, *the utilities of gain and losses are allowed to differ only in their signs (+ or -)* There is no way to represent the fact that the disutility of losing \$500 could be greater than the utility of winning the same amount, (Kanheman). Thus, the notion of utility cannot be completely detached from emotions. Such theory of choice that plainly disregards the feeling of regret or pain over a loss, is evidently unjustified. As Jeremy Bentham conceives the theory utilitarianism, it is said that utility should also be analogous to the happiness quotient, and that being the case, decision which are entirely based on unrealistic description, cannot maximize the utility of outcome that comes under the realm of *experience and emotion*. People’s judgment of choices is not just based on the amount of wealth gained, but also the degree of satisfaction and the value in terms of utility of their outcome.

Therefore, we can say that the expected utility theory is concerned purely with the ideal scenario of how decisions ‘should’ be made. However, the prospect theory is more realistic and involves psychological ground on how decision are ‘actually’ made.

Bounded Rationality and the Framing Effect-

The concept of Framing Effect states that our choices will be based on the representation of the information shared. For example,

- iii. A logo that says 10% of our customers are not completely satisfied.
- iv. 9/10 of our customers are fully satisfied.

The connotation of the first statement will imply a negative spin, whereas the meaning of the second statement is same as the first, and is still derived in a positive and attractive manner, overlooking the existing dissatisfaction of 10% customers. This tells us, that people tend to ignore the risk factor when introduced to a positive representation of a framework while emphasize on the weigh of the same risk with a more negative effect, depending on the type of framework being exposed. Thus, the technique of highlighting the positive or negative aspects of the same matter leads to alteration in their process of decision making. This effect has been one of the most consistent bias in the process of decision making.

The way a question is put forth can have an enormous influence on the type of answer it attracts.

For example,

- Do you think that the government should cut off its spending on national health services so the spending on defense can be increased?
- v. Do you think that the government should primarily spend on the nation's defense and in an adequate amount?

For the first question, very few people might agree, but very few will not accept the second one. Thus, advertisers and marketers have known the art of representation in an expected form of framework.

Bounded Rationality suggests that even if one make choices and take decisions rationally, he is still restricted to his mental capacity and the availability of information. Herbert Simon had combined the words 'Satisfying' and 'Sufficing' which created a term called – 'Satisficing'

It is seen that there are external as well as internal constrains to computing and valuing an alternative or a choice a little more than the other given choices. It is perhaps not possible for a being to only decide the outcome on a rational premise, since it is impossible to consider all the options only pragmatically and analyze them without any bias. One may aspire to be have a rational ground, but his decision will always be colored with his own perspective of life. The theory of Bounded rationality was itself developed after contemplating and examining the possibility of one not being fully capable of taking purely coherent decisions, which are often influenced by various other factors, both intrinsic and extrinsic.

For example, an investor who is willing to invest in a stock market. Provided that the nature of such market is unpredictable and erratic, some bias heuristic will take over his decision-making process. And therefore, to avoid any risk, he simply diversifies his investments into different companies. Thus, this tells us how it is highly unlikely for an investor to assess and analyze all the information of viable investments options in such a heavy market, and make one completely rational decision. He will tend to seek advice from his colleagues, friends and will use past experiences to develop his own theory for the right approach.

And similarly, one fine day, he might need to sell the stocks bought, urgently due to a financial crunch. Due to complexities of such external arbitrary factors and time constrain, it is not possible for him to wait for the stock prices to be valuable enough to yield him favorable results.

Hence, time constraints, cognitive limitations and lack of absolute knowledge are the parameters that undeniably hinder in taking a perfectly rational decision.

Conclusion:

This study reveals about the contributions that behavioral economics make in interpreting the basis of evaluating choices, and undergoing the process of decision making. Research in this discipline has demonstrated how individuals tend to be persuaded and swayed easily from the rational pattern, thus creating circumstantial and descriptive decision patterns. Provided with a limited period of time and computational resources, decision makers are compelled to resort to heterogeneous heuristic influences and simplified representations of alternatives as the premise of assessing their judgment calls. Anchoring biases, cognitive outlines, magnitude of prototypical alternatives, access to memory and retro-assessment alternatives, are included in the predictive nature of decisional behavior studies measured by the behavioral economics. The prospect theory substantially holds the power to manipulate people's decisions by framing the data in different ways (Kanheman and Tversky). The experiments have also shown how people have asymmetric attitudes towards effect of risk and losses when mounted differently, just like how losses leave a greater impact than gains.

In reality, the work of many authors and their experiments have unveiled that people are subjected to perceptual errors and cognitive biases. The manner in which a situation is interpreted and the choices made can be described by psychological principals that often, are not statically optimal and generally oppose the neoclassical economic theories.

Thus, the main emphasis in this research study is that for the inclusivity for a proper analysis, in taking the economy forward, by studying and understanding the attitudes and psychological foundation and mechanism of people. Behavioral economics is especially useful when achievement of optimality in making a decision is unfavorable and yet are of utmost importance such as education, mate choices, career, buying cars and houses, and even child bearing. It is also seen how everyday decisions made by ordinary people, are in fact specifically designed by the market and political forces, to bias choice towards what the designer wants to happen. Little is known of how the brain works, when facing such common yet adversarial problems. The intricate approach in the process of evaluating choices is seemingly difficult to comprehend and may hamper the economic perspective, but it is also of primary importance to take all the factors into consideration for a sustainable solution on which future pillars can be built for an economy.

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Why Millennials Stay: Use Organizational Support for Development to Predict Turnover Intentions

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate the mediating effect of organizational embeddedness dimensions (fit, links, and sacrifice) in the relationship between organizational support for development and turnover intentions. We employed a self-reported online survey to collect the data from millennial employees working in consulting firms in Jakarta and its surroundings (N = 179, 59.2% female, Mage = 25 years old) and were analyzed using mediation technique on HAYES PROCESS macro in SPSS v. 21. The results show that fit, links, and sacrifice as dimensions of organizational embeddedness together mediated the relationship between organizational support for development and turnover intentions. We found that the conservation of resources theory strongly explains the mediating effect of organizational engagement dimensions. The organizational support for development provided by organizations is seen as resources by employees, which in turn will affect their fitness experience with organizations, relationships with others and will be burdened to sacrifice these resources. In other words, employees will be embedded in the organization, which, in turn, will reduce their intention to leave the organization. The theoretical and practical implications will be discussed in this study.

Keywords: Turnover Intentions, Organizational Support for Development, Organizational Embeddedness, Millennials

1. Introduction

Employees are one of the main factors that support the organization to be able to achieve its objectives. Therefore, organizations must retain their best employees because they are the most valuable assets for the organization. Currently, there are various generations (millennial, X, and baby boomers) who work together in one workplace. In Indonesia, the total workforce of all generations is (Gen baby boomer, X, millennial) 160,369,900, and the millennial generatio-n is 39% of the entire workforce (Statistics Indonesia, 2016). Furthermore, Deloitte Indonesia Perspective (2019) explains that currently, the millennial percentage in Indonesia is the most

significant number (33.75%), followed by the number of generation Z (29.23%), generation X (25.74%), and the least is baby boomers and veterans (11.27%).

Previous research has found that organizations need to manage different generations in the workplace so that they can develop a strategic approach to meet the needs of each generation (motivation, work environment, compensation, and human resource policies) (Kupperschmidt, 2000). Furthermore, a study compares the turnover of millennials employees, and older generations (generation X and baby boomers) show that there are significant turnover differences in each generation (Ertas, 2015). Millennials are known as the generation that significantly has the highest turnover intentions compared to the older generation (Gen X and baby boomers), i.e., 31% vs. 24% (Ertas, 2015; Tramonte, 2012; Yusoff, Queiri, Zakaria, & Hisham, 2013). The results of a survey conducted by Deloitte (2016) for millennials employees from 29 countries found that the majority of millennials employees will leave their organizations before 2020. Specifically, of the 300 millennials employees in Indonesia, 62% of them will leave the organization within five years going forward (Deloitte, 2016).

Turnover is an important thing that needs to be considered by the organization because it can make the organization lose costs about 1.5 times the salary of the employee (visible expenses, e.g., advertising, recruitment costs, etc. and invisible costs, e.g., decreased organizational productivity due to vacant positions) (Aamodt, 2010). Also, employee turnover is a detrimental behavior for the organization because the organization has invested money, time, and effort in developing its employees (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden & Bravo, 2011). The same thing was stated by (Butali, Wesang & Mamuli, 2013) that turnover causes loss of productivity, profitability, company knowledge, skills, and competencies.

One of the industry with a high turnover rate is a consulting company. It was showed by a survey of 31 influential consulting firms by Top-Consultant.com, more than 60% of consulting companies indicated that employee retention became increasingly tricky (Blacklock, 2015). Retention in professional services is a well-known problem, especially in Big 4 - Deloitte, EY, KPMG, and PwC. They have employee turnover rates as high as 15% to 20% (Consultancy.uk, 2018). Turnover becomes a problem that significantly impedes the productivity of consulting firms because employees in this line of business always interact with external parties. It is in line with (Butali, Wesang & Mamuli, 2013) which states that turnover can make external organizations that collaborate with organizations find it difficult to maintain relations with the organization due to high employee turnover and difficult to know how to communicate effectively with the organization. It is related to correspondence between organizations that depend on employees to communicate, and the loss of one

of these members will affect organizational interaction (Butali, Wesang & Mamuli, 2013).

Turnover intentions are the best predictor and the main trigger of actual turnover (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005; Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004). Thus, this research will focus on turnover intentions. Turnover intentions indicate the chance that someone will change their work within a specified period (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004). Based on the employee turnover risk previously described, organizations need to find and find out what factors affect turnover intentions to enable the organization to improve conditions that trigger employee thoughts to stop (voluntary turnover) (Purba, Oostrom, Born, & van der Molen, 2016). Previous studies found that turnover intentions can be influenced by many factors, namely demographic predictors (age, gender), work-related predictors (stress, burnout, career, job demand), attitudes and perceptions (perceived organizational support, organizational support for development, perceived career opportunity, job embeddedness, job satisfaction, organizational commitment), and work environment predictors (organizational support, supervisor support, organizational culture) (Abelson, 1987; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Habib, Aslam, Hussain, Yasmeen, & Ibrahim, 2014; Huyghebaert, Gillet, Audusseau, & Fouquereau, 2019; Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012; Kim & Kao, 2014; Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden & Bravo, 2011; Schaufeli, & Bakker, 2004; Yusoff, Queiri, Zakaria, & Hisham, 2013).

Based on the above explanation, this research intended to explore more on turnover intentions of millennials employees who work in consulting firms. Specifically, we focus on organizational support for development (OSD) as a predictor of turnover intentions for millennials working in consulting firms. Organizational support for development is the employee's perception of organizational support in providing programs and opportunities that help employees develop their functional skills and managerial abilities (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden & Bravo, 2011). Blau (1964) explains OSD is positively related to retention. This is because, based on reciprocal norms on the perceived development support of employees, they become motivated to engage in job performance and remain with the organization (Cavanaugh & Noe, 1999).

Furthermore, previous research has proven that OSD influences employee turnover rates (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden & Bravo, 2011). These findings are related to the characteristics of participants in this study, namely millennials. Based on research results, millennials value professional development more than the previous generation (generation X and baby boomers), which is 59% vs. 44% & 41% (Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008; Adkins & Rigoni, 2016). The statement is supported by the results

of research that 87% of millennials consider professional development or career growth opportunities to be very important for them in a job. When they do not get career advancement and development in their organization, they will look for work elsewhere and create a pattern of job-hopping (Adkins & Rigoni, 2016; Arruda, 2017; Harris, 2016). In fact, in the consulting industry itself, 94% of junior consultants are more interested in companies that offer skills development and 92% in those who have clear career development. Offering every junior consultant in the organization, the opportunity to develop and grow can be a good incentive for them to stay. In other words, it is unlikely to leave if they learn something new every day (Consultancy.uk, 2018). Therefore, professional development is one of the main factors in maintaining the generation of millennials to survive in the organization.

We suspect that there is a mediating role that influences the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. To our knowledge, research on the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions, specifically on millennials employees in consulting firms, which was investigated through the role of mediation, still lacked. Thus we interested in knowing whether there is a mediating role in the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions.

1.1 Organizational Embeddedness Dimensions as Mediator

In this study, we chose organizational embeddedness (OE) as a mediator variable. The reason we decided OE is that this variable explains the primary factors and ideas that make a person attached to the organization. Mitchell et al. (2001) demonstrated that job embeddedness is factors that originate from organizations and from outside the organization consisting of fit, links, and sacrifices that make employees attached to the organization. Each dimension explains the attachment to the organization as a whole, namely organizational embeddedness and community embeddedness. In this study, we focus on organizational embeddedness because the OSD variable discusses individual perceptions of the organizational environment so that OE is more relevant for this study. Fit defined as the extent to which employee values, career goals, and planning for the future match the culture and career realities in the organization. Links defined as formal and informal relationships that are established by employees with colleagues, workgroups, superiors, and the organization as a whole. Sacrifice shows the burden felt by employees when leaving the organization. Furthermore, the impact of OE is decreased turnover and absenteeism, increased organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, employee innovation (Lee et al., 2004; Ng & Feldman, 2010).

We use the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) as a theoretical basis in explaining the mechanism of the relationship between OSD, OE

and turnover intentions. COR theory explains that a person will try to defend, protect and build resources and will feel threatened if they lose these resources (Hobfoll, 1989). The intended resource can be a state or condition resource, personal resource, object resource (Harris, Wheeler, and Kacmar, 2011). We suspect OSD has a negative effect on turnover intentions because someone with a high OSD will be more motivated to stay in the organization because they feel the organization cares about their development (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Lee & Bruvold, 2003), thereby reducing intentions to leave the organization. However, we assumed the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions can be explained better through OE. Specifically, the explanation of the relationship between the three variables based on the COR theory is as follows:

Millennials employees with high OSD scores will be more motivated because they feel they have the support of the organization in developing their careers in the organization. The support provided in the form of programs and opportunities is considered a resource that supports employees in achieving development following their career goals. It makes employees feel fit with the organization because the organization provided programs and opportunities that help them to achieve their career goals, which makes them experience fit between their values and the organizational values (fit) (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). Therefore, we hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1: The fit dimension mediates the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions.

Furthermore, employees with high OSD will be more motivated to build their resources by building formal or informal relationships or relationships to support their professional development within the organization (links). Development programs (e.g. off-site training) provided by organizations allow employees to interact with similar colleagues who reach out to several organizations, thus will expanding their networks and embedding them in organization (Kiazad, 2015; Lin, 1999). Based on the explanation above, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2: The links dimension mediates the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions.

Sacrifice explains the burden felt by employees when leaving the organization. The implementation of development programs results in job sacrifice due to the accumulation of investment in human capital (e.g. training, educational credentials)

and investment costs (e.g. time, opportunity) (Ng & Feldman, 2007; Kiazad, 2015) will be lost if one change occupations. In other words, employees will feel a very significant burden if they have to leave the organization (sacrifice). Therefore, we hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3: The sacrifice dimension mediates the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions.

Furthermore, we argue there is a combined mediating effect of organizational embeddedness dimensions (fit, links, and sacrifice) in the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. We used conservation resources theory as the ground theory to explain the relationship of all variables that individuals will strive to acquire, protect, and retain their resources (Hobfoll, 1989). In other words, employees will be attached to the organization to maintain the resources they have. The development program provided by the organizations will be considered as a resource by employees to achieve a career that is following with their interests (fit), then they will be encouraged to expand relations to attain their career goals (links), and will find it hard to sacrifice these resources (sacrifice). The statement is in line with previous research that employees will be motivated to continue working in organizations because career development support makes employees inherent in the organization and turnover will mean sacrificing something valuable related to employee career goals (Maertz & Campion, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). So that, in turn, will reduce employee intention to leave the organization (Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012). Thus we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Organizational embeddedness dimensions are a mediator in the relationship between organizational support for development and turnover intentions.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Participants and Procedures

The participants of this research are employees who are actively working in consulting firms in Jakarta and its surroundings. The reason we chose the Jakarta and its surrounding area is that this region has a lot of job opportunities, so the possibility for an employee to move around the workplace is higher. Second, we focus on millennials employee, who was born in 1981-1999 (Meriac, Woehr, & Banister, 2010) because they have the highest turnover intentions compared to the older generation (generation X and baby boomers) (Ertas, 2015; Tramonte, 2012; Yusoff, Queiri,

Zakaria, & Hisham, 2013).

Third, the participants were employees who have worked for at least six months because we assume within six months, an employee has adapted to his work environment and already has a picture of the organization where he works. Fourth, employees with a minimum educational background of bachelor's degree or equivalent. The reason we limit the educational background is because of employees who have gone through college will have a clearer career outlook and already knows the development needed to achieve their career goals.

The total sample of this study was 179 participants. This research is a correlational, quantitative study with a cross-sectional study research design (Kumar, 2011). Sampling in this study uses nonprobability sampling type convenience and accidental sampling. In both types, respondents are chosen based on their availability and willingness to become respondents (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). The mean age of participants was 25.16 (SD = 2.89). Majority of the participants held a bachelor's degree (90.5%).

2.2 Measurement

Turnover Intentions is measured using a turnover intentions measurement tool (Atan & Purba, 2018) adapted from the Mobley scale (1978). This instrument consisted of 3 items and used a 5-point Likert scale ($1 = \textit{strongly disagree}$, $5 = \textit{strongly agree}$). An example of the items is "I will leave this organization" ($\alpha = 0.90$).

Organizational Support for Development is measured using organizational support for development measurement tools by Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden & Bravo (2011). This instrument consisted of 6 items and used a 5-point Likert scale ($1 = \textit{strongly disagree}$, $5 = \textit{strongly agree}$). An example of the items is "My organization has programs and policies that help its employees to advance in their functional positions" ($\alpha = 0.92$).

Organizational Embeddedness is measured by organizational embeddedness tools by Purba (2015), which consisted of 13 items and used a 5-point Likert scale ($1 = \textit{strongly disagree}$, $5 = \textit{strongly agree}$). This scale measures organizational embeddedness in three dimensions, namely: fit, links, and sacrifice. Example items for each dimension are: "I feel I am a good fit for this organization" (organization-fit, $\alpha = 0.87$), "I have a strong relationship with many employees in this organization" (organization-links, $\alpha = 0.77$), and "I will sacrifice many things in the life of this organization if I leave" (organization-sacrifice, $\alpha = 0.81$). The Cronbach alpha figure shows that the instruments used in this study have a high internal consistency.

2.3 Common Method Variance Test (CMV)

All variables in this study were obtained from self-reports and used the same method, thereby increasing the possibility of common method bias problems. Therefore, we use Harman's single-factor test to test common method biases. We found that there were four factors out of a total of 22 items that had more than one eigenvalue, and showed that the first factor had 40.57% of the variance. Because the first factor in this study is below 50%, it is improbable that CMV will influence this study (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

3. Results

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of all research variables and dependent variables using the Pearson technique.

Table 1.

Means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	25.16	2.89	-									
2. Gender	1.59	0.49	-.12	-								
3. Degree	2.02	0.30	.29**	.01	-							
4. Job Tenure	19.75	14.40	.61**	-.05	.11	-						
5. OEF	3.62	0.69	.22**	-.05	.10	.22**	(0.87)					
6. OEL	3.57	0.67	.06	.02	.12	.24**	.41**	(0.77)				
7. OES	2.79	0.94	.15*	-.02	.16*	.15*	.52**	.44**	(0.81)			
8. OE	3.41	0.60	.18*	-.02	.15*	.26**	.82**	.78**	.79**	(0.87)		
9. OSD	3.45	0.83	.15	-.16*	.10	.12	.60**	.26**	.47**	.56**	(0.92)	
10. TOI	3.31	1.07	-.26**	.09	-.07	-.05	-.64**	-.19*	-.51**	-.56**	-.55**	(0.90)

Notes. N = 179. Age was measured in years; Gender was dummy-coded (1 = male, 2 = female); Job tenure is measured in months; Degree was dummy-coded (1 = Diploma, 2 = Bachelor's Degree, 3 = master's degree). All other scales were measured on a 5-point scale. The number in diagonal line is *Cronbach's Alpha* of each measuring. OEF = Organizational Embeddedness Fit. OEL = Organizational Embeddedness Links. OES = Organizational Embeddedness Sacrifice. OE = Organizational Embeddedness. OSD = Organizational Support for Development. TOI = Turnover Intentions ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$. The number on the diagonal is *Cronbach's Alpha* of each measuring instrument.

Based on the results of correlation analysis, we found that there is a negative and significant relationship between age and turnover intentions ($r = -.26$, $p < .01$). Meanwhile, the gender, degree and job tenure of the participants did not have a significant relationship with turnover intentions. Thus, we control for age in our further analyses. Hereafter, OSD has a negative and significant relationship with

turnover intentions ($r = -.55, p < .01$). OSD also has a positive and significant relationship with OE dimensions; fit ($r = .60, p < .01$), links ($r = .26, p < .01$) and sacrifice ($r = .47, p < .01$). OE dimensions also have a negative and significant relationship with turnover intentions; fit ($r = .64, p < .01$), links ($r = .19, p < .05$) and sacrifice ($r = .51, p < .01$). Finally, OE has a negative and significant relationship with turnover intentions ($r = -.56, p < .01$).

To test the hypothesis, we used the regression method from Hayes on SPSS v.21. Because correlation analysis proves that age was related to turnover intentions, we controlled the age variable in the analysis. The mediation model test was carried out with the bootstrapping method of 10000 bootstrap samples with a biased corrected confidence interval. To see whether the effect is significant is determined from Confidence Intervals (CI). If the resulting CI does not exceed zero, then the effect value is significant.

Table 2.

Direct and indirect effects between organizational support for development and turnover intentions for serial mediation ($N = 179$)

Mediating Variable	Organizational Support for Development			
	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
Total Effect	-0.67	0.08	-0.82	-0.51
Direct Effect	-0.25	0.08	-0.41	-0.09
Indirect Effect	-0.42	0.07	-0.57	-0.30
(Total)				
Indirect Effect of OSD on TOI through fit	-0.33	0.07	-0.47	-0.22
Indirect Effect of OSD on TOI through links	0.01	0.02	-0.03	0.05
Indirect Effect of OSD on TOI through sacrifice	-0.07	0.03	-0.15	-0.03
Indirect Effect of OSD on TOI through fit and links in serial	-0.05	0.02	0.02	0.10
Indirect Effect of OSD on TOI through fit and sacrifice in serial	-0.04	0.02	-0.10	-0.01
Indirect Effect of OSD on TOI through links and sacrifice in serial	-0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.02
Indirect Effect of OSD on TOI through fit, links and sacrifice in serial	-0.02	0.01	-0.05	-0.01

The results from Table 2 showed that the total effect of OSD on turnover intentions is negative and significant (*total effect* = -0.67, *SE* = 0.08, 95% *CI* [-0.82, -0.51]). After fit, links, and sacrifice dimensions included in the model, the direct effect of the OSD on turnover intentions was still negative and significant (direct effect = -0.25, *SE* = 0.08, 95% *CI* [-0.41, -0.09]). Hypothesis 1 stated that fit dimension mediates the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. As shown in Table 2, the indirect effect of the OSD on turnover intentions via fit dimension is significant

(*indirect effect* = -0.33, *SE* = 0.07, *CI 95%* [-0.47, -0.22]), supporting our Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 stated that links dimension mediates the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. As shown in Table 2, the interaction was not significant (*indirect effect* = 0.01, *SE* = 0.02, *CI 95%* [-0.03, 0.05]). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Hypothesis 3 stated that sacrifice dimension mediates the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. As shown in Table 2, sacrifice mediated the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions (*indirect effect* = -0.07, *SE* = 0.03, *CI 95%* [-0.15, -0.03]), supporting our Hypothesis 3. Furthermore, Hypothesis 4 stated that fit, links, and sacrifice dimensions mediated the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. The results showed that fit, links, and sacrifice dimensions mediated the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions (*indirect effect* = -0.02, *SE* = 0.01, *CI 95%* [-0.05, -0.01]). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

4. Discussion

This study aims to investigate the role of organizational embeddedness dimensions on the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. As shown in Table 2, the organizational embeddedness dimensions (fit, links, and sacrifice) together have a role as a mediator in the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. The findings are in line with the theoretical basis used in this study, COR theory, which demonstrates that individuals will try to defend, protect, and build their resources and will feel threatened if they lose these resources (Hobfoll, 1989). In this case, the development support provided by the organization will be considered as a resource by the individual to be able to achieve their career goals, which makes them feel burdened to leave the organization and choose to remain in the organization. In the following, we present our discussion for each hypothesis.

First, our result showed that fit mediated the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. Employees feel fit with the organization because the organization provided programs and opportunities that help them to achieve their career goals, which makes them experience fit between their values and the organizational values and decrease turnover intentions. This result shows that it is crucial to pay attention to the compatibility of values between employees and organizations because employees are more willing to stay with the organization if they have something in common (Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007; Schneider, 1987). However, we found that links do not have a role as mediators in the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. This result shows that formal and informal networks owned by employees do not influence employees in deciding to stay in the organization. Lastly, we found that sacrifice mediated the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. This result is in line with previous research that individuals will feel burdened to leave the organization

because it means they have to sacrifice the resources they have from the organization, namely the development or investment program in human resources (Ng & Feldman, 2007; Kiazad, 2015)

The results of this study broaden understanding regarding turnover intentions, precisely turnover intentions on millennials employees in consulting firms. This study has also expanded the literature regarding predictors of turnover intentions by proving that OSD is associated with turnover intentions in millennials employees. The findings support previous research that millennials employees value professional development and assess that professional development is very important in a job and will look for work elsewhere when they don't get career advancement and development in their organization (Adkins & Rigoni, 2016; Arruda, 2017; Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008; Harris, 2016).

5. Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that there is a role for organizational embeddedness dimensions, fit, links, and sacrifice, as a mediator in the relationship between OSD and turnover intentions. Resources in the form of development support from the organization will make employees attached to the organization and reduce the intention to leave the organization. Thus, the results of this study prove that companies need to pay attention to career development support needed to reduce employee turnover intentions through millennials through OE. This research is also the first research that empirically proves the role of organizational embeddedness dimensions as a mediator on the relationship between organizational support for development and turnover intentions.

6. Practical Implications

Based on the results of the study, we proved that OSD affects turnover intentions through organizational embeddedness dimensions, so it can be a consideration for companies to improve employee OSD perceptions to reduce turnover intentions. There are several ways that the organization can do to improve employee OSD, namely: first, facilitate employees in development activities. Employee participation in training or workshops enhances OSD perception because the training and development program gives essential signals to employees that the organization has invested in them, and they are considered valuable resources in the organization (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden & Bravo, 2011). Second, create developmental work relationships. For example, leader-member exchange (LMX) and career mentoring have a positive relationship with OSD. It is because employees who spend more time developing social ties with influential superiors in organizations tend to be more

likely to participate in development activities (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden & Bravo, 2011; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Therefore, social relations will become an active and crucial information source to support the career development of employees in the organization (Sturges, Guest, Conway, & Davey, 2002). Thus, in turn, it will increase OSD and reduce turnover intentions.

7. Limitation and Future Research

This study has limitations that all measurements in this study are self-reports, which will increase the emergence of common method biases. Nonetheless, the results of our tests of common method variance showed that there was only little possibility of common method variance (CMV) to affect this research. We suggest future studies to collect data from various sources, for example, using self-reports accompanied by peer reviews or conducting data collection for each variable at different times. Furthermore, this study is also correlational so that it is only limited to explaining the relationship between variables without showing a causal relationship between variables. Thus, future research can consider conducting experimental or longitudinal research to prove the causal relationship between variables. Also, further research can examine further with different groups of respondents, for example, comparing between generations or comparing with various industries.

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Will Good Organizational Climate Hold Back Your Employee from Leaving? Studying the Effect of Organizational Climate on Turnover Intention using Affective Commitment as Mediator and Organizational Mobility Preferences and General Self-Efficacy as Moderator

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ABSTRACT

Turnover has various implications for the company, group and individual, and still become researchers and practitioners' concern over the years. One factor that predicts turnover intention is organizational climate. This study examines the relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention with affective commitment as a mediator. We also predicted that the relationship between organizational climate and affective commitment also influenced by organizational mobility preferences and general self-efficacy. Two hundred ninety full-time private employees participated in this research. Using path analysis, we found that the model we proposed had a good fit with chi-square = 14.28 ($df = 4$, $p = .006$), RMSEA = 0.094, NFI = 0.99, and CFI = 0.99. We also found that organizational climate had a significant direct effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.49$, $p < .05$). However, there's no significant relationship between affective commitment and turnover intention ($\beta = .05$, $p > .05$). General self-efficacy and organizational mobility preferences also failed to act as moderator on the relationship between organizational climate and affective commitment.

Keywords: Turnover intention, organizational climate, affective commitment, organizational mobility preferences, general self-efficacy.

1. Introduction

Employees who leave an organization, or turnover, has a significant impact, both financially and non-financially, for many organizations over the years (Gim, Desa, & Ramayah, 2015). The average costs due to turnover reached around 30-50% from the overall yearly salary for the entry-level employee, and this number increased as the increment of the level of employee (Pertiwi, 2018). Besides the loss of talented and important employees, organizations also need extra energy and time for recruitment and development processes (Boushey & Glynn, 2012; Elkjaer & Filmer, 2015). In group and individual level, turnover can cause the loss of seniority, non-vested benefits, irreplaceable cost related to moving, family disruption, transitional stress, loss of friends, and reduced family bound for individuals who leave the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Increase of workload, reduced performance, stress, lower the positive work attitude, and loss of friendships may also appear as the impact of turnover for those who still work in the organization with high turnover. Therefore, a higher turnover rate in an organization is more likely making employees' performance lessen (Park & Shaw, 2013).

A meta-analysis study on turnover found three factors that influence turnover; they are external factors (e.g. employee perception, unemployment rate, and the presence of labor union), factors related to work (e.g. salary, performance, role clarity, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment), and personal factors (e.g. age, sex, position, education level, marital status, intelligence level, skills, and expectation fulfillment (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Factors related to work is one of the factors that could be intervened to reduce the turnover level in an organization. Another meta-analysis also found that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are the main

variables that affect turnover level, and organizational commitment predicts turnover more than overall job satisfaction (Kim & Kao, 2014).

Unfortunately, it is difficult and not practical to calculate the actual turnover level in one study (Gim et al., 2015). It is also unethical for an organization to share its turnover data due to privacy issues. Hence, turnover intention is studied as a variable to predict actual turnover level (Gim et al., 2015). Turnover intention is someone's intention to quit a company, and it manifests their independent choice to leave the organization (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). It is found that turnover intention has a positive relationship with actual turnover, which means that turnover intention can express the actual turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978).

1.1 Turnover Intention and Organizational Climate

One of the most frequent predictors of turnover intention is organizational climate attributes (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Employees' perception about their work environment such as procedures, organizational events and practice, i.e. organizational climate attributes, is the source of their judgment regarding their workplace (Jones & James, 1979; Pullig, Maxham, & Hair, 2002). It is also known that organizational climate has impact on not only employees' performance, but also their turnover intention (Akyüz, Kaya, & Özgeldi, 2015; Claiborne, Auerbach, Zeitlin, & Lawrence, 2015; Joe, Hung, Chiu, Lin, & Hsu, 2018; Nandedkar & Brown, 2017; Rentsch, 1990). According to person-organization fit (P-O fit) theory, a situation where someone regard their value is aligned and fit with organizational culture, they will likely stay in the current organization and have lower intention to leave the company (Akyüz et al., 2015; Bindu & Srikanth, 2019; Cable & DeRue, 2002). Therefore, it is expected that organizational climate predicts turnover intention.

1.2 Turnover Intention and Affective Commitment

Most studies on organizational commitment were related to turnover intention, which concluded that a person with high commitment is more likely to stay in their current organization (Cohen, 1993; Mowday et al., 1982). Organizational commitment defines as employees' psychological state that describes their relationship toward the organization and the source of their decision regarding their presence in the current company (Meyer & Allen, 1991). It shows that employees who have a high commitment tend to stay in their organization.

Organizational commitment has three separate and stand-alone factors, which are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that affective commitment is the most effective component that could describe organizational commitment. Affective commitment is the element that better explains the broader organizational attitude including turnover intention than the other two factors (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). It has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention which means that the higher affective commitment someone has, the lower their intention to leave the organization (Gim et al., 2015). Therefore, we will focus on the affective component of organizational commitment in its relationship with turnover intention.

1.3 Affective Commitment and Organizational Climate

Few factors act as the antecedents of affective commitment; they are individual characteristics, organizational structure, and work experience (Mowday et al., 1982). Individual characteristics and work experiences directly affected affective commitment while organizational structure related to affective commitment indirectly. The direct relationship between work experience and affective commitment is based on the assumption that commitment is growing as a result of work experience that fulfilled employees need and align with someone's value (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organizational climate is categorized as one of work experience that has impacts on affective commitment. Organizational climate defined as a shared perception of organizational member regarding their work environment (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Imran, Saeed, Anis-ul-Haq, & Fatima,

2010; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013). The organizational climate could satisfy employees needs to feel physically and psychologically comfortable which would bring employees' affective commitment. Employees perception toward their organizational climate could also influence individual perception about the alignment between individual and organizational goals which caused an employee to commit with their organization (Decotiis & Summers, 1987).

1.4 Organizational Climate, Affective Commitment, and Turnover

There are few studies proof that commitment mediate the relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention (Gim et al., 2015; Hung, Lee, & Lee, 2018; Langkamer & Ervin, 2008; Parker et al., 2003; Rubel, Kee, Quah, & Rimi, 2017; Şahin, 2011). Based on the belief-attitude-behavioral intention model, attitude is set to mediate the relationship between belief and behavioral intention (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Hill, Fishbein, & Ajzen, 1977). Organizational climate acts as a belief, is predicted to influence behavior in the type of turnover intention while affective commitment, as an attitude, mediates that relationship (Gim et al., 2015). The employee could develop feelings of affective commitment mainly from positive work-related experiences that generate from their organizational climate (Langkamer & Ervin, 2008; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Thus, employees' recognition and understanding of the organizational climate would initially impact affective commitment toward their company and therefore further adjust or change their intentions to leave the organization (Şahin, 2011).

1.5 General Self-Efficacy as Moderator

Based on the conceptual model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991), the relationship between work experience and affective commitment is moderated by individual characteristics. One factor that could influence affective commitment that relates to individual characteristics is self-efficacy (Meyer et al., 2002). Self-efficacy developed as different form as their specific context, but there's also a type of self-efficacy that applicable in a various condition called as general self-efficacy (Luszczynska, Scholz, & Schwarzer, 2005). General self-efficacy is a belief that someone could handle any challenging and stressful demands (Luszczynska et al., 2005). General self-efficacy has been found as one of the variables influencing affective commitment (Agarwal & Mishra, 2016).

1.6 Organizational Mobility Preferences as Moderator

Boundaryless career attitudes is a variable related to the employees' movement phenomenon (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996). Boundaryless career attitudes is an individual preference to work beyond the boundary set by an organization (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996). Both definitions show that boundaryless career attitude could act as variables that weaken affective commitment.

Boundaryless career attitudes have two components, which are organizational mobility preferences and boundaryless mindset (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Organizational mobility preferences are the actual movement of an employee from a different organization; and boundaryless mindset is an attitude shows by someone who comfortable passing organizational boundary (Briscoe, Hall, & DeMuth, 2006; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Organizational mobility preferences are the only component that has an impact on affective commitment (Çakmak-Otluoğlu, 2012). Therefore, this research will only focus on organizational mobility preferences.

Based on the previous literature review, we then developed the following hypothesis (Figure 1):

1a: There is a significant relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention.

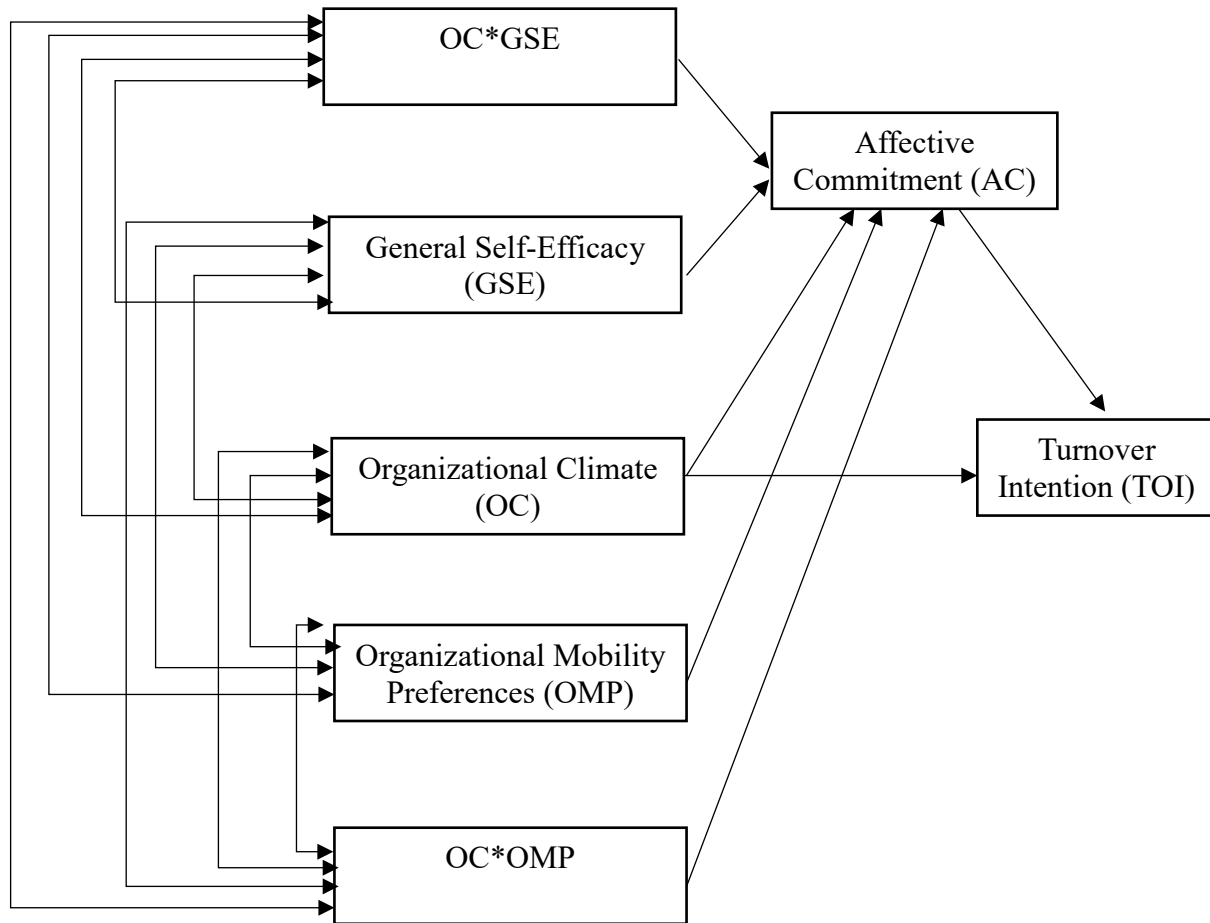
1b: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention.

2a: There is a significant relationship between organizational climate and affective commitment.

2b: There is a significant relationship between organizational mobility preferences and affective commitment.

- 2c: Organizational mobility preferences weaken the relationship between organizational climate and affective commitment.
- 3a: There is a significant relationship between general self-efficacy and affective commitment
- 3b: General self-efficacy strengthen the relationship between organizational climate and affective commitment.
- 4: The relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention is mediated by affective commitment while organizational mobility preferences weaken and general self-efficacy strengthen their relationship.

Figure 1. Research Model



2. Research Methodology

We used non-experimental quantitative research and a cross-sectional and between-subject design. This research used the online self-report questionnaire to gather data from participants. Microsoft Excel, SPSS, and AMOS used in analyzing data using path analysis. Participants' were full-time employees who had at least one-year tenure in private companies with a non-contract agreement. It is assumed that employee who works in a private company has a higher chance to leave the organization than those who work in a public company. Also, one year tenure is the minimum ideal threshold for someone to assess their affective commitment and organizational mobility preferences (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Çakmak-Otluoğlu, 2012). Non-probability sampling used as the sampling method in this research since the researcher didn't precisely know the population with such character. Convenience sampling method also used in this research as the participant's willingness to participate is essential in their participation in this research.

2.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first section consisted of questions used to measure affective commitment. The second section included items to measure general self-efficacy, organizational mobility preferences, and turnover intention. Section three consist of organizational climate measurement. All of the questionnaires translated to Bahasa Indonesia using translation method proposed by Sousa & Rojjanasrirat (2010).

Affective Commitment. Affective Commitment Scale developed by Meyer and Allen and revised by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (Meyer & Allen, 2004). This questionnaire consisted of six unidimensional items, and three of them were reversed-keyed items. Participants were asked to give responses on each item using one to seven scale.

General Self-Efficacy. New Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSE Scale) developed by Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) used to measure general self-efficacy. This scale consisted of eight unidimensional items using a five-point Likert scale.

Organizational Mobility Preferences. We used a questionnaire developed by Briscoe and Hall (2005) named as Boundaryless Career Attitudes Scale (BCAS). We only used five items which measure organizational mobility preferences. All five items are reversed-keyed item and measured using a five-point Likert scale.

Turnover Intention. Turnover intention measure using Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) which has three unidimensional items developed by Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978)). This scale is measured using a five-point Likert scale.

Organizational Climate. Organizational Climate Scale (CLIOR) developed by Peña-Suárez, Muñiz, Campillo-Álvarez, Fonseca-Pedrero, and García-Cueto (2013) which consisted of fifteen unidimensional items. This research used a six-point Likert scale.

3. Result

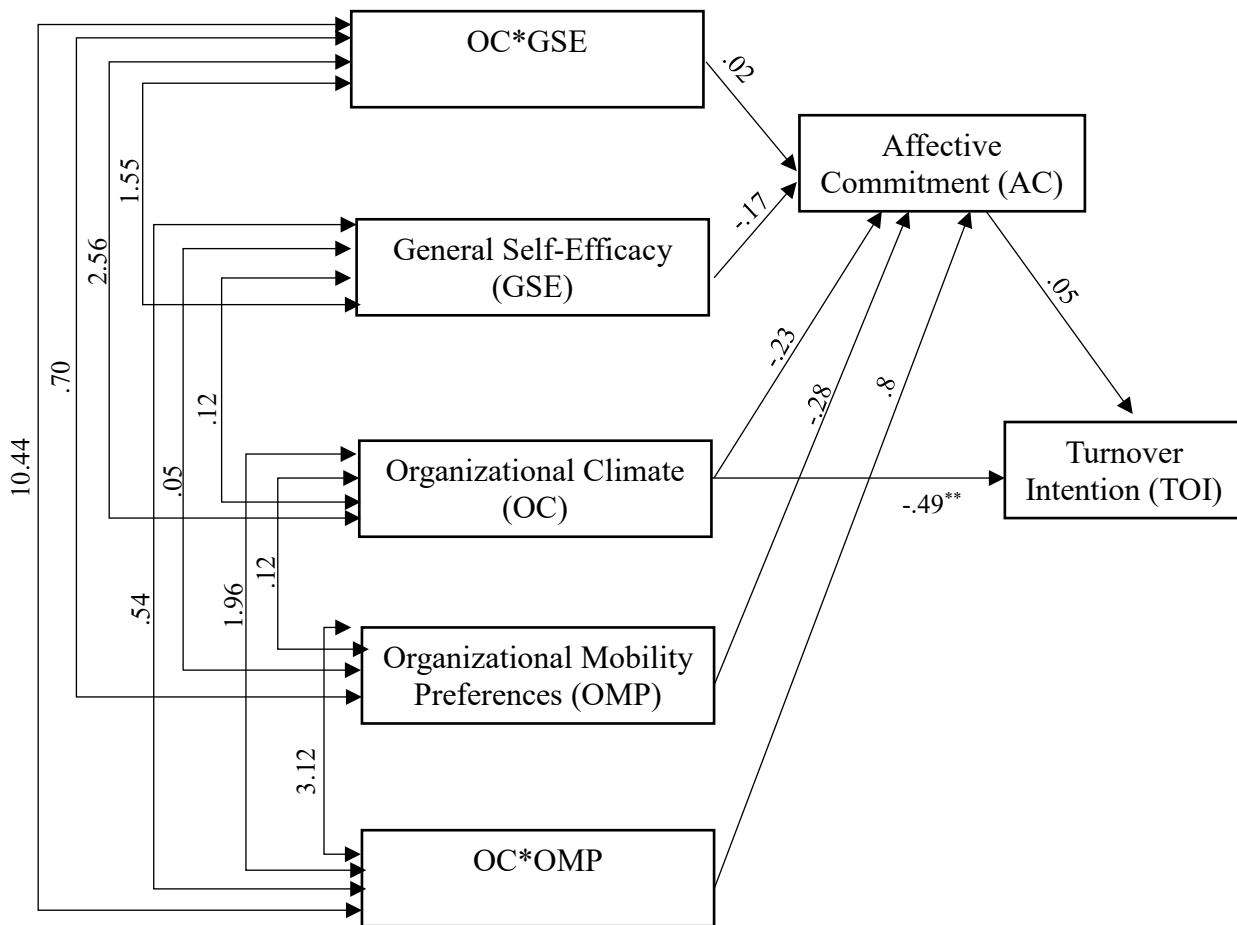
Two hundred ninety respondents (50.7% female, $M_{age} = 25$ years old) who work in the private sector participated in this research. A path analysis was used to examine the relationships between organizational commitment, affective commitment, turnover intention, general self-efficacy, and organizational mobility preferences in one single model. The results of path analysis showed that the model had a good fit with chi-square = 14.28 ($df = 4, p = .006$), RMSEA = 0.094, NFI = 0.99, and CFI = 0.99. Organizational climate had a significant direct effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.49, p < .05$). However, affective commitment did not significantly influence turnover intention ($\beta = .05, p > .05$). The interaction between organizational climate and general self-efficacy did not have a significant effect on affective commitment ($\beta = .03, p > .05$). The interaction between organizational climate and organizational mobility preferences also did not have a significant effect on affective commitment ($\beta = .08, p > .05$).

Table 1

The Relationship between Variables

Variables	α	M	SD	GSE	OC	OMP	AC
General Self-Efficacy (GSE)	.87	4.07	.51	-			
Organizational Climate (OC)	.82	4.25	.71	.32**	-		
Organizational Mobility Preferences (OMP)	.76	2.82	.79	.12*	.22**	-	
Affective Commitment (AC)	.81	3.86	.73	-.01	.10	.09	-
Turnover Intention (TOI)	.81	3.39	1.03	-.06	-.33**	-.25**	.00

Figure 2. Path Analysis Result



The result suggested that a model of organizational climate, turnover intention, affective commitment, organizational mobility preferences, general self-efficacy were fit. However, the regression only works in the relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention. It indicates that a good organizational climate will likely lessen employees' intention to quit the organization. While we used correlation analysis, there are few significant relationships between variables. Organizational climate has positive correlation with general self-efficacy ($r = .32, p < .01$) and organizational mobility preferences ($r = .22, p < .01$), also negative relationship with turnover intention ($r = -.33, p < .01$). In addition, there are positive relationship between organizational mobility preferences and general self-efficacy ($r = .12, p < .05$) and negative relationship between organizational mobility preferences and turnover intention ($r = -.25, p < .01$).

4. Conclusion

The null hypotheses that rejected were hypothesis 1a and hypothesis 4, which means that there was a significant relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention and the relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention was mediated by affective commitment while organizational mobility preferences weaken, and general self-efficacy strengthen their relationship. This research is also in line with prior research which showed a significant relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention (Ahmad, Ali, & Ahmad, 2012; Bahrami, Barati, Ghoroghchian, Montazer-alfaraj, & Ezzatabadi, 2016; Hosseini & Nia, 2015; Kouhi, Tal Azar, Akbari Haghighi, Rahimi Foroushani, & Pourreza, 2013). The results of this study implied that companies need to improve the quality of the organizational climate to

reduce turnover in the organization. Organizational climate is described by Peña-Suárez et al., (2013) as physical conditions, work organization, relations, cooperation, working hours and work-life balance, autonomy, innovation, participation and attachment to work. Therefore, by improving the quality of these various things will enhance employee perceptions of the work environment and will reduce employee intentions to leave the organization.

In this study, organizational mobility preferences and general self-efficacy failed to be a moderator in the relationship between organizational climate and affective commitment. Affective commitment also was unable to be a mediator in the relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention. This might occur because of the statistical analysis method being used. The use of path analysis showed the suitability of the research model with data, but the insignificant regression might be caused by the absence of other variables that can be a link between the variables studied (Schumacker, Lomax, & Group, 2010). And so, the relationship between organizational climate and turnover intention might be mediated by other variables not measured in the study. Also, path analysis is a statistical technique that requires a large number of respondents compared to other multivariable methods such as multiple regression or factor analysis (Streiner, 2005). Thus, insignificant results can also come from the number of participants which is only 290 people; if the data is reproduced, there is a possibility that these results can be significant.

Although this research has contributed to a deeper understanding of turnover intention, it is essential to know that there are certain potential limitations. One of them is related to the moderation function which is not proven by organizational mobility preferences and general self-efficacy. Besides, research methods that use self-report can cause bias (social desirability) and increase systematic measurement errors so that they can cause type I errors and type II errors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Although this research was carried out specific techniques to control common method biases as suggested by Podsakoff et al., (2003), namely maintaining respondents' confidentiality, balancing the order of questions, and increasing the scale of measurement but there are still other possible errors. Measurement errors that include random components such as mood, time and place of participants when filling out questionnaires can also be limiting. The limitation could also cause by participants from various organizations who probably have a different organizational climate.

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Potential Influence of Trade Fairs: Myanmar Context

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ABSTRACT

Out of all the marketing instruments available, trade fairs offer by far the widest range of functions. This is where exhibitors can conduct business, cultivate their image, look for business partners or examine the market. The same applies to visitors. Trade fairs are the ideal place for surveying the market, comparing prices and sales terms, trying out products, discussing their applications and doing business (Kapferer, 1997). For this reason, even in the internet age the importance of trade fairs has not diminished. Today, many exhibitors pursue a wider range of aims at trade fairs than they did a number of years ago. However, in order to make a trade fair it is essential to prepare optimally and to choose the "right" event, the best option for meeting the stated objectives. It involves everything from choosing the right employees for one's stand to using advertising materials that target prospective visitors. Ultimately, the most important thing is to systematically collect and evaluate the contact information secured at trade fairs. The influence of constantly held trade fairs on the brands of organizing cities is rarely analyzed, however it has been noted that they can be treated as a city marketing tool and their positive impact on city image is often underestimated. The potential contributions of fairs to the host cities are rarely exploited, because the organizers tend not to see them as part of a long-term strategy of the city. The research analyses the potential influence of trade fairs on a host city brand. The investor-based place brand equity approach and the city branding framework are used as a theoretical basis for the analysis. The data from Myanmar are analyzed, taking their marketing strategies and the potential influence of constantly held trade shows on their brands into account (i) in terms of the contribution of fairs to the commercial infrastructure, (ii) in terms of city behaviour, (iii) in terms of place brand awareness and (iv) in term of city image. In conclusion, it has been found that the influence of trade fairs on the city brand concerns the place brand assets, both tangible (such as infrastructure, strategy) and intangible (city brand awareness, image). The image enhancement due to holding fairs may result in positioning of the city as a specialist in a chosen industry. The brands have a possibility to benefit from trade fairs held by these cities. However, for this to happen, the long-term development strategy of the city should include fairs as an important element of competitive advantage. This role should also be reflected in the city communication plan and in the choice of industries, on which the exhibitions should concentrate. Thus, the influence of trade fairs on city image is emerging, but its extent has to be confirmed by empirical studies. Finally, exhibitors must first of all be clear about what and how much they want to achieve and about how they want to measure the degree to which they have accomplished their aims. Calculating the benefits of quantifiable aims is done by determining the cost of the theoretical use of alternative marketing instruments. Thus, if a company wants to obtain a substantial number of new customer leads other than by taking part in a trade fair then the often costly and time-consuming sales force will come into play. The benefits of individual trade fair objectives are calculated thus and afterwards added together to determine the quantitative benefits of participation.

Keywords: Potential influence, Trade Fairs, Myanmar Context

1. Introduction

According to the definition by Moilanen (2008a), fairs (trade shows) are events that are held regularly, usually on public lands. They enjoy a recurring life cycle, they run for a short period of time, and contrary to exhibitions (like Expo) they are not highly organized. Their function is mainly stimulation of future sales – goods are bought and sold at fairs. Initially, trade fairs were horizontal in their organisation, with various products and / or services in specified industry groupings. Vertical organisation is more commonplace today with the exhibits being confined to one industry or a specialized segment of a specific industry. Buyers are usually business members of an industry and often must be pre-qualified to attend the fair. During trade shows, which are b2b events, companies in a specific industry can showcase and demonstrate their new products and services. However, mixed shows are also becoming popular, as well as special types of trade fairs. Mixed shows are a combination of trade and public shows, where the exhibition organizers open the event to trade and to public visitors. Special types of trade fairs are combined with other events such as seminars, fashion shows, special events and congresses. Such a combination raises visitor interest, driven by the high demand for information exchange and the availability of experts. The conference function influences the perception of a city's attractiveness as a business, technology, science, cultural and commercial centre. This research focuses on trade shows, addressed mainly at the market. Therefore, the analysis of implications of fairs for the city brand takes the perspective of the investor's target group and their perception of the city. Currently, especially in Asia, but also in Central and Eastern Europe numerous exhibition organizers expand their trade show programs. However, the benefits of the trade shows on the regions where they take place are often underestimated (Gallarza, Saura & Garcia, 2002). The UFI claims that, besides other economic and social impacts, exhibitions, trade and consumer shows help develop the town's image. Understanding of this impact on the brand of the city can help planning its branding activities.

(i) Characteristics to have successful events in branding destination and enhancing its image

According to the study conducted among destination marketing managers and event managers in Australia, events can be successful in branding the destination and enhancing its image if they have the following characteristics:

- (1) Longevity – after some time and systematic repetition of the event it becomes associated with the destination in the minds of potential visitors
- (2) Strong community support – long-running, recurring, home-grown events are more likely to receive strong community support.
- (3) Professionalism of organisation – it may be transferred from the event to the image of the destination, if the event is compatible with the destination.
- (4) Compatibility with the destination – it helps the event to be successful in imaging.
- (5) Media coverage – it is essential for the event to play a role in the destination branding.

The influence of constantly held trade fairs on the brands of organizing cities is rarely analyzed, however it has been noted that they can be treated as a city marketing tool and their positive impact on city image is often underestimated. The potential

contributions of fairs to the host cities are rarely exploited, because the organizers tend not to see them as part of a long-term strategy of the city. The article analyses the potential influence of trade fairs on a host city brand. The investor-based place brand equity approach and the city branding framework are used as a theoretical basis for the analysis. The cases of two cities from the eastern part of Poland are analyzed, taking their marketing strategies and the potential influence of constantly held trade shows on their brands into account. There have been numerous studies regarding the economic and social results of hosting sports, cultural and other special events. Events can have influence on the image of a community or organizing country, which leads to their positive perception as a potential travel destination.

(ii) Potential Influence of Trade Fairs on a Host City Brand

According to Moilanen (2008b), a brand is an impression perceived in a client's mind of a product or a service. It is a sum of all tangible and intangible elements, which makes the selection unique. The brand attributes are the tangible, intangible, psychological and sociological features related to the product. At the same time, due to globalisation, the infrastructure, quality of life and amenities in big cities become alike and there is a need for them to differentiate. It is worth finding out how holding trade fairs can help these cities build strong city brands. Therefore, the aim of this study is to analyse the potential influence of recurring events, such as trade fairs on a city brand from the theoretical perspective with a focus on the potential influence of trade shows on their brands. The investor-based place brand equity approach and the city branding framework are used as a theoretical basis for the analysis. The mechanism of image enhancement via the transfer of event images to images of the host city is also discussed. The presented results of the analysis will be used as a basis for an empirical study which will follow the theoretical part.

(iii) The City brand and its Elements

An important feature of a brand is that it is “made distinctive by its positioning relative to the competition and by its personality, which comprises a unique combination of functional attributes and symbolic values”. Like brands, cities satisfy functional, symbolic and emotional needs and the attributes that satisfy those needs need to be orchestrated into the city's unique proposition. Some cities are intentionally assuming an events-branding strategy, which is designed not only to attract attention and place recognition, but also to raise associations between the place and attributes regarded as being beneficial to its economic or social development (Laws, Scott, & Parfitt, 2002) . The focus of such a strategy should be the increase of place brand equity understood as “real and / or perceived assets and liabilities that are associated with a place and distinguish it from others”.

2. Methodology

The research analyses the potential influence of trade fairs on a host city brand in the context of Myanmar. The investor-based place brand equity approach and the city branding framework are used as a theoretical basis for the analysis. In this research, 136 participants including exhibitors, exhibition organizers and trade fair specialist and investors voluntarily participated. In the last few years an increasing number of research articles about place branding have been published.

(i) Characteristics to have successful events in branding destination and enhancing its image

Local, regional and national government officials and governments are turning to branding techniques to differentiate themselves on the global stage in order to find a competitive edge over rival cities, regions or nations. It can even attract foreign talents as well as help to increase exports from that place. Place branding focuses on the political, economic, social, environmental, historical, and cultural characteristics related to the concept of place. Table 1 shows the responses of the participants on characteristics to have successful events in branding destination and enhancing its image.

Table 1: Responses of the participants on characteristics to have successful events in branding destination and enhancing its image (n=136)

Sr No	Characteristics to have successful events in branding destination and enhancing its image		Responses of the participants				
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Longevity	After some time and systematic repetition of the event it becomes associated with the destination in the minds of potential visitors.	5.66%	5.05%	11.09%	63.87%	14.33%
2	Strong community support	Long-running, recurring, home-grown events are more likely to receive strong community support.	10.38%	10.04%	9.00%	57.06%	13.52%
		These events may have an impact on self-identity of the local people, who like to be associated with them.	11.34%	25.41%	11.60%	37.07%	14.58%
3	Professionalism of organisation	It may be transferred from the event to the image of the destination, if the event is compatible with the destination.	22.13%	21.05%	21.08%	27.11%	8.63%
4	Compatibility with the destination	It helps the event to be successful in imaging.	27.93%	26.48%	29.25%	11.93%	4.41%

5	Media coverage	It is essential for the event to play a role in the destination branding.	8.61%	13.04%	8.03%	60.10%	10.22%
Avg			31.19%		15.01%	53.81%	

Branding destination and enhancing its image is complex because it encompasses multiple dimensions, levels, disciplines, and stakeholders beyond conventional corporate, product or service branding. As a highly politicized activity, it can spark conflicting viewpoints and opinions that have repercussions for international relations and public diplomacy. According to the data, trade fairs are usually characterized by longevity (73.87% Agree and 14.33% Strongly Agree) and good media coverage (70.10% Agree and 10.22% Strongly Agree); they also seem to receive strong community support because of the beneficial effects they bring to the local economy.

(ii) Potential Influence of Trade Fairs on a Host City Brand

The influence of constantly held trade fairs on the brands of organizing cities has been noted that they can be treated as a city marketing tool and their positive impact on city image is often underestimated. The potential contributions of fairs to the host cities are rarely exploited, because the organizers tend not to see them as part of a long-term strategy of the city. The research analyses the potential influence of trade fairs on a host city brand. The data were collected by using the four strategies on their brands into account. Out of all the marketing instruments available trade fairs offer by far the widest range of functions. This is where exhibitors can conduct business, cultivate their image, look for business partners or examine the market. The same applies to visitors. Trade fairs are the ideal place for surveying the market, comparing prices and sales terms, trying out products, discussing their applications and doing business. Trade fairs on the city brand concerns the place brand assets, both tangible (such as infrastructure, strategy) and intangible (city brand awareness, image). According to the data, intangible assets (city brand awareness, image) have been noted more positive impact on city image (78.81%) than tangible assets (such as infrastructure, strategy) (63.67%).

Table 2: Responses of the participants on potential influence of trade fairs on a host city brand

Sr No	Place brand assets	Account on potential influence of constantly held trade shows on their brands	Responses					
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	
1	Tangible	In terms of the contribution of fairs to the commercial infrastructure	5.58%	13.00%	1.08%	74.37%	5.97%	63.67%
		In terms of city behaviour	15.39%	24.51%	13.11%	36.54%	10.45%	

2	Intangible	In terms of place brand awareness	2.29%	10.20%	4.68%	78.12%	4.71%	78.81%
		In term of city image	9.89%	11.69%	3.62%	68.97%	5.83%	
Avg			23.14%		5.62%	71.24%		

According to the data, it has been recommended by 78.12% of the participants that trade fairs on the city brand concerns the place brand assets, both tangible (such as infrastructure, strategy) and intangible (city brand awareness, image). According to the 68.97% of the participants, the image enhancement due to holding fairs may result in positioning of the city as a specialist in a chosen industry. Thus, participants think that the brands have a possibility to benefit from trade fairs held by these cities. According to the data, through the infrastructure constructed to hold fairs, they contribute to building the tangible place brand assets. The commercial infrastructure is also part of primary communication of place image (74.37% agree and 5.97% strongly agree). Another element of primary communication is the 'city behaviour' expressed for example via the city development strategy, which can include fairs as element of competitive advantage of the place. These elements may contribute to forming brand equity in a direct way (the dotted lines) or indirectly, through forming brand values (the solid lines). Moreover, the planned communication with trade fair clients contributes directly to an increase in city brand awareness, thus building the intangible place brand assets.

(iii) The City Brand and its Elements

Including the necessary application of branding principles, a place brand is becoming a mix combination of 'assets' and 'values'. One of the elements of a strong brand is its image. The place image shapes the way citizens, visitors and businesses respond to it. Therefore, a place must manage its image. Strategic image management is the ongoing process of researching a place image among its various audiences, segmenting and targeting its specific audiences, positioning a place's attractions to support its desired image and communicating those attractions to target groups.

Table 3: Responses of the participants on the city brand and its elements

Sr No	Statements	Responses				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	The long-term development strategy of the city should include trade fairs as an important element of competitive advantage.	6.72%	3.09%	1.00%	78.68%	10.51%
2	Exhibitors must first of all be clear about what and how much they want to achieve and about how they want to measure the degree to which they have accomplished	4.70%	5.10%	4.06%	80.40%	5.74%

	their aims.					
3	If a company wants to obtain a substantial number of new customer leads other than by taking part in a trade fair then the often costly and time-consuming sales force will come into play.	17.72%	12.79%	10.47%	56.13%	2.89%
Avg		16.71%		5.18%		46.87%

The influence of trade fairs on city image is emerging, but its extent has to be confirmed by empirical studies. According to the data, 78.68% of the participants agree that the long-term development strategy of the city should include fairs as an important element of competitive advantage. This role should also be reflected in the city communication plan and in the choice of industries, on which the exhibitions should concentrate. Finally, 80.40% of the participants suggest that exhibitors must first of all be clear about what and how much they want to achieve and about how they want to measure the degree to which they have accomplished their aims. Calculating the benefits of quantifiable aims is done by determining the cost of the theoretical use of alternative marketing instruments. Thus, 56.13% of the participants agree that if a company wants to obtain a substantial number of new customer leads other than by taking part in a trade fair then the often costly and time-consuming sales force will come into play. The benefits of individual trade fair objectives are calculated thus and afterwards added together to determine the quantitative benefits of participation.

3. Results

In this research, it has been found that the proper organisation of fairs can also contribute to forming a set of favorable associations in the customers' minds, being a part of place positioning, which is an intangible place brand asset. However, it is important to note that to achieve this desired city image, certain conditions must be fulfilled. A mechanism, which is important for image enhancement, is the transfer of event image to the image of the host city.

(i) Characteristics to have successful events in branding destination and enhancing its image

If events are to be successful at city image enhancement, they must also be a part of a long-term city development strategy that links them to the current economic and social environment of the city and to its own identities and core values.

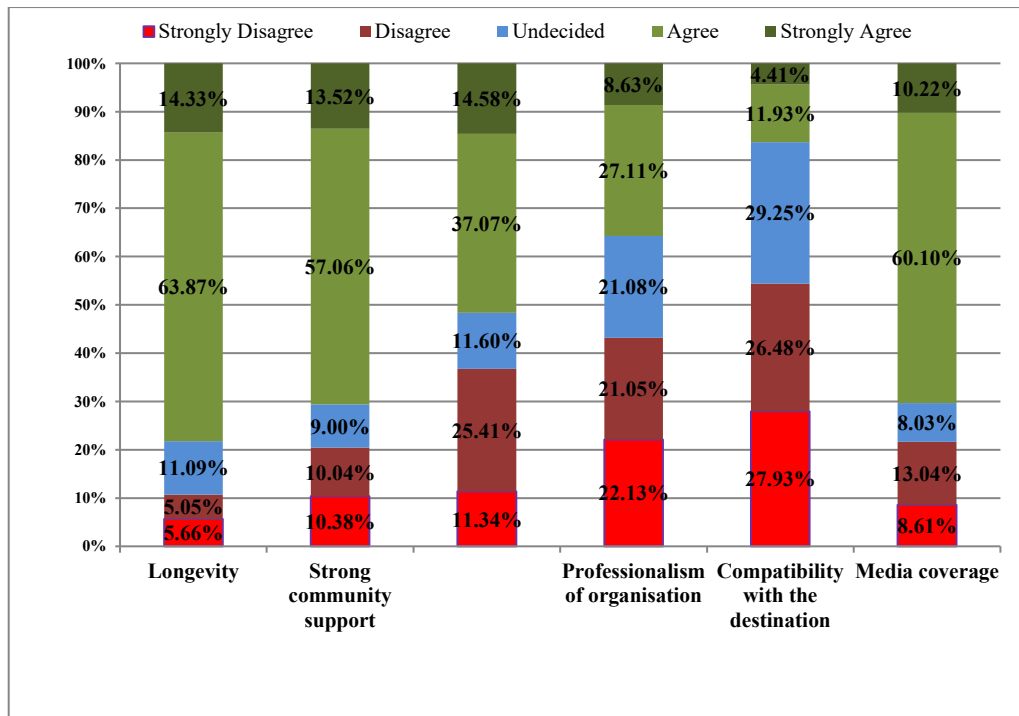


Figure 1: Responses of the participants on characteristics to have successful events in branding destination and enhancing its image (n=136)

For countries that prepare for such an event it is important to know precisely what they are going to say and prove about themselves as the media spotlight is switched on. Therefore, a communication strategy is needed for such events, which must also be congruent with the city’s development strategy. The festivals and trade fair are events that constitute an important element of the city branding strategy. Myanmar has long positioned itself as a ‘festival country’, striving to become one of the leading cultural capitals of Asian. The country already has a strong brand and it can attract events which can further reinforce the brand. Due to this potential, large events are used by cities to improve their image, especially cultural events bringing about positive effects for the city and making the citizens proud of their country. Local governments are using events as a tool to improve the local people’s perception of the trade. Among different types of events, trade fairs can also be treated as a city-marketing tool.

(ii) Potential Influence of Trade Fairs on a Host City Brand

According to the data, one of the tangible place brand assets is the impression. Its macro-elements include the level of urbanization and the urban milieu, while the micro-element comprises the traffic infrastructure, the commercial and cultural infrastructure and the iconography in architecture. The infrastructure built for holding trade fairs can be thus considered one of place brand assets, contributing to city brand equity. It supports the creation of brand equity indirectly by positively influencing the brand knowledge structures of the customer. By applying advertising, the brand knowledge expressed by the number of associations and the uniqueness of such associations is shaped, resulting in brand benefits such as increased marketing communications efficiency. Trade fairs, treated as a city promotion tool have the potential of influencing the city brand knowledge among its target markets. During fairs there is a possibility for the local politicians to present the vision of the local economic growth in media channels. Moreover, the managers of the place can come

into contact with possible investors and present arguments for investing in the given location.

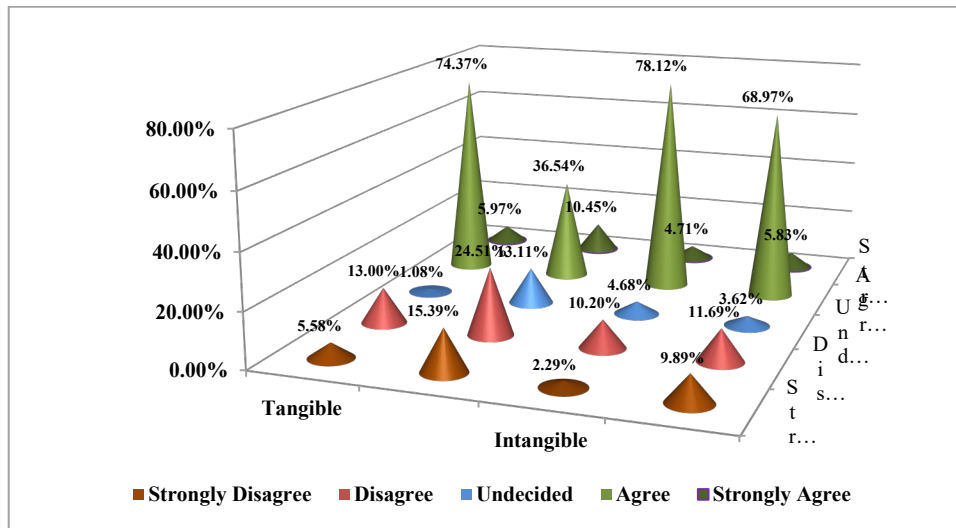


Figure 2: Responses of the participants on potential influence of trade fairs on a host city brand

According to the figure, on the other hand, place brand values, including inward-directed (intrinsic) as well as outward-directed (extrinsic) non-material values, can be developed by holding fairs. To build the distinction value, the place brand must be appealing, allowing the investor to identify himself with the place and its business community. For example, the place brand needs to reflect creativity, to be attractive from the point of view of the investor. Such creativity can be associated with participation in fairs, where recent developments connected with a given industry are presented in an attractive way. Besides, taking part in an event which is grouping the most important players in a given industry and renowned figures from the world of politics, contributes to the prestige value of the place brand.

(iii) The City Brand and its Elements

Based on an extensive place marketing literature review, Jacobsen has developed a model of investor-based place brand equity, actuated by place brand assets and place brand values, which can influence the investor’s preference in selecting a place for investment. This model is helpful in understanding the role of events, such as fairs, in brand equity development.

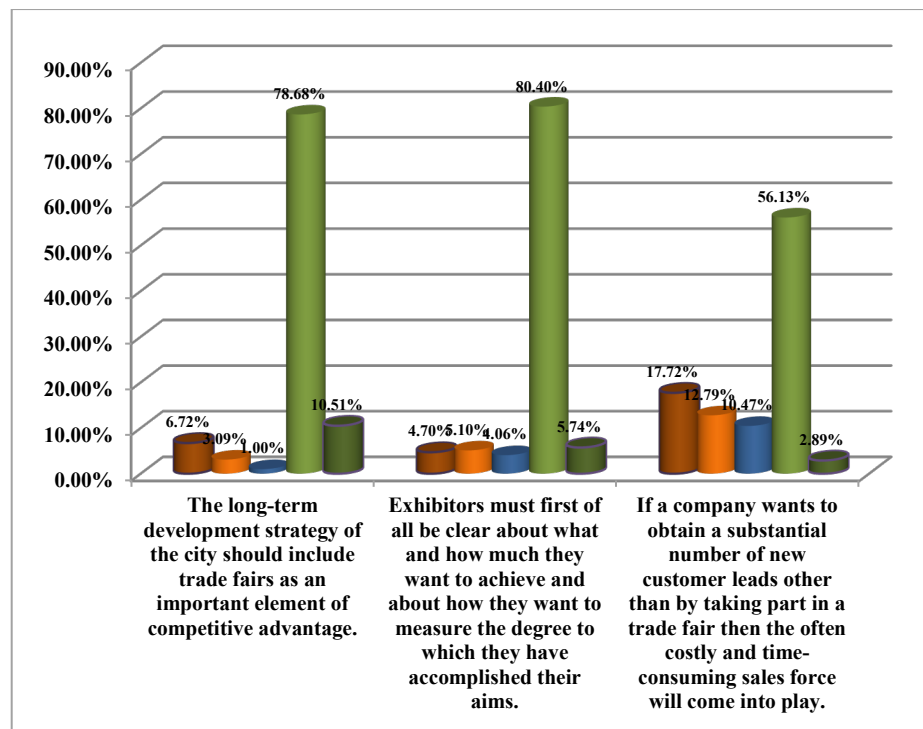


Figure 3: Responses of the participants on the city brand and its elements

4. Discussion

The influence of fairs on the city brand concerns the place brand assets, both tangible (such as infrastructure, strategy) and intangible (city brand awareness, image) (Aaker, 1996). The tangible place brand assets may be enhanced by building appropriate infrastructure for holding fairs and by including them in the city's strategic documents. The intangible assets of the city brand may be enhanced through primary and secondary communication which is connected with holding fairs. The image enhancement due to holding fairs may result in positioning of the city as a specialist in a chosen industry. However, the transfer of an event image to the city may occur only if there is a strategic fit of both brands, that is – the brands have common association sets. The brands have a possibility to benefit from trade fairs held by these cities. However, for this to happen, the long-term development strategy of the city should include fairs as an important element of competitive advantage. This role should also be reflected in the city communication plan and in the choice of industries, on which the exhibitions should concentrate. The influence of trade fairs on city image is emerging, but its extent has to be confirmed by empirical studies.

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The Quality of Life of Medical Students Studying in Myanmar

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ABSTRACT

The medical student needs many years to acquire professional abilities. Many activities outwit the curriculum contribute to the student's development and add significantly to the time required for studying and learning medicine. All these demands are added to the many other factors that generate stress. Quality of life is an essential component of learning and has strong links with the practice and study of medicine. Quality of life is defined by the WHO as, "an individual's perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live, and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns". Great attention has been focused on different populations ever since the concept of quality of life has become widely accepted by society. Although previous studies have assessed the quality of life of medical students, few studies focus on Myanmar medical students. The aim of the study was to assess the quality of life of medical students during their medical training by using the World Health Organization Quality of Life (WHOQOL-BREF) and to explore the influencing factors of the quality of life of medical students in Myanmar. In order to obtain data, a questionnaire has been used to evaluate the quality of life of medical students. We designed the questionnaire with a Likert scale based response format. Then, we administered the questionnaire to 131 medical students in 5 medical universities of Myanmar. Data have reported that medical education and training have a negative impact on 44.14% of the participants' physical QOL and 51.33% of mental health. The main finding of the study indicated that medical students had 'medium' quality of life perceptions in relation to the domains. Medical education is always long in duration and consists of great academic pressure. Some medical students with poor academic and professional performance face with the above issues. Compared to the general population, some medical students are more susceptible to stress, burning out, depression and anxiety. This research suggested that some medical students are experiencing health-related problems such as anxiety, depression, and burnout. There may be several factors for this situation, such as academic courses and training, contact with diseases and death. The study results showed that students in medicine suffered more impairment with academic load and employment pressure. Medical universities need to develop reforms in medical education to relieve the pressure from medical courses and training, and provide students with the necessary support to improve students' well-being. In the long run, promoting students' well-being will benefit patients, the public, and the profession, in addition to the individual.

Keywords: Quality of Life, Medical Students, Myanmar

1. Introduction

With the rapid development of Myanmar's economy, stemming from 2010, Myanmar gradually implemented a reform on higher education, changing the grasp of government limitations on education. This allowed academia and educational institutions to gain control over their own administration, form a new economic

management, and improve their educational efficiency. With the increasing enrollment of universities in Myanmar, the volume of medical students has expanded rapidly. This results in many problems, such as a serious shortage of logistical services and teaching facilities. In some developing countries, medical students face various problems, such as greater pressure on finding post-graduation employment, poor living environments and learning conditions, and other psychological issues, which have negative impacts on the quality of life (QOL) of medical students. Quality of life is defined by the WHO as, “an individual’s perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live, and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns”. Great attention has been focused on different populations ever since the concept of quality of life has become widely accepted by society. Although previous studies have assessed the QOL of medical students with the WHOQOL-BREF, few studies focus on Myanmar medical students. The World Health Organization Quality of Life – BREF (WHOQOL-BREF) is a self-report questionnaire which assesses 4 domains of quality of life (QOL): physical QOL; time management; the learning environment, and psychological QOL. Studies have reported that medical education and training have a negative impact on students’ physical and mental health. Medical education is always long in duration and consists of great academic pressure and narrow professional employment opportunities. Some medical students with poor academic and professional performance are failed for the above issues. Compared to the general population, medical students are more susceptible to stress, burning out, depression and anxiety. There may be several factors for this situation, such as academic courses and training, contact with diseases and death. The quality of life (QOL) of Myanmar medical students is of growing concern to educators and administrators in recent years. Assessing the quality of life of medical students can inform us of their perspectives on health, current health conditions, and relevant factors. In the long run, promoting students’ well-being will benefit patients, the public, and the profession, in addition to the individual. The aim of the research was to assess the QOL of Myanmar medical students in their medical training by using the World Health Organization Quality of Life (WHOQOL-BREF) and to explore the influencing factors of the QOL of medical students.

The medical students need many years to acquire professional abilities. Many activities outwit the curriculum contribute to the student’s development and add significantly to the time required for studying and learning medicine (Chung, 2005). All these demands are added to the many other factors that generate stress. Developing tools with which to understand these factors and their impact on students is necessary for the design of interventions that improve the experience of medical education. A questionnaire has been developed and validated to evaluate the quality of life (QOL) of medical students in Myanmar. The research was developed in four phases. Firstly, we facilitated focus groups in selected medical universities with groups in order to obtain data for the development of the questionnaire. Secondly, we designed the questionnaire, which incorporated 26 items and used a Likert scale based response format. Thirdly, we administered the questionnaire to 150 medical students in 5 medical universities of Myanmar. Fourthly, using these data, we validated the questionnaire and tested factor analysis. Grouping domains by similarity of theme resulted in the identification of four main domains: physical QOL; time management; the learning environment, and psychological QOL. The questionnaire analysis showed that 45.40% of the students were not satisfied with their medical courses. Factors that improve the QOL of medical students were good supervision of practical activities, participation in projects of social development, good classes, good teachers and with

patients. Lack of free time to study, engage in leisure pursuits, maintain relationships and gain enough rest was considered a major factor in decreasing QOL for medical students.

2. Methods

During the course of their education, medical students learn to attend to the quality of life of their patients. However, their own quality of life can begin to decrease early in medical university (Liu, Hu, Zhang, Yan & Nie, 2009). The purpose of this study was to explore the quality of life of medical students, taking into account the medical university phase in Myanmar.

2.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Population

In this research, the average age of participant students across the entire study group was 20.01 years. The sample (131 students) is comprised of 40.10% male and 59.90% female students.

2.2 Study Setting and Population

In Myanmar Medical Universities, all medical students are admitted directly from high school. The study was conducted in 2019. Students were selected using cluster sampling method. We sent copies of the questionnaires to all students simultaneously. The students were given 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire independently. If there were any uncertainties regarding the questionnaire, students could consult the researcher at any time.

2.3 Instruments

The WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire based on a brief version of the World Health Organization Quality of Life Instrument (WHOQOL- BREF) was used for data collection. The WHOQOL-BREF is an international cross-culturally comparable quality of life assessment instrument. It is a generic QOL instrument developed by WHO, and is composed of 26 items. The response options range from 1 (very dissatisfied / very poor) to 5 (very satisfied / very good). It emphasizes the subjective responses rather than the objective life conditions, with assessments made over four weeks. The questionnaire includes four domains: physical QOL; time management; the learning environment, and psychological QOL. The analysis was divided into two parts. First, we described socio-demographic characteristics of the sample. Secondly, we calculated with percentage to determine the internal consistency reliability.

2.4 Ethics Statement

All of the participants were well informed about the content and the aim of the questionnaire. The study was an anonymous survey, and the results remain confidential. The questionnaire did not contain any identifying information about the individual subjects. Participation in the study was totally voluntary, and participants had the option of declining to answer specific questions or leaving the entire questionnaire blank if they did not wish to participate. All data remain confidential, and data protection was observed at all stages of the study. According to government regulation, Myanmar Medical University is limited to a fixed enrollment number of students each year. The sample included 173 medical students from classes of years 1 to 5 at Myanmar Medical Universities. One hundred fifty completed questionnaires were returned, and 131 of these were valid. The aim of this research was to assess the quality of life (QOL) of medical students during their medical education and explore

the influencing factors of the QOL of students. One hundred thirty-one medical students studying in their clinical years participated in the present study. Medical students were asked to fill in the World Health Organization Quality of Life questionnaire to elicit information about their quality of life perceptions in relation to their physical QOL; time management; the learning environment, and psychological QOL. The question items ask how students feel about their quality of life, health, or other areas of life. Students read out each question, along with the response options. Then, they choose the answer that appears most appropriate. If they are unsure about which response to give to a question, the first response they think of is often the best one.

Poor Quality of Life (QOL) among medical students is associated with an unhealthy lifestyle, psychological distress, and academic failure, which could affect their care for patients in the future (Chung, 2005). This study aimed to evaluate the QOL among Myanmar medical students. After the participants had been requested to keep in mind their standards, hopes, pleasures and concerns, they were asked to think about their life in the last four weeks and to respond the questionnaire. The WHOQOL-BREF instrument is a self-administered questionnaire, comprised of 26 items, to assess the four major QOL domains defined by the WHO. The first two items (Item No 1 and 2) separately assess the overall perception of QOL and health. Each question is rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (very poor/very dissatisfied/none/never) to 5 (very good/very satisfied/extremely/always), and then the scores of all four domains are summed and scaled in a positive direction. Additional questions were added to the questionnaire on demographic data, academic year (i.e., educational level), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 1: Responses of the participants on question item 1 (n=131)

Sr No	Question item	Very poor	Poor	Neither poor nor good	Good	Very good
1	How would you rate your quality of life?	1.00%	12.00%	32.40%	29.60%	25.00%
Total		13%		32.40%	54.60%	

A total of 131 students responded the questionnaire, where males and females constituted 40.10% and 59.90% respectively. Their mean age was 21.01 years. Among all respondents, 40 (30.54%) were in the first year, 22 (16.79%) were in the second year, 31 (23.66%) in the third year, 12 (9.16%) in the fourth year, and 26 (19.85%) in the fifth year. Regarding the self-assessment done by the medical students, their overall self-reported QOL was 54.60% positive. In general, 25.00% of the students described their QOL as “very good”, 29.60% as “good”, and only 1.00% felt it was “very poor”.

Table 2: Responses of the participants on question item 2 (n=131)

Sr No	Question item	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied
2	How satisfied are you with your health?	-	1%	-	58%	41%
Total		1%		0%	99%	

On the other hand, the mean score of their self-rated satisfaction with current health was 99% satisfied. The majority felt satisfied with their health, as 41% were “very satisfied” and 58% were “satisfied”, while only 1% acknowledged that they were “dissatisfied” with their health.

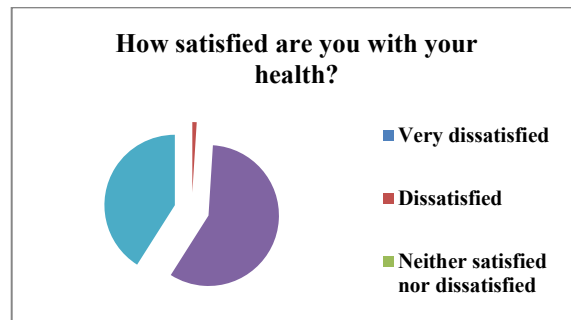


Figure 1: Responses of the participants on question item 2 (n=131)

The physical QOL domain was observed among students with question item 3 to 9. The data showed achieving 41.57% positive influences in this domain. There are some negative influences on the physical domains. The data obtained are enough to serve as the base for care strategies for the most vulnerable students during medical training, giving special attention to scholarship students. The following questions were asked about how much they have experienced certain things in the last four weeks.

Table 3: Responses of the participants on question item 3 to 9 (n=131)

Sr No	Question items	Not at all	A little	A moderate amount	Very much	An extreme amount
3	To what extent do you feel that physical pain prevents you from doing what you need to do?	21%	22%	31%	13%	13%
4	How much do you need any medical treatment to function in your daily life?	41%	31%	18%	9%	1%
5	How much do you enjoy life?	1%	21%	58%	14%	6%
6	To what extent do you feel your life to be meaningful?	16%	14%	39%	21%	10%
7	How well are you able to concentrate?	3%	6%	17%	51%	23%
8	How safe do you feel in your daily life?	-	1%	37%	38%	24%
9	How healthy is your physical environment?	-	5%	27%	49%	19%
Total		11.71%	14.29%	32.43%	27.86%	13.71%
		26.00%		32.43%	41.57%	

Table 3 explains the QOL of medical students, ranging from negative impact 26.00% in the domains to positive impact 41.57%. Furthermore, it expresses 32.43% for a

moderate amount highlighting the students feel their life to be meaningful (39%). In this sense the students admitted the challenge of dealing with both patients and the demands of the medical teachers during the much-awaited course of clinical medicine; the responsibility to fully exercise the profession, as well as to enjoy life in these periods of their medical studies.

Then, the following questions were asked about how completely they experience or were able to do certain things in the last four weeks.

Table 4: Responses of the participants on question item 10 to 14 (n=131)

Sr No	Question items	Not at all	A little	Moderately	Mostly	Completely
10	Do you have enough energy for everyday life?	-	1%	15%	51%	33%
11	Are you able to accept your bodily appearance?	-	3%	50%	24%	23%
12	Do you have enough money to meet your needs?	1%	4%	72%	11%	12%
13	How available to you is the information that you need in your day-to-day life?	2%	13%	39%	31%	15%
14	To what extent do you have the opportunity for leisure activities?	2%	7%	52%	18%	21%
Total		1.00%	5.60%	45.60%	27.00%	20.80%
		6.60%		45.60%	47.80%	

By means of the analysis in Table 4, it was possible to observe positive impact (47.80%) and also showed a negative association (6.60%) with the domains for which they were tested.

Table 5: Responses of the participants on question item 15 (n=131)

Sr No	Question item	Very poor	Poor	Neither poor nor good	Good	Very good
15	How well are you able to get around?	-	2%	11%	49%	38%
Total		2%		11%	87%	

Regarding the effect of medical studies on QOL, 87% of the students admitted that they are able to get around in these periods of their medical studies. Only 2% of the students experience the challenge of dealing with both patients and the demands of the medical teachers during the course of medicine; and when they undergo on-the-job training, there is a high level of pressure related to graduation and the responsibility to fully exercise the profession, as well as the examination for medical residency.

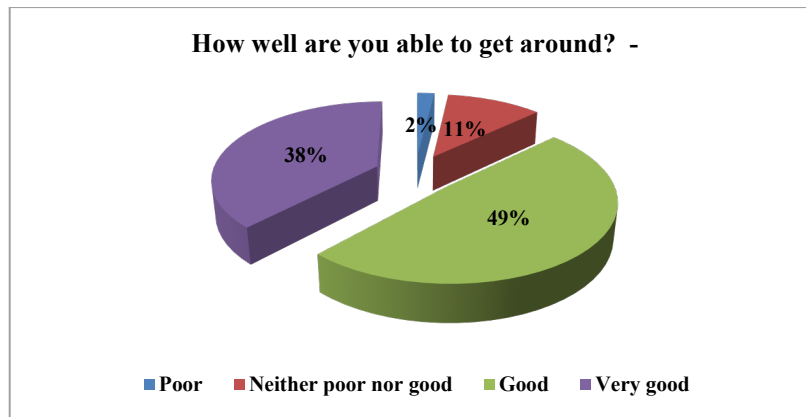


Figure 2: Responses of the participants on question item 15 (n=131)

Table 6: Responses of the participants on question item 16 to 25 (n=131)

Sr No	Question items	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied
16	How satisfied are you with your sleep?	2%	21%	16%	33%	28%
17	How satisfied are you with your ability to perform your daily living activities?	13%	31%	14%	33%	9%
18	How satisfied are you with your capacity for work?	-	3%	16%	52%	29%
19	How satisfied are you with yourself?	-	2%	24%	49%	25%
20	How satisfied are you with your personal relationships?	3%	10%	25%	47%	15%
21	How satisfied are you with your sex life?	1%	3%	33%	41%	22%
22	How satisfied are you with the support you get from your friends?	1%	10%	28%	58%	3%
23	How satisfied are you with the conditions of your living place?	17%	21%	38%	13%	11%
24	How satisfied are you with your access to health services?	2%	9%	25%	51%	13%
25	How satisfied are you with your transport?	-	16%	12%	55%	17%
Total		3.90%	12.60%	23.10%	43.20%	17.20%

	16.50%	23.10%	60.40%
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Even if the university were to support the students financially on a permanent basis we still know little about the challenges they face during medical training or the relationships between academic performance and the process of integration into the new social environment and quality of life. In order for medical universities to contribute to the development of such competency among future doctors it is necessary to identify and address the health needs of these students in a wider context, since it has been demonstrated that not only physical and emotional aspects, but also social and cultural aspects can influence their QOL and consequently their academic performance. Furthermore, independently of an individual’s vulnerabilities, until the curriculum is revised and improved, students who experience the traditional teaching model need greater attention which corresponds to the critical stages of their graduation process.

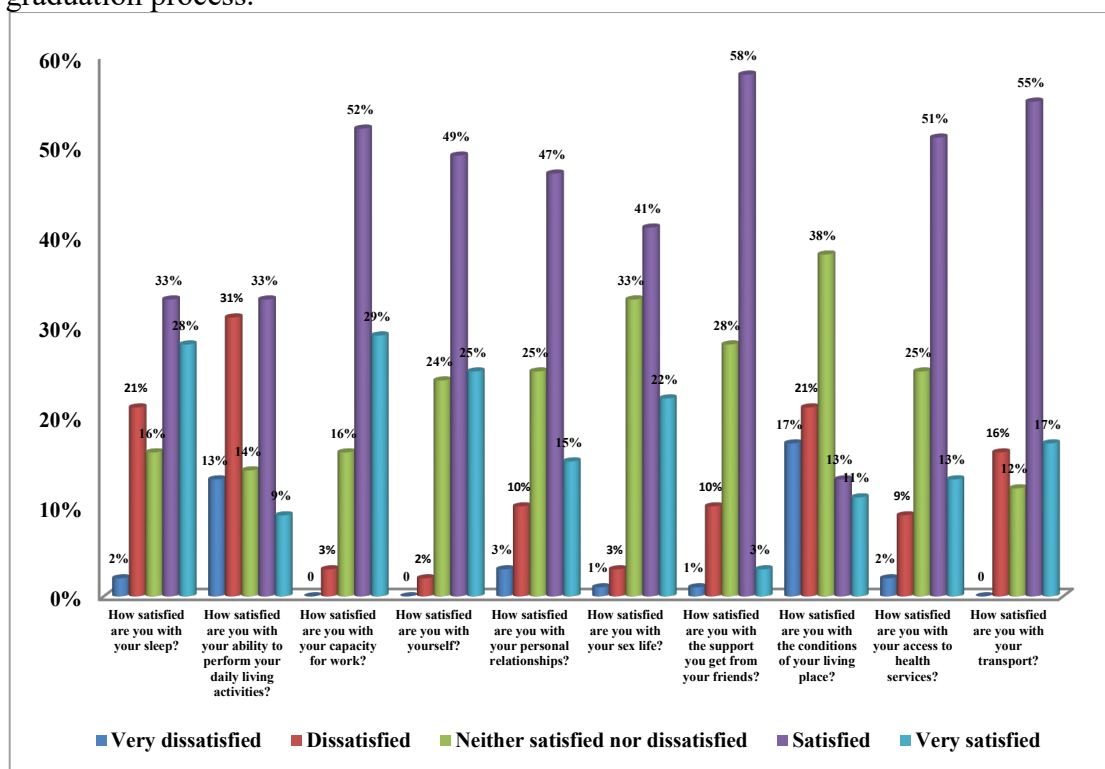


Figure 3: Responses of the participants on question item 16 to 25 (n=131)

The following question refers to how often they have felt or experienced certain things in the last four weeks.

Table 7: Responses of the participants on question item 26 (n=131)

Sr No		Never	Seldom	Quite often	Very often	Always
26	How often do you have negative feelings such as blue mood, despair, anxiety, depression?	-	23%	31%	25%	21%
Total			23%	31%	46%	

Students from medical universities have negative feelings such as blue mood, despair, anxiety, depression (46%). Gender, interest in the area of study, confidence in career development and physical exercise influenced the QOL of medical students in different domains.

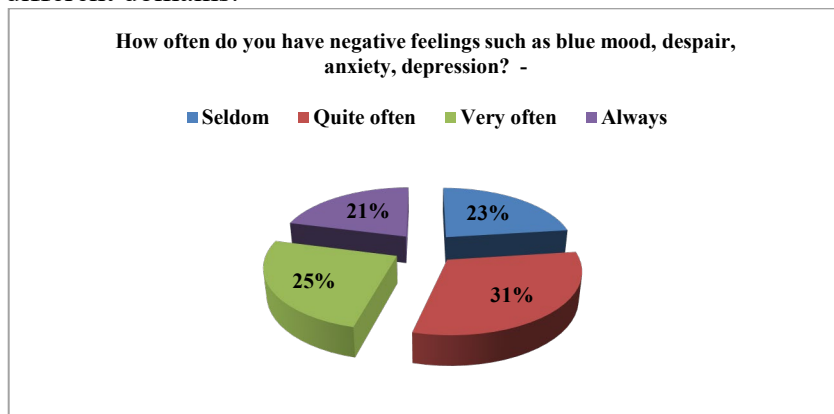


Figure 4: Responses of the participants on question item 26 (n=131)

The following table has been completed after the interview is finished.

Table 8: Responses of the participants on QOL Domains (n=131)

Sr No	QOL Domains	Equations for domain	Total %	Positive impact Avg %	Negative impact
1	Domain 1 (Physical QOL)	Q 3 + Q 4 + Q10 + Q15 + Q 16 + Q 17 + Q 18	26% + 10% +84% + 87% +61% + 42% + 81%	55.86%	44.14%
2	Domain 2 (Time Management)	Q 5 + Q 6 + Q 7 + Q 11 + Q19 + Q 26	20% + 31% +74% +47% + 74% + 46%	48.67%	51.33%
3	Domain 3 (Learning Environment)	Q 20 + Q 21 + Q 22	62% + 63% +61%	62.00%	38.00%
4	Domain 4 (Psychological QOL)	Q 8 + Q 9 + Q 12 + Q 13 + Q 14 + Q 23 + Q 24 + Q 25	62% + 68% + 23% + 46% + 39% + 24% + 64% +72%	49.75%	50.25%
Avg				54.07%	45.93%

With regard to QOL domains, the Time Management domain had the highest percentage (51.33%), followed by the psychological domain at 50.25%, the Physical QOL domain at 44.14%, and finally the Learning Environment domain at 38.00%. When comparing the negative impact in the table above no significant differences across all domains.

3. Results

Medical students may experience stressful condition due to their curriculum burden and career responsibilities. Adverse physical and mental health leads to impaired quality of life of medical students which may affect their learning and academic capabilities during medical education. The purpose of this study was to assess the quality of life-based on WHO-QOL-BREF protocol among medical students studying

in Myanmar. The data for quality of life was collected by a well-designed questionnaire as prescribed by the WHO-QOL-BREF which includes questions pertaining to different domains for the quality of life. The main finding of the study indicated that medical students had quality of life perceptions in relation to the learning environment and physical QOL domains. The findings in this study provided the notion that medical students experience medium levels of quality of life.

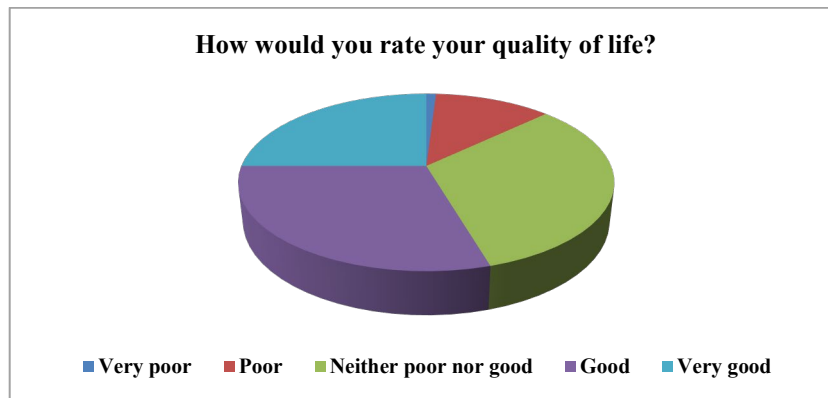


Figure 5: Responses of the participants on question item 1 (n=131)

All student groups examined in this study appeared to be experiencing medium levels of quality of life. This has implications for pastoral support, educationalists, student support personnel, and the university system. The students of different academic years were significantly different in the time management and psychological QOL domains. The main finding of the study indicated that medical students had medium quality of life perceptions in relation to the mentioned domains. Furthermore, medical education and training have a negative impact on domain of the medical students' physical QOL (44.14%), domain of their time management (51.33%), domain of learning environment (38.00%) and domain of psychological QOL (50.25%) were found in this research.

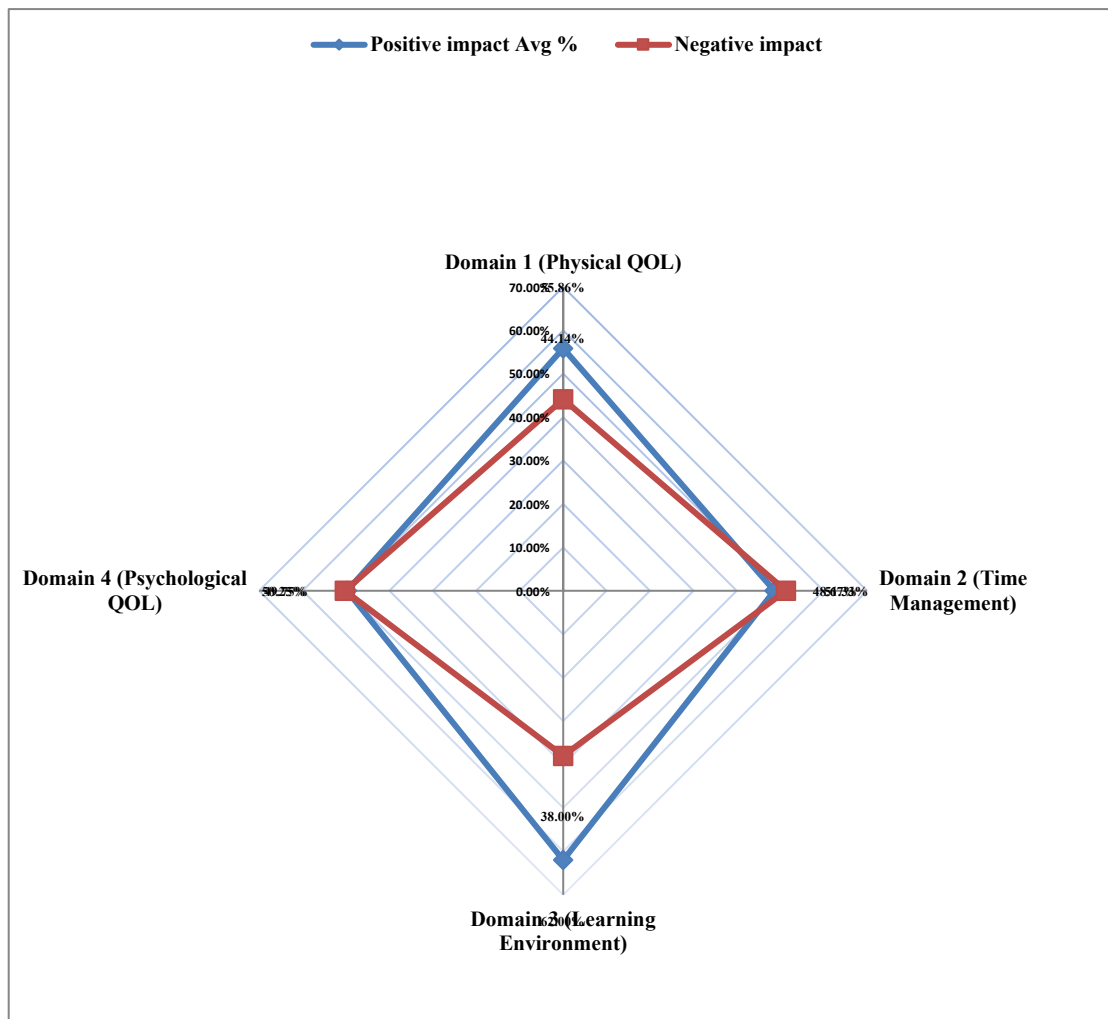


Figure 6: Responses of the participants on question item 26 (n=131)

4. Discussion

Quality of life is an essential component of learning and has strong links with the practice and study of medicine. There is burgeoning evidence in the research literature to suggest that medical students are experiencing health-related problems such as anxiety, depression, and burnout. The aim of the study was to investigate medical students' perceptions concerning their quality of life. Medical students were asked to fill in the World Health Organization Quality of Life questionnaire to elicit information about their quality of life perceptions. The main finding of the study indicated that medical students had medium level of quality of life perceptions in relation to all the domains.

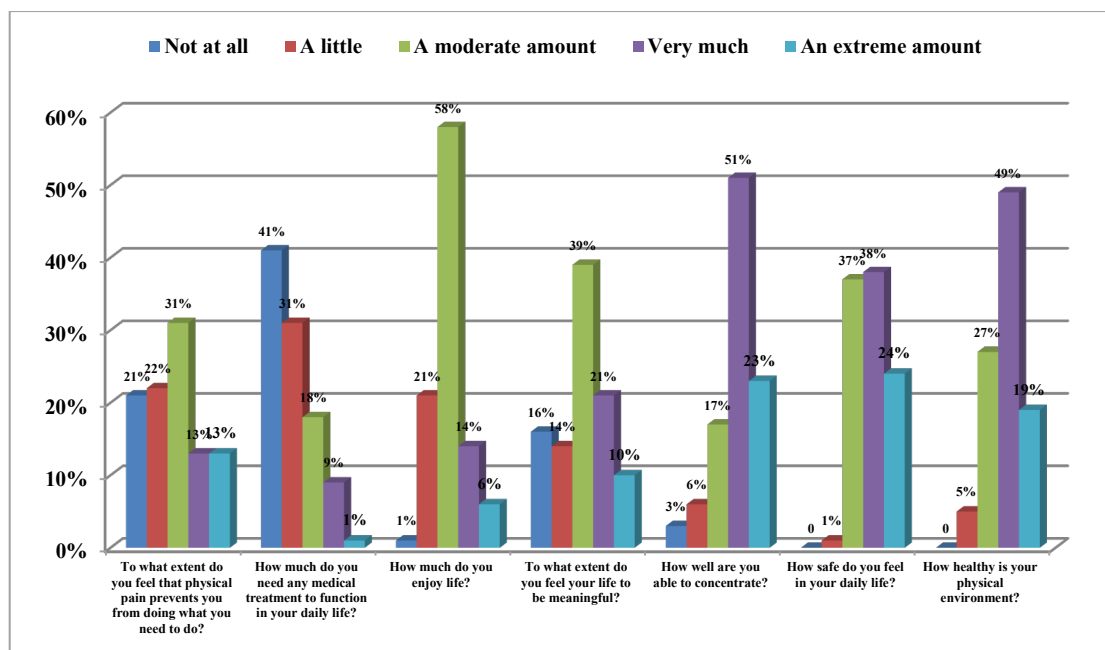


Figure 7: Responses of the participants on question item 3 to 9 (n=131)

The results suggest that most of the university students are expressing concerns related to quality of life. The students had the medium percentage in all the domains. Students in different years of study had different workloads. Therefore, there is greater academic pressure on students as in their academic years. On the one hand, students have more academic courses which involve both basic science and clinical medicine, with the medical curriculum often focusing on disease diagnosis and treatment and paying little attention to education about communication with patients and end of life issues. On the other hand, the students are experiencing contact with real patients for the first time.

For the above issues, medical universities need to take measures to give more support for the students. First, medical educators could carry out curriculum reforms that introduce problem-based learning (PBL), integrated courses and early exposure to clinical training. The approach of integrated courses could decrease the repetitive content of the curriculum and give student's comprehensive understanding of medical courses. Early exposure to clinical training gave students opportunities to relieve the pressure of stress and anxiety in their medical practice and provides more interaction between theoretical and practical disciplines. These reforms would relieve students' academic load through balancing the curriculum of basic science and clinical medicine in different years. Secondly, it is very important that we give students more support, which includes enhancing student competency in communication and professionalism and giving students the necessary tools and instruction on how to relieve stress and strain during their medical training. All this could reduce the impairment in physical and mental health of medical students. Our results show that students in clinical medicine had higher scores in the psychological health and social relations domains as compared to other students. The QOL of students in different specialties might be associated with academic load, employment prospects and other individual factors. First, non-clinical students would take more courses than clinical students, including both the essential medical courses and their professional courses. Secondly, some studies show that clinical medical students had better employment prospects with higher salaries and greater respect as compared with non-clinical

students in Myanmar. Third, the admission standards for clinical students were a little higher than students in other specialties, as reflected in the matriculation examination and entrance examination scores.

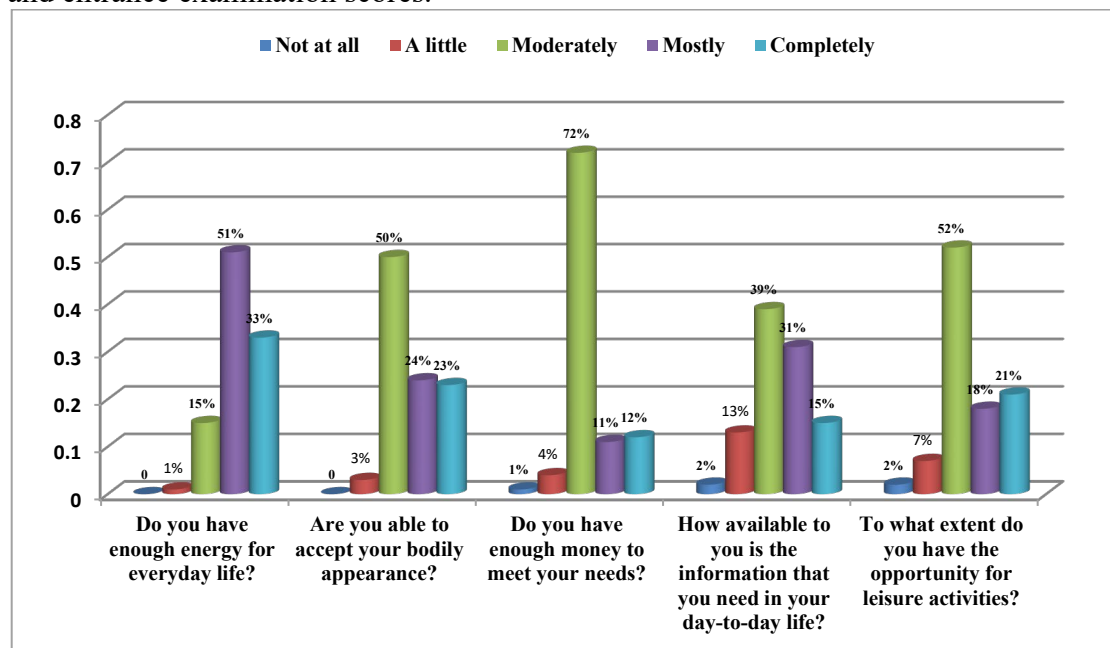


Figure 8: Responses of the participants on question item 10 to 14 (n=131)

There are also some impact factors influencing the QOL of medical students in different domains (Skevington, 2002). Many medical students face great pressures from insufficient job opportunities in Myanmar. Medical universities need to pay attention to showing concern for their psychological problems and give them the necessary psychological counseling and financial support. The main limitations of this study are: (1) the population surveyed is not enough to be representative of all Myanmar medical students thus generalization of the results must be considered carefully. (2) The study was unable to assess curriculum variable, which must be taken into account for future research. Medical universities need to develop reforms in medical education to relieve the pressure from medical courses and training, and provide students with the necessary support to improve students' well-being.

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A Geographical Study of Residential Density and Housing Condition of Salingyi Township, Yinmabin District, Sagaing Region, Myanmar

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ABSTRACT

Salingyi Township located on the western bank of the Chindwin River of Central Myanmar it is an administrative region. It is situated between the latitude 21°49' north and 21°54' north and between the longitude 94°58' east and 95°58' east. Its lies on the western bank of Chindwin River. It has become one popular township for copper mine. This research paper entitled "A Geographical Study of Residential Density and Housing Condition of Salingyi Township" is studied and analysed from the geographical point of view. To meet the aim of this research paper both primary data and secondary data are collected from the various government offices and survey. Then the acquired data are analysed by the qualitative and quantitative techniques. The residential density and concentration indices are used to illustrate the spatial distribution pattern of residential density and housing condition.

Keywords: Geographical Study, Residential Density, Housing Condition of Salingyi Township, Yinmabin District, Myanmar

1. Introduction

The main aim of this paper is to represent Spatial Distribution Patterns of Residential Density and Housing Condition in Salingyi Township. The objectives of this research are: to study the spatial distribution pattern of residential density and man land ratio and to analyze the housing condition in Salingyi township. In applying residential development densities, there are a number of general principles which need to be considered coherently with a view to achieving integration of land use, transport, environmental and infrastructure planning (Cameron Morrison, 2003). Through such integrated planning, residential developments of different densities can be planned to achieve the most efficient and functional disposition and economies of scale in term of social, transport and infrastructures provisions while meeting environmental objectives. Density is one of the major components of sustainable development and compact cities and new urbanism. The distribution of arithmetic density of population can also be explained by analysis the density pattern. Population density is distribution in space. The density may be defined as the average number of inhabitants residing in each square kilometer of the area.

1.1 Geographic Bases of the Study Area

Salingyi Township is located in Yinmabin District and Southern part of Sagaing Region. It situated the western bank of Chindwin River. It lies between the north Latitude 21°49'N and 21°54'N and between east longitude 94°58' E and 95°58'E. The township has an area 16833 Acres and 263.17 Square miles. The township is bounded by Yinmarbin, Kani, Pale Township and Chindwin River (See figure 1). The relief of Salingyi Township can be divided into three parts. They are the eastern region, the central hilly region and the western region. Salingyi Township is lying on the drainage area of Chindwin River and its tributaries North Yam Chaung and South

Yama Chaung are the tributaries of Chindwin River (Grant Brown, 1960). Salingyi Township comprise of Salingyi Uplift. According to 27 years record from 1991 to 2016, the annual average maximum temperature is 35.15° C and annual average minimum temperature is 20.73°C. The average mean temperature is 27.89°C. The annual rainfall is 69.01 mm in the regions. Fertile alluvial soil and le land are along the Chindwin River and North Yama and South Yama Chaung. According to climate and geographical bases, drought-resistant small trees and thorny plants and xerophytes are mainly found in the township (Hla Tun Aung, 2003). Along the Chindwin River, big trees and hydrophytes are found. According to the data of Immigration and National Registration Department of Salingyi for the 2018, Salingyi Township consists of wards and 39 village tracts. The total population of Salingyi Township is 129254 people (Dontaw village tract is highest in total population with 6557 residents. The lowest population area is Salingyi urban area with 1544 people.) The total population of the Salingyi urban area is 1554 residents, Dontaw village tracts is the highest in total population with 6557 residents. The lowest populated area is Chaungyoe village tract with 1874 residents. Salingyi Township has 26001 houses of which 682 houses located with urban area and 25962 houses with the rural area (Agarwarl, L. C, 2008).

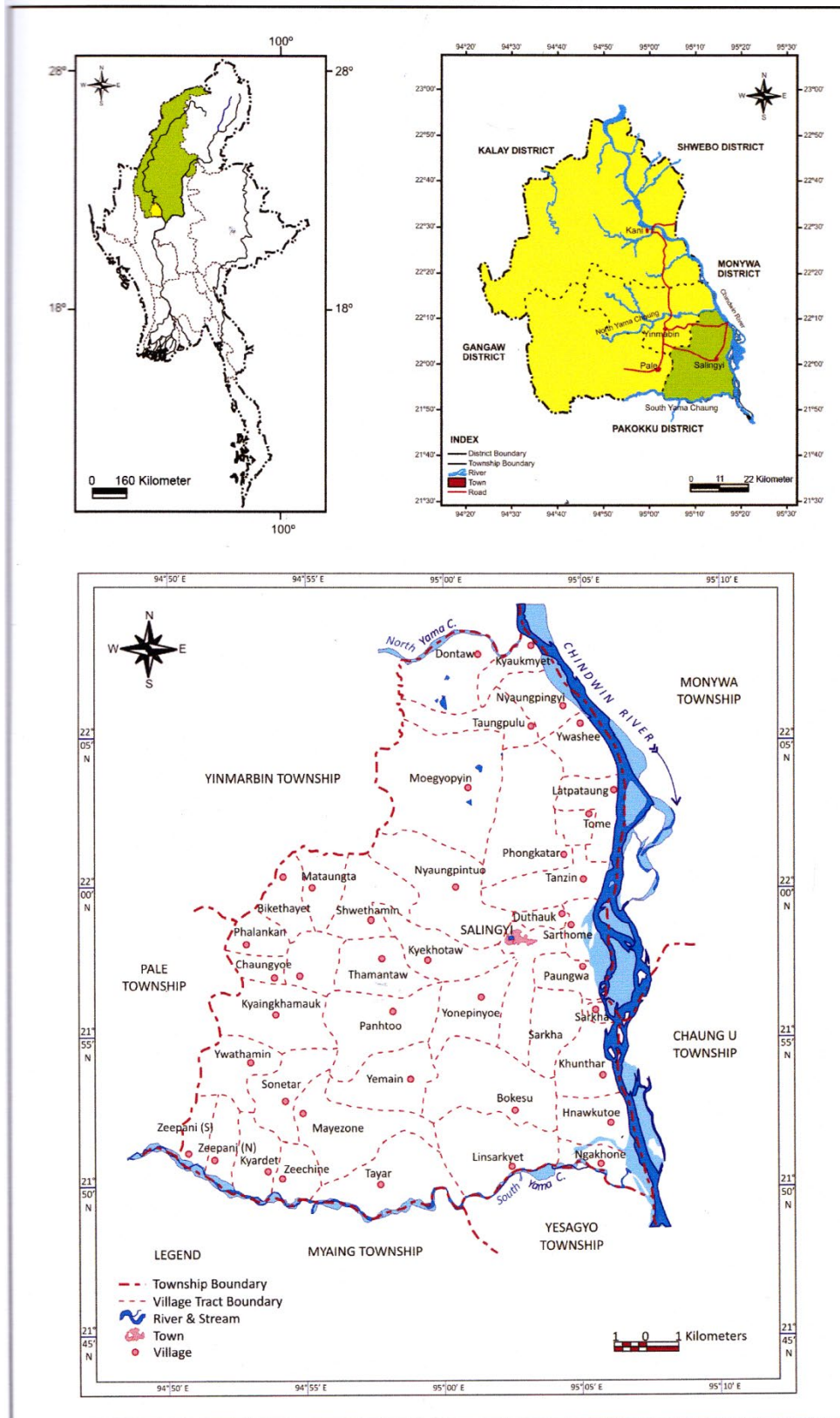


Figure 1: Location of Salingyi township
(Source: Department of Geographic)

2. Methodology

About this Departmental research paper, generally the geographic factor which help to assess the resident densities and housing conditional of Salingyi township. The general land use of Salingyi township, for 2018 was collected from Agricultural Management and Statistics, Salingyi and survey. Residential density and housing types are calculated using the same basic ratio formula the number of dwellings divided by the area of land they occupied.

$$\text{Residential density} = \frac{\text{Number of dwellings}}{\text{Total Residential Land Use area (Acre)}}$$

3. Results

3.1 General Land use in Salingyi Township

The general land use of Salingyi township in 2019 is mentioned in Table (1) and Figure (2). According to the table, the total area (168331) acres, current cultivated land occupies about (105729) acres or (63%) of the township total. Area uncultivated land occupy about (48763) acres (29%) of the township area. There are (13641) acres of forest land which represents about 8% of the township area.

Table 1: General land use in Salingyi township (2018)

Sr No	Types of Land use	2018 Acres	Total%
1	Cultivated Land	105729	63%
2	Uncultivated Land	48763	29%
3	Forest Land	13641	8%
	Total	168331	100%

(Source: Agricultural land management and statistics, Salingyi)

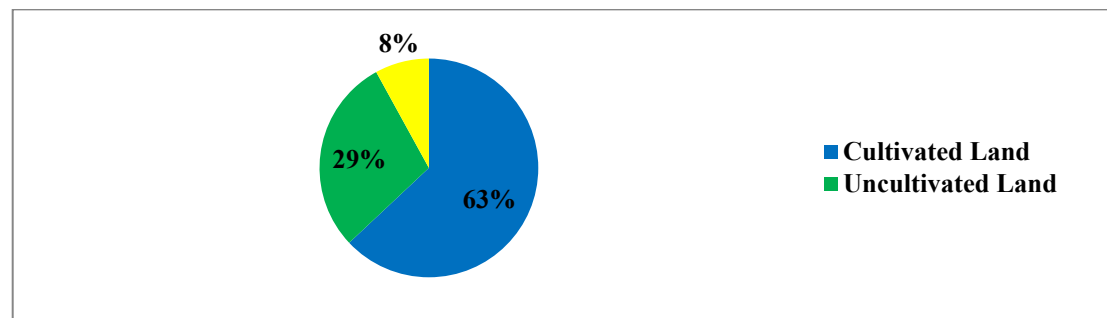


Figure 1: General land use in Salingyi township

(Source: Based on Table 1)

Analysis on Residential Area

To make a classification of the residential area for the Salingyi township, the size-based classification with was composed of residential area in each village tract by R.V Singh was utilized here.

Salingyi town as the urban residential area has three quarters with 277 acres, 1544 persons and 670 houses. In rural residential area has 39 village tract and 152 villages with 3803 acres of the residential area, 127710 persons and 25248 houses. These were six groups of residential area; very large group (over 250 acres) large groups between and (200-250 acres), (moderately between and group (150-200 acres) moderate group (between 100-150 acres) small group (between 50 and 100 acres) and

very small group (below 50) in the study area. The residential area in the township ranges from 7 acres in Sar Kha village tract to 277 acres in Salingyi Myoma area.

Very large areas (over 250 acres)

In the study very large residential area in this group ranges from 275 acres (Ywashe village tract) to 277 acres (Swlingyi Myoma area. It covers only 13.20% of the total residential area of the township. This area represents seven villages with 73.74 persons.

Large area (between 200 and 250 acres)

Residential are in this group ranges between 203 and 212 acres and covers the two area; Moegyaphin and Kyaw Kmyet villages tracts. The number of inhabited villages in cluded in this group is 11 villages and with a population of 10546 persons.

Moderately Area (between 150-200 acres)

The value of residential area under this category ranges from 102 acres (linsarkyet village tract) to 182 acres (Htanzim village tracts) in between them. Major areas come under this category is about 23.97% of the total residential area so hte Salingyi Township. The number of inhabited villages included in this group is 35 villages and with a population of 28160 persons.

Moderate Area (between 100 and 150 acres)

In this area ranges between 102 acres (linsarkyet village tracts) to 150 acres (Sarthome village tracts). It covers only 11.84% of the total residential area. This area represents the four village tracts with 13 villages and 13220 persons.

Small area (between 50 and 100 acres)

From the analysis of the table it is noted that this category has 17 village tracts. In the small residential area ranges between 58 acres (Zeepanics) village tracts0 and 100 acres (Kyekhotaw village tracts). It covers only 30.57% of the total residential area. This area represents 64 villages, with a population of 51968 persons.

Very small area (below 50 acres)

Under very small area ranges from 7 acres (Sarkha Village tract) to 50 acres (Paungwa village tract). This area comprises 8 village tracts about 6.63% of the total residential area. This area represents 16 villages with a population of 17986 persons. See Table (2) and Figure (3).

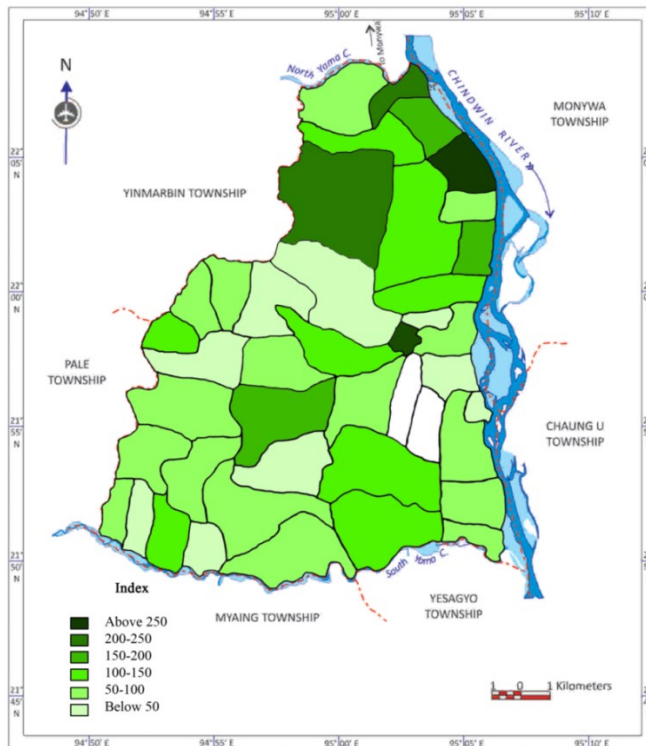


Figure 3: Special distribution of residential area in Salingyi township (2018)
(Source: Table 2)

Table 2: Residential area in Salingyi township

Index	Number	Name of Village Tracts
Above 250	2	Town Area, Ywashee
200-250	2	Moegyapyin, Kaukmyet
150-200	7	Htanzin, Phongkatar, Kyardet, Taungpalu, Nyaungpingyi, Tome, Panhtoo
100-150	4	Sharthome, Bokesu, Phulankan, Linsarkyet
50-100	18	Kyekhotaw, Dantaw, Khunthar, Tayar, Mayezone, Thamantaw, Latpataung, Sonetar, Duthauk, Yonespinyoe, Ywathamin, Kyaingkamauk, Mataungta, Hnawkutoe, Dikethayet, Ngakhone, Zeepani (S), Paungwa
Below 50	7	Zeepani (N), Yemain, Nyaungpinto, Shwethamin, Zeechine, Chaungyoe, Sarkha

(Source: Agricultural land management and statistics, Salingyi township)

Analysis on Residential Density

Table (3) and Figure (4) are shown that the spatial distribution of residential densities in Salingyi Township. Find that residential density is higher, which some village tracts near the Chindwin River, North Yoma and South Yoma Chaung. Ngakhone, Hnawkutoe, Linsarkyet, Tayar, Mayezone, Zeechine and Zeepani village tracts included in the medium level. As expected, the desire to be close to agricultural work was related to living in the agricultural areas.

Table 3: Comparative study of dwelling density in Salingyi township

Index	Num.	Name of Wards
High Above 16 (dwelling per acre)	2	Sarkha, Dantaw
Medium 8-16 (dwelling per acre)	12	Ngakhone, Latpataung Zeechine, Hnawkutoe, Linsarkyet, Nyaungpingyi, Mataungta, Mayezone, Phongkatar, Zeepani (N), Tayar, Phulankan, Kyaingkamauk
Low 8 (dwelling per acre)	26	Chaungyoe, Sonetar, Paungwa, Yemain, Moegyapyin, Thamantaw, Ywashee, Sharthome, Duthauk, Yonespinyoe, Nyaungpinto, Ywathamin, Htanzin, Kaukmyet, Kyardet, Zeepani (S), Panhtoo, Khunthar, Tome, Kyekhotaw, Bokesu, Dikethayet, Town Area, Taungpalu

(Source: Agricultural land management and statistics, Salingyi township)

(Source: Immigration and national registration department of Salingyi township)

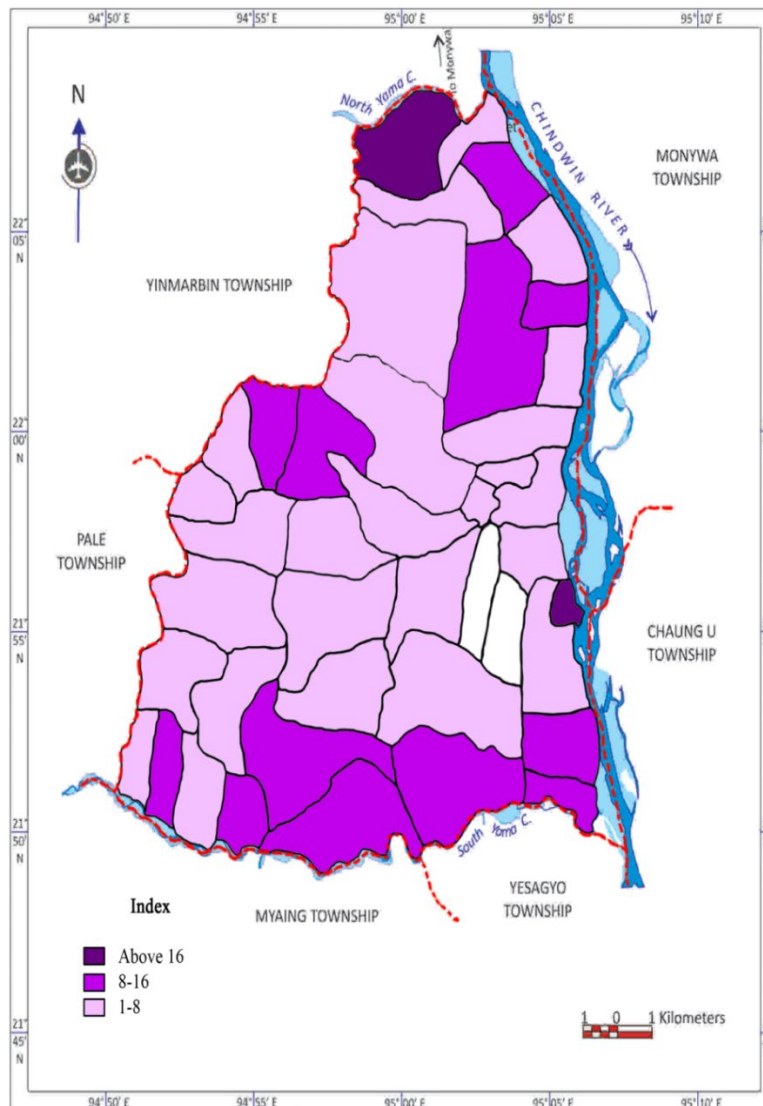


Figure 4: Spatial distribution of residential density by village tracts in Salingyi township

3.2 Housing Conditions in Salingyi Township

Analysis of House Types

Dwellings vary with the building materials from its natural environment. A regional characteristic of the dwelling was controlled by physical and cultural environment (Hla Tun Aung, 2003). To assess the settlement type and its quality, housing types and their pattern must be taken. Furthermore, housing pattern was one of the effective indicators to assess the living standard of people in the settlement area. Most of the housing style in the study area was found as the traditional style. In the study area, house types especially residence buildings were classified by building materials which area used. Houses types found in Salingyi Township brick house, wooden house, bamboo house. Salingyi Township has 26001 houses of which 3481 houses are brick type consisting 13.39%. Wooden houses amount to 5754, comesponding to 22.13%. Bamboo houses total 16765, which is 64.48% of the total houses of Salingyi Township. The largest number of houses was found in Ywashee village tract with 1814 houses and 6.97 percent of the total number of houses. The small number of

houses was found in Chaungyo village tracts with 133 houses and 0.51 percent of the total number of houses.

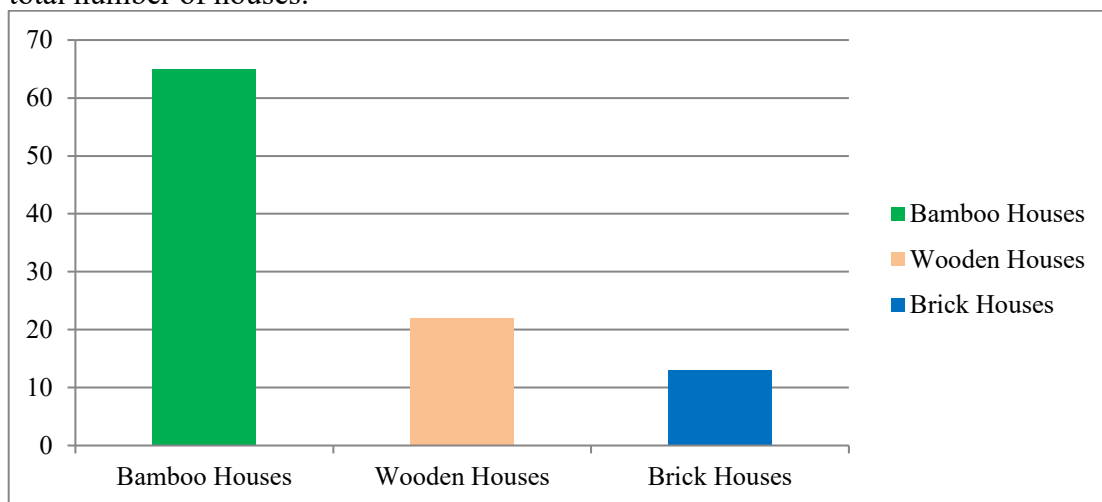


Figure 5: House types in Salingyi township (2019)

Urban Houses Types

Salingyi Township has only one urban area. It has three wards. The total houses of Salingyi urban area were 670 houses. The brick houses were 27 houses with 4.03 percent of the total number in the urban area. The wooden houses were 30 houses with 4.48 percent of the total number in the urban area the bamboo houses were 613 houses with 91.49 percent of the total number in the urban area.

Rural Houses Types

Likewise in the urban area, there were three types of houses in the rural area; brick houses, wooden houses and bamboo houses. In the study area, there were 25962 houses of which 3440 houses were brick houses, 5738 houses were wooden houses and 16137 houses were bamboo houses. Most of the bamboo houses were found as the largest number of houses in rural area. Brick houses were 3493 houses and amount to 13.67 percent of the total number of houses in rural area. The largest number of houses in Salingyi Township was Phongkatar village tracts with 560 houses and 16.13 percent of the total number of houses of brick houses. The second largest number of brick houses was found in Linsarkyet village tract with 280 houses and 8.07 percent of the total number of brick houses. The Wooden houses were 5738 houses amounting to 22.59 percent of the total number of rural houses. The largest number of wooden houses was found in Dontaw village tract with 788 percent of the total number of wooden houses. The second largest number of wooden houses occurred in Ywashee village tract. It has 529 wooden house and 9.2 percent of the total number of wooden houses. The number of bamboo houses was 16100 houses representing 63.78 percent of the total rural number houses in the study area. The largest number of bamboo houses was found in 1053 Nyaungpingyi village tract with houses and amounting to 6.3 percent of the total number houses of bamboo in Salingyi. The second largest number of bamboo houses was found in Ywashee village tract with 1045 houses and accounting to 6.16 percent of the total number of bamboo houses in the study area.

3.3 Comparative Study on House Types in Salingyi Township

According to the percentage value, Salingyi Township has the largest number of bamboo houses with 16765, corresponding to 64.48% of the total houses. Bamboo houses can be divided into 6 groups in Salingyi Township. According to the data, there were 8 village tracts with above 80% of each of their total area. They are

Shwethamin, Salingyi urban area, Duthauk, Sharkha, Mataungta, Nyaungpinto, Thamantaw and Nyaungpingyi. In the level, Shwethamin has the largest bamboo house and Nyaungpingyi has the lowest bamboo house. In the 60%-80% groups of bamboo house are included 17 village tracts. In this group Hnawkutoe has the largest number of bamboo houses and Latpataung has the lowest number of bamboo house. Among the village tract between 40%-60% group of bamboo house are included 11 village tracts. In this group Phulankan has the largest and Zeepani (S) has the smallest. There were 2 village tract between 20%-40% Zeepani (N) is with the smallest of 34.66%. Phongkatar village tracts is the smallest percentage value of bamboo houses. According to the data for 20189, there were with the highest percentage value above 40% in the wooden house. They are Dontaw, Tome, Paungwa and Khunthar. There were 14 village tracts between 20%-40%. Those included in the group Chaungyoe, Phulankan, Htanzin, Sonetar, Ywashee, Latpataung, Kyaukmyet, Bokesu, Sharthome, Phongkatar, Ngakhone Moegyapyin, Yonepinyoe and Taungpalu. Among village tracts below 20%, Tayar village tract is with the small houses of 2.41%. During the period 2019, brick houses are 3481 houses with 13.38% of the total number of houses. There were 2 village tracts with largest percentage value of brick houses above 50%. They are Zeepani (N) and Phongkatar. Zeepani (N) is located on the northern bank of South Yoma Chaung, Phongkatar is locate on the Monywa-Salingyi Road. There were 7 village tracts under medium percentage value (between 20%-40%). They are Zeepani (S), Linsarkyet, Kyardet, Ywathamin, Bikethayet, Paungwa and Zeechine. There were 31 village tracts with low percentage value (below 20%) of total brick houses. Among the village tract below 20%, Kyaukmyet village tracts is with the smallest brick house of 1.10 percent. See Table (4), (5), (6) and Figure (6).

Table 4: Bamboo types by village tracts in Salingyi township (2019)

Index	Number	Name of Village Tracts
Above 40 %	36	Shwethamin, Town Area, Duthauk, Sarkha, Mataungta, Nyaungpinto, Thamantaw, Nyaungpingyi, Hnawkutoe, Mayezone, Panhtoo, Tayar, Yemain, Taungpalu, Kyaingkamauk, Kaukmyet, Zeechine, Ngakhone, Bokesu, Sharthome, Yonespinyoe, Moegyapyin, Ywathamin, Dikethayet, Latpataung, Phulankan, Kyekhotaw, Htanzin, Chaungyoe, Ywashee, Kyardet, Linsarkyet, Sonetar, Tome, Khunthar, Zeepani (S)
Between 20 and 40%	3	Dantaw, Paungwa, Zeepani (N)
Below 20%	1	Phongkatar

(Source: Agricultural land management and statistics, Salingyi township)

Table 5: Brick types by village tracts in Salingyi township (2019)

Index	Number	Name of Village Tracts
Above 40 %	4	Dantaw, Tome, Paungwa, Khunthar,
Between 20 and 40%	15	Chaungyoe, Phulankan, Htanzin, Sonetar, Ywashee, Latpataung, Kaukmyet, Bokesu, Sharhome, Phongkatar, Ngakhone, Moegyapyin, Yonespinyoe, Taungpalu, Kyekhotaw
Below 20%	21	Zeepani (S), Mayezone, Zeepani (N), Panhtoo, Kyaingkamauk, Hnawkutoe, Kyardet, Nyaungpingyi, Thamantaw, Linsarkyet, Dikethayet, Zeechine, Yemain, Mataungta, Sarkha, Nyaungpinto, Duthauk, Ywathamin, Town Area, Shwethamin, Tayar

(Source: Agricultural land management and statistics, Salingyi township)

Table 6: Wooden types by village tracts in Salingyi township (2019)

Index	Number	Name of Village Tracts
Above 40 %	3	Zeepani (N), Phongkatar, Zeepani (S)
Between 20 and 40%	7	Linsarkyet, Kyardet, Ywathamin, Dikethayet, Paungwa, Zeechine, Kyekhotaw
Below 20%	30	Tayar, Yemain, Khunthar, Ywashee, Sonetar, Kyaingkamauk, Dantaw, Tome, Panhtoo, Htanzin, Hnawkutoe, Yonespinyoe, Latpataung, Nyaungpingyi, Moegyapyin, Thamantaw, Mayezone, Nyaungpinto, Chaungyoe, Mataungta, Phulankan, Sharhome, Taungpalu, Town Area, Ngakhone, Sarkha, Bokesu, Duthauk, Shwethamin, Kaukmyet,

(Source: Agricultural land management and statistics, Salingyi township)

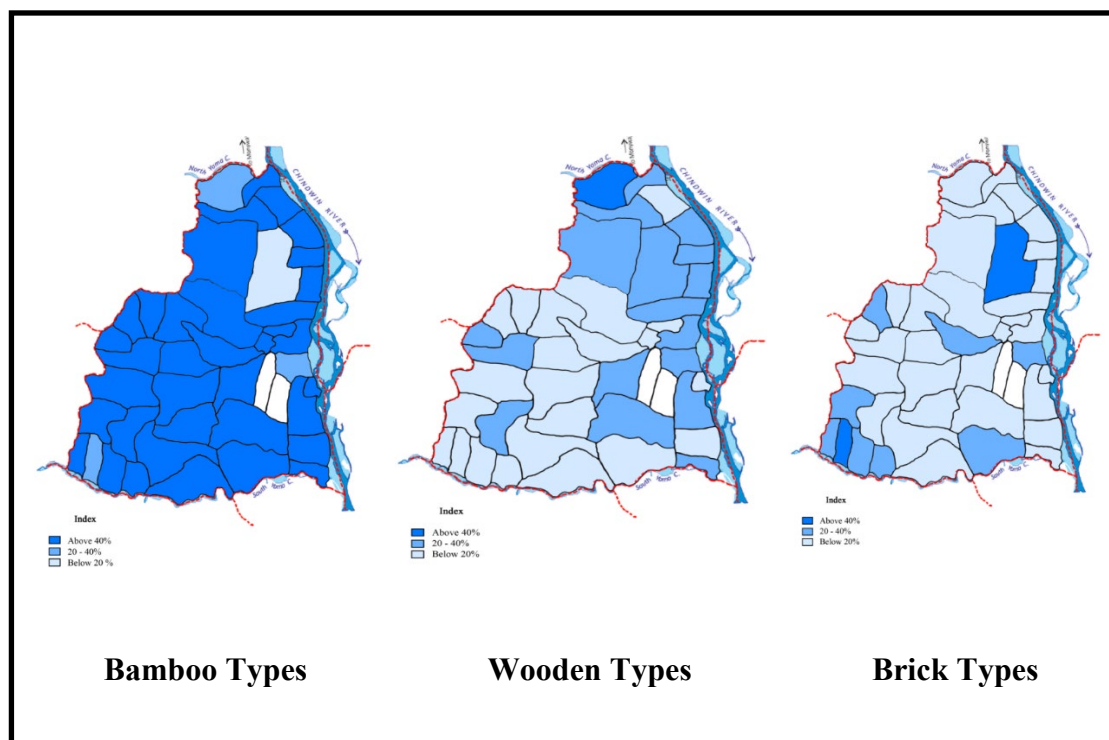


Figure 6: Distribution of house types by village tracts in Salingyi township (2018)
(Source: Based on Table 4, 5, 6)

4. Conclusion

The spatial distribution of residential densities in Salingyi Township differs by village tract to village tract. When analyzing the residential density of one urban and 39 village tracts in Salingyi Township, it is observed that the residential density is 30.92%. Next analyzing the man-land ratio, urban area is the highest and Chaungyo and Sarkha are the lowest with 0.01% in Salingyi Township. The cause of high and low of man-land ratio are due to high distance from the trade centre, low population size and large size. In analyzing housing conditions, there are a total 26001 houses in Salingyi Township and house type varies from place to place. According to the field survey conducted in 2019, Salingyi Township has 13.39% of brick house, 22.13% of wooden houses and 64.48% of bamboo houses. When the analyzing the distribution pattern of house type in Salingyi Township irregularity occurs.

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Feminist Awareness in Chinese Film *Women-Demon-Human* (1987)

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ABSTRACT

Not a few years after the worldwide famous feminist film, *Jeane Dielman*, the first feminist film in China mainland, *Women-Demon-Human*, is screen-written and directed by Huang Shuqin in 1987. It tells a grow-up story about a famous Chinese local opera actress, Yan Yanling, who is struggling to be a skilled and successful opera actress would have been divided into three parts, and whose consciousness has been displayed in the climax scene of her mixing up her face with the opera paint, black and red. Those opera playing scenes in the film have been played by the real opera actress herself and shot in the traditional Chinese opera way, which could cause the distancing between the audience and the character. Those techniques are called Brechtian techniques in the west world. As for the film language, there is also difference about the theory of linear perspective between West and East. Through those similarities and differences between West and East, the worldwide audience could have no problem to understand Chinese culture about family, marriage, local customs, and feminist in this film directed by the female director whose female character is somehow different and vivid from female characters in male director's films.

Keywords: Chinese Culture; Distancing; Feminist Film; *Woman-Demon-Human* (1987)