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The State of Music Education in Nigerian Secondary School Programme
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International Teachers’ Perceptions of Classroom Intersections of Culture and Language: Impacts on Language Education in South America

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Abstract: This qualitative study investigated teachers’ understandings of the interplay between culture and language at two, English language medium, international type schools in South America. A total of 33 teachers participated in the study by responding to two questions via an online, threaded, discussion board. Results indicate that teachers in these international schools see the environments in which they teach as culturally rich and as such and either empower or disempower students. Results also illustrate teachers’ belief that the study of language cannot exist separate from an understanding of the sociohistorical context in which language occurs.

Keywords: international schools; language; culture; sociohistorical context, langaculture

1. Introduction

As our world continues a growing enrichment through economic, cultural, and educational interdependence, researchers continue to realize that teachers in international learning environments should encourage and enable the development of critical understandings of the intersection of language and culture in their classrooms. Such development, arguably, remains critical to the facilitation of international classrooms that provide stimulating and sensitive lessons to all stakeholders (Lovorn & Summers, 2011). Research also suggests that better understandings of students’ culture, linguistic backgrounds, and intersection of the two can lead to more impactful teaching and more teacher-student relationships (Hruska, 2000b; Joseph, 2008). The purpose of this study attempted to explore perceptions and discussion threads among K-12 teachers at two international schools in South America about how they recognize and address intersections of language and culture in their schools, and what impacts these intersections have on learning environments.

Research indicates that international teachers’ understandings (or misunderstandings) of their students’ linguistic and cultural backgrounds can have significant impacts on teaching and learning (Bennett, 1993; Hruska, 2000a; Lovorn & Summers, 2011). Research also suggests that most teachers in international classrooms recognize that their perceptions of language and culture impact students’ perceptions of self, morale, and performance (Hruska, 2000b; Sunal, Christensen, Shwery, Lovorn & Sunal, 2010). Attention to students’ self-perceptions remain paramount, as studies show these and related factors often influence their concepts of citizenship (Sunal, Christensen, Shwery, Lovorn & Sunal, 2010), communication (Merryfield, 2000; Sunal & Christensen, 2002), and sense of belonging (Banks, 2004; Lee & Recchia, 2008).

2. Method and Data Collection

Via an online discussion board, researchers asked two key questions in this study. First, “What are teachers’ perceptions of cultural empowerment (and disempowerment) in international schools?” and second, “What are teachers’ perceptions of the interface of language, and culture in international schools?” The study took place at two unique K-12 international schools in South America. The first school, referred to in this study as “School A”, exists within a middle class neighborhood of a mid-sized city in a country with a relatively low socioeconomic status among its South American neighbors. The second school, referred to in this study as “School B”, geographically resides in a wealthy neighborhood...
of a densely populated metropolis in a country with a relatively high (and growing) socioeconomic status among its South American neighbors.

By way of an online discussion board, dialogue facilitation occurred between 33 teachers from the two schools. Of these participants, 14 were female and 19 male; 12 identified themselves as Caucasian/European, 12 identified themselves Hispanic/Latino(a), and 2 identified themselves as of African Descent. In terms of classroom teaching experience, 73% (n=24) reported having been in the classroom for five years or less; 18% (n=6) reported having been in the classroom for six to ten years; and 9% (n=3) reported having been in the classroom for more than ten years.

The online discussion board design and management provided participants the ability to post their thoughts, observations and opinions, and to read and respond to the posts of others participants at both international schools. In an effort to generate rich dialogue, participants were asked to make at least three posts to complete the data collection activity; one original post, and two response posts to thoughts of others. Each participant met this minimal request, and many made several more posts which assured rich threaded discussions.

Content analysis (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Neuendorf, 2002) of the threaded discussions was used for interpreting meaning expressed by participants, the categorization process focused on key questions as interconnected themes, and researchers implemented strategies to protect the authenticity and trustworthiness of the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Study participants from School A and School B simultaneously discussed their perceptions of language and culture, and the impacts these factors have on the learning environment. Two major themes emerged from the threaded conversations: (1) these culturally rich international classrooms can empower and disempower students; and (2) language and culture cannot exist separate. Excerpts of threaded conversations have been included to demonstrate themes.

Theme 1: these culturally rich international classrooms can empower and disempower students

Participants discussed their thoughts, observations, and opinions related to teachers’ recognition of cultural diversity and growth of cultural and socioeconomic diversity within in their classrooms and schools. Jason, a third-year secondary math teacher at School B, initiated the discussion by reporting about his school’s diverse student body:

“[School B] is very diverse compared to my experiences growing up in the US. I grew up in rural Missouri, and our school was all white. Although most of our students speak Portuguese as their primary language, there are several cultures (and nationalities) represented.”

Cintia, a second-year high school science teacher at School B, echoed Jason’s observation and added:

“Our students come from families that have moved here from the United States, Canada, and Korea to work. This is why our school is so diverse. These families make good money to come here, and they can afford to send their kids to our school, so we benefit from their diversity. They also bring lots of great cultures into the school.”

Raquel, a veteran art teacher at School A, pointed out that her school represents a diverse population as well:

“At [School A], we have students from many places too. Most are from our city. They are rich. But we have some students from other countries. Many of them speak two languages. They bring their culture into our school, and it’s not all rich kids. Some of their parents are not rich and work very hard to pay for their education.”

Several participants posted comments confirming this perceived diversity. James, a 7-year veteran teacher in his second year at School A said: “... we have students from about 12 different countries.” Samuel, a new middle school language arts teacher at School A, added: “Our student body is more diverse than most schools in [the city].” Alberto, a fourth-year fourth grade teacher at School B pointed out:

“Our school is the most diverse in town too, and I think that is one of the things that makes us such a good school. We have a reputation for having students from all over the world. Many of the students speak multiple languages. They bring their culture into the classroom, and I like to have them share their cultures with the class. We all learn from the things they share.”

As discourse continued, indications became clear that most participants also generally expressed that such diversity has
a positive and empowering impact on the learning environment. Carmen, a third-year high school language arts teacher opined:

“We encourage students to bring their culture into the classroom. I find this makes my lessons better, especially when we’re reading literature because they can share similar cultural examples of metaphor or alliterations... Students really have a sense of accomplishment when they share experiences and stories in the classroom. I have even begun incorporating them into my lessons. I ask students to go home and talk to their parents about culture-specific stories they can share with the class.”

Nicholas, a second-year elementary teacher at School B agreed and added:

“We do the same thing in our classes. We have students bring in examples of their culture. I find that it makes them feel more comfortable in the class. They ask more questions, answer more questions, and participate more too. I think it makes them feel they are part of something bigger, yet still unique in some way.”

Annie, a veteran elementary school teacher at School A added to Nicholas’ comment:

“We do this too, and I think it’s good for all of us. I really think when I can get students interested in each other and where they’re all from, we all benefit. My students like getting up in front of the room and sharing stories. I can even use it as a classroom management strategy, because they know if they do not behave, we will not have time to tell stories.”

In sum, Consuelo, a high school history teacher at School A remarked: “Encouraging our students to share their culture and background in class does several things to help the teacher. First, it makes students comfortable to share about their backgrounds. Second, it gives them a chance to talk about themselves, which makes them feel important. Third, it helps their classmates learn about different cultures. And fourth, it teaches everyone to respect difference.”

Theme 2: language and culture cannot exist separate

Participants discussed their thoughts, observations, and opinions related to teachers’ understanding of the interplay between language and culture as such occurs in the international schools in which they teach. One teacher at School B, Renata, commented on her role as a language teacher in 4th grade mathematics. 

“I am a native speaker of Portuguese, but was educated in an international school where all of our subjects were taught in English. I remember being confused by the way that our teachers and textbooks used word problems in math. It is very different from the way that we are used to. It seems that my culture has a focus on calculation rather than discussion of mathematical procedures. I try to keep this in mind when teaching math to my students. That is to say, I remember and highlight for my students the cultural differences in the ways that language is used to frame mathematics in English as opposed to Portuguese.”

Joseph, a North American and a 6th grade Mathematics and Science teacher at School A, agreed with Renata’s statement and commented on a similar understanding of mathematics in his students. 

“I see almost the same thing in my kids in 6th grade Math. They are seem to be more comfortable with rote memorization of formulae and isolated facts rather than the critical thinking skills that are required in more abstract problem solving. I think that this has to do with the way that their culture approaches learning. They have the language skills to understand word problems but lack the cultural understanding to see the importance in knowing how to solve them. Of course I saw this when I taught in the U.S. but it wasn’t as widespread here. For me the difference is the cultural frame of reference.”

Carole, a novice teacher at School B and a native speaker of Portuguese added to the conversation by addressing some of the English and Portuguese proverbs that she teaches in her tenth grade language arts class.

“I think that it is important for my students to understand the manner in which both cultures approach language and wisdom through idioms and proverbs. For instance, all of my students know the proverb “cão picado por cobra, tem medo de linguiça.” which when translated literally means “a dog that has been bitten by a snake is scared of sausages.” The English equivalent of this expression is “once bitten, twice shy.” For me the English is much more direct in its meaning. This highlights for me the way that Americans are so much more direct than Brazilians. When I teach these proverbs, I not only teach the words themselves but also the cultural understanding that my students need to have to
Matthew responded to Carole’s comment adding his thoughts on Spanish verses English proverbs.

[School A] is located in a fairly conservative, Catholic country and I believe that the proverbs that are used here reflect this. I grew up with my grandmother telling me “the early bird gets the worm.” I recently learned that here the equivalent to this proverb is “a quien madruga, Dios le ayuda” which means “God helps those who get up early.” In my opinion this reflects the importance of religion in [the country in which School A is located].

The discussion of language and culture was concluded by a veteran teacher, Terri. She is a native speaker of English and a part time administrator at School B.

“I really like this discussion thread. It has helped me to organize my thoughts about language and culture. While I have only been teaching here at [School B] for two years, I taught for nine years in Houston at a school where the majority of students were either Mexican immigrants or of Mexican descent. My students in Texas would try to understand their assignments from the Mexican perspective. For example they preferred collaborative work instead of individual work and would get frustrated with me when I insisted that they work by themselves. After a couple of months I came to understand that their culture regards socialization, even in work situations, more highly than individual work. After a week or two here at [School B] I began to see the same thing. Students’ value socialized work more than individualized work. When they do free writing they prefer to write about parties and games instead of their plans for the future schooling or their chosen profession. I don’t see it as a lack of seriousness on their part, but instead a snapshot into their understanding of what it is to be Brazilian as reflected by their language.”

3. Directions for further research

While the results of the content analysis in relation to the themes proved unanimously positive, there remain still implied questions that need investigation for further study and provocation of discussion concerning this particular population and the intersections of culture that occur. For instance, if language and culture cannot exist separate, what then actually causes the separation from social and cultural perspectives, i.e. what kinds of pre-existing administrative or social apparatus work to nullify or suppress existing cultural voices or identities? (Collins, 2000; Foucault, 1995). Also, the educators surveyed seem to rely on a feminist intersectional approach in respect to students sharing of cultural stories and perspectives through the encouragement of storytelling, oral presentation, and specific cultural practices (Collins, 2000). But how do such practices resonate outside of the school in the community? Does such sharing of stories resonate as a cultural norm, or do these instances within the classroom merely facilitate learning in isolation? While Carmen opined that the students receive encouragement to go home and share insights and stories with the family, how does the teacher follow up with the student in these instances?

So further parallels need illumination in order to understand if a global interdependence exists in the themes discussed by these educators and if the practices discussed by the educators could perhaps provide a good avenue for further discussions for implementing a more global and culturally sensitive curriculum. For instance in examining the response in the second theme, one can look at how Carole indicated the importance of recitation and discussion of proverbs in her curriculum as a reflection of the religious values of the population and her own implied beliefs. From an outside perspective, in trying to understand the cultural cache or value of such pedagogical practices, further research into the possible links between religion in the classroom versus not need addressing. The danger here can bubble up of relying too heavily on a relativistic viewpoint once one becomes situated within a cultural paradigm, and perhaps a phenomenological methodology could help serve the investigation of such cultural practices. However this does not mean one cannot completely discount the power of the researcher/participant narrative as an important tool in qualitative understandings in educational research.

4. Conclusions

Research on the impacts of cultural diversity in international classrooms indicates that students and teachers need more student-led exchange of culture-related ideas (Kapoor, 2004; Paige, 1993; Zeichner & Hoeff, 1996). Teachers’ perceptions of students’ cultural background can have both positive and negative impacts on the learning environment (Kumagai & Sato, 2009; McLaren & Kinchelow, 2007).

Participants demonstrated that the schools included in this discussion generally recognize and celebrate the diversity of their students and use that to empower students to succeed in the classroom. Participants’ facilitation of students’ cultural expressions within their classrooms appears as a priority for teachers at both schools because they increase students’ openness, positively affect their ownership of in-class activities, and enrich their overall learning experience.
The discussion that centered on language and culture stresses the fact that the study of language cannot occur void of an understanding of the culture in which a native or outside language practice occurs. Participants in this study seem to echo the thoughts of Agar (1994) and his notion of langaculture; a term that encapsulates the interconnectedness of language and the sociohistorical context in which the language has evolved and becomes implemented. Moreover their discussion reflects a broader push in linguistic studies for an investigation of both the mechanics and the social, interactive factors of language (Wertsch, 1991; Bruner, 1986). That is to say, they value the social dimensions of language use as well as the linguistics ones.

Implications from this study demonstrate these international school teachers’ perceptions of the relationships between culture and learning significantly impact how they present material to students. Participants also recognize and speak to students’ cultural and linguistic backgrounds. These findings indicate that in these settings, attention to cultural awareness, cultural sensitivity, multilingualism, and critical pedagogy provides teachers with immediate opportunities to socially and academically empower students.

Teachers remain challenged to help students explore their own cultural and linguistic identities and build upon them in ways to maximize learning. Global diffusion of cultures ensures that classrooms become more diverse each day. Participants in this study appear up to the challenge and indicated a willingness and ability to use culture and language as teaching tools.

References


An Insight Into Difficulties Faced By Pakistani Student Writers: 
Implications for Teaching of Writing

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Abstract: Writing is one of the most difficult and complex human activities. It involves a variety of cognitive activities for example; the development of a design idea, the capture of mental representations of knowledge, and of experience with subjects. The cyclic and nonlinear processes of writing by novice and expert authors have been studied by such diverse disciplines as cognitive psychology, stylistics, rhetoric, text linguistics, critical literary theory, hypertext theory, second language acquisition, and writing pedagogy. In an article named, “Cognitive Development and the Basic Writer” Andrea A. Lunsford(1979) made an effort to establish the notion that students are developmentally incapable of drawing understandings outside of themselves. Lunsford provided references from Vygotsky and Piaget, summarizing that students form concepts from day to day learning but cannot think scientifically about these concepts by separating themselves, defining them, and drawing inferences on them. Lunsford (1979) noted that we learn by doing and includes a quote from Eleanor Duckworth, “thoughts are our way of connecting things up for ourselves. If somebody else tells us about the connections he has made, we can only understand him to the extent that we do the work of making those connections ourselves. Lunsford encourages collaboration in learning, as well as new ways to approach basic writing classes. From such a vast reassure of approaches and themes, this paper will be concerned with what is immediately relevant to the teaching and learning of writing in Pakistan. In the end I have also made an effort to propose some practical designs for the teaching of writing in real classroom situation.

Keywords: writing, pakistani students, learning

1. Introduction

In this article I have tried to interpret the situation of teaching of writing in Pakistan in the light of the article of Lunsford. As a writing student, I find myself wondering about my incompetence as far as making inferences on concepts outside of me. If I haven’t fully developed in the area of “de-centering”, wouldn’t writing be exceptionally hard for my students?

This position invoked me to explore why our students generally fail to satisfy the expectations of examiners. In the prevailing predominant paradigm in Pakistan, knowledge is viewed as static and ‘out there’ which can be learned through behavioristic model of learning. This model lays extra emphasis on imitation and repetition. With this view of knowledge, it requires a lot of memorization and cramming on the part of students as there is hardly any need, in this paradigm, to reflect and think critically (Sidiqui, 2007, pp.62). Students despite facing the drudgery of a heavy syllabus can not write up to the mark both in L1 and L2. They can memorize a big number of ready made answers to the questions but are unable to produce a single piece of writing critically, why is this so? In this article I have tried to find out the reasons of this malady. Janet Emig (1979 cited in Lunsord, 1979) says,

“writing……… connects the three major tenses of our experience to make meaning. And the two major modes by which these three aspects are united are the processes of analysis and synthesis: analysis, the breaking of entities into their constituent parts; and synthesis, combining or fusing these, often into fresh arrangements or amalgams.”

Here I have summarized the discussion of Lunsford who claims that, basic writers have not attained that level of cognitive development which would allow them to form abstractions or conceptions. She further asserts that our students might well perform a given task in a specific situation, but they have great difficulty abstracting from it or replicating it in another situation/context. Lunsford (ibid) conducted a study on basic writing students and summarized her study as, “typical basic writing students were asked to read ten constructive issues of a comic strip and choose one of the major characteristics and infer the basic values of that character from the information provided in the ten issues, the students found it difficult to articulate anything about the values of characters unlike themselves. Lunsford concluded her study as, “basic writers have problems drawing inferences or forming concepts based on what they have read. They tend either to describe the characters or, more typically, to drop the comic strip character after a few sentences and shift to what they see as their
own values.”

Lunsford has summarized Lev Vygostky’s THOUGHT AND LANGUAGE(1962), as, there are three basic phases in
the ascent to concept formation: a) The initial syntactic stage (in which “word meaning denotes nothing more to the child
than a vague syncretic conglomeration of individual objects that have…coalesced into an image.”) b) The thinking in
complex stage (during which “the thought is already coherent and objective……, although it does reflect objective
relationships in the same way as conceptual thinking.”) c) The true-concept of formation stage.

According to Vygostky (1962) “even after the adolescent has learned to produce concepts……. He does not
abandon elementary forms; they continue for a long time to operate, indeed to predominate, in many areas of his
thinking……………..The transitional character of adolescent thinking becomes especially evident when we observe the
actual functioning of the newly acquired concepts. Experiments speedily devised to study the adolescent’s operations
bring out….. a striking discrepancy between his ability to form concepts and his ability to define them.”

Difference between Spontaneous concepts and scientific concepts (Vygotsky,):

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<tr>
<th>Spontaneous Concepts</th>
<th>Scientific Concepts</th>
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<tr>
<td>Formed as a result of ordinary, day to day experience</td>
<td>Formed largely in conjunction with instruction</td>
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If we discuss the characteristics of above mentioned students by Lunsford and Vygotsky (1962) the student writers in
Pakistan have all of the characteristics of Lunsford’s (1979) basic writing students because like Lunsford’s Pakistani ESL
(L2) writers have shown: a) The ability of Spontaneous concepts. b) They are not able to remove these spontaneous
concepts from themselves. c) They are unable to abstract from them. d) They are unable to define their concepts into
scientific concepts which are necessary for success full college work. e) They work at what Vygotsky calls the “thinking in
complexes” stage and the spontaneous concept stage rather than at the true concept formation stage (Lunsford,). f) While these writers have little difficulty in dealing with familiar everyday problems requiring abstract thought based on
concepts, they are not aware of the processes they are using. g) They lack the ability to infer principles from their own
experiences. h) They are not forming the “scientific concepts” which are basic to mastery of almost all college material.

Sidiqui(2007, pp.151) claims that at the college level (intermediate and BA) English is being taught by teachers who are
MA in English literature. A large majority of them are either unable or resistant to facilitate the process of empowering
their students in terms of linguistic enrichment. The result is that our students can memorize critical appreciations of great
poetry and prose but when it comes to verbal or written discourse, they find themselves handicapped. Lunsford (1979)
further references Jean Piaget’s stages of mental development: 1) Sensory-motor stage 2) The pre-operational stage 3)
The concrete operational stage 4) The formal operational stage (Bullets added).

These stages are characterized by the ability to abstract, synthesize, and form coherent logical relationship. At the
stage of concrete operations, the child’s thought is still closely linked to concrete data; completely representational,
hypothetical, or verbal thoughts still eludes him. As the child moves through the stages of cognitive development, he goes
through what Piaget, cited in Lunsford (1979) calls the process of “de-centering”, a process further defined by Lee Odell
(cited in Lunsford, 1979) as getting outside one’s own frame of reference, understanding the thoughts, values, feelings of
another person;…. projecting oneself into unfamiliar circumstances, whether factual or hypothetical;… learning to
understand why one reacts as he does to experience.” Lunsford (ibid) explains that although children first begin to de-
center as early as the pre-operational stage, egocentricity is still strong in the concrete stage, and indeed, we apparently
continue the process of “de-centering” throughout our lives.

Lunsford(1979) summarizes Piaget and Vygostky as, cognitive development moves from doing, to doing
consciously and then only to formal conceptualization. It might be inferred that mere practice is not sufficient for process
of teaching and learning of writing tacit must be converted into reflection. This is common conception that practice makes
a man perfect and a writer should continue writing unless he is expert in writing. For this purpose students generally join
academies out side the school and college, and the academies help the students pass the examination with an
examination-gearied approach. Just like helping books in tuition academies, selected chapters and questions are focused
and students are given ready made answers. In the whole process the students are asked to practice certain ‘sure shot’
questions again and again until they are automatized(Sidiqui, 2007).

Conscious doing as cited in Lusford(1979) can be interpreted as that the writer must know that how he is writing,
despite what he has written. In Pakistan due to the misinterpretation of this notion of conscious doing our teachers have
started focusing imitation without understanding what does this notion of conscious doing is, pedagogical shallowness
lies in the fact that after learning English essay writing, letter writing, application writing, dialogue writing and story writing
in schools and college our students are still unable to satisfy their teachers. This shows that in Pakistan student writers
have not yet acquired the stage of cognitive development, they mere listen monologue of the teacher. According to
Sidiqui (2007, pp.164) "the teaching in most of the intermediate level classes in mainstream colleges resembles monologue. The teacher comes to the classroom, opens the book, and explains the difficult words. Every line is read aloud by the teacher followed by its translation into mother tongue. The whole classroom time is consumed in "teaching" and explaining the books from cover to cover. The students do nothing except listening to the teacher's monologue and later memorize the 'notes' from the 'help-books', popular known as "guides", to pass the examination."

Eleaneor Dukworth cited in Lunsford (1979) says in an essay Piaget in the Classroom, “thoughts are our way of connecting things up for ourselves. If somebody else tells us about the connections he has made, we can only understand him to extent that we do the work of making those connections ourselves.”

This clearly indicates the importance of involving students in the actual act of writing itself. Just providing instructions or providing guideline about how to write an outline or just teaching some steps of organizing content is not sufficient, it demands some more. In Pakistan we still focus on providing oral or verbal instructions to the students without making their own participation sure in the act of writing. Unless the students are involved in the process of writing it seems mere a drill that leads no where and we have also observed its consequences in our country. The students do nothing except listening to the teacher’s monologue and later memorize the 'notes' from the 'help-books', popular known as "guides", to pass the examination (Sidiqui, 2007, pp.164). According to Gilbert Ryle (cited in Lunsford):

Learning how or improving in ability is not like learning that or acquiring information. Truths can be imparted, procedures can only be inculcated, and while inculcation is gradual process, imparting is relatively sudden it makes sense to ask at what moment someone became apprised of a truth, but not to ask at what moment someone acquired a skill. "Part-trained” is a significant phase; “part-informed” is not. Training is the art of setting tasks which the pupils have not yet accomplished but are not any longer quite incapable of accomplishing….Misunderstanding is a by-product of knowing how. Only a person who is at least a partial master of the Russian tongue can make the wrong sense of a Russian expression. Mistakes are exercises of competence (pp.59-60) (Italics added).

Writing is a process of discovery (Zamel, 1982) so unless the writer himself/herself is involved in the whole process this process remains unprofessional. In Pakistan learners are just imparted information. The instructors try the same unprofessional and static grammar translation methods (Sidiqui, 2007) he further asserts “in a number of schools and colleges English is being taught by the teachers whose own specialty is not English. So most of the teachers teach English as they were taught by their teachers, that are by grammar translation method with a lot of translation and drilling to memorization”, without understanding whether these methods work or not. The reason is very simple Sidiqui (2007, pp.151) claims that at the college level (intermediate and BA) English is being taught by teachers who are MA in English literature. A large majority of them are either unable or resistant to facilitate the process of empowering their students in terms of linguistic enrichment. In Pakistan students are not involved in the process of writing that is why we are still intrigued in the product oriented approach of teaching of writing. In the prevailing predominant paradigm in Pakistan, knowledge is viewed as static and 'out there' which can be learned through behavioristic model of learning. This model lays extra emphasis on imitation and repetition. With this view of knowledge, it requires a lot of memorization and cramming on the part of students as there is hardly any need, in this paradigm, to reflect and think critically (Sidiqui, 2007, pp.62).

Still our textbooks emphasize on studying abstract principles or prospects for writing, but we ignore the facts that writing skills can only be learnt by writing. Chomsky (1965, cited in Lunsford,) asserted that language is essentially and adventitious construct, taught by conditioning’…… or by drill and explicit explanation (pp, 51). Lunsford explains “students learn by doing and then by extrapolating principles from their activities.” Here it can be explained that Chomsky (1965) asserts that language can not be learnt by imitation but it involves some cognitive processes which are involved in the whole process of writing but interestingly in Pakistan we have neither followed a behaviorist approach solely nor have tried process approach. The result of this whole situation is that our instructors just start teaching as they have been taught by their teachers (Sidiqui, 2007).

Hairston (1982) in her article claims that Noam Chomsky (1957) in his theory of transformational grammar looked at the rules which language is generated; this theory caused a new focus on the process by which language comes into being”. In Pakistan according to Warsi(2004) the Pakistani English Syllabus highly values correct linguistic forms instead of students’ development of creative thought. That is why despite studying English in schools and colleges for about 6-8 years, students, especially coming from rural backgrounds, are not able to communicate in English with relative ease and success. The following table indicates that English as a compulsory subject has a very worst results in one of the Educational Boards.
writing teachers try to impart a set of rules to the learners for writing. They forget the fact that procedures can only be
employed in the creation of essays, poems and plays. This entire practice works fine as the assessment system encourages rote learning.”

Likewise, the books contain summaries of the poems and ready-made answers to the comprehension questions of short stories,
specially designed to prepare the examinations) that provide them with a shortcut to pass the examination. These helpbooks contain summaries of the poems and ready-made answers to the comprehension questions of short stories, essays, poems and plays. This entire practice works fine as the assessment system encourages rote learning.” like wise the writing teachers try to impart a set of rules to the learners for writing. They forget the fact that procedures can only be inculcated not imparted (Gilbert, cited in Lunsford, 1979). In Pakistan our writing teachers must realize that we are living in a competitive world in which our educational efforts should not only be related to our national needs, these should also compare well with the standards of education in other countries of the world (Abidi, 1991).

Our present system of education is not designed to promote scholarship. Rather it is impossible to pursue any scholarship in this system. It will be more correct to say that it skills all desire for knowledge. This system only promotes mediocrities (Abidi, 1991,pp.32). Further it is augmented by Sidiqui(2007,pp.168) “if we look at the textbooks of English in Pakistan, in the name of English we see short stories, poems, novel, plays etc. there has recently been a realization that it is important that our students should be exposed to functional English. By functional English we mean that one should be able to carry out various linguistic functions by using language as communication tool. Unfortunately our students who can learn critical appreciation of Shakespeare, Milton, and Chaucer are unable to communicate, in written or oral form, in an effective manner.” Polanyi(cited in Lunsford,1979) further claims that we learn by doing with a recognized master or connoisseur better than by studying or reading about abstract principles.

In Pakistan teachers ask students to read the notes taken during the monologue lecture. In the system I myself have got education we were asked to memorize the instructions about essay writing and reproduce those memorized set of information. A child has no opportunity pass to through an experience that he/she might claim their own. They are only memorizing the content already memorized by the teacher. It might be said a transition of memorized content from

### Subjects Appeared Passed Percentage

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Appeared</th>
<th>Passed</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urdu 1st Language</td>
<td>27074</td>
<td>24558</td>
<td>90.71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English 2nd Language</td>
<td>27000</td>
<td>11127</td>
<td>41.21%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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**Private Candidates**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Appeared</th>
<th>Passed</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urdu</td>
<td>52791</td>
<td>40729</td>
<td>77.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>53032</td>
<td>9092</td>
<td>17.14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we look at the percentage of candidates who passed in English in annual 2011 exam in Lahore Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education Total 27000 students appeared for English Exam and only 11127 students passed thus the pass percentage was 41.21 and as private 53032 students appeared in exam and only 9092/ Students passed thus pass percentage were 17.14. This situation clearly indicates that English teaching is not meeting the objectives set for learners.

From the above stated results it might be said that results in 1st language Urdu and English have a significant difference. This difference exposes the condition of 2nd Language in Pakistan. Where according to Abidi(1991) the large number of failure in English was due to the high borrow attitude of the teachers of English who insisted on maintaining the standards of Oxford and Cambridge in Pakistan. Our teachers emphasize upon memorization and rote learning despite involving the experiences of the learners. Even the examination system in Pakistan has become a hurdle in the way of process approach of writing. Sidiqui(2007) says” most of the examinations in the mainstream schools and colleges are memory driven. There are certain set of questions about the text books which are most likely to appear in the examination paper. These questions normally require production of memorized material from the text book. The students without bothering about the text books prepare for the examination with the help of “Get through guides” (help-books specially designed to prepare the examinations) that provide them with a short cut to pass the examination. These help-books contain summaries of the poems and ready-made answers to the comprehension questions of short stories, essays, poems and plays. This entire practice works fine as the assessment system encourages rote learning.” like wise the writing teachers try to impart a set of rules to the learners for writing. They forget the fact that procedures can only be inculcated not imparted (Gilbert, cited in Lunsford, 1979). In Pakistan our writing teachers must realize that we are living in a competitive world in which our educational efforts should not only be related to our national needs, these should also compare well with the standards of education in other countries of the world (Abidi, 1991).

Here I would like to summarize the discussion of Polanyai(cited in Lunsford,) “the well-known fact that the aim of of a skilful performance is achieved by the observance of a set of rules which are not known as such to the person following them(p.49). According to Donal, Schon(1982,pp.49) ‘when we go about the spontaneous, intuitive performance of the actions of every day life, we show ourselves to be knowledgeable in a special way. Often we can not say what is that we know. When we try to describe it we find ourselves at a loss, or we produce descriptions that are obviously inappropriate. Our knowing is ordinarily tacit, implicit in our patterns of action and in our feel for the stuff which we are dealing. It seems right to say that our knowing in our action.”

Polanyi(1976) uses the examples of the person who rides a bicycle, keeps afloat in the water, or plays a musical instrument without at all comprehending the underlying rules. “Rules of art can be useful, Polayani says, but they do not determine the practice of an art; they are maxims, which can serve as a guide to an art only if they can be integrated into the practical knowledge”? (pp.45 cited in Lunsford,).

Our present system of education is not designed to promote scholarship. Rather it is impossible to pursue any scholarship in this system. It will be more correct to say that it skills all desire for knowledge. This system only promotes mediocrities (Abidi, 1991,pp.32). Further it is augmented by Sidiqui(2007,pp.168) “if we look at the textbooks of English in Pakistan, in the name of English we see short stories, poems, novel, plays etc. there has recently been a realization that it is important that our students should be exposed to functional English. By functional English we mean that one should be able to carry out various linguistic functions by using language as communication tool. Unfortunately our students who can learn critical appreciation of Shakespeare, Milton, and Chaucer are unable to communicate, in written or oral form, in an effective manner.” Polanyi(cited in Lunsford,1979) further claims that we learn by doing with a recognized master or connoisseur better than by studying or reading about abstract principles.

In Pakistan teachers ask students to read the notes taken during the monologue lecture. In the system I myself have got education we were asked to memorize the instructions about essay writing and reproduce those memorized set of information. A child has no opportunity pass to through an experience that he/she might claim their own. They are only memorizing the content already memorized by the teacher. It might be said a transition of memorized content from
teacher to the taught. Vygostky (1962, pp.104) says “what a child can do in cooperation today he can do alone tomorrow. Therefore the only good kind of instruction is that which marches ahead of development and leads it; it must be aimed not so much at the ripe as the ripening functions.

I remember when I first started teaching writing in the English Language classroom, two issues immediately sprang to my attention; i) the students were extremely demotivated whenever asked to write in English; ii) the end product was fairly disappointing and didn’t seem to correlate with my students’ abilities as displayed in other aspects of their language ability, such as speaking for example. As my teaching developed over several years, so did my understanding as to why the students displayed such aversion to writing and why the end product of the writing they did do left something to be desired. In Pakistan I have also personally observed a critical situation that writing is something that teachers expects learners to do in class without giving any prior thought to the meaning of the finished product. As a consequence, learners’ attitudes towards writing are less than positive. This is compounded by the fact that this skill is often relegated to the status of ‘homework’ due to pressures of time and syllabus requirements, thus nullifying the possibility of teacher guidance. Furthermore, writing is viewed primarily as a tool for the practice and reinforcement of specific grammatical and lexical patterns; accuracy being all important whereas content and self-expression given little if any priority. Basically students are ‘writing to learn’ and not ‘learning to write’.

I have also inferred from the conversation with my colleagues that writing is a task in which the learner imitates, copies and transforms teacher supplied models, there is no need to focus on the steps involved in creating a piece of work. Here I would like to give a direct response of one of my colleagues: 

“I think…… writing should be taught by imitation, means students should be given the model writing and should be asked to follow the pattern”

The primary goal of product writing is an error-free coherent text.

“The paper (written product) should be ideal; there must not be any mistake in the essay.”

Interestingly more than 80 percent of my colleagues believe that a text must be perfect so that the candidate might obtain good grades/marks in the exam 10 percent of my colleagues have view that no text can be perfect, but that a writer will get closer to perfection by following the model text of some great writers and reworking on the successive drafts of a text.

A writer must write without any mistake of verb grammar and spelling.

A student is unable to satisfy unless he/she writes a master piece, because he will get marks only when he writes well. Examiner only loves a perfect essay……

Yes, a student should obtain good marks but he can get good marks by writing an essay that is perfect.

At this point we must remember that modern composition teaching has emerged primarily from observations of L1 composition students, leading to a strong focus on writing ‘process,’ which does not address the need of ESL students for help, for example at sentence level. This is based on ESL students’ documented preference for error correction (Leki, 1991) and the need for word usage and sentence grammar to become automatic. That is even in countries where English is taught as L2 the focus is on grammar and perfection.

Tim Caudery (1995 cited in Sharon Myers,) reported the responses of second language teachers he surveyed to the question of what the “process approach” meant to them. The responses reflected a lack of consensus among the teachers as to the meaning of the “process approach.” The confusion is not surprising, given that most ESL teachers do not come to their profession through courses that teach the history or theory of composition and until recently, much of the literature on teaching composition has been primarily concerned with L1 composition. But in Pakistan this situation is supported by Sidiqui(2007) “ in a number of schools and colleges English is being taught by the teachers whose own specialty is not English. So most of the teachers teach English as they were taught by their teachers, that are by grammar translation method with a lot of translation and drilling to memorization”.

That is why in Pakistan teaching of writing is an ignored paradigm. And it it further confused by the evaluation made by these inexperienced teachers. In Pakistan the feedback by the teachers the teachers become a source of fear for the students,one of the respondents said,

Whenever I have shown my work to my teacher he says oh Bad what is this!

I have personally noticed this thing among a number of my colleagues; they often utter such expressions after looking at the written pieces:

1. Oh! My God what is this mess?
2. What the hell with this writing.
3. You can not write boy etc.
According to Williams (2003 cited in Adam Simpson,) written feedback is an essential part of any language course that involves a writing element. Feedback falls into two categories: feedback on form and feedback on content. Content feedback relates to product writing, and generally consists of the indication of grammatical errors. Feedback on form, however, focuses on the communicative effectiveness of the piece.

This situation is further supplemented by the evaluation system in Pakistan, according to Sidiqui(2007) “most of the examinations in the mainstream schools and colleges are memory driven. There are certain set of questions about the text books which are most likely to appear in the examination paper. These questions normally require production of memorized material from the text book. The students without bothering about the text books prepare for the examination with the help of “Get through guides” (help-books specially designed to prepare the examinations) that provide them with a short cut to pass the examination. These help-books contain summaries of the poems and ready-made answers to the comprehension questions of short stories, essays, poems and plays. All this works fine as the assessment system encourages rote learning.” This is a common trend in all over the world that teachers use many different types of marking styles and comments when they mark a paper or an assignment. I have observed this among my own colleagues that the teachers use a variety of these styles and comments which consequently make understanding of the paper/assignment very confusing for the students who have several different teachers and courses. Even within a discipline there is no one set of rules or standards for marking a paper/assignment and we colleagues generally discuss these issues during our staff room discussions. While the type of course can determine the values that a paper is marked on, the comments that a teacher gives have no such boundaries.

I believe the comments that a teacher gives determines the future work of a student. If one item in particular is paid attention to then the student will probably concentrate on that problem for the next paper. If a problem is not noted then the student will miss out on having a chance to fix the problem in later papers. Knowing how teachers use comments and the format that they are used in can provide a student with an invaluable tool. This is a tool that can allow the student to decipher the ideas that the teacher is trying to put across. But unfortunately in our system teachers do not comment the papers/assignments of the students with a view of improvement but just exhibiting their own so-called scholarship. While marking papers /assignments they partially ignore the difficulties faced by the learners.

Hadfield and Hadfield (1990 cited in Adam Simpson) discussed three areas of difficulty for the learner in relation to the productive skills of writing and speaking, namely psychological, linguistic and cognitive difficulties. Here I have discussed these difficulties in relation with Pakistani student writers:

2. Psychological Difficulties

Firstly, the writer cannot consult the reader; the audience is not immediately present as is the case with speaking. The psychological difficulty therefore lies in deciding what information the reader needs and the best way to express this as respondents expressed:

a. Some time I can not decide what I should write.
b. It is difficult to understand my English teacher he likes some horrible things [laughs].
c. I have no idea …sometime about the style……

This difficulty manifests itself in the prewriting stage, when some learners may be unwilling or unable to produce ideas that will work towards the construction of a piece of writing. Students cannot decenter (Lunsford,1979). They are unable to go beyond themselves. In order to overcome these difficulties, the teacher must employ certain strategies to elicit the necessary input.

3. Linguistic Difficulties

Secondly, learners suffer from linguistic difficulty, in that the language used when speaking is not the same as that used in speech. In some cases it is simpler (e.g. shopping lists), in others it is more elaborate and formal (e.g. academic essays). Native speakers not only know an elaborate network of conventions but also know how and when to legitimately “break the rules”. This problem is evident in learners who are unaware of the discourse patterns inherent in certain types of writing. And, in Pakistan English is taught as 2nd Language, so it might be said that students have to face problems related to language. As all of the respondents replied as:

a. I have to cram some words so that I may use them while writing.
b. I usually forget spellings this is a horrible situation for me.
c. Yes I have a lot of ideas but normally I feel it difficult to write in good English.

These responses very clearly illustrate the linguistic difficulties faced by Pakistani student writers. This also supports
Lunsford (1979) that basic writers have problems in converting ideas into an adequate written expression. They can write spontaneously but they have to face difficulty while writing scientifically.

4. Cognitive Difficulties

Finally, Hadfield and Hadfield (1990 cited in Adam Simpson) discuss cognitive difficulty. This relates to the necessity of learners to organise their thoughts on paper. This may be difficult in such circumstances as an essay given as homework, for which the purpose is not immediately apparent, and the piece of writing is not being done for any personal reasons. I have observed that this difficulty is very common among Pakistani students because the textbooks in Pakistan already contain material for the examination purposes and students do not give importance to such assignments because they just cram a few days before exam and get through the exam. Consequently, the writing tasks fail to invoke an audience. The teacher is generally assumed as a sole audience for Pakistani student writers. And, the students know that what the teacher/examiner demands i.e. reproduction or spontaneous reproduction of memorized content.

5. Problems Related to the Process

Here I would share some other problems identified by Dickson (2001, cited in Adam Simpson) according to Dickson (2001, cited in Adam Simpson) writers suffer these problems during writing.

5.1 In-Class Problems

'The reluctant writer' this type of writer stops continually, writes briefly, and is always looking around. He/she never seems to concentrate for more than a few seconds at a time. 'The always-has-to-be-correct writer' for such learners, the use of an eraser or liquid paper indicate a writer with perfectionism as their ideal. 'The keyboard taper' this learner makes frequent use of pocket electronic dictionaries or is constantly flipping the pages of paper dictionaries, thus indicating someone pursuing the most accurate word possible. 'The talker' because a quiet class is usually required for writing, the talker is immediately noticed above the silence of the classroom.

5.2 'Homework Syndrome'

Homework is one of those beaten themes in education that is still attracting the attention of education. There have been fiery arguments, for and against homework but we are still facing this problem, ironically, with much more intensity (Sidiqui, 2007, pp.137) and especially in teaching of writing teachers depend upon homework a lot. Hadfield and Hadfield (1990 cited in Adam Simpson) claimed that, on occasion, writing classes are there merely to show that work is being done and not with a specific purpose or goal. Consequently, writing is associated with chores or even discipline. Writing classes can therefore suffer from what Hadfield and Hadfield label 'homework syndrome', i.e. students are poorly motivated and therefore perform badly. In Pakistan students are asked to memorize the essay or story and the students generally practice this memorization at home. I can relate my own story my English teacher used to emphasize on memorization early in the morning and I along with my other class fellows followed this drill. To support this assumption, I inquired 50 students with regard of this practice and interestingly 45 out of 50 students replied that they memorize their work at home and generally early in the morning. One of the respondents said,

"I am Haf-ze-Quran and it is easy for me to memorize after or before Fajar prayer."

The other respondent said,

"I try to memorize my work (syllabus for class test) at home and especially early in the morning."

This all result in poor performance when the parents are less vigilant or uneducated. According to Sidiqui(2007,pp.138) “the children are given those items as homework that are either very difficult and cannot be done without help from adults or they are too simple and the purpose of homework is not the strengthening of concepts but to keep the children busy”. Some times it happens that students are not provided with adequate instructions. In certain cases there are no clear instructions given by the teachers about the homework. The result is that even when children are willing to do their
homework they do not know how to go about it. Teachers take it for granted that children know how to do this homework (Sidiqui, 2007, pp.138-139). I would like to share an instance of my native town, there a so called English Medium school enrolled a large number of students from the rural area and, offered a very high profile course named Oxford Syllabus. For the teaching of this syllabus the school management had to hire teachers from the local town and induct them as English Medium School teachers. The teachers were untrained and did not know how to teach this high profile course. Consequently, they started to put a lot of stress on homework. Most of the parents of the children were uneducated and unable to help their children. So this problem unintentionally caused tuitions and extra financial burden on parents.

In brief this is a supported fact that most of Pakistani student writers in the words of Lunsford are performing well below the formal-operations or true concept formation stage of cognitive development, and hence they have great difficulty in “de-centring” and performing tasks which require a sound cognitive development. But once we have realized that our student writers have to face difficulties while writing as mentioned above. So what can be done to help them out of this situation? How can classroom teachers make this realization useful or effective for teaching of writing?

6. Implications

1. I believe that we must change our attitude towards writing and it should be considered something that is nurtured and developed in the classroom, resulting in the difficulties experienced by learners being comprehended and dealt with. The learners should not be segregated from the difficulties rather these difficulties should be tackled realistically.
2. In Pakistan learners are unwilling or unable to produce ideas that will work towards the construction of a piece of writing. In order to overcome these difficulties, the teacher must employ certain strategies to elicit the necessary input.
3. Teachers should provide encouragement to the students so that they may attend to the task at hand and the teachers should also avoid a perfectionist view of task they should remind their students that perfect work is not expected.
4. Monologue lectures should be avoided in other words classes should be learner centered not the teacher centered.
5. Collaborative learning should be promoted in classroom where all of the learners are active participants.
6. In classroom all those devices which promote perfectionism for example, ink-remover etc., should be restricted.
7. Class time should be spent writing, reading what has been written aloud to the group/audience, and talking about the writing (Lunsford, 1979, pp.302).
8. Learner should be motivated to jot down on paper some of the thoughts that they can easily express verbally, since they seem to have a lot to say.
9. The writing instructors should provide feedback that will lead the learner into reflecting on their work, rather than merely copying correction or not studying the assessment at all.
10. Our textbooks must contain such activities that allow students to practice or exercise themselves in these activities continuously.

Here I have made an effort to devise a practical lesson plan for a writing teacher keeping all of the necessary implications in mind.

Writing, unlike speaking, is not an ability we acquire naturally, even in our first language - it has to be nurtured and taught in a classroom. In Pakistan unless L2 learners are explicitly taught how to write in L2, their writing skills are likely to get left behind as their speaking progresses honestly speaking in our country none of the language skills is nurtured accurately. But teaching writing is not just about grammar, spelling, or the mechanics of the Roman alphabet. While writing a learners has to be aware of and use the conventions of the genre in the new language and some certain cognitive process because writing has been acknowledged as a socio-cognitive process.

I. Activity

Introduction

Massi (2001,cited in,Adam,2012) claims that writing is by nature an interactive process because it evolves out of the symbolic interplay between writer, text and reader. Consequently, by making conditions more authentic than the ones in traditional classroom tasks, an awareness of audience, purpose and intentionality is reinforced.
Before writing any piece of writing learners think about a situation and share with a partner. I have put this activity into the category of Prewriting

**Group brainstorming**

On a given topic (students work cooperatively and write down all the ideas that come to mind in connection with a topic).

a- The teacher will invite the whole class to work on a topic collectively in small groups and brainstorm. I believe that the class as a whole can generate more ideas than an individual could manage alone (also, their collective schemata are greater than the individual's, Adam, 2012).

b- At this stage the teacher will create a real world and specify the audience and purpose of a text by making the situation 'real'. For this the teacher can ask the students to write for some audience for example; college/school magazine readers, local newspaper readers etc.

c- Now the teacher will give an assignment to a group of learners. The task will be to write a book review and submit it to the college magazine. This is hoped that the learners will respond to this real audience with enthusiasm, and embrace the task as it has a genuine purpose.

**II. Activity**

*Team/Collaborative research on focusing ideas for writing*

I believe that introducing students to computer technology has been an effective way to engage them in the research process.

Narrowing down or focusing ideas is a cognitive process, and it involves thinking about which of the many ideas generated are the most important or relevant, and perhaps taking a particular point of view.

As part of the essay-writing process, the teacher will ask the students in group to put the ideas generated in the previous stage onto a 'mind map'. The teacher then will draw a mind-map on the board, using ideas from the different groups. At this stage the teacher can scaffold the students because this gives the learners the tools to better express their own ideas (Catherine, 2011).

At this stage the teacher will prepare learners to write an essay, the teacher will give the learners the essay title and pieces of scrap paper. Students will be given 3 minutes to work alone, writing one idea on each piece of paper, before comparing in groups without stopping and without worrying about grammar or punctuation. If they don't know a particular word, they can write it in their L1. This often helps learners to further develop some of the ideas used during the 'Generating ideas' stage. Each group will then present their 3 best ideas to the class. It doesn't matter if the ideas aren't used in the final piece of writing; the important thing is that it will help break through the barrier of 'I can't think of anything to write.' Learners then compare together what they have written, and use a dictionary, the teacher or each other to find in English any words or phrases they wrote in their L1.

**III. Activity**

*Actual Writing*

*Team writing*

Once the students have generated their own ideas, and thought about individually which are the most important or relevant, students will work together to write a previously agreed, text.

I believe that asking students to produce a text in collaboration can be quite motivating. It enables the stronger students to help the weaker ones (Adam, 2012).

The teacher will ask the groups to share their text in groups so that their text can be seen by other groups.

**IV. Activity**

- *Whole class text construction,*
- *Composing on the blackboard and*
- *Parallel writing.*

These techniques have their foundation in product writing but are effective in providing a framework for lower level students to work from. These techniques can develop a sense of collective achievement, while eliminating the fear of being left to 'go it alone', completely unguided (Adam, 2012).
The teacher will give the students cues to express their ideas in the most appropriate way. The examination of model texts is often prominent in product or genre approaches to writing, and will help raise learners’ awareness of the conventions of typical texts of different genres in L2 (English).

The teacher will provide the learners in groups several examples of a genre, and they will use a genre analysis form to identify the features and language they have in common. This will raise their awareness of the features of the genre and gives them some language ‘cues’ they can use in their own writing (Catherine, 2011). At this stage the learners will identify the function of different paragraphs in a piece of writing. For example, in a fee concession application, the functions of the paragraphs might be something like:

a. reason for concession
b. closing paragraph praying for a concession

Learners will be given an essay with the topic sentences taken out, and put them back in the right place. This raises their awareness of the organisation of the essay and the importance of topic sentences.

V. Activity
Peer Review & Construction of text

At this phase the teacher will move around the class listening to the comments of students and, providing feedback or answering questions on structure, lexical items, the validity of an argument, the order of presentation of the information, etc. Peer evaluation of writing helps learners to become aware of an audience other than the teacher (Adam, 2012).

If students are to write a second draft, the teacher will ask other learners to comment on what they liked / didn't like about the piece of work, or what they found unclear, so that these comments can be incorporated into the second draft. The teacher can also respond at this stage by commenting on the content and the organisation of ideas, without yet giving a grade or correcting details of grammar and spelling. This can help keep track of their progress and work out a record of most frequent questions, doubts and inaccuracies for a future ‘error analysis’ session.

VI. Activity
Peer-editing

While writing a final draft, students should be encouraged to check the details of grammar and spelling, which may have taken a back seat to ideas and organisation in the previous stages(Catherine, 2011).

Teacher will guide the students to exchange their first drafts of a text and point out changes which are needed to help the reader (e.g. better organization, paragraph divisions, sentence variety, vocabulary choice). At this stage the teacher will guide the students to act as each other's editors spotting vocabulary repetitions, grammatical errors, spelling mistakes, etc).

Peer editing is a useful tool for any level of learner, although its specific application can vary from level to level(Adam, 2012). For example, at lower levels it can be used generally, to highlight the grammatical problems, whereas for higher levels this would be used to assess how effectively an essay question has been answered (Adam, 2012).

7. Conclusion

In Pakistan to pace up with the developed countries we must do something practically for the cause of success. Our student writers need our help and the best way to help them is to facilitate them in the process of writing. We must remember that writing is not any phobia a frightening process if it is handled professionally. If we are able to convert our language classrooms into a friendly, learner centered place, we shall be able to illuminate the fear of students as writers. Process approach in writing can help us finding valid ways to substantiate our success; consequently we shall be able to track the real potential of our students in the field of writing composition that is still a nightmare for our students and teachers.Writing can escape from its image as a laborious activity if process writing techniques are adopted in the language classroom. Process writing not only reduces most of the problems associated with this skill, it also turns the writing class into a stimulating and communicative experience. Furthermore, using this approach at lower levels is not only feasible, but will also provide a spring board for the language learner to become a skilled writer in L2 (English).
References


Towards Empowerment of the Nigerian Girl-Child, the Socio-Cultural Diagnosis

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Abstract The study examined the socio-cultural factors affecting the girl-child and strategies towards the empowerment of the Nigerian girl-child. The population of the study comprised of all 228 female load carriers in three major markets in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. All the population was used for the study. A structured questionnaire was used for data collection. Data collected were analysed applying frequency counts and mean statistics. Findings revealed that early marriage, Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), taboos are some of the socio-cultural factors affecting Nigerian Girl-child. The findings of the study showed that poverty, physiological and psychological are effects of socio-cultural factors on Nigerian girl child. The findings of the study further revealed that empowering the girl-child in Education, vocational skills and establishing of girls’ clubs in market places and schools will help the Nigerian girl-child in getting her full potentials in life. Based on these finings, the study recommended that Federal government of Nigeria should make sure that all laws prohibiting malpractices against girl-child and women are religiously implemented and anybody who goes against such laws should be sanctioned irrespective of their positions and society.

Keywords: empowerment, Nigeria, Socio-Cultural Diagnosis

1. Introduction

According to United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 1998), marginalization of the girl-child was due to cultural and economic constraints militating against women empowerment, thereby preventing them from participating in decisions that affect them. Odaga and Herald (1995) maintained that socio-cultural factors have led to low investment in female education and hence, low societal demand for female education. Socio-cultural factors refer to a range of factors working against an individual’s ranking and or position in a society (Onwueme and Ugbor, 1994). Cultural factors are therefore reflected in the patterns of behavior, beliefs, preferences, customs and traditions which account for gender-based differences within a society. It has been observed therefore that the socio-cultural environment in which the girl-child operates does not motivate her to attain her full potential (Aderinto, 1991). Ogidi (1997) stated that girls are often seen as future wives and mothers and parental attitudes toward them are largely influenced by socio-cultural factors which could have negative impact on her well-being. Oladunni (1996) stated that a girl-child is a victim of customs and traditions which ensures that she remains permanently disadvantaged. These factors contribute to making a girl-child a second class citizen and more vulnerable. Longman dictionary defines empowerment as giving someone the power or lawful right.

Smith (1996) posited that empowerment is the act of encouraging people to become more involved in the decisions and activities that affect their lives. This means providing people with the opportunity to show that they can generate good ideas and that they have the skills to put these ideas into practice. Child empowerment involves giving disadvantaged group of children the ability to improve their situation. Empowering girls at an early age in life will enable them mature into
womanhood as complete beings. This will lift them out of the dungeon of illiteracy, poverty, diseases and death. Socio-cultural factors militate against girl-child empowerment and removal of the socio-cultural factors will further empower the girl-child in her ability to participate in development related activities.

2. Statement of the Problem

In major markets in Oyo State, Ibadan, Nigeria, the common feature which cannot escape one’s notice is the female load carriers who run to buyers in order to assist in carrying loads. The buyers after engaging them pay them any amount they feel is good for the service rendered by these girls. These girls live and derive their means of existence on load carrying jobs. These girl children are physically, psychologically and economically deficient and exploited by adults. The researchers observed that the pitiable conditions of these girls in market places might be due to some socio-cultural factors which call for definite and drastic measures. In view of this, the researchers diagnosed the socio-cultural factors affecting girl-child and found some strategies for empowering them.

3. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to diagnose the socio-cultural factors affecting the Nigerian girl-child. Specifically, the study seeks to:
1. determine the socio-cultural factors affecting Nigerian girl-child;
2. determine the effects of socio-cultural factors on Nigerian girl-child;

4. Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:
1. What are the socio-cultural factors affecting Nigerian girl-child?
2. What are the effects of socio-cultural factors on Nigerian girl-child?

5. Method

The design adopted for carrying out this study was a descriptive survey. The study was carried out in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. The population of the study was 228 comprising of all female load carriers who are in three major markets in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. The population of the study is represented in the table below:

Table 1: Population of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/NO</th>
<th>NAME OF MARKET</th>
<th>POPULATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Bodija market</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Sango market</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Ojo market</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The entire population was used for the study and so there was no sampling technique. A structured questionnaire was used for collecting data. The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Sections A and B. Section A was on the biodata of the respondents. Section B was made up of items drawn from the research questions. The questionnaire was structured on a four point likert scale of Strongly Agree(SA), Agree(A), Disagree(D) and Strongly Disagree(SD). The instrument was validated by three experts in measurement and evaluation and adult education. The three experts were requested to validate the instrument in terms of:

1. clarity of instruction to the respondents
2. proper wording of the items and
3. appropriateness and adequacy of the items in addressing the purpose of the study.

Their recommendations served as guide to modifications of items in the instrument. The reliability of the instrument was determined using Cronbach Alpha method. The co-efficient alpha for the two sections were 0.96 and 0.95. These values indicate that the instrument was highly reliable. The questionnaire was collated and analysed through the use of frequency tables and mean scores. A mean score of 2.50 and above was regarded as accepted otherwise rejected.

30
6. Results

Section A which is the bio-data of the respondents are presented below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Distribution</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8-10</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-13</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>38.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-17</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>228</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 above revealed that respondents were distributed in three broad age groups. 8-10 years 33.3%, 11-13 years 38.6 and 14-17 years 28.1.

Table 3: Respondents place of birth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oyo</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>54.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osun</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ogun</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ondo</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ekiti</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwara</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaduna</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 3 above, respondents to the item on place of birth were varied. Most of the respondents are from Oyo with 54.4%, Osun 13.6%, kaduna 14.03%. It is important to emphasize that a larger proportion of those born in Oyo are in the majority and many of them are from the rural areas and not necessarily Ibadan city.

Table 4: Educational background of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No formal school</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>89.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary six</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>228</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that 89.91% did not go to school while 10.09% had primary six education. This shows that majority of the respondents are illiterates.

Table 5: Marital status of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>33.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>28.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>24.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>228</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 revealed that 33.78% have not married. 28.50 are married while 24.56 are widows. The findings of the section B are presented in accordance with the research questions that guided the study.
Research Question 1
What are the socio-cultural factors affecting Nigerian girl-child?

Answers to this research question is presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Mean Responses of the respondents on the socio-cultural factors affecting the Nigerian girl-child.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Weighted mean</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What are the socio-cultural factors affecting the girl-child?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Early marriage</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Female Genital mutilation</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Widowhood practices</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>588</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Taboos</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>602</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows mean responses on the socio-cultural factors affecting the Nigerian girl.

Research Question 2
What are the effects of socio-cultural factors affecting Nigerian girl-child?

Answers to this research question is presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Mean Responses of the respondents on the effects of socio-cultural factors on the Nigerian girl-child.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Weighted mean</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What are the effects of socio-cultural factors on the Nigerian girl-child?</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Denial from going to school</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Physiological effects</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Psychological effects</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>624</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 reveals mean responses on effects of socio-cultural factors on girls is quite high because all of the items scores above 2.50 which means that all the respondents accepted all as the effects of socio-cultural factors affecting girl-child.

7. Discussion

The results from bio-data of the respondents revealed that poverty in the society is a major factor that made the girl-child not to go to school or stopped schooling. The prevailing economic hardship constrains parents’ financial support for education. In such a situation, the overriding interest is on sustaining the source of livelihood rather than supporting girl child education. In essence, the girl child did not go to school in order to support parents and to fend for themselves. This falls in line with Udoh (2001) who stated that the girl-child is encouraged to prostitute her body for money does so either to regiment the family financial resources or to obtain some money so as to be independent of her poor parents.
The results of research question one show that girl child responses on socio-cultural factors ranges from early marriage, Female Genital Mutilation, widowhood practices and taboos. These findings fall in line with the findings of Adebola (2009) and Udoh (2001) who opined that socio-cultural factors affecting girl-child involve early marriage, female Genital Mutilation and widowhood practices.

The result of research two showed the effects of socio-cultural factors on girl-child in Nigeria. This findings corroborates Udoh (2001) and Emegwa (2010) who stated that early marriage can deny a girl the opportunity of going to school. The findings of the study showed that socio-cultural factors can lead to physiological and medical effects of the girl child. This finding is supported by Enukorah (1982) in Adebola (2010) who noted that physically, widows might be wounded which may lead to their deaths. Udoh (2001) and Emegwa(2010) also supported this view by stating that early marriage could cause Vesico Vagina Fistula (VVF) due to the fact that the birth canal, of the prospective mother is not matured enough for the baby’s exist. In support of the effects of Female Genital Mutilation, Delano (1999) highlighted some of the effects which include heavy bleeding, acute infections like tetanus and HIV/AIDS, frequent in passing urine resulting in pain and infection of the bladder. The findings of the study also revealed that psychologically, girl-child is affected. This fall in line with Udoh (2001) who stated that the early responsibility of motherhood thrust on a girl would sentence her to life of slavery, a life without fulfillment, except to breed children. According to Ejiofor (1991) in Adebola (2009), widows are meant to suffer psychological problems which amongst others is madness. The findings of the study showed that socio-cultural factors could have poverty effect on the girl-child. This finding support Udoh (2001) who stated that socio-cultural factors such as early marriage is as a result of poverty in the family.

8. Strategies

**Education:** The key to girl’s progress is education and learning. Education is an indispensable means of realizing other human rights. As an empowerment right, education is the primary vehicle by which economically and socially marginalized children can lift themselves out of poverty and obtain the means to participate fully in their communities.

Education has a vital role in empowering girl and safeguarding them from exploitative and hazardous labour and sexual exploitation, promoting human rights and democracy, protecting the environment and controlling population growth. Adebola (1997) stated that the Millennium Development Declaration of 8th September, 2000 resolved that by the year 2015 children everywhere, boys and girls alike would be able to complete a full course of primary schooling and that girls and boys would have equal access to all levels of education. Education of girls should be made priority. This is because educational status of women in any nation correlates with its level of development. Consequently, the higher the level of girls’ education status, the more developed the state or nation. It is through education that women can change their cultural inhibitions which adversely affects them and place them in inferior position. Education empowers girl-child by improving their living standard. Education should be made compulsory for everybody including the girls. If the Nigerian government is really committed to the welfare of the children, it has to provide free education. Poverty is one of the major causes of girls going into the business of load carrying. Majority of the girls went into this business of load carrying because of financial problems which have made them to abandon schooling or made them not to attend at all. It is imperative for the government to improve the standard of living of the citizens. Scholarships can be given to these girls too.

**Vocational skills:** Girl-child can be trained in vocational skills like fashion designing, hair dressing, soap making, interior decoration, bead making and so on. These vocational skills could generate higher income for these girls which is better than carrying loads for people in the market with a small money. Training these girls in different vocations of their choices will bring about positive changes in their lives.

**Establishing girl’s club in schools and markets:** Girls clubs can be set up in schools and markets to educate girls about harmful effects of socio-cultural factors as well as importance of education. In these clubs, girls will be able to share and discuss issues relating to their lives and how to solve them.

9. Conclusion

This study has diagnosed the socio-cultural factors affecting Nigerian girl-child. It has been recognized that girls are affected by some socio-cultural factors. Faced with all these problems and predicaments, they cannot do so much as far as development of their communities and the nation is concerned. This situation therefore calls for a decision by the society to take adequate steps to eliminate these practices which affect girl child in order to achieve a gender fair and gender friendly society which will make it possible for girls to be integrated into the development process.
Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, recommendations are made:
Nigerian girl-child should be sensitized about their rights. Many of them do not know their Fundamental Human Rights such as rights to education, right that could allow them to challenge and reject all conditions that seek to make them inferior, subjugate them, oppress and deny them equal access to policy and decision-making positions.
Federal government of Nigeria should make sure that all laws prohibiting malpractices against girl-child and women are religiously implemented and anybody who goes against such laws should be sanctioned irrespective of their positions and society.
Federal government and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and philanthropists could support the education of the girl-child by giving them scholarships and free education.
Community heads or village heads should be aware that the world is moving fast and changing and that there are some certain beliefs and traditions that needed to be modified. Beliefs such as the place of the girl-child or women is in the kitchen because they will be married away.

References

A Qualitative Thematic Analysis of Faculty Engagement and Non-Engagement in Research

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Abstract. Teacher perceptions on the conditions facilitating research engagement and non-engagement were explored among faculty members of a private non-sectarian university in Manila. Teacher respondents in the college level (N=36) were asked to respond to a brief open-ended questionnaire and interview from which the qualitative research data were gathered. Qualitative analysis of data was conducted by identifying emergent thematic categories. The faculty perceived that conditions facilitating research engagement include: administrative support, time element, money matter, recognition, individual attributes, career advancement, team collaboration, topic, scope, and teacher responsibility. The outcomes on this paper shed some light on the idea that teachers are more likely to value research if they are given enough administrative support, time, money and recognition in the context of their own situation. If only teachers are provided with such and be encouraged to be more responsive to research, it is possible that the culture of research will be strengthened within and even outside the school community. As a result of these findings, the study recommends the following provisions: (a) improved research benefits and incentives, (b) faculty development program in the form of research trainings and seminars, (c) encouragement that starts in the departmental level, (d) clear research rules and guidelines set by the management, (e) professional research group affiliation, (f) university research institutes or centers.

Key words: educational research, research, research engagement, teachers, thematic analysis

1. Introduction

The importance of research today is indubitably immeasurable. Research is vital to our everyday decision making for it is designed to solve particular problems. It has taken an enormous deal of discussion worldwide and become a crucial action in various fields especially in education. It is useful to teachers and valuable to school administrators and policy makers. In education, research is completed to improve and develop teaching. Without research we are losing a worthy source that could be beneficial for the development of teachers and students since the end products of conducting research are remarkable. In Everton, Galton and Pell's (2002) study, they found out that research at least caused teachers to re-examine their existing practice and even caused them to change it. Educators produce research to verify the effectiveness of teaching and learning ideas and practices already in use, to discover new ideas and practices, to develop practices that simplify people's lives, and discover counterintuitive practices (Hittleman and Simon, 2002). Correspondingly, Creswell (2005) also included that research adds to our knowledge, improves practice, informs policy debates and builds student research skills. It provides a means for educators to uncover new world of information. Perkins (1988) believes that research provides a foundation for both education and the welfare of the society, as outlined by the former president of Cornell University:
Despite the growing importance and function of research, the Philippines still lack a culture of research and science. Perttierra (2007) in his newspaper article discussed that practical reason for this is the acute lack of resources for research and publications in all local universities. In order to develop research culture in Philippine Higher Education Institutions, Salazar-Clemeña & Almonte-Acosta (2007) identified in their study that faculty perceived factors necessary for improving research productivity include time, strong belief in research endeavor, faculty involvement, positive group climate, working conditions and organizational communication, decentralized research policy, research funding, and clear institutional policy for research benefits and incentives. Thus, it is of importance to identify conditions that contribute to lack of research culture since the development of passion and dedication for research should start at the university level.

Conducting research can be an essential facet in teachers’ professional lives and that there is a growing amount of teacher statement about the positive outcomes of research. According to Zeichner (2007), teachers engage in research because they see its relevance to their work and they seek to better understand or change their classroom practice. He also added that advocates are claiming that teacher research help teachers become more flexible and open to new ideas, narrows the gap between teachers’ aspirations and realizations, and heightens the quality of student learning. Moreover, from the study done by Senese (2000), there are four aspects proven to be essential in establishing the initial interest and enthusiasm for teachers to conduct classroom research giving them the stamina to create a unique culture of teacher-researchers within the school. Professional bonds with other teachers, time, results in student performance and recognition are his identified factors allowing teachers the freedom to pursue their research. In Shkedí’s (1998) study, he identified that course requirements and prerequisites in academic institutions; expanding professional knowledge; professional problems that arise; and requirements in the framework of the job are the motivating factors that turn teachers to research literature. More than those identified factors, Borg (2006) mentioned ten conditions for research engagement in his workshop in Spain. The following are: awareness, motivation, choice, knowledge and skills, mentoring, resources, expectations, recognition, community, and dissemination potential. Included also in his workshop are the reasons for doing research such as: for professional development, to find better ways of teaching, to solve problems in teaching, for enjoyment, and for employer expectations. A study from an unknown source highlighted a number of features which could motivate practitioners to become involved with research, including: direct relevance to their needs and interests, illustrations of activities which helped them relate the findings to their own work, help from an outside expert who could support and guide them in their use of research, research which built on what they knew already and on their own professional interests, and sufficient time to absorb and act on messages from the research.

Despite the importance of research and although teachers wish to conduct research, they are faced with tons of concerns. Not least among these are lack of time, lack of expertise or skills in research, lack of support especially from within their own institution, and threats to their self-image as a teacher (Allwright, 1993; Burton and Mickan, 1993; Nunan, 1993). Many teachers even avoid it because they are not patient enough to put extra effort in it. There are other various reasons for not doing research based from the same workshop done by Borg (2006), aside from lack of time, the following are mentioned- not part of teaching job, not interested in research, colleagues do not do research, employer discouragement, and lack of knowledge on research methods. Hiep (2006) stated that multiple factors, such as researchers’ dissatisfaction with current evaluation regulations, as well as conventions and formats in reporting research results, lack of time, lack of materials and opportunities to disseminate results, and contextually inappropriate training tend to discourage teachers’ aspirations to do research.

Research is one of the major functions of the higher education system in the Philippines together with instruction and community extension services (Carson-Arenas, 2001). It is an academic function that differentiates higher education from basic education. However, among the 34% of the faculty who are graduate degree holders (CHED 1997, as cited in Salazar-Clemeña and Almonte-Acosta, 2007), few have done research beyond their master’s theses or doctoral dissertations. It is imperative that the academic community collaboratively address this concern. This study analyzed the findings of an open-ended questionnaire in which the researchers embarked on the idea of determining reasons and evaluating different ways of teachers’ engagement/ non engagement in research towards a deeper understanding and recognition of it. The information gathered from this study is valuable and can be of use for the school community as a means of moving towards meaningful change. Universities need to work with teachers to dispel the belief that research is disconnected from practice and to encourage teachers to be opened to the benefits of it (Levine, Smith and Carr, 2009). According to Carson-Arenas (2001), research is the reflection of a true academician. Through this, teachers will have the opportunity to adopt a perspective that would strengthen the research culture in the university.

Because faculty members are expected to be the primary producers of research in a university (Salazar-Clemeña
and Almonte-Acosta, 2006), it would be useful to collect data relevant to the identification of the possible conditions why faculty members engage or not engage in research. Hopefully, based on the result, it would provide the university with possible recommendations based on the result on how to encourage their faculty to do research.

2. Method

Qualitative method was employed in this endeavour. Burns and Grove (1993) asserted that qualitative approaches to research are based on a world view which is holistic and that there is no single reality; reality is based upon perceptions that are different for each person. It involves perceptually putting pieces together to make wholes and from this process, meaning is produced. Furthermore, the design of this study is exploratory and interpretive, placing primary emphasis on the teachers’ views of their own and others’ experiences in doing research. Erickson (1986), pointed that this structure calls for a participant-observational approach to data collection, which includes being reflective in noticing and describing events in the field setting, and in attempting to identify the significance of actions in the events from the various points of view.

Owing to the qualitative nature of the study, the results were site and time specific. The study was conducted from April to May of summer of the academic year 2009-2010 in one of the university in Manila. During the course of this study, a total of 36 faculty members from different institutes were asked to take part in this investigation.

Since the study was qualitative in nature, a concise open-ended survey questionnaire was developed by the researchers. The instrument allowed the participants to answer the two succeeding questions: 1) What conditions do you feel facilitate teachers’ efforts to do research? and 2) What conditions do you feel hinder teachers’ efforts to do research? The questionnaire was then distributed to 36 faculty members of Far Eastern University. They were allowed to provide multiple responses with no limit on the length of any responses.

Thematic analysis was the chosen method in analyzing teachers’ responses regarding their perceptions of teachers’ engagement and non-engagement in research. The goal of this analytical method is to identify, describe, analyze, and report themes within the data. It was chosen because it is a flexible technique that can be used to analyze data obtained under a number of qualitative methodology and because it is relatively easy and quick for new qualitative researchers to learn (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

Thematic analysis allows for a rich description of the data set related to a detailed description of a particular theme within the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Thus, the researchers were careful not to form a priori hypotheses or expectations with respect to teachers’ conditions facilitating engagement and non-engagement in research. The thematic analysis undertaken in this study involved the methodology of reduction. With reduction, the qualitative data sharpens sorts, focuses, discards, and organizes data in such a way that final conclusions can be drawn and verified while retaining the context in which these data occurred (Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003).

The analysis was validated through agreement among the researchers prior to determining the thematic categories for the responses to each of the research questions.

3. Results and Discussion

The themes that emerged from the data revealed the perceived conditions facilitating research engagement and non-engagement among the teacher-respondent is presented in order of how often a response was given.

**Theme 1: Administrative support**

The teachers made a consensus that the support from the administration in various means was the topmost condition facilitating their engagement in research. The support needed from the administration came in terms of research budget, material resources and equipment, research facilities, and provision of research workshops and trainings for teachers. Administrative support also referred to the clear specification of rules and policies on research set by the management. In addition, encouragement and moral support from the administrative level when made available are seen to be vital to success in research.

The following are direct statements of the participants indicating that when administrative support in various means is provided, it can facilitate teacher engagement in research.

“Administrative support in terms of research facilities and resources.”
"Financial support from the administration"
"Complete library facility (updated journals, thesis, dissertations and other reading materials)"
"Clear department or office to conduct research"
"Motivation and inspiration of administrators"
"Encouragement and support from the administration"
"Awareness of the benefits of doing research"
"Supportive supervisor"

On the other hand, the following statements illustrate lack of administrative support being the foremost factor that hindered teachers to engage in research.

"No support and clean program from the higher-ups"
"Unsupportive or suspicious supervisor"
"Rules on research by the management are confusing"
"Lack of motivation from the department"
"No words of encouragement or support coming from the superior"
"The management does not stick or keep their promises regarding the privileges and benefits that the researcher will receive."
"Transport allowance/service to conduct research in other venues must be provided."

Theme 2: Time Element

When planning a research study, Creswell (2005) mentioned that investigators should anticipate the time required for data collection and data analysis. Regardless of the approach used, one can gauge the amount of time for data collection by examining similar studies, contacting the authors or asking researchers who are more experienced. It was established from the respondents that the ability to do research depends largely on the availability of time. They pointed out that they be given research in lieu of their workloads, be provided lesser teaching assignments, and be assigned good schedules. One most common reason that teachers gave when asked is that, they do not do research because they have no time, due to the demands of being a teacher, responsibility at home, their children and others. When research is included in the daily activities of teaching professionals, the occupation takes on new meaning (Burnaford, 1996). Teachers when interviewed sounded that this is a matter of priority:

"Research takes time. The problem is when you are given full teaching load, time is limited and yet you are required for quality output."
"Most often I am in school the whole day; I can no longer find time to include research in my scheduled activities. Reading related literature alone consumes time."
"Provision of time for research work"
"A research requires ample time which should not be conflict with a given teaching load."
"Lack of time to do research, most of the time devoted to teaching"
"Time schedule- lesser free time, loaded in work."
"Having 24-units load will surely be devoted to full time teaching."

Theme 3: Money matter

The teachers also talked about money matters and revealed that money increases their willingness or motivation to conduct research especially when additional income or high compensation will be given to them. In addition, teacher respondents also perceived doing research as a substitute for the actual teaching load especially when there is a scarcity of subject offerings. The research load will compensate for their lack number of units.

"Well paid for work"
"Right pay"
"High compensation"
“Monetary purposes”
Some teachers do not like to engage in research because of:
“Low pay”
“Partial payment”
“Need for higher income”
“Unjust compensation”
“Inadequate compensation”
“Research should be given to those teachers that lack academic teaching loads.”
“Substitute to loads”
“Lack of loads (teaching)”
“To compensate deficiency in teaching load”

Theme 4: Recognition

Teachers expressed the thought that they would take advantage of research when their effort is given due recognition. The outcome of the teacher endeavor will be satisfying when the research work is presented in a forum or convention as well as when included in a publication or citation. Similarly, teacher enthusiasm in research is increased when the institution grant them awards.

“Due credit and recognition”
“Recognition of the effort exerted”
“Presentation of papers (forum)”
“Opportunities for publication”
“Recognition such as citation, awards”
“Personal glory”
“Monetary reward and recognition”

Theme 5: Career Advancement

Even though career advancement appeared to be secondary only as compared to administrative support, time and money, a number of teachers aspire to do research for the purpose of earning a degree, promotion, ranking and academic growth which includes improvement in their teaching practices. Many teachers want to conduct real research to enhance their own teaching performance and scholarship besides instrumental motives such as to earn a degree or satisfy institutional regulations (Hiep, 2006). This is opposite most international studies where career and professional advancement serve as the leading aspects for teacher research.

“For career advancement”
“Another reason is for doctoral degree and promotion”
“As a challenge for advancement, for promotion”

Theme 6: Individual attributes

Individual attributes appeared to have equal level of importance with career advancement. Individual attributes include the person’s innate abilities (i.e. IQ, personality and age) and personal environmental influences (Bilsel, 2004). Some teacher participants indicated that they will do research with the yearning to expand their knowledge. They are motivated and willing to do so for information discovery and intellectual growth. Additionally, teachers through research can show their expertise in it, improve research skills and contribute to the community they belong. Therefore, it should be realized that research is done so that knowledge may be generated and that this knowledge may be shared so that it may generate even more info knowledge (Bernardo, A, as cited in Carson-Arenas, 2001).

“Some teachers want to show their expertise in research.”
“Contribution to bigger community”
“For interest to advance research knowledge”
“Personal willingness to improve research skills”
Among the personal basis serving as hindrance to teachers' research engagement include lack of motivation, lack of interest, lack of financial means, family conditions and problems, and belief that research is an additional workload.

“No financial means to finish the study”
“Family conditions”
“Lack of interest”
“Lack of motivation”
“Research was not given enough focus”
“Burden of writing”

Aside from lack of self-motivation, interest and financial resources, lack of skills was also perceived to be contributory to research engagement. Researchers must have acquired certain skills to effectively pursue a research study. These skills are gained through courses, training and prior research experiences. Without the necessary skills, one would only see research as burden or additional task to be accomplished.

“No lack of research knowledge and methodology”
“Know-how in doing research”
“Lack of confidence in doing research”

Age, envy, favoritism and intrigue also served among the individual attributes that hinder teachers to engage in research. Age had always been a foreseen factor contributing to differences and relationship in many studies. As expected, younger individuals are more aggressive in many activities including research. From the study of Everton’s (2002) team, they specified that younger teachers are willing to engage both with and in research provided it can be demonstrated that it has a direct impact on their practice. On the other hand, envy, favoritism and intrigue are conditions believed to be detrimental to research engagement specifically when there are no clear institutional policies or rules presented for researcher selection. Unless comprehensible instructions were given by department heads or academic managers, no conflict among teachers will be created resulting to either issue mentioned. Thus, it can lead to a growing number of teachers accepting the challenge of research.

Aside from the mentioned factors, the succeeding items were the least observed conditions facilitating teachers’ engagement in research given by the respondents. They include team collaboration, topic, scope, and teacher responsibility.

Theme 7: Team Collaboration

Teachers believed in the importance of collaboration as well as mentoring as means to support other teachers. The significance of having team members involving themselves in another teacher’s research cannot be underestimated (Schmoker, 1996). It is rewarding to be part of a working team since it gives the opportunity to learn and grow with them. The other team member can become your source of learning, ideas and validation.

“Human dimension-Team collaborative research”
“Non-cooperation of other members”

Lack of research skills were among the individual attributes that impede engagement in research, it is for this reason that mentoring was seen to be of help in order for faculty to be productive in research. Mentoring supports professional growth and renewal, which in turn empowers faculty as individuals and colleagues (Boice 1992). Teachers are to engage in research when there is a mentor who will guide them along the development of the study. According to Luna,G. & Cullen D., teaching and research improve when junior faculty are paired with mentors, job satisfaction and organization socialization greater. Not only do protégées become empowered through the assistance of a mentor, but mentors themselves also feel renewed through the sharing of power and the advocacy of collegiality.

“Presence of research mentor particularly for beginners”

Theme 8: Topic

The researchers’ desire to engage in any educational and scientific investigation always starts with a topic in mind that
interests him. Topic which could be in the form of the research problem serves as the focus of the researcher’s query. With a clear topic at hand, one teacher believed that there’s no reason not to pursue research.

**Theme 9: Scope**

Determining the extent of the study also serve as a minimal factor for a teacher to engage in research. By doing so, teacher researcher could be able to assess the possibility of finishing the study within a set period of time.

**Theme 10: Teacher Responsibility**

Not all educators have an understanding and appreciation of research. However, engaging in research is believed to be a teacher responsibility. According to Todd (2010), conducting research should not be seen as something extra that teachers can do which goes beyond their usual teaching responsibilities. Instead, doing research should be seen as an integral part of our responsibilities as professionals dedicated to developing our teaching and ourselves. Zeichner & Noffke (2001) pointed out that practitioner research is directly linked to an outlook on the profession of the teacher. They claim that practitioner research is not only a means to facilitate teachers’ professional development; it is also a means to enable teachers to contribute to the knowledge base of teaching. There’s a need for teachers to know what is happening in the classroom and why students are behaving in ways they do.

“Personally, I feel that as faculty, it is the responsibility of the teachers to develop, evaluate and improve the body of knowledge.”

It was also evident that there were a number of conditions that hinder teachers to exert effort in research. The most contributory of these also include lack of administrative support, time, money, individual attributes, and recognition. Thus, it confirmed and validated the responses given by the participants as conditions facilitating teachers’ engagement in research. Team collaboration and topic were also perceived to be conditions which minimally hinder teachers to do research.

### 4. Concluding Remarks

This study has provided some information on teachers’ views on their engagement in research. The outcomes on this paper revealed that the institution is generally not seen to be supportive of teachers’ research engagement. In addition, since research demands time, the faculty mostly felt that time is not available within their present conditions. Money and recognition on one hand, served as the teachers’ motivational factors in pursuing research endeavor. Career advancement, individual attributes, team collaboration, topic, scope, and teacher responsibility were conceived to be contributory conditional factors in doing research.

A better understanding of teachers’ research engagement would seem to be fundamental to the development of institutional policy on research. The revitalization of it among faculty members should be initiated by the administration as the administrative support was the foremost contributory condition. Similar with the study done by Bilsel (2004), it is deemed important that the administration should improve incentives and benefits for research that could serve as motivational factors for doing research. The research benefits and incentives may include reduction of teaching load, increase funding allotted to research projects, and provision of publication reward. Efforts must be made in order to enhance the appreciation and understanding of the faculty on the importance of research especially in their profession. Appreciation of research be made possible by means of offering necessary research training as part of the faculty development program. Encouragement to do research should start with the department chairs since they have direct contact with faculty members. This will enable them to employ their leadership in promoting research. Clear rules and guidelines on research should also be set among teacher researchers. Faculty encouragement on professional research group participation should also be considered important.

In addition, on-campus research institutes or centers could be established to provide a conducive set-up for academic research (Racelis, as cited in Carson-Arenas, 2001). In case where on-campus research center is already present, support of its programs among faculty and administrators should be evident. It could be of help to the faculty to view research as an integral part of the teaching profession.

Finally, the findings of this study emphasized certain areas for continuing the investigation of teachers’ research engagement. Since qualitative method is employed, a follow-up study could also be done using quantitative inquiry.
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An Incompatible Method:
The Western Liberal Arts Educational Model in Kuwait and the Arab Gulf Region

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Abstract: Drawing on oral histories from the region as well as literature on the subject, this paper begins with an examination of the historical development of the characteristics of liberal arts in Europe and then goes on to argue that those essential characteristics are largely incompatible with the social and cultural traditions of the Arabian Gulf region largely because they are imposed from without rather than from within. While there are similarities in the historical experiences of the west and the Gulf, the necessary conditions for implementing a liberal arts-type of education in the region have yet to be realized.

Keywords: Kuwait, Arabian Gulf, Liberal Arts, Education

The citizen population of Kuwait reached 1.5 million at the end of 2012 (KUNA, 2012). It is estimated that fully 60 percent of these citizens are under the age of 24, placing a large and growing burden on the state’s one public and a handful of small private universities. Given this dramatic growth and the pressures placed upon the limited resources of a small geographic location, the need for highly educated Kuwaitis to assume strategic leadership and planning roles in the near future will become more acute.

With the rise of American-styled universities in the Gulf, one must consider whether a traditional or western liberal arts education can provide the educational needs of the region. This paper will consider the unique development of liberal arts in Europe and then examine several perspectives regarding the role of a traditional liberal arts education in Kuwait and the Gulf region. Many of the problems associated with the liberal arts method today in Kuwait stem from what Brian Whitaker terms the Arab “freedom deficit” or an atmosphere where “change, innovation, creativity, critical thinking, questioning, problem-solving, and virtually any kind of nonconformity are all discouraged if not necessarily punished” (2009, 12). This problem will be further addressed below. In light of both the needs and the social and cultural circumstances of the area, the traditional western liberal arts model of higher education is untenable in the Arabian Gulf states. Rather, only a modified and culturally-sensitive model of tolerance can ultimately fulfill the larger needs of the Gulf region.

1. An approach born out of experience: liberal arts in the west

The liberal arts as a model for education was born in twelfth-century Europe. Abandoning the concept of learning by rote, Peter Abaelard (1079-1142) suggests that “questioning excites young readers to the maximum of effort in inquiring into the truth, and such inquiry sharpens their minds.” He goes on to cite Aristotle, who said “To entertain doubts on particular points will not be unprofitable” and adds “For by doubting we come to inquiry; through inquiring we perceive the truth.... (Tierney, 1976, 398). This method of questioning was preferred by Abelard, but controversial. In his Dialectia he goes on to propose that “All knowledge is good, even that which relates to evil.... though it be evil to sin, it is good to know the sin, which otherwise we could not shun” (Tierney, 402). Abelard of Bath (c. 1080-c. 1182) had studied in Paris and traveled extensively in Muslim lands. Indicating that he had learned from Arabic teachers to be guided by reason, he proposes “that first we ought to seek the reason for anything.... Authority alone cannot make a philosopher believe anything, nor should it be adduced for this purpose” (Perry, 2006, 233). In his Metalogicon, John of Salisbury (c. 1155-1180) defends the liberal arts curriculum which was under attack from conservative theologians. He writes that these arts are called “liberal” because “their object is to effect man’s liberation, so that, freed from cares, he may devote himself to wisdom.” For medieval students, the liberal arts would have generally come under the headings of law or theology. Today, the recognized liberal arts disciplines can include the physical sciences, economics, English, history, liberal
studies, political science, psychology and the social sciences. By contrast, the so-called illiberal or mechanical disciplines were looked down on “because they seem to spoil the body and unnerve the mind.”

Once the purview of priests alone, the Humanists’ critical interpretation of Christianity signaled a fundamental shift in the strength and potential of liberal arts education. Individuals such as Thomas More (1478-1535) and Desiderius Erasmus (1466-1536) took the intellectual lead in the early sixteenth century. They critically evaluated every aspect—both secular and sacred—of their society. It was their contemporary, Martin Luther (1483-1546), who, taking full advantage of the advent of the printing press in Europe, began an outright denunciation of the Catholic Church. In 1521 Luther issued the words that illustrate what can be considered the product of the liberal arts reliance upon critical thought. When asked to recant, or face certain condemnation he replied, “Unless I am convinced by proofs from Scriptures or by plain and clear reasons and arguments, I can and will not retract, for it is neither safe nor wise to do anything against conscience” (Luther, 1929, 838). This dogged reliance on critical reasoning supported by evidence has been the chief hallmark of European liberal arts education from the time of the Protestant Reformation.

It is only by examining, however briefly, the historical context of the European liberal arts tradition that today’s AAUP statement “On Freedom of Expression and Campus Speech Codes” is understood. Often cited as an ideological foundation to the western liberal arts university, it begins “Freedom of thought and expression is essential to any institution of higher learning.” The statement continues by stating,

In the process, views will be expressed that may seem to many wrong, distasteful, or offensive. Such is the nature of freedom to sift and winnow ideas. On a campus that is free and open, no idea can be banned or forbidden. No viewpoint or message may be deemed so hateful or disturbing that it may not be expressed. (AAUP, 1996)

In broad terms, the liberal arts method of higher education encourages free inquiry into any subject or topic with the primary objective being both comprehension and critique. Essentially, it is a mental exercise that equips the learner with the skills to function in any vocation. A good general definition of liberal arts comes from Julie Reuben who writes that [the purpose of the liberal arts college was partly defined in contradistinction to other forms of education; a liberal arts college education was supposed to be broad rather than specific, “liberal” rather than professional, relevant but not “narrowly vocational.” (Reuben, 1996, 230)

In a discussion such as this there is the hazard of implying that there is a dichotomy between liberal and other forms of education, such as vocational education (Carr, 2009). While fundamental philosophical differences exist, the perceived gulf is greatest outside the academy, which will be demonstrated below. The difference is usually not qualitative but philosophical and methodological. A liberal arts institution seeks to instill a broad knowledge-based experience while the vocation seeks to create a practitioner of a specific vocation. Additionally, it is necessary to point out the difference in criticism and critique or critical thinking. Whereas the former often comes from a perspective lacking tolerance and seeking offense, the latter has as its goal understanding within a framework of tolerance.

While the goals of tolerance and free inquiry inform the diversity of perspectives in European and American liberal arts institutions, it remains to be seen whether such a model is exportable to areas that have no such historical tradition.

2. Advocating liberal arts in the Gulf

From the western perspective, traditional liberal arts education, if implemented, could help improve and develop new economic, social and political strategies for states in the Gulf region. Yusur al-Madani, Associate Dean at Kuwait University believes that applying this model of education will promote productivity and enhance critical thinking among younger Kuwaitis. Al-Madani suggests that the only way to make the educational system competitive in Kuwait is by directly implementing the liberal arts model. This, she contends, can help Kuwait students become better critical thinkers and stronger leaders. Comparing Kuwait’s educational development before and after the 1990 Iraqi invasion, she argues that during the 1970s and 1980s Kuwait was more liberal. In addition, Mohammed Ghanem al-Rumeihi, a professor of Sociology at Kuwait University, asserts that unlike other Arab states in the 1960s and 1970s, Kuwait was a liberal country with liberal institutions (Abu-Zahra, 1983). Both al-Madani and al-Rumeihi believe that Kuwait in the 1970s prospered as a result of this liberal transition. Because liberalism was more common in the seventies, young Kuwaitis were able to challenge laws such as gender segregation. Al-Madani remembers,

[W]e even went in a mob to Khaldiya, boys and girls, asking the government to stop the segregation between the

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1 In classical Greece literature the mechanical or illiberal arts typically included science, mathematics, painting, sculpture, architecture, agriculture and craftsmanship in general. The fifth-century Athenian philosopher Xenophon considered the illiberal arts degrading and praised states where they were deemed illegal. See Xenophon, Oikonomikos, 6.5, c. 370 BCE.

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boys and girls on campus. This was in 1970s, believe it or not in Kuwait, when I was a [undergraduate] student at Kuwait University. (Al-Mandani, 2007).

Before assessing and reviewing the already existing data on liberal arts education, several questions must be addressed in order to develop a conceptual framework. What does liberal arts education mean in Kuwait? How can the western model for liberal arts education have a positive impact on Kuwaiti society? Finally, can liberal arts education solve various problems that will confront Kuwait in the near future?

Uland Fehalu, an educational theorist and strong advocate of liberal arts education, argues that the majority of modern theorists believe that at present, liberal arts education has no place in the Kuwaiti curriculum. According to Fehalu, “If a course does not prepare the individual directly for his specialized work, the educationists argue, it has no place in curriculum. Ours is an age of specialization, in which there is little time for general cultural studies” (Fehalu, 1940). Some have pushed for a one-sided vocational education—claiming that the Liberal Arts model will not prepare undergraduates or graduates for their future professions. This argument, while pragmatic in a limited sense, neglects the broader benefits of the liberal arts. Scholars at Kuwaiti institutions seemingly agree. In his article “The Role of a Liberal Arts in Business,” American University of Kuwait (AUK) professor, Jeremy Cripps argues that a diverse range of individuals from the Renaissance to the modern period all enjoyed the benefits of liberal arts. They “made their business activity a success because their business activity was based on the knowledge they acquired from their study of the liberal arts” (Cripps, 2007). Nizar Hamzeh, Dean of AUK’s College of Arts and Sciences, adds that the liberal arts model is more than just critical thinking. Hamzeh defines it as “a way of life that values open minds, freedom, tolerance, and celebrates the rich diversity of the world cultures” (Hamzeh, 2006; Whitaker, 2009, 26). Other studies have shown how the liberal model is equally as important for undergraduate students enrolled in Business Administration programs. According to scholars in this field, liberal arts is needed to teach students the ethical values in employment and managerial skills (Al-Salam, 2007). Considering the booming business climate in Kuwait and the government’s encouragement of private-sector businesses, liberal arts education can, indeed, play an important role.

Another important consideration is that the western model for liberal arts education advocates equality, allowing women to play an important role in Kuwaiti politics and society. Prior to the 1950s, women were effectively cut off from society. Haya al-Mughni argues that women in the pre-oil period—until the sixties—were socially controlled and devalued. When looking at the positive impact that Liberal ideas had in Kuwait during the sixties and seventies, many men and women began to question gender inequality. Al-Mughni argues that during the sixties, many Kuwaitis (both men and women) were educated and influenced by ideas of western liberalism and the writings of influential Arab nationalists such as Qasim Amin and Taha Hussein. Young educated Kuwaitis were calling for the Al-Nahda (awakening) and women’s emancipation (Al Mughni, 2007).

It is clear that liberal arts education can have a positive impact on Kuwait, especially among women. Examples such as women participating in political rallies, being able to hold ministerial positions, or voting and nominating, and standing for parliament are just some of the practices that are now protected under the Kuwaiti constitution and can be attributed to the generation of Kuwaitis educated in the 1960s and 1970s who took advantage of liberal arts education-opportunities abroad.2 Liberal arts could also have a positive impact on the masses—especially in matters concerning freedom of the press, and freedom of speech. An educated and critically-minded electorate could, no doubt, provide a democratic foundation for Kuwait’s future development and integration into the global community.

While there are advocates of the liberal arts in Kuwait, most of these supporters tend to come from either the generation sent abroad for education shortly after Kuwaiti Independence in 1961 and before Kuwait had its own infrastructure for higher education, or from expatriates.

3. Vocational versus liberal arts education

In a vacuum, the benefits of the liberal arts model are undeniable and uncontroversial. As a western-trained academic, al-Madani’s position of liberal arts might be valid in the west, but it neglects not only the needs of Kuwaiti society, but also deeply-seated historic values. While globalization is remaking much of the world, advocates of the liberal arts model seem too quick to discount the immediate needs of local society. Member of the Higher Council for Planning and Development for the State of Kuwait, Saber al-Suaidan suggests that in order for Kuwait to develop, it needs graduates with vocational skills. Al Suaidan believes that a larger degree of self dependency is required for development, and that

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2 Kuwait University was founded in 1966, originally with two schools, arts and sciences. Before, 1966 most Kuwaitis seeking higher education went to liberal arts institutions in Europe and the United States.
this self dependency can be attained by having more students focus on vocational types of education and relieve the state’s heavy dependency on foreign expertise. The traditional western liberal arts approach, he pragmatically suggests, is not appropriate for Kuwait and this stage in its development.

In Kuwait you will find so many people studying Shari’ah, literature and history and once they graduate they can’t get a job. I have two daughters that just graduated, they are both mechanical engineers. There’s a high demand for mechanical engineers in Kuwait.... They got their jobs because there is a market demand for this kind of education in the state.... What the state needs are technicians to ... fix oil refineries. Go to the refineries and see who’s working there. They are all expatriates. (Al-Suaidan, 2007).

He believes that a dependence on foreign workers will not result in the development of Kuwait because expatriate workers do not have a vested interest in seeing Kuwait flourish. Al Suaidan’s argument can be termed the “nationalistic position.”

As is clear above, liberal arts education generally is non-vocational education. With liberal arts education the graduate would not necessarily gain an employable skill. A philosophy graduate, for example, unless he attends graduate school which might qualify him as a teacher, would very likely be hired by no one as a “philosopher.” Al-Suaidan does not use the term liberal arts to critique various subjects. However an evident connection between liberal arts and the subjects of which he was critical was apparent. He clearly wants to limit non-vocational graduates while championing technicians and engineers for their ability to “fix.” The narrator said

Let’s put 20 percent [of undergraduate focus] on history, literature and Shari’ah, and 80 percent for the sciences. That’s the only way [Kuwait] can develop. Otherwise, we will still have expatriates fix your PC and laptop. (Al-Suaidan, 2007)

Al Suaidan’s concern for students pouring into the Arts and Humanities departments does have some academic backing. An article in Social, Economic & Political Studies of the Middle East argues that when it comes to education, the Gulf area suffers from “duplication and under-utilization” because of the increasing number of high school graduates demanding places in university (Garrett, 1987). Duplication and under-utilization are a result of the increasing number of students who, having finished their secondary education demanded places in university. The governments... yielded to the pressure by expanding university education, particularly the less costly facilities of arts and humanities, out of all proportion with the employment opportunities for university graduates [in vocational programs]. (Amin, 1974)

So while the arts and humanities are being expanded in the Gulf area for their favorable maintenance cost, the already existing technical institutions remain “empty and hard pressed for recruits” (Garrett).

However the problem with this position is that it no longer applies. By examining two popular colleges at Kuwait University (KU), one which has a vocational output and one which does not; the notion of vocational education being overwhelmed by non-vocational is seemingly obsolete. Recently a new problem has arisen.

Table 1: Undergraduates at Kuwait University

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<tr>
<td>Undergraduates attending the College of Arts</td>
<td>4048 students</td>
<td>3324 students</td>
<td>2279 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduates attending the College of Engineering</td>
<td>877 students</td>
<td>2471 students</td>
<td>2450 students</td>
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Table 1 shows a significant increase in engineering majors at KU between 1985 and 2004, and a steady decline of almost 50% in undergraduates in the college of arts in that time period, ultimately balancing enrolled undergraduates in both the arts and engineering colleges. However, al-Suaidan’s assumption that all students with vocational degrees (such as the mechanical engineers he used as an example) would be directly utilized by the state to work in their specialized fields is incorrect. The Department of Civil Engineering at KU shows that 43% of engineering graduates have been employed outside their specialized fields (Al-Sanad, 2001). So, out of the 2450 engineering undergraduates in the 2004-2005 academic years, an estimated 1000 were underemployed. 40% of professional and technical workers in Kuwait are Kuwaiti, with the remaining 60% being non Kuwaiti (Shah, 1995, 1012). The exact figures Shah provides for Kuwaiti and Non-Kuwaiti workers in the Professional and Technical fields, along other fields are represented in Table 2.
Table 2: Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti workers in professional and technical fields

<table>
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<th>Category</th>
<th>Kuwait</th>
<th>Non-Kuwait</th>
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<tr>
<td>Professional and Technical workers</td>
<td>41,137</td>
<td>61,057</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cleric/Office workers</td>
<td>62,984</td>
<td>40,762</td>
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<tr>
<td>Service, Production and Labor workers</td>
<td>27,107</td>
<td>385,307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>34,653</td>
<td>47,321</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total workforce</td>
<td>165,881</td>
<td>534,447</td>
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Source: Shah, 2001

While the expatriates outnumber the Kuwaitis in the Service, Production and Labor field in a ratio of 17:1, the contrast in the other fields is not as great. This means that al-Suaidan’s nationalistic position, which would aim to slash the number of non-Kuwaiti Professional and Technical workers and boost the number of Kuwaitis in that field, is within the grasp of short-term planning.

This nationalistic position suggests that Kuwait’s development can only be brought about by the Kuwaitis themselves. Implementing development in accordance with this position would require more Kuwaitis with vocational education to replace the majority of non-Kuwaitis upon which the state is heavily dependent. Even a 2005 Qatari Planning Council Report suggests that for Qatari men, “the prime source of employment for new entrants into the labor market will be in public administration, the oil and gas industry, and the electricity, gas, and water utilities.” The same report goes on to propose that women will benefit from higher education by increased opportunities in the health sector (Stasz, 2007). Finally, in order to curb the exponential growth of the expatriate population in Kuwait, the government is considering limiting the number of years an expat worker can remain in country; ranging from 6 for unskilled to 12 for highly skilled workers (Garcia, 2012). In this light, a specifically liberal arts education is not necessary. The liberal arts model may be a valid method to produce a generally educated citizenry but at this stage in the region’s development there may be a stronger need for skilled citizens who are employable.

4. Legal issues for liberal arts

Another concern affecting the viability of liberal arts education is connected to governing and legal traditions in the Gulf. In the region, authoritarian regimes existed prior to the creation of independent states in the second half of the twentieth century. Whether under the authority of one of the Islamic empires or a more localized tribe, the people of the Gulf have always been governed by hereditary or semi-hereditary authority structures. Although institutionalized advisory bodies like the Ottoman divan or the Gulf diwaniyas are often considered by western observers as more liberal aspects of the region’s political tradition, in most areas in the Gulf questioning or challenging leaders is not permitted. Whitaker connects this tradition to the prevalence of rote learning which “dominates to the exclusion of understanding, analytical thought, problem-solving and so on. This approach reflects the authoritarian tendencies of Arab society as well as the desire of the regimes not to be subjected to critical scrutiny” (Whitaker, 2009, 24). Correspondingly, institutions that encourage the liberal arts method of education can unwittingly foster illegal challenges to the ruling regimes.

A liberal arts education essentially teaches students to ask “why is it done” instead of asking “how it is done?” It also encourages critical thinking to evaluate information and to reach an answer or conclusion. The concept of critical inquiry and freedom of expression, as expressed in the AAUP statement above, play well in political systems that allow dissent and criticism. A critical and free press is often seen as a necessary check on the government itself in the west. The Arabian Gulf countries, however, are headed by various models of absolutist regimes where dissent is often punished and criticism is generally not allowed. In such an environment, western liberal education cannot be fully implemented. The Kuwaiti Constitution states, “The Amir is the head of the state. His person shall be immune and inviolable, and his title is ‘His Highness the Amir of Kuwait’” (1962). According to Article 25 of the Kuwait Criminal Law Code it is a criminal offense to challenge the authority or insult the Amir in speech, writing, drawing or any other means of expression. The code, in fact, mandates a prison term not exceeding five years for anyone who violates this law (Etheridge, 2007). According to Global Integrity, Kuwaiti media are unable to report on corrupt individuals when reporting
will affect “the dignity and lives of persons.”

Kuwait is not only state in the Gulf that feels traditions are being threatened by liberal education and its promotion of such critical evaluation. Saudi Arabia has at least one operating liberal arts university, Effat University and two others currently seeking accreditation by the American Association of Liberal Education. In 2003 150 protesters were arrested in Saudi Arabia because they were carrying banners advocating reform. Police arrested these people simply for staging a public protest in Riyadh. According to The New York Times, “there had been hundreds of protesters, men and women, carrying banners calling for reforms” (2003). In the U.A.E., even though the N.Y.U. Abu Dhabi campus recently accepted its first 200 students, one of the applicants, Laith Aqel suggests that starting a civil rights club there is problematic “because we can’t hold protests.” He adds “I think we’ll be able to find creative ways to circumvent the restrictions while maintaining respect for our host country” (Foderaro, 2010). While N.Y.U. is one of the only institutions in the Gulf to offer its faculty tenure, such is no guarantee of academic freedom. The university has yet to formulate an agreement with Abu Dhabi regarding the issue and under current laws in the emirate Israeli students and faculty desiring to study or work at the university would be denied visas (Mills, 2010).

While liberal arts in the west is a by-product of political events such as the Magna Carta (1215), the ouster of rulers such as Charles I (1649) and Louis XVI (1792), and political philosophies that advocate popular sovereignty and rights such as those of Montesquieu and Jefferson, the Gulf region has no such tradition. Fully implementing the western liberal arts model might not only threaten the political systems of much of the region, but it could, in the case of Kuwait, lead to unconstitutional and, therefore, illegal behavior.

5. Islam and liberal arts

The liberal arts method has much to do with liberalism, a product of which is political democracy. In theory, no single issue stands immune to the consensus of the majority, no matter how sacred it may be to one group. According to the AAUP statement above, any subject, regardless of its place in society, is open to scrutiny, and is susceptible to being critically evaluated. Regarding this style of education, Overton H. Taylor argues that the concept of the free man, who is responsible for his own wellbeing and in need of a comprehensive, well-rounded education to prepare him for the responsibilities he has come to bear, is now just as applicable and evident in today’s democratic societies, where virtually all are now “free” (Overton, 1945).

According to Islam, however, though there is free will, all are considered slaves of Allah. Indeed, this status is repeated throughout the Qur’an and hadeeth. The purpose of existence, according to these texts, is so that the creation may worship only Him (The Noble Qur’an (51)). The relationship between Allah and His slaves, therefore, constitutes one of total obedience and subservience; such that the slave has absolutely no right to question (by way of criticism), deny or disobey His Laws, Commandments and Verses. Yet the liberal arts method says otherwise. In both of the major types of Islam—Shia and Sunna—any interpretation, critique or evaluation of the Qur’an outside of established criteria can be problematic. This is a clear clashing of ideals with the liberal arts method, which allows for the critical deconstruction and evaluation of any issue. It must be noted that in many types of Islam it is acceptable for the layman today to ask questions if he/she wishes to understand the logic and wisdom behind a certain ruling of the religion. Still, this does not equate with the western notion of critical evaluation. Like democracy, freedom and equality are fundamental to a liberal arts education. The manifestations of this are evident in learning and teaching methods by instilling a sense of critical evaluation of even religious subjects. All things, in this regard, are rendered equal, and the students of the liberal arts are free, even encouraged to carry out such methods.

Full implementation of the traditional western style liberal arts style of education will remain problematic in any country that officially holds its religion as sacred, and therefore above criticism. A 2004 Arab Human Development Report observed that the most widespread style of child rearing in Arab families is the authoritarian mode. It affects how the child thinks by suppressing questioning, exploration and initiative. Education is didactic, supported by a set of books containing indisputable texts in which knowledge is objectified so as to hold incontestable facts, and by an examination process that only tests memorization and factual recall.

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3 According to Global Integrity, Kuwait scores a “very weak” on overall integrity indicators. Qatar also scored a “very weak,” while the UAE scored “weak.” (2008)

4 The new N.Y.U. Abu Dhabi campus—billed as a liberal arts institution—will face risks: “homosexual acts are illegal and the Internet is censored, And there is no guarantee that the seemingly limitless resources of its oil-rich government will remain so, given the precarious global economy and Middle East Politics” (Foderaro, 2010)
In this regard, Islam may be the greatest impediment to Whitaker’s “freedom deficit” in the region. The liberal concept of freedom, however, did not become the western norm until well into the nineteenth century. The freedom of academics from the twelfth century onwards to challenge the religious establishment was directly related to the relative strength of their patrons. For example, in 1324 when the rector of the University of Paris, Marsilius of Padua, proposed that church—specifically the papacy—subject itself to secular authority, he was excommunicated and fled to the court of Louis of Bavaria in Nuremberg whose forces were already at war with the papacy. While similar royal protection and patronage of universities in the Gulf is certainly beneficial, the absence of a solitary overriding religious authority akin to the medieval papacy that can officially endorse or reject propositions, denies academics the niche of freedom such controversies often afford.

6. Profit and liberal arts

One final aspect of liberal arts institutions concerns profit. Since the 1990s there has been an ongoing debate in the west regarding the rise of for-profit universities. Ann Morey points out some of the problems with for-profit institutions. For example, faculty at such institutions do not normally engage in research and they follow centrally-developed syllabi. With this approach, as Morey points out, “there is a major difference between those who are in the business of education and those whose mission it is to provide an education” (Morey, 2004). In a comprehensive article on this theme, Frank Lutz and Robert Field bring together several of the major consequences of the for-profit model. They suggest that the university has lost its “classical” liberal arts curricula and is being guided by the “invisible” hand of free market competition. Their most stinging criticism is that “The pervasive business valuing in American society is embedded in the boards and administrators who run education institutions. This has created schools run like factories rather than institutions of inquiry” (Lutz, 1998). To a medieval scholar such as Peter Abelard it might seem that the illiberal had swallowed the liberal arts. From the classical perspective of liberal arts, profit-seeking in this regard could be considered unethical.

In the Gulf region, there has been a mushrooming of so-called American institutions based on the liberal arts model. Yet, much of the funding for these institutions remains clouded in secrecy—raising the question of whether they are truly non-profit. Profit-based universities, usually run as businesses, often do not seek high quality education. Rather, their prime motivation is to generate revenue, often at the expense of quality education. There are several signs that can hint if an educational institution is profit based or not. The caliber of professors hired enables one to make the judgment whether a university is non-profit or profit based. A product of top scholarship and research is a university’s endowment. Another is the student-to-professor ratio. The lower the student-to-professor ratio, the more likely the institution is non-profit. Furthermore, resources that include equipment, technology, campus services as well as research grants for professors are all indicators of a university’s profit status.

Many professed American-model universities in the Gulf region show signs of profit-based decisions. From a western perspective, it seems hypocritical that a proclaimed American-model institution based on a liberal arts model is a subsidiary of a “parent company” on a stock market. Founding president of the American University of Kuwait, Shafeeq Ghabra paints a clear picture of the situation in the region, stating:

A conflict of interest exists between the aims of providing high-quality education and of making a profit on money invested by owners... A university should have an element of altruism to earn respect of from the community, develop an active alumni community, and raise funds. Without such an approach, only non-profit institutions (such as the American University of Beirut and the American University of Cairo) will be able to solicit money via fundraising, while the other universities will be heavily dependent on high tuition. With the commercialization of education, universities will end up lowering their standards to attract students and providing easy education for the elites. (2007)

In addition, some of these institutions see brand recognition as measure of success. AUK, for example, was awarded “Superbrand” recognition in early 2008. The distinction is based on value in the Kuwaiti market, brand recognition and perception as well as corporate performance, among other things (AUK PR, 2008). The concept that the institution is a brand, just like Gucci or Prada or Sony, reinforces the viewpoint that these proclaimed non-profit universities are profit-seeking. The equation is simple: loyal customers (paying students) purchasing their brand (easy “American” modeled education). If there is an apt marketing strategy, it might be borrowed from Mastercard’s “Priceless” ad campaign: a liberal arts education might very well be one of those things that money can’t buy.

Numerous obstacles lay in the way of these American-modeled higher education institutions to truly be considered non-profit. Funding is essential and critical to any institution’s success, and because the line in the Gulf region between non-profit and profit is blurry, sometimes it is inevitable that those claiming to be non-profit will resort to profit tactics due to a myriad of factors. Unlike the west, many Arab countries do not have a tax system and thus there is no tax exemption...
available for donating to a non-profit institution. Another factor is the perception from governments in the region that liberal arts institutions are agents of change, perhaps even a threat to their regimes. A conference entitled “Independent Universities in the Middle East: A New Approach” held in Istanbul, Turkey in 2005 reported that “Funding shortfalls...reflect the state’s determination to keep universities on a short leash. Within autocratic societies, university independence is often something to be prevented, not nourished” (Chanin, 2005). Thus, governments view these institutions with suspicion and there is a reluctance to fund them.

However, this is not the case with all governments. The massive funding by the Qatari government for its Education City, under the umbrella of the Qatar Foundation, has been successful in creating a non-profit based higher education zone with world-renowned universities such as Carnegie Mellon, Georgetown University, Northwestern University, Virginia Commonwealth and Texas A&M University placing branch campuses there. In addition, the Abu Dhabi government is funding a four-year liberal arts research university associated with N.Y.U. whose student population is targeted to reach 2,000 undergraduates (Foderaro, 2010). Even with these successful models, one cannot be quick to call these traditional liberal arts institutions as the campuses opened thus far are focused on vocational and technical skills. For example, Virginia Commonwealth University of the Arts in Qatar focuses on Graphic Design, Fashion Design and Interior Design; Texas A&M’s Liberal Arts Program is, according to its website, “support for students undertaking research projects for their respective engineering degree.” Northwestern offers a liberal arts general education curricula but only major programs in journalism and communication; and while Georgetown requires two theology courses as part of its general education curriculum for its School of Foreign Service, it offers no traditional liberal arts major programs.

7. Toward a conclusion

Kuwait and the Gulf region are in need of a long-term educational strategy that is neither an attempt to stamp a western standard, nor a complete rejection of the western model. The lead article of the February 1938 edition of The Journal of Higher Education was entitled “Is the Liberal-Arts College Doomed?” The author suggested that universities in the United States were devoting their energies and capital toward the development of professional and technical training; and away from “literature, philosophy and art.” He predicted that except along the eastern coast of the US, liberal arts institutions would be “submerged.” While this, of course, did not occur, the liberal arts tradition in the US did change to fit the nation’s circumstances immediately following the Second World War. Liberal arts curricula, for example, began to include a physical science and, later, a computer/technology component. A similar change or alteration must occur in the Arabian Gulf. However, in implementing change reformers must be cognizant of the region’s cultural and religious values and traditions that enable it to interact in that community without losing its own identity or position.

Muhammad Marmaduke Pickthall’s 1927 lecture, “Tolerance in Islam” suggests what could be a workable alternative to the western liberal model. He points out that, “The tolerance within the body of Islam was, and is, something without parallel in history.” Given the cultural relevance of the Qur’an in the region, resorting to it as an educational foundation seems appropriate (Pickthall, 1927). It states, “There is no compulsion in religion. Verily, the Right Path has become distinct from the wrong path” (The Noble Qur’ân (2)). In the same way that the liberal model is informed by a European experience, a Muslim model ought to be informed by experience. The history of tolerance advocated by Islam is unique in the global experience. Under the patronage and protection of regional leaders universities could become bastions of tolerance that might later affect society at large.

While the west might have a difficult time appreciating the difference between a liberal and tolerant model of higher education, the term “tolerance” is commonly defined across socio-cultural groups. Simply put, it is the act of allowing deviation from a standard. In the case of the Muslim experience, it has usually been a patronized protection. One need only compare the historical experiences of Spain under Muslim and Spanish rule. Al-Andalus was generally tolerant toward Christians and Jews living in Spain while the process of the Reconquista was known for its brutality toward both Jews and Muslims. Although it is incorrect to suggest that Al-Andalus treated Muslims and non-Muslims equally, it was certainly more tolerant toward divergent religious views. Probably the best documented example of tolerance during the Muslim period in Spain comes from a ninth-century letter from al-Hâshimî to a Christian king, inviting him to embrace Islam. In it he writes,

‘[Y]ou are safe and free to say whatever you please, appoint some arbitrator who will impartially judge between us and lean only towards the truth and be free from the empery of passion: and that arbitrator shall be reason, whereby God makes us responsible for our own rewards and punishments... For “there is no compulsion in religion” and I have only invited you to accept our faith willingly and of your own accord. (Hourani, 1976)

Al-Hâshimî’s words advocate tolerance rather than freedom. The latter is boundless while the former limits the goal of
any inquiry to uncovering truth.

One further example can be given to illustrate the tradition of tolerance within Islamic society. After the Ottoman Sultan Mehmet II conquered Constantinople in 1453 he allowed not only Christians but also Jews to continue living and working within the capital. A Hungarian observer at the time wrote, “The Turks do not compel anyone to renounce his faith, do not try hard to persuade anyone and do not have a great opinion of renegades” (Mansel, 1995, 47). They were not, however, allowed freedom. Mehmet assigned Jews and Christians to certain sections of the city. They had to wear distinctive dress and were not allowed to carry arms. One rabbi who had been expelled from Spain and eventually settled in Constantinople wrote, “Here in the land of the Turks we have nothing to complain of…. ‘We possess great fortunes, much gold and silver are in our hands. We are not oppressed with heavy taxes and our commerce is free and unhindered” (Mansel). With such tolerance for the other, the Ottoman Empire would reach its peak. The nuances between freedom (liberalism) and tolerance might be slight but might best be reduced to the concept of mutual respect.

In a liberal arts environment, even statements that might be deemed hateful or offensive have credibility. John Stuart Mill’s classic work, On Liberty (1859) claims that no individual or government has a monopoly on truth. He states, “the peculiar evil of silencing the expression of an opinion is that it is robbing the human race.” In this context veracity is less important since the goal is the exercise of critical thought. As demonstrated above, in the Arabian Gulf, expressing an errant opinion can be problematic when the opinion opposes the law or contradicts a religious belief or tradition. In a general sense, the culture in the Gulf seems to function with the understanding that there is no compulsion to accept an argument but there is, ultimately, a punishment for error. This environment has been beneficial in the past as it aided in creating the Muslim Golden Age—encompassing a geographic area that stretched from Spain across North Africa to Persia—which far surpassed medieval Europe in philosophy, science, the arts, and literature.

Pundits might argue that the Gulf region is caught in a perspective similar to that of the twelfth-century Bernard of Clairvaux who argued that truth was intimately connect to faith and, therefore, could not be challenged. This, however, is simply an imposition of a western perspective on a non-western socio-cultural tradition. Since the early days of Islam, questioning has always been permitted. While questions are not to refute or deny the religion, they are intended to lead one to a deeper understanding of the truth of Islam, a religion not dependent on blind faith but rational argument and convincing proof. Questioning a religious tenet in Europe in the twelfth century might have ended in charges of heresy because there was not yet a tradition of tolerance. The historical experience of the Gulf, bound as it is to the culture and religion of Islam, has a unique tradition of tolerance upon which it should build its own educational method and standards. Since almost every university in the Gulf region operates under the patronage of various members of royal families, this method could develop under such protection and thereby sidestep many of the problems connected to a strict implementation of the western liberal arts model. With 60 percent of Kuwait’s population under 24 years old (IMF, 2012), a workable method is imperative.

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Strategies for Facilitating Knowledge Adoption:  
How Researchers can Better Influence Education Policy

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Abstract This paper examines how researchers can improve their chances of influencing education policy. It presents the findings of a literature review and interviews with educational researchers and policy-makers in England and Wales. The projects’ aims were: i) to understand the actions researchers should undertake in order to successfully influence policy; ii) to augment existing work by developing a suite of empirically inspired knowledge adoption strategies specifically for researchers. The paper concludes by presenting four strategy types that will aid researchers to influence policy debates: i) research outputs which meet policy-makers’ specific requirements from research (‘policy ready’ strategies); ii) the effective communication of research (‘promotional’ strategies); iii) ‘traditional’ academic behaviour (‘traditional’ strategies); iv) academics shifting their relative position with regards to the how ‘privileged’ they are by policy-makers, or how policy-makers perceive the policy context to which their research pertains (‘contextual’ strategies).

Key words Evidence-informed policy; knowledge adoption; knowledge mobilization; impact of research; knowledge strategies

1. Introduction

Much has been written in terms of how research can enhance policy and it has been suggested that there are a number of key points at which research can assist the policy-making process: for instance, by aiding the identification of a problem, by helping to create, form or steer the public agenda or by aiding (or inspiring) policy directorates in the development of their initiatives (Nutley et al, 2007; Perry et al., 2010; Brown, 2011). At the same time, the impact of research outputs may be manifold and are likely to range in nature from actual use; where tangible change occurs on the back of research findings, to one of ‘enlightenment’; where outputs serve to enhance or add to users’ perspectives on a given issue. These roles have been defined by Weiss (1979, 1982) as the ‘instrumental’ and ‘conceptual’ uses of research, respectively. In terms of policy development, examples of both instrumental and conceptual impact may be found in recent papers and studies; for instance, Taggart et al. (2008)’s description of the instrumental influence of the Effective Pre-School and Primary Education 3-11 longitudinal study. Levin (2008), meanwhile, provides an example of conceptual use when he notes that the implementation of England’s smoking ban (in 2007) can be contextualized in terms of the decades of peripheral, enlightenment type activity which preceded it.

The means through which policy makers encounter and engage with evidence has also been conceptualized in a variety of ways. For example, via the notion of ‘knowledge exchange’, defined by the Canadian Health Services Research Foundation as ‘a collaborative problem-solving between researchers and decision makers’, or Cooper and Levin’s (2010) concept of ‘knowledge mobilization’; described as a process of strengthening the connections that exist between research, policy and practice. I use the phrase ‘knowledge adoption’ to depict the process, in all its complexity, of policy-makers digesting, accepting and then ‘taking on board’ research findings; noting their relevance, benefits or future potential (see below and Brown, 2011). I also suggest that researchers’ greatest chance of influencing policy is by facilitating a process of knowledge adoption at those points in the policy process where policy makers will be most receptive to evidence or new ideas.

This paper examines the strategies university research units or individual researchers could utilise in order to facilitate a process of knowledge adoption with policy-makers. It is derived from a recent project which sought to examine how research(ers) might advance impact with regards to the development of education policy. Specifically, the aims of the study were twofold: i) to determine, via literature review, those factors which affect the process of knowledge adoption; ii) to address existing conceptual gaps by developing a suite of empirically inspired knowledge adoption strategies for use by educational researchers. As such, this study has relevance both for researchers seeking to achieve impact from their work (whether that be conceptual or instrumental) and policy-makers seeking to improve the efficacy of their policy development.
2. Methodology

The study was designed to augment existing empirical studies in two ways: i) by addressing a gap in the focus of extant studies for example, Moore et al., (2011) spotlight (health) policy-makers as audiences for research; their resultant strategies are thus diametrically positioned in nature to (although compatible with) those presented below for researchers as knowledge communicators. Other studies (e.g. Innvaer et al., 2002; Campbell et al., 2007) consider impediments to knowledge adoption but do not propose corollary solutions. ii) Using a qualitative approach also distinguishes the analysis from the quantitative work and meta-analyses that abound in this area (Cooper and Levin, 2010). As a result, the knowledge adoption strategies presented are based on a first hand engagement with a multitude of perspectives, with each interview also providing rich contextual data. Much of this contextual data and many of the viewpoints encountered echoed those impediments to evidence use highlighted by the policy-makers interviewed in Innvaer et al., (2002) and by Campbell et al., (2007). As such, these strategies may be seen as directly addressing the issues raised in past analyses of policy-makers' views on this topic.

In order to investigate this area and to produce recommendations for how researchers might direct their approach to knowledge adoption a configurative, systematic review of relevant literature was undertaken. Following the review, 24 semi-structured, in-depth interviews were held with educational researchers and policy-makers working in England and Wales. Cooper and Levin (2010) note that the majority of studies in the field of knowledge mobilization (their term) are Canadian based, derive from the health sector and use quantitative or meta analytical methods. This also potentially places empirical distance between the findings of this project and that of others fulfilling these criteria. It may be assumed however, that jurisdictions and sectors will have some similarities and generalisation across them may be possible. Conversely then, while the findings here relate to the education sector in England and Wales, they may also be applicable to other contexts. Specifically, those of other UK based central government departments.

2.1 The literature review

The aim of the literature review was to provide an overview of existing theory and an understanding of the type of empirical studies previously undertaken in this area. Whilst systematic in nature (i.e. it applied a systematic and rigorous approach to searching out literature), the review did not replicate all of the steps systematic reviews employ: this was because the primary requirement of the review was for it to provide general understanding, rather than a comprehensive assessment of empirical evidence. This corresponds with a configurative rather than aggregative approach to reviewing literature (Sandelowski et al., 2011; Gough et al., 2012).

The operationalization of the literature review comprised analysis of: i) material examining the factors affecting the realisation of evidence-informed policy making and that which detailed recent initiatives in this area (e.g. Davies, 2000; Sebba, 2000; Pollard, 2004; Campbell et al., 2007; Nutley et al., 2007; Moore et al., 2011; Rickinson et al., 2011); ii) the extensive critical discourse surrounding notions of evidence informed and ‘what works’ (e.g. Stronach and MacLure, 1997; Strathern, 2000; Hammersley, 2001; MacLure, 2005; Biesta, 2007; Ball, 2007; 2008; Ball and Exley, 2010); and iii) material relating to conceptual and empirical studies of knowledge mobilization (e.g. Mitton et al. 2007; Levin, 2008; Sin, 2008; Cooper et al., 2009; Cooper and Levin, 2010). Combined, these three subject areas encapsulate existing thought relating to knowledge adoption.

From analysing the literature, it was argued that a myriad of factors affect the process of knowledge adoption. These are detailed in full in Brown (2011) but, in aggregate, comprise: i) factors that centre on the ability of researchers to communicate to, or develop relationships with, policy-makers. For example, the involvement by policy-makers in research studies through networks or other forms of user engagement (Kirst, 2000; Pollard, 2004; Davies, 2004, 2006; Sebba, 2007; Cooper and Levin, 2010; Moore et al., 2011; Rickinson et al., 2011); ii) factors which affect the propensity for policy-makers to engage with evidence. For instance, how ‘accessible’ the research message is terms of the level of detail used, mode of communication employed or the way in which it is presented (Lavis et al., 2003; Davies, 2006; Campbell et al., 2007; Levin, 2008; Brown, 2009; Ball and Exley, 2010; Moore et al., 2011). What was absent, however, was significant detail on/studies relating to specific attempts to provide educational researchers (or researchers generally) with guidance as to how they might facilitate policy related knowledge adoption. This absence is typified in Mitton et al. (2007: 756), who note that “there is very little evidence that can adequately inform what [knowledge adoption] strategies work in what contexts”. At the same time it is argued that developing an understanding of such strategies is vital in order that the knowledge adoption process might be facilitated effectively (e.g. to deal with the impediments to knowledge adoption identified in Innvaer et al., 2002 and Campbell et al., 2007).
2.2 Interviews

In order to develop individual and in-depth accounts of the views of policy-makers and researchers/knowledge providers on the factors associated with knowledge adoption, 24 semi-structured, in-depth, interviews were employed undertaken with policy-makers and researchers.. Gibson (2008) suggests that ‘open’ forms of interview (such as the semi-structured approach) typically encourage an environment in which interviewee and interviewer interact to create both detailed and nuanced discourse. Those classed as policy-makers were either politicians (current or ex-Ministers) or civil servants in central government. Researcher respondents comprised those working for Universities or think tanks. Whilst a purposeful sample of ‘critical cases’, corresponding directly to the analytical requirements of the project was selected (Brown and Dowling, 1998), care was taken to include both advocates (those who believe that evidence can and should be used to inform policy/those responsible for knowledge adoption activity) and critics (those who regard the concept of evidence-based policy as undesirable/unfeasible). This provided a wide range of views and opinions from which to draw upon and assess. It also provided a rigorous critique of the study and its resultant conceptual/theoretical development. The distribution of the final participants is presented below (note the number adds to more than the total interviewed as these groups are not mutually exclusive):

Table 1: Distribution of interview participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group/view point</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Politicians based in England and Wales</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil servants based in England and Wales</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researchers considered from the literature, or self identified, as favoured by politicians or civil servants</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researchers considered from the literature, or self identified, as less favoured by politicians or civil servants</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic researchers critical of the concept of evidence-informed policy</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic researchers in favour of evidence-informed policy</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents belonging to think tanks, political advisors or those operating at the higher levels of Davies’ (2006) policy making ‘food chain’</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3 Analysis of the interview data

Following the interviews, thematic analysis was employed to identify the key knowledge adoption-related behaviours that were or might be employed by researchers. Themes and codes were developed empirically through the breakdown of the data generated in the interviews. Empirical coding may be regarded synonymous with inductive analysis; that is, where data analysis precedes the development of theory. Theoretical development within the study began, however, with the literature review and was thus augmented rather than initiated during the data analysis stage. This approach corresponds to Mason’s (2002: 180) definition of ‘abductive’ analysis where “theory, data generation and data analysis are developed simultaneously in a dialectical process”. Mason’s (2002) posited approach thus accounts for the way in which the research process moved back and forth between analysis and the development of theory, detailing themes and constructing codes relating to knowledge adoption from both the interview data, and the literature review. The result has been the development of four approaches, designed to help educational researchers successfully facilitate the knowledge adoption process. These are the provision of ‘policy-ready’ outputs; the use of effective techniques to promote research; traditional academic behaviour, and; researchers facilitating perception shifts as to their reputation or that of their field of interest.

2.4 The validity of the interview data

Lincoln and Gubba (1985) advance a number of techniques that might be utilised by qualitative researchers in order to demonstrate the ‘trustworthiness’ of their analyses and these were fully embraced throughout. In particular, the technique of ‘member-checking’; interpretations and conclusions were thoroughly tested with those who participated in the study. Interpretive rigour is also achieved through the use of verbatim quotations; an approach which accords with the request made by Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) for transparent ‘illustration’. It is argued that both the positive responses received from respondents after assessing the study’s findings, combined and the direct reflections of the participants in the reporting of the analysis, thus add a level of ‘face validity’ to these four strategies, now presented below.
3. The requirement from policy-makers that research outputs be ‘policy ready’

In Campbell et al., (2007) it is suggested that analytical findings must relate directly to policy makers’ areas of interest and that researchers should attempt to develop a stronger awareness of the specific policies they were supporting. In Brown (2011), however, policy-makers indicated that they sought more from the outputs of research studies than simply the presentation of findings. All of the civil servants and Ministers interviewed, for example, sought detail on ‘application’: that is, advice and recommendations on how to act upon or implement research outputs. Responses here included the following:

…you can see that the research evidence tells you that [a] sort of practice really makes a difference, [but] how do you actually go about making that happen?
(Civil Servant #2)

The way research is presented isn’t helpful. Its presented, not interpreted or analysed or rendered fit for policy use... it doesn’t say... what the applications are...
(Civil Servant #3)

Policy-makers' preference for this type of advice is likely to have a number of different origins: for example, formulating and presenting evidence and its implications in this way will make it easier for civil servants and others to envisage how such knowledge might be used; it may also stem (in education) from the increased level of ‘micro-management’ by policy-makers in terms of localised practice in schools (Rickinson et al., 2011). Thus policy-makers, who tend not to be educationalists, will require help to devise ‘what works’ practice which corresponds to the policy outcomes they wish to achieve. Policy-makers’ desire for application is also likely to be the result of the role organisations, such as think tanks, now play in policy development (discussed later below), and such requirements will be reinforced by any lack of capability on the part of policy-makers to digest academic research (Levin, 2004).

It was felt by respondents that one manifestation of ‘applied’ advice could be demand driven; policy-makers specifying policy questions such as: “we want to achieve political aim ‘x’ with capability constraints or other issues; ‘y’. How would you, as an academic researcher, advise going about that and what are the issues involved?” One academic suggested, for example, that the development of the National Curriculum had occurred in such a way. One policy-maker responsible for departmental research also noted that this approach had, on occasion, materialised in the development of government Green Papers. Policy-makers and some researcher respondents also felt, however, that this type of advice could also be provided by researchers actively moving beyond the general principles established by their findings; hypothesising the potential implications of their evidence for policy and/or providing recommendations for how such findings might be generalised or applied across the education system as a whole. For example, in a similar vein to the way researchers involved with the EPPE study presented their findings to policy-makers: a key question for EPPE was to understand whether pre-school, primary education or home experiences of learning had an impact on social inequality (Siraj-Blatchford, 2010). Interviewees involved in the project suggested that exploring and presenting the possible national/system wide impacts of interventions, both financially and on children’s outcomes, had helped policy-makers better understand how early years policy might be improved.

This first strand of analysis thus implies that ‘policy ready’ outputs should be developed by researchers. The aim of such outputs is to increase policy-makers' demand for a given study by improving their [policy-makers'] understanding of how its findings may be applied or utilised; typically through the development and delivery of detailed advice and recommendations to civil servants/Ministers currently in power. Given the nature of policy development, ‘policy ready’ outputs will be required to be delivered at appropriate points in the political cycle and will need to meet the political requirements of their intended audience in order for them to be adopted.

Whilst the concept of ‘policy ready’ appears to correspond with suggestions made within the literature review that research must: i) be ‘useful’, ‘applicable’ or ‘relevant’ (e.g. see Moore et al., 2011) or ii) that that policy-makers are keen to receive ‘straightforward’ narratives or stories coupled with advice they can understand (Lindblom and Cohen, 1979; Kirst, 2000; Court and Young, 2003; Davies, 2006); as a concept policy ready moves beyond these output requirements. As a minimum ‘policy ready’ outputs relate to the implications of findings and the recommendations or possible solutions for policies which stem from them. Ultimately, ‘policy ready’ outputs may also detail how recommendations might be fulfilled and how the education system may need to be altered to remove and blockages to their implementation. They therefore result from the researcher acting more as a pseudo policy-maker than simply being able to communicate their research effectively.
The notion of policy ready also raises an issue with regards to capacity or the ability of researchers to develop their recommendations in this way. An alternative approach, however, may be through better use of knowledge brokers. Sin (2008) argues that the principal role of the broker is to encourage research use through the successful translation of findings. Sin (2008) also contends that there are five key roles that may be held by knowledge brokers. Of these, the roles of ‘matchmaker’, brokers who bring knowledge creators and knowledge users together, ‘translators and processors’, intermediaries who interpret and adapt information so that it is clear and useful and intermediaries who use ‘multiple dissemination routes’, that is those who employ different strategies to get new knowledge put into practice are likely to be of most use in helping researchers develop ‘policy ready’ outputs.

4. Knowledge adoption via the production of ‘traditional’ academic outputs

Both the interview data and the literature review provide reasons as to why academic researchers often choose not to develop their research findings into ‘policy ready’ outputs: some respondents discussed the need to retain a degree of distance and independence from the policy making process, others argued that research wasn’t always amenable to being manipulated in this way (also see Rickinson et al., 2011). It was also suggested that researchers should be involved in critical theorizing rather than just problem solving: undertaking research in order to provide critique ‘of’ policy, as much as they might undertake research ‘for’ policy (e.g., Troyna, 1994; Moore, 1996; Ozga, 2000). In addition, however, it was observed by respondents that there have traditionally been few incentives in place for them to develop ‘policy ready’ findings compared to those which encourage the development and distribution of ‘traditional’ academic outputs. For example, one noted that:

...if you know that the brownie points are going to be for scholarly work that may not have much direct or obvious policy impact, well, that's what you're going to concentrate on.
(Academic #10)

Other respondents observed that the submission guidance for a number of journals explicitly discouraged the reporting of anything that cannot be substantiated; in the American Educational Research Journal’s Guidelines for Reviewers, for instance, it is specified that reviewers must look at how the data were interpreted in order for the conclusions to have been reached.¹ Similarly in Standards for Reporting on Research in AERA Publications, it is stated that authors should make clear how their analysis procedures led to the outcomes reported;² such criteria incentivising researchers to state only what their data explicitly enables them to.

At the same time, a contrasting view was held by those who argued that tax payers, research funders and other stakeholders had a ‘moral right’ to demand that research is used to influence, alter and change the social world:

...realistically the tax payer ought to be seeing an impact of their research dollars on the research that gets done... or the tax payers ought not to be funding it.
(Academic #4)

These respondents believed, therefore, that there exists an imperative to attempt to influence policy but, simultaneously, found themselves constrained or influenced by existing incentives to behave in traditionally academic ways or to produce traditional academic outputs. This ‘tension’ between responding to traditional incentives and seeking to influence policy is exaggerated further when examining policy-makers’ requirements for ‘policy ready’ outputs (above and Kirst, 2000), which specifically require researchers to move beyond the data. Any action directed in this way thus comes with the opportunity cost of not producing an output that may enhance an academic’s career or standing.

It was contended, both in the literature review and by respondents, that the outputs of think tanks, consultancies and other, non-academic, knowledge providers are not constrained in this type of way. Think tanks, for instance, do not have to compete for Economic and Social Research Council funding, or participate in the Research Assessment Exercise and

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¹ See: http://www.aera.net/publications/Default.aspx?menu_id=34&id=10722
so are free to write directly for the policy user, free from the scrutiny routinely encountered by academics (Mortimore, 2000; Haas, 2007). Since they are not faced by requirements to provide ‘traditional’ outputs, these non-traditional knowledge providers can concentrate exclusively on outputs which are ‘policy ready’. This ability for think tanks (and others) to write directly for the policy user, without any formal processes of quality control, would appear to put academic researchers at a disadvantage in terms of influencing policy. But it is also argued that the tension faced by academics is not a polemic: ‘traditional’ academic outputs, such as articles in scholarly journals, are also likely to help researchers illustrate how their work sits within any given epistemological paradigm by adding weight to claims of quality or the appropriateness of the methodology employed. For instance, for the findings of a research study to have been published in an academic journal, potential articles will have been subject to peer review, and the quality, rigour and methodology of their studies assessed. As such, one interviewee, a former government minister, noted that:

> When I was a Minister I would have said “well its been published so it must be alright”.

(Politician #1)

Whilst one civil service policy-maker also suggested that, whilst not an indication of providing all the qualities required by policy-makers:

> Publication in journals suggest that the author has done something right; that they have produced a high quality study, that it’s well respected, that sort of thing.

(Civil Servant #4)

‘Traditional’ strategies, which primarily comprise the undertaking of research, the development of theory and the publication of results in academic journals, or via other academic-centric means of communication are thus a vital component of the knowledge adoption process. This is because such strategies enable researchers to demonstrate the quality, rigour and methodology of their work and show how research findings relate to the current epistemological preferences of policy-makers. An accumulation of traditional academic outputs will also improve academic standing and may also add credence in terms of the reputation or ‘credibility’ of the researcher in question; all of which are key knowledge adoption factors (Kirst, 2000; Court and Young, 2003; Campbell et al., 2007). However, that whilst ‘traditional’ strategies are the ones most prominently employed by academics, they are the knowledge adoption strategy least favoured by policy-makers who do not consider these types of outputs accessible. As a result, if the focus of researchers is purely on the academic-centric communication of their findings, then any adoption of knowledge disseminated in ‘traditional’ ways is likely to be policy-maker initiated and so demand led (with conceptual impact therefore limited in scope).

5. The promotion of evidence to policy-makers

Within the literature review, a large number of studies centred on the requirements of policy-makers for research to be communicated effectively. For example, in an early analysis by Lindblom and Cohen (1979) it is argued that the use or impact of evidence may be hindered because research outputs are seen by policy-makers as being inaccessible. Others (e.g. Hillage et al., 1998; Mortimore, 2000; Levin, 2003; Gough, 2004; Lagemann, 2008) build on Lindblom and Cohen’s analysis by arguing that, despite any desire on the part of policy-makers to take on board evidence, the majority of academic research cannot help government find solutions to current and immediate issues and challenges because findings are communicated through channels that policy-makers find esoteric and presented in a language that they cannot quickly digest.

A combination of reviewed literature and interview data indicates that four main factors affect academics’ ability to effectively promote their work; these are: i) are: the ‘accessibility’ of the research message (Lavis et al., 2003; Davies, 2006; Brown, 2009; Moore et al., 2011); ii) clarity in terms of how research is presented (Nutley et al., 2007; Brown, 2009; Ball and Exley, 2010); iii) the efficacy of the mode through which evidence is communicated (Paisley, 1993; Mortimore, 2000; Lavis, et al., 2003; Davies, 2006; Levin, 2008; Brown, 2009; Moore et al., 2011), and the level of (proactive) contextualization and tailoring that has been provided (Davies, 2006; Brown, 2009; Moore et al., 2011). Again, little detail was provided on the specific actions or strategies that might enable these factors to be tackled by researchers.

3 For example, see: http://www.iejcomparative.org/submission_criteria.php
Conversely, the interview data (and the findings of interviews in Innvaer et al., 2002 and Campbell et al., 2007) provided a number of examples or clues as to the types of actions that may be required in this area. The analysis below thus covers four of the main evidence ‘promotion’ strategies that were derived from the interview data: the timeliness of outputs; the use of coding, signalling, marketing and branding; the modes of communication employed; and the type of discursive style and level of detail that is used when communicating:

5.1 The timeliness of outputs

Academic respondents discussed the need for research outputs to be appropriately timed. For instance, one told of how they engineered one aspect of their work so that it was timed to coincide with the political cycle:

[At the time of the general election] we did election briefings; summary accounts of main policy issues... written in an accessible way... to feed into the debate around that time.
(Academic #9)

Other respondents engaged in proactive behaviour to ensure that policy-makers were presented with relevant messages at optimally appropriate points in the policy making process.

We pitch the commentaries that have contemporary issues so we’re of concern... [and we] take them to market more quickly than [traditional] research projects.
(Academic #11)

It was also suggested by academic respondents that the identification of appropriate windows of opportunity, in which researchers could or should act, depended on effective horizon scanning. Such future gazing type activities were seen to require the monitoring of political, media and pedagogical developments and the ability to spot occasions for action. But they were also regarded as requiring the capability to respond quickly.

The ‘timeliness’ of outputs as a knowledge adoption strategy directly relates to a requirement, expressed by policy-makers, for research to be delivered at key points in the decision making process (e.g. see Moore et al., 2011; where strategies developed by policy-makers had also attempted to address this need, or Campbell et al., 2007 who discuss policy makers requirements for real time information). Such behaviours are also geared towards creating a ‘demand’ for the evidence in question by providing researcher generated reasons for policy-makers to take on board more information (e.g. Nutley et al., 2007).

As a researcher driven strategy, ‘timeliness’ should also be addressed critically. For example, ‘timeliness’ may be seen to compel academic researchers who wish to help solve problems or issues to structure the timing and nature of their work to the agenda of government. This then precludes such researchers from developing open relationships with policy-makers and from delivering messages that provide challenge and help steer policy in new directions (Troyna, 1994; Mortimore, 2000; Ball, 2007). In Brown, (2009), it is proposed that academic researchers should aim to be ‘proactive criticisers’: proactively scheduling work so that government policy can be critically analysed in a timely, accessible and rigorous way. This notion was also reiterated by a number of others authors (Pestieau, 2003; Taylor, 2005; Davies, 2006; Council for Science and Technology, 2008). It is thus suggested that, if employed in this way, a strategy of ‘timeliness’ may enable researchers to engage with government, but do so without losing academic independence.

5.2 The use of coding, signalling, marketing and branding

It is argued that signalling and coding techniques (Brown and Dowling, 1998) were employed by researcher respondents to ensure that meaningful points could be communicated in a way that might attract policy-makers. For example, one academic noted a forthcoming publication:

It will be rather quite cleanly written, jargon free, use of photographs, lots of use of white space etc. to try and engage politicians and, indeed, interested public on what is known [on the topic in question] with links to “if you want to find out more, here’s where to go" kind of thing.
(Academic #9)
In terms of the publications produced as part of the Teaching and Learning Research Programme (TLRP) it was stated that:

We employed a professional corporate design specialist to design TLRP, to come up with the logos and the typeface and some of the basics, so we have identity guidelines, as it’s called in the trade, which go on all the TLRP outputs. So that blue cover colour, a sort of take on UN blue for independent research-y stuff. The typeface is Helvetica Light which is also supposed to be associated with independence... There are various parts of the design which are exactly the same aspects of design in any corporation which is to convey the quality of its products.

(Academic #11)

Nutley et al. (2007: 71) contend that “presentation is key: research must be attractive... and visually appealing”. It is argued, however, that coding and signalling techniques, move beyond this; they serve as marketing tools which aim to promote a brand image, or a particular ‘take-out’ message about the research output(s) in question; for example its neutrality. As such, effective coding and signalling may serve to enhance the perceived credibility of researcher; an issue identified from the literature review as key in terms of positively affecting the process of knowledge adoption (e.g. Kirst, 2000; Court and Young, 2003; Campbell et al., 2007).

5.3 The modes of communication employed

It is argued that an appropriate choice of method or mode of dissemination is vital to attracting the attention of potential users (Mortimore, 2000). Existing literature indicates that most academic respondents used journal articles as their main mode of communication (e.g. Hillage et al., 1998; Campbell et al., 2007). The majority of academic respondents were of the view that policy-makers, especially politicians, failed to engage with any type of formal research literature. The interview data confirmed this indicating that most policy-makers found such material difficult to digest:

Most academic research published in leading journals is published for other academics because nobody else reads those journals… So the stuff is written for an academic audience, it’s not written really by and large for a general audience and that can be an issue.

(Civil Servant #2)

I think the problem with researchers is that they don’t know how to communicate… often [through] some sort of obtuse academic journals... it is poorly presented.

(Civil Servant #6)

The result, as Campbell et al., (2007) note, being that all but the most relevant and accessible analytical reports are left unread.

Face-to-face communication is generally preferred by policy-makers as an alternative to the use of journals (e.g. see Innvaer et al., 2002). For example, a regular research seminar, held by one Department for Education, was regarded as particularly useful:

At the minute we hold a Ministerial seminar series. And we’ve brought in external academics who’ve been working on a particular topic of interest, to give a seminar of their work.

(Civil Servant #5)

Academics also reflected on the importance of face-to-face communication:

[With face-to-face communication] you have much greater opportunity to explain, to point out the nuances, to point out the subtleties of evidence to me is so important.

(Academic #5)

Increased interaction in order to facilitate face to face communication is also a strategy that has been employed by policymakers (e.g. see Moore et al., 2011). That the interview data suggested face-to-face was also one of the most common modes of communication employed by academics (second only to journals) conflicts, however, with the findings of Paisley (1993) Lavis et al. (2003) and Levin (2004). These authors argue that researchers are currently broadening their
dissemination efforts via more extensive use of websites and are only concentrating to a lesser extent on more active strategies such as researcher/practitioner workshops.

Other modes of communication had been tried and potential ideas suggested by policy-makers. Moore et al., (2011) for example, note attempts involving the use of targeted emails which signpost policy-makers to repositories of research. Of those interviewed, one told of their experiences in the USA, where research reports could be downloaded into ‘iPod’ type formats, this meant that audiences could access a presentation and commentary on the findings whilst away from the office. Generally, alternative forms of communication had not been incorporated into academics’ overall approach to dissemination:

I suppose the other thing that we haven’t exploited at all yet… is things like Facebook, Twitter and all the new models – well, new to me – models of communication that offer lots of possibilities about how you present information.
(Academic #10)

And, overall, discussion by academic researchers on alternative communication types was limited. Given policy-makers’ reactions to the extensive use by academic researchers of formal research literature, alternative forms of mass communication will also be required if academics wish to influence policy-makers; with new media approaches representing a cheaper option to face to face communication.

5.4 The type of discursive style and level of detail that is used

For any mode of communication to be successful, an appropriate discursive style will be required (Lavis et al., 2003; Davies, 2006; Brown, 2009). One policy-maker respondent, in discussing the clearing of research briefs produced by academics, noted:

The last lot, I had to reject three because the summaries were just unintelligible, let alone the main report. So even words like “exogenous”… its not necessarily easy for a non-technical audience to engage with. So writing in really simple [plain English] terms is important.
(Civil Servant #5)

The importance of writing in a way appropriate to the audience was also often both recognised and attended to by academic respondents:

If you are actually trying to address a policy making audience then you have got to do something probably quite different. You have got to accept that the first part of what you present is going to have to be quite short, written in non academic language and is going to have to relate to a current policy issue in some way.
(Academic #7)

Another suggested that when communicating to policy-makers, they too tried to reduce the level of ‘jargon’ employed:

So on the [the respondent’s website] we have summaries that are written in plain English so that non-researchers can understand them.
(Academic #4)

Finally, one academic respondent noted that, in their organisation, specific individuals were employed to transform academic discourse into a language which policy-makers could quickly and easily digest:

We write articles and the… publications person… tries to make that in a more accessible language for policy-makers, politicians and the general public.
(Academic #9)

This function, akin to the ‘translators and processors’ role performed by knowledge brokers (Sin, 2008), was not mentioned by other respondents. It thus appears to be unique as a service, specifically offered by this respondent’s institution/university rather than something provided universally by universities (an international review by Sá et al., 2010,
also notes that only a small number of universities provide this type of assistance).

Likewise, all respondents acknowledged that policy-makers were unlikely to digest significant amounts of detailed information in relation to a specific report or output. In describing the level of detail that should be provided to policy-makers, a number of researcher respondents touched upon the Canadian Health Services Research Foundation’s 1:3:25 model:

We always produce a 1:3:25… if you turned in a 130 page report, apart from a few [government] researchers, nobody would actually read it. Also… we do, as in the Cochrane model, now we give them the two sentence, plain English summary.
(Academic #5)

Both the level of detail and the discursive style employed correspond to the ‘accessibility’ of the message (noted by Campbell et al., 2007, as relating to ‘format’, ‘language’ and ‘length’). That is, these strategies address the need for research findings to be explained in language which is easy to digest and set out in a way that ensures attention is not distracted, or attention spans exceeded (Backer, 1991). In doing so, detail should be concentrated on the things that matter to policy-makers (such as recommendations) rather than the things that matter less within the policy context (for example, extensive detail on methodology, presented at the beginning of a report).

6. Shifting policy-makers’ perceptions as the researcher concerned or the ideas to which their research pertains

Current literature suggests that policy-makers are more likely to engage with research outputs if they are perceived to sit within a wider corpus of socially robust knowledge and/or if the researcher responsible is highly regarded and, as a result, ‘privileged’ by researchers (Gibbons, 1999; Campbell et al., 2007; Brown, 2011). This was affirmed by the interview data: in discussing privilege afforded to researchers by policy-makers, one policy-maker noted: “you want people of prestige and reputation” (Civil Servant #6). One think tank interviewee also suggested that:

You’re judged by the quality of your previous work, if you’ve had the good ideas in the past then people are going to come to you in the future.
(Consultancy/think tank #1)

Both literature and data also illustrated how the level of social robustness of the evidence in question is vital to facilitating knowledge adoption; and the idea that bodies or corpuses of knowledge were more influential than the findings of single studies was also touched upon. For instance, Campbell et al., (2007) note that policy makers seek consensus between studies; one policy-maker interviewed, meanwhile argued that:

[If a] body of research seems to be coming to compelling conclusions over time [then] this is what we should be doing regarding… kids on free school meals or whatever.
(Civil Servant #10)

What was not addressed within the literature reviewed are the specific ways in which researchers might positively affect their reputation, or that of the idea to which their idea pertains. Conversely, interview data indicated that researcher respondents engaged (or noted the need to engage) in a variety of activities in order to enhance these two aspects. One academic involved in the EPPE study, for example, spoke ardently about the importance of such strategies:

Its not just presentational skills and being able to talk to people in an engaging way, its [also] doing all the homework of [preparing the ground].
(Academic #15)

And, as a result:

[EPPE’s messages are] being promulgated into ground that has been prepared already, not just by the people [communicating the message] but also by the networks to which they belong.
(Academic #15)
Another academic noted the need for those who wish to influence policy to build up a level of trust:

And the reason that they’re [those who are successful in influencing policy] so influential is that they, they build up a trust… with various policy-makers, who know that these are people who will either tell them – they’ll tell them something useful that respects the perspective of a policy-maker.

(Academic #13)

As part of the process of developing trust, academic interviewees suggested that potential influencers often engage in behaviours which enable them to “remain connected and to establish a brand for themselves” (Academic #13): for example, by ensuring that they are present at meetings or seminars where it is known politicians will be in attendance. This reflects findings from Moore et al., (2011) which suggests that where policy-makers frequently interact with researchers they are more likely to develop a level of trust with them. It was also suggested by respondents that if academics can develop an association with those already close to politicians, then this may further improve their chances of being privileged and so enhance their potential to influence. In particular, liaison via either teachers’ trade unions or think tanks were viewed as effective entry points in order for researchers to be privileged by politicians in the educational arena.

In a similar vein, a small number of academic researchers described how they would attempt to lobby policy-makers in relation to a particular idea or point of view. These efforts at lobbying were not designed to specifically advocate the findings of one individual study, but to promote the more general idea that educational programmes, whose efficacy had been proven through research, should be considered a ’good thing’. It was suggested that the actual processes involved in such lobbying included: liaison with think tanks who were regarded as having influence; use of high profile figures and the media; face-to-face meetings with policy-makers and a constant ‘social placement’ of the idea:

We meet a lot with think tanks who influence policy. We would be lobbying advisors to the Education Secretary. We would do a lot of writing about it…. We meet often with the people at the DfE. And we keep hammering the idea.

(Academic #4)

These activities are described as ‘contextual’ strategies and are designed to improve the reputation of the researcher or the social robustness of the idea or policy context to which their research pertains. This aim sets them apart from approaches which directly involve any attempt to communicate the findings of a specific project. As a result of such behaviour, academics may see their position vis-à-vis policy-makers improved and will find it easier to affect the adoption of knowledge moving forward. An assessment of the interview data suggests that it is only academics working in a limited number of areas who have or are actively developing contextualising strategies: of those interviewed, it appeared to be predominantly researchers involved on the EPPE study, those involved in Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and Co-ordinating Centre (EPPI-Centre), the (as was) Teaching and Learning Research Programme and those working for the Institute for Effective Education. Since these strategies appear to be successful in enhancing a researcher’s overall position, it is suggested that perhaps academe generally could benefit from adopting them more often.

7. The knowledge adoption strategies that emerged from the data and literature review

In summarising the analysis above, it is apparent that academic researchers have a number of knowledge adoption applications or functions that they are seeking to achieve with their research; policy-makers also have specific requirements for research outputs that need to be met in order that they might adopt them. Policy-makers, for example, require research outputs to be ‘policy ready’; applications on the part of researchers comprise both the use of research to influence policy, and use of research in a ‘traditional sense’: that is, to develop an academic’s career in reaction to incentives put in place by government, Universities or other mechanisms. Likewise, a number of promotion type activities and requirements also emerge: policy-makers expressed a desire for outputs to be communicated simply and presented in ways that are accessible (also see Campbell et al., 2007; Moore et al., 2011). Academics, meanwhile are concerned as to how a given viewpoint or position might be influenced: academics use communication and other strategies to directly promote specific research outputs to policy-makers; promotion also relates to academic’s own standing vis-à-vis policy-makers, or to an idea or wider corpus of knowledge in order to enhance its level of social robustness.

Since these knowledge adoption behaviours and corresponding requirements relate to either application or promotion and are directed at either developing policy or developing academic outputs/an academic’s career, they may be set out as four knowledge adoption strategy types. These are labelled in the following way: academics providing...
outputs which attempt to meet policy-makers’ and politicians’ specific requirements from research (‘policy ready’ strategies); researchers seeking to effectively communicate and/or use effective techniques or channels to promote their research (‘promotional’ strategies); academics engaging in ‘traditional’ academic behaviour (‘traditional’ strategies); academics attempting to shift their relative position with regards to the how ‘privileged’ they are by policy-makers (which affects the ease with which they can access or influence them), or how policy-makers perceive the policy context to which their research pertains (‘contextual’ strategies).

These four strategies are presented below as a matrix that summarise the strategies employed, whilst also providing a visual key as to the nature and purpose of each strategy. The axes of the matrix are determined by the aim of the strategy; promotion or application, and whether this strategy is directed at enhancing the development of policies or aimed at more traditional behaviour:

Figure 1: A matrix of ideal types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development of policy</th>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Promotion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy ready</td>
<td></td>
<td>Promotional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td></td>
<td>Contextual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Aimed at using research for a given purpose
Aimed at changing a given view or position

It should be noted that, whilst presented as ‘ideal types’, these four strategies are not designed to be mutually exclusive; the constituent parts of the matrix simply represent the totality of the strategies that emerge from engaging with the data/literature, rather than any unique set of behaviours. It is thus entirely feasible for a researcher to attempt to seek to provide ‘policy ready’ solutions whilst also developing their career via publication in academic journals etc. It is also argued that some actions may stretch across one or more strategies. For example the processes of “user engagement” (Pollard, 2004; Edwards et al., 2007; Sebba, 2007; Moore et al, 2011; Rickinson et al., 2011) relates to ‘promotional’ strategies (by acting as a way of communicating to policy-makers), ‘policy ready’ strategies (by helping to ensure that a study and its outputs are shaped by the requirements of policy-makers) and ‘contextual’ strategies (by enhancing both the researcher and the topic in the mind of the researcher).

8. Conclusions

This paper has examined how research units and/or researchers, seeking to demonstrate the impact of their work to policy-makers, might begin to facilitate this process via the use of appropriate knowledge strategies. In doing so, it has augmented extant work relating to knowledge adoption and addressed existing knowledge gaps; primarily in terms of its focus (i.e. by addressing the challenges highlighted by Innvaer et al., 2002 and Campbell et al., 2007) and its methodological approach. Also, however, because current work in this area is often regarded as either conceptual in nature or based on professional opinion (see Moore et al., 2011). This augmentation has thus been achieved by providing a suite of strategies that might be used, along with qualitative verbatim examples of how they have successfully employed. Nonetheless further research in this area would also improve upon what has been presented. A quantitative assessment of the efficacy of each of these strategies, for example, may improve researchers confidence in them; a challenge here is the methodological approach that might be employed and conceptual issues as to what is being measured (e.g. Lavis et al., 2003; Moore et al., 2011).

The ability for research units to successfully engage in any of these strategies will, however, be a function of their ability to act. For instance, whether researchers have the capacity to undertake the level of work involved, or the skills required to be able to quickly transform findings into ‘policy ready’ outputs. Nevertheless potential solutions to the capacity issue exist and should be explored. These include, for example: the feasibility of employing knowledge brokers, the potential for more extensive use of partnership working or user engagement with policy counterparts and the possibilities for using alternative forms or means of communication.
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Age and Gender Differences in Study Habits: 
A Framework for Proactive Counselling Against Low Academic Achievement

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Abstract
Poor academic achievement of Nigerian candidates in the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) over the past seven years has been a cause for concern to all stakeholders in education in Nigeria. This study, therefore, sought to project a proactive counselling approach for tackling this academic menace. Two hundred and eighty nine (289) students including prospective May/June 2012 WAEC SSCE candidates attending a Study Skills Improvement Therapy Workshop organized by Firm Family Foundation, an NGO in Nigeria, were used for the study. Their responses to a Study Habits Inventory were analysed on the basis of age and gender using t-test statistics. Results showed significant differences in the study habits of the students on the basis of age and gender. Study habits seem to improve with age and female students reported better study habits than males. This implies that proactive counselling against poor study habits should start at the basic level of education and diligent attention should be given to male students. How target-oriented counselling techniques should be utilized to help students improve their academic achievement was discussed.

Key Words: Study Habits, Age, Gender, Counselling

1. Introduction

There has been a public outcry in Nigeria over the consistent low academic achievement of Nigerian candidates in the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) (Asikhia, 2010; Orintunsin, 2010; Nigerian Elites Forum, 2010; Guardian November 4 (2009), January 28, February 5 (2010); Vanguard, September 19, October 1, (2009); January 28 (2010)). The consistent low academic achievement in the WAEC SSCE could be clearly seen in the percentage of students who obtained grades A1–C6 in English language and Mathematics; the two key core subjects in Nigeria and other West African Countries in which a candidate must obtain credit passes (A1–C6) along with three other relevant subjects to be eligible for admission into higher institutions of learning (Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board [JAMB], (2012). Most candidates who sat for the SSCE from 2005 -

Table 1: Academic Achievement in English and Mathematics at WAEC SSCE from 2005 – 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Month of Exam</th>
<th>% Credit Passes (A1–C6 grades)</th>
<th>% Low Academic Achievement (D7 – F9 grades)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Maths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>May/June</td>
<td>25.36</td>
<td>38.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>34.48</td>
<td>41.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>29.94</td>
<td>46.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>23.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>25.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Nov/Dec</td>
<td>43.06</td>
<td>48.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>May/June</td>
<td>55.34</td>
<td>38.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average % for 7 years</td>
<td>36.17</td>
<td>37.55</td>
<td>36.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Data in Table 1 show the percentages of moderate to high academic achievement represented by Credit passes (A1–C6 grades) and the low academic achievement (D7-F9 grades) in the two key subjects in WAEC SSCE from 2005 to 2011. English and Mathematics are two core subjects in Nigeria and other West African Countries in which a candidate must obtain credit passes (A1-C6) along with three other relevant subjects to be eligible for admission into higher institutions of learning (Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board [JAMB], (2012). Most candidates who sat for the SSCE from 2005 -
2011 failed to meet this criterion. The average % achievement in the two subjects for the seven years (grades A1-C6) is 36.86 while the low achievement (grades D7-F9) is 63.14.

The above background has given rise to research efforts to find strategies for tackling the poor performance of Nigerian candidates in the WAEC SSCE especially given the fact that Nigeria presents the largest number of candidates for the examinations every year in West African sub-region. For example in May/June 2009 examinations 1.3 million Nigerian candidates enrolled (WAEC, 2009). Some recent studies have looked at the roles of teachers and parents in finding solution to the low academic achievement such as Asikhia (2010); Ojerinde, Kolo & Onyeneho (2010) but the counselling perspective has been scarcely explored. The present study has, therefore, narrowed down on age and gender differences in study habits as a basis for adopting a counselling framework for tackling the menace of low academic achievement in secondary school terminal certificate examination conducted by WAEC.

1.1 Conceptual Framework of the Study

This study is hinged on the conceptual framework presented in Figure 1 below.

The conceptual framework presented in Figure 1 portrays proactive counselling as focusing on the age and gender of students; the likely determinants of their study habits with a view to improving academic achievement. Studies have affirmed the strong relationship between study habits and academic achievement. For example, Felipe (2008) and Aluja & Blanch (2007) indicated that students fail examinations because they do not study enough. Fielden (2004); Crede & Kuncel (2008) and Ossai (2011) in their respective studies found strong predictive relationships between study habits and academic performance related variables. The Ossai study investigated study habit as a predictor of students’ examination behaviour especially the tendency to engage in examination malpractices (cheating during examinations). It was found that students who had poor study habits were more likely to engage in examination malpractices and that gender did not significantly moderate this tendency. Conversely, students who scored highly on the study habits inventory seemed to possess more positive examination behaviour and traits related to better academic performance. The framework presented in Figure 1 is based on the coordination and balance that is encapsulated in an archer’s equipment (the bow and arrow) if the target is to be hit accurately. The bow is pulled in such a manner that the arrow flies directly to the target. This requires the right amount of force, balance, positioning, aiming and release of the arrow. The archer must be very skillful, knowledgeable and tactful to achieve his objective. The archer is represented by the proactive counselling and teaching that should be given to the students. The students’ age and gender are presented as the delicate balance in the position of the arrow (study habits) by giving the students the adequate amount of attention required of their age and gender in order for them to concentrate and hit the target (high academic achievement).

In some previous studies, study habits as a variable responsible for superior academic performance or otherwise has been examined vicariously in conjunction with other factors that interface with it to exert tremendous impact on academic achievement. Variables such as age, gender, class or grade level, IQ, parents’ socio-economic status or educational
attainment amongst other environmental and biological or personality factors have been suggested to interplay with study habits to determine academic achievement (Asikhia, 2010; Bagongon & Edpalina, 2009; Robinson, 1994; Aluja & Blanch, 2004; Ossai, 2004a,b; Singh, Muktesh & Snehalata, 2010). Results of studies on study habit as a function of age and gender have been very interesting and illuminating though findings have differed from one study to another. For example, the Aluja & Blanch study found that girls scored higher on a study habits measure whereas the Robinson study reported masculine characteristics as being more strongly related to effective study habits than feminine ones. On the other hand, the studies by Kagu (2003) and Ossai (2004a, b; 2011) found no significant difference in the study habits of male and female students. The age factor seems to have been a more predictable determinant of study habits. Powell (2011), for instance, found that students whose ages were above 23 reported using deeper level study habits more often then younger students. The younger students adopted more of the superficial level of study habits which correlated positively with lower academic performance. Therefore, the present study will analyse the differences in the study habits of students on the basis of their ages and gender with a view to establishing a proactive counselling strategy for prevention of low academic achievement in both WAEC and National Examination Council (NECO) SSCE.

1.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions guided the study:

(i) Do study habits differ according to the age of students?
(ii) Do study habits differ on the basis of students gender?

It was hypothesized that:

(i) There is no significant difference in the study habits of the students on the basis of age.
(ii) There is no significant difference in the study habits of students on the basis of their gender.

2. Research Method

2.1 Design and Sample

The expost-facto descriptive survey design was used in the study. No conscious effort was made to manipulate the variables of study habits, gender and age of the students. Rather 289 secondary school students attending a Study Skill Improvement Therapy Workshop organised by a Non-Governmental Organisation in Nigeria called Firm Family Foundation were used for the study. The researcher was one of the resource persons at the workshop. The sample consisted of students in two age ranges of 12 -15 years and 16 -19 years. 178 of the students belonged to the age range 12 -15 years with mean age of 13.5 years and 111 students were aged 16 -19 years with mean age 17.5 years. The sample further consisted of 151 males and 138 females.

2.2 Instrument

A 20–item Study Habits Inventory adapted from the Virginia State University and Polytechnic (2009) Division of Students Affairs and Cook Counselling Centre Study Skills Checklist was used for the study. The items were modified to suit the Nigerian subjects as well as addition of the 4 –point Likert Scale format. The instrument was revalidated using Cronbach Alpha measure of internal consistency which yielded alpha index of 0.70 for the entire instrument. The instrument covered the following aspects of study habits: Time Scheduling (items 1, 2, 3); Concentration (items 4, 5, 6); Listening and Note-taking (items 7, 8, 9); Reading (items 10, 11, 12, 13, 14); Examination taking skills (15, 16, 17) and Writing Skills (18, 19, 20). The items were structured in such a way that higher scores were indicative of better study habits. The maximum score obtainable for the entire instrument is 80 and the minimum score is 20. The cut-off score between good and poor study habits is 50.

3. Data Analysis and Results

Data presented in Tables 2 and 3 below are used to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses.
Table 2: Independent Samples t-test Analysis for Difference in Study Habits on the basis of Age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Calculated t</th>
<th>Critical t</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12 – 15 years</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>44.99</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>12.17</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>P &lt; 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 19 years</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>58.73</td>
<td>8.02</td>
<td>287</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in Table 2 show significant difference in the study habits of the two age ranges. Therefore, research question one is answered in the affirmative and the first null hypothesis is rejected. There is significant difference in the study habits on the basis of age. Study habits tend to improve with age as indicated by the higher mean performance of the 16 -19years old students. The older students reported better study habits in Time Scheduling, Concentration, Note-taking and Writing Skills.

Table 3: Independent Samples t-test analysis on Male and Female Students’ Study Habits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Calculated t</th>
<th>Critical t</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>53.97</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>P &lt; 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>62.74</td>
<td>9.89</td>
<td>287</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in Table 3 reveal significant difference in the study habits of male and female students. Answer to research question one is in affirmative and null hypothesis two is rejected. The alternative is upheld. The higher mean score for the female students suggests that they have better study habits than the males. The female students showed better study habits in the areas of Time Scheduling, Concentration, Listening, Note-taking and Reading.

4. Discussion of Implications for Proactive Counselling

Guidance and Counselling services are provided in the school system to assist students overcome educational, vocational and personal- social problems (UNESCO, 2000 a & b). One of the essence is to enable students attain their optimum levels of academic achievement. Therefore, the findings of the present study have implications for counsellor’s roles in adopting proactive intervention strategies towards improving academic achievement in secondary schools. The disparity in study habits on the basis of age implies that counseling interventions in study skills should start from the lower levels of education such as the basic education or Primary School. According to the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2004), Primary Education is for children aged 6 to 11 plus. Thereafter, pupils progress to the Junior Secondary School or Upper Basic Education from ages 12 -15 while the Senior Secondary School is from 16 -18. Proactive counselling aimed at improving study habits should be introduced at the early stages of education. This is tandem with the findings of Singh, Muktesh and Sinehalata (2010) that study habits improve with age and class or grade levels in children. However, most study habits are formed before the SSCE level. If a student develops poor study habits in earlier stages of education it will be difficult to change them overnight. Hence, the thrust of the argument being put forward here is that counsellors should start early to lay a foundation for good study habits before the students reach the SSCE level. The reported mean score for the 12 -15years old (44.99) and the 16 -19 years old (58.73) show that most of the students in the two age ranges have poor study habits. Brown (1999), Spivey (2006) and Asikhia (2010) have suggested that the parents of the pupils should be involved by counsellors in laying a solid foundation of good study habits from an early age. Parents could be involved in monitoring and encouraging their children to start utilizing good study habit techniques as early as possible in their life. Brown further suggested that parents who are not proficient in the English Language negatively impact on their children’s academic achievement especially in countries where English language is the medium of instruction in schools. This is a strong indicator of one of the cogent reasons for the poor performance in the English Language itself in Nigeria. Parents of most candidates in the SSCE are not proficient in English language. For most Nigerian parents, English is a language of the Colonial Masters (Britain) and there is a very strong influence of the mother tongue or the pidgin English in the low academic achievement in English language. There are over 250 indigenous languages and ethnic groups in Nigeria. Therefore, school counsellors have a lot of work to do through parent consultation and education classes aimed at improving parenting styles and provision of conducive home environment as well as materials for effective study to be undertaken by their children.

Osadebe (2009: 148) evaluated students’ academic performance in Senior Secondary Schools with counselling
services and found that “the SSCE result of students is an improvement because academic counselling was provided to the students on regular basis”. The Osadebe study affirmed the fact that counselling services in schools help to improve the study habits of students which in turn contribute immensely to improved academic achievement. The Counselling Association of Nigeria [CASSON] (2003) clearly articulated the roles and functions of school counsellors in Nigeria. Amongst these roles is academic counselling which includes study habits therapy. Moreover, Hussain Ch (2006: 35) in an experimental study investigated effects of guidance services on study attitudes, study habits and academic achievement of secondary school students and found that “guidance services have significant effect on the students’ study attitude, study habits and academic achievement”. This implies that effective guidance and counselling in the secondary school will go a long way to change the present ugly situation of low academic achievement in the Senior Secondary Certificate Examinations by WAEC and other examination bodies around the world.

Counselling intervention strategies should also take into cognizance the gender differences in study habits. The present study found that female students are better in Time Scheduling, Concentration, Listening, Note-taking and Reading. This agrees with Singh, Muktesh & Snehalata (2010) study which reported that girls have better study habits than boys. Therefore, individual and group counselling methods should be utilized to help male students as well as female students who have poor study habits to improve. Individual counselling refers to a one-on-one interaction between a counsellor and a client (student) with a view to helping the latter develop good study habits whereas group counselling involves 10 to 15 clients at a time (UNESCO, 2000b; Ossai, 2012). Studies have shown that both methods are effective if appropriately utilized to improve study habits. For example, Yahaya (2005) in a study of effects of group counselling and SQ3R on the study habits of secondary school students in Nigeria found that group counselling on its own and in combination with SQ3R improved the study habits of students. It was inferred that the opportunity for sincere interaction among group members facilitated improvement in study habits. This was corroborated by the Love (2008) research. She examined impact of the then current practices in group counselling on the academic achievement of African American adolescents. She concluded from her analysis of extant literature at that time that academic achievement groups yielded positive results for African American adolescents and that academic achievement begins with youth empowerment. Similarly, Brown (1999) reported a strategy adopted in Wake County, North Carolina schools in the United States of America in which school counsellors were asked to identify 30 students at risk of low academic achievement and develop programmes of counselling activities that will help improve their academic performances. This direct method was found to be very successful in helping students perform better academically. More individualized counselling methods have also been tested and found very effective such as Metacognitive and Motivational Study Strategy by Elliot, McGregor & Gable (1999); Involvement Strategy by Reed, Schallert & Deithloff (2002); and Drawing Construction (Meter, 2001). The Elliot, McGregor & Gable studies tried to ascertain the correlation between academic achievement goals, study strategies and performance in examinations and it was found that students excelled in academic performance when they set performance approach and mastery goals of study for themselves as well as utilize deep processing study strategy. A performance approach goal is one that projects the students’ self-esteem through superior academic performance while mastery goals aim at demonstrating high level internalization and competence in material being studied. Counsellors will also find the involvement study strategy very useful in helping students to achieve better academic performance. Reed, Schallert & Deithloff described this study as attentional operations that lead to psychological engrossment. It is a process of being immersed or involved in what one is studying. The degree of involvement experienced along with other affective and motivational variables that may accompany it, can be a major factor in a student’s level of concentration and assimilation of study material. Drawing Construction strategy requires that students draw pictorial representation of content to be learned. Meter demonstrated that this method can be used effectively with 5th and 6th grade students (elementary school pupils) to improve academic performance. The Meter study was a replication of the Dean & Kulhavey (1981) study which was carried out among college students and it was found that drawing construction study technique facilitated college students post-test performance when learning complex details about a fictitious tribe. Drawing construction study strategies is, therefore, a good study method which could be utilized by school counsellors along with other tested and proven study strategies to help students improve their academic achievement.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Age and gender are significant variables accounting for differences in the study habits of students. Study habits tend to improve with age and female students seem to have better study habits than their male counterparts. Therefore, proactive counselling strategies should be adopted in helping students improve their study habits in order to attain better academic achievement in the Senior School Certificate Examinations conducted by West African Examinations Council.
Towards attainment of this desirable educational standard in Nigeria and other developing and developed countries of the world, the following recommendations are made:

(i) Counselling strategies for prevention of low academic achievement should begin at the Basic Education level;
(ii) Parents should be involved in monitoring students study habits at home and provision of enabling home environment conducive for deep concentration and effective study;
(iii) Students–at-risk of poor academic achievement especially the male students should be identified and direct individual and group counselling approaches should be utilized to help them improve their study habits;
(iv) A wide range of proactive counselling strategies identified in this study along with others should be used by school counsellors to prevent low academic achievement.
(v) Government agencies, individuals and NGOs¹ should collaborate to provide opportunities for seminars and workshops on study skills improvements for students in basic and secondary education.

References


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A Binary Logistic Regression Model for Entrepreneurial Motivation
Among University Students – A UAE Perspective

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Abstract Entrepreneurial motivation has been a subject of numerous studies with the general understanding being that measuring a person’s intent or motivation towards entrepreneurship is the best predictor of it occurring in future. (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011). The present study is conducted to explain the probability of entrepreneurial motivation among university students based on certain extrinsic variables that serve as indicators for the same. Logistic regression is a preferred methodology by researchers of social sciences due to its practical utility, less restrictive assumptions and the use of probabilities for predictions. This study was conducted to develop a probability index for entrepreneurial motivation (EMI) among students pursuing their bachelors program (in varied disciplines) based on variables that serve as indicators for the same. The study explores and examines the relationship between the response variable (Score for entrepreneurial motivation) and the explanatory variables concerning the same. This study results could lead to a better understanding of how entrepreneurial aptitude can be encouraged and honed among students bearing in mind the effect of the predictor variables. The study while providing important theoretical insights to the issue will also help policy makers, academicians and universities in assessing the potential for entrepreneurship in their areas in future.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial motivation, extrinsic variables, education, binary logistic regression, motivational index;

1. Introduction

Companies like GE, IBM, Microsoft, Shell Oil, AT&T, Merck, Johnson & Johnson, Sun Microsystems, Skype, Kodak, Polaroid, HP, and Adobe have in one thing in common—they all were started during an economic downturn, some during the Great Depression (Draper, 2009). Entrepreneurship and its importance to the economy have found resurgence as an aftermath to recession with Draper suggesting that it is the best time for entrepreneurs to start their venture. Realizing the importance of entrepreneurship, almost every economy is creating a more enabling environment for its growth and trying to know the potential for entrepreneurship, especially among the youth during this period. However, each economy has not only to see if they have potential entrepreneurs but also if these potential entrepreneurs are motivated enough to start their new venture.

The present study considers the individual entrepreneur as the locus of entrepreneurship and examines the various factors that affect him to be motivated. While a number of research has been on motivation (Maslow, 1943) (Herzberg, 1964) and entrepreneurial motivation (McClelland D. C., 1961) (McClelland D., 1965), research on extrinsic variables that effect motivation of potential entrepreneurs has not been studied, especially for UAE, the only one found by the authors being a study on value creation through entrepreneurship in UAE (Sikdar & Vel, 2011). This paper will examine the entrepreneurial motivation index (EMI) of potential entrepreneurs in UAE. Subjects are university students as they represent a significant share of the pool of potential entrepreneurs for any country. A two-equation model is developed where one explains the effect that each independent extrinsic variable will have on the probability of motivation and the second, the effect that five of the extrinsic variables would have on probability of motivation.
2. Literature Review

2.1. Entrepreneurship and Economy

The theories of entrepreneurship and its relation to economic growth should be considered from the studies of (Schumpeter, 1934) according to whom the entrepreneurs are involved in ‘creative destruction’ by changing the existing production or the market systems in an economy and creating something new. Thus, the process of creative destruction is built on dynamic, deliberate entrepreneurial efforts to change market structures and create profit opportunities. Based on the concept of creative destruction, Schumpeter formulated his theory of long waves of business cycles and economic growth (UNCTAD, 2005). The entrepreneurs create a ripple in the economy by involving more number of suppliers and customers, thus resulting in growth in economy. Entrepreneurs’ importance has been historically crucial for economic recovery and growth by contributing to job creation and social progression (Davidsson, 1991)

A number of studies (Caree & Thurik, 2003); (Acs, Audretsch, Braunerhjelm, & Carlson, 2004) and (Wennekers, 1999) relate entrepreneurial activity to economic growth . (Wennekers, 1999) study shows a model distinguishing entrepreneurship between three levels of analysis: the individual level, the firm level and the macro level. Entrepreneurs are the sole individual responsible for entrepreneurship activity and hence economic growth. The individual being the locus, his attitudes, motives and perceptions would guide him for the entrepreneurial activity. But the entrepreneur’s activity is also affected by the context of his actions which are greatly influenced by cultural and institutional factors, the business environment and macroeconomic conditions (UNCTAD, 2005). The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) too confirms to these studies as it has been found that every country with entrepreneur activity shows a high economic growth. The government of UAE is also taking up a number of initiatives to develop entrepreneurship as a basis for economic growth. The establishment of Sheikh Rashid Establishment for Young Business Leaders and the Centre of Excellence for Applied Research and Training (CERT) are examples in this direction. In a study (Ramavarman, 2009) it was found that a number of people are keen to take up entrepreneurship as an alternative to Emiritisation and the effects of recession. A number of policies and programs are initiated by the government to develop an entrepreneurial culture in general in UAE. “The UAE will harness the full potential of its National human capital by maximizing the participation of Emiratis, encouraging entrepreneurship, and nurturing home-grown public and private sector leaders while attracting and retaining the best talent”, Vision 2021 (UAEGovernment, 2011)

2.2. Entrepreneurial Motivation

Motivations being a multidimensional framework, entrepreneurs are affected by a variety of factors. Being a complex area, the classification of factors varies among the different authors. McClelland is among the most known scholars who has analyzed the concept of entrepreneurship from a psychological point of view (McClelland D. C., 1961) (McClelland D., 1965). Basically the psychological studies on entrepreneurship concentrate on studying who and why an entrepreneur is an entrepreneur, which is due to the trait or characteristics he may have intrinsically. Emphasizing the importance of the motivational aspect of the entrepreneur, McClelland shows that entrepreneurial behavior is driven by the need for personal achievement leading to a clear thrust towards entrepreneurship. McClelland also suggests that, regardless of variations in economic development, entrepreneurs with high motivation will almost always find ways to maximize economic achievement. The competencies as identified by the author are shown in Figure 1 (McClelland 1961 cited in UNCTAD, 2005).

Figure 1
The intrinsic motivation is also implying the meaning of intention on which several studies have focused. The models on intentional entrepreneurial behavior is dominated by the work of (Ajen, 1991) theory of planned behavior (TPB). Considering intention to be an antecedent to behavior, the model uses a person's attitude toward the act of becoming an entrepreneur, subjective norms, and the person's perception of his self-efficacy to predict the intention to follow an entrepreneurial career. Studies have shown that attitudes explain about 50% of the variance in intentions, and intentions explain approximately 30% of the variance in behavior. (Frazier & Niehm) The TPB has been used by several researchers as a framework to explore attitudes towards Entrepreneurial Intention (Turker & Selcuk, 2009), (Paço, Ferreira, Raposo, Rodrigues, & Dinis, 2011) (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993).

While both these schools of thought link motivation to the behavior, intention and attitudes of the entrepreneur which are intrinsic by their nature, a theory called “Self-Determination Theory” claimed that human behavior can be driven both by internal and external sources of the individual (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In Self-Determination Theory there are different types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action. The most basic distinction is between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as the execution of a task or activity both by internal and external sources of the individual (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Hence despite theorists claiming the intrinsic factors or the inner drive to be the leading motivation factors, (Ryan & Deci, 2000) have shown that this propensity appears to be expressed only under specifiable conditions. (Mak, Sim, Sockel, & Sands, 2011)

2.3. Extrinsic Variables of Motivation

In their study, (Ryan & Deci, 2000) found that extrinsic rewards can in fact decrease intrinsic motivation. The extrinsic rewards could be linked to the threats or opportunities in the environment, and the entrepreneur’s perception of them. The sense of freedom, perception of opportunity would help in increasing the intrinsic motivation because of the sense of autonomy linked to them (Mirabela & Maria Madela, 2011). Reinhold ((Reinholt, 2006)argues that the organizational science literature on motivation has for long been polarized into two main positions; the organizational economic position focusing on extrinsic motivation and the organizational behavior position emphasizing intrinsic motivation. According to her study both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are needed to analyze and understand motivation and behavior in organizations. Mirabela-Constanta,& Maria-Madela(2011) in their study to understand the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and performance among students found both to be equally relevant and also interdependent (Mirabela & Maria Madela, 2011). Extrinsic factors, according to Çınar, O., et al. (2011) could be in the form of external regulations, approval from others in society or education (Çınar, Bektas, & Aslan, 2011). Entrepreneurship scholars ((Bird, 1988);(Shapero, 1982) (Mueller, Thomas, & Jaeger, 2002)) have theorized that an array of external factors such as the social, political, and economic context of a region or country influence entrepreneurial intentions and subsequent nascent behavior.

The authors (Biju & Vardhan, 2011) in their previous study had taken into account both extrinsic and intrinsic variables to understand the entrepreneurial motivational drivers. The present study in the same direction however, considers the probability of entrepreneurial motivation among graduate students in relation to extrinsic factors through development of a model based on extrinsic variables. To the various external variables listed in a number of studies could also be added the effect of education on entrepreneurial motivation, the role of gender, whether the potential entrepreneur has a family background in business, , the perception of UAE market conditions ,and lastly if the potential entrepreneur is aware of the opportunities and risks of entrepreneurship.

2.3.1. Role of gender

Motivation factors have been studied by a number of researches basing on the role of gender (Okafor & Amalu, 2010). The studies reveal different empirical results by different researches. Studies indicate that among the would-be entrepreneurs the goals and motivations differ significantly between the males and the females (Wilson, Marlino, & Kickul, 2004). The study by Wilson reveals that teen boys interested in entrepreneurship are significantly more motivated by autonomy than girls with the same career interest. (Kourilsky & Walstad, 1998)found gender differences for interest in entrepreneurship among teens, with girls responding less positively than boys (Kourilsky & Walstad, 1998). While in their study (Mirabela & Maria Madela, 2011) and Burke (2002) found no significant differences between male students and female students in terms of their motivation towards entrepreneurship, the percentage of men who were intrinsically motivated were higher than that of women, (Cromie, 1987) suggests that both the genders possess similar intrinsic traits for successful entrepreneurial behavior. Using a multiple paradigm approach, Kirkwood found that in terms of gender,
women did not have underlying desires to start a business and therefore were not as motivated as men were by pull factors (Kirkwood, 2007).

In all these studies it was found that girls in general place more importance to social factors than the boys who place more emphasis on the independence and money as their motives for starting their own business. The reason behind the differences in gender is due to the challenges that women face (Okafor & Amalu, 2010). Kantor rightly argued that women often experience greater constraints on their economic actions relative to men (Kantor, 1999). Mayoux also noted that even though there may be opportunities available, women cannot take advantage of them, due to the limitations of social and cultural norms (Mayoux, 2001).

2.3.2 Education

Knowledge and its acquiring through formal education have been a topic for debate for entrepreneurial motivation. Entrepreneurial knowledge specifically in the areas of marketing, finance and management greatly increased the self-efficacy and intentions of the students has been found in some studies (Lussier & Pfeifer, 2001; and Wilson, Marlino, & Kickul, 2004) where entrepreneur with higher education level, industrial and managerial experience, and business exposure have greater chance of succeeding in their business as they would be better able to cope with the complexities. The authors while acknowledging the role of education through universities for the entrepreneurs, also considers the knowledge provided by role models and society in general. Further they suggest that universities should adapt their curricula to increase interest among teens and empower the future entrepreneurs.

2.3.3 Family Background

An important variable for would be entrepreneurs is the background of the family they come from. This provides them with an early social network for the potential entrepreneur to learn the social and cultural norms of a business. A study (Sequeira, Meuller, & McGee, 2007) especially dealt with the social network which provides the fundamental resources necessary for starting a business- this includes friends, family and relatives. In his model he offers hypotheses and tests it for the relationship between intentions, nascent behavior and personal network ties. A social network is made up of persons to whom the individual primarily relates on a social level. Such individuals include family, friends or acquaintances (Szarka, 1990). The structure of a social network may be characterized in several ways. While Sequeira, Mueller & McGee considers the entire social network with different categorizations and structures for his study, we limit our research only to the influence that family background in business will have on future entrepreneurship. "A generally held belief is that the information needed to start a business is passed to the small business owner through an existing social network of friends and acquaintances". (O'Donnell, Gilmore, Cummins, & Carson, 2001). The authors in their study also argue how the personal ties, strong and supportive network can affect the entrepreneurial intention.

2.3.4 Opportunities and Risk Perception

A basic assumption of the entrepreneurial characteristics is that the entrepreneurs are driven by achievement motivation and gain success by exploiting an opportunity. Distinguishing between opportunistic and necessity entrepreneurs (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011) consider that though the intention of the entrepreneur and the pursuit of the recognized opportunity are critical, it still requires motivation to drive those intentions or exploit those opportunities. Commercially oriented entrepreneurs are working to earn money, power, prestige, and/or status, but these might not be the only motivations. In contrast the necessity entrepreneurship could inhibit opportunistic entrepreneurship rather than foster it. (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011)

Studies have also invariably ascertained the fact that entrepreneurs had a greater propensity for risk taking than managers (Carland, Carland, Carland, & Pearce, 1995). Relating the entrepreneurs’ perceptions of the current recession, the researchers found in their study that it is related and dependent upon the context and the wider social structures that might facilitate or hinder their functioning (Papaiokonou, Segarra, & Li, 2012). The perception of opportunity and risk is widely dependent on the government policies, competition, investor opportunities and on the basis of those perceptions, opportunities are identified and strategies are shaped (Kitching, Smallbone, & Athayde, 2009) which takes us more directly to the specific context of our research, the perception of the UAE market.
2.3.5 UAE Market

A recent study by Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM, 2009) on the entrepreneurial activities in the UAE has placed the UAE in an advanced position on the "Entrepreneurial Environment Scoreboard", rating it as one of the most supportive environments for entrepreneurial activities. Market of different economies has been researched by various studies. Mueller (2002) for example identified three environmental factors that could affect entrepreneurial intention in transition countries-culture, religion and level of economic development. In the study comprising 17 transition economies, the differences in entrepreneurial potential were found to be more because of economic development of a country and not its culture or religion. Studies on entrepreneurs in Japan, (Rahman, 2011), Philippines (Uy, 2011) and India (LavanyaLatha & Murthy) each refer to the economic factors, government support or availability of capital as factors affecting entrepreneurship. Taormina (2007) examines the psychological as well as environment characteristics that might influence entrepreneurship in China and realizes that regional economic growth does not only depend on the individual and collective efforts of entrepreneurs, but also on the support they receive from institutions (Taormina & LAo, 2007). A recent study (Papaoikonomou, Segarra, & Li, 2012) also suggest that new entrepreneurial firms also seek these facilities from the economy: credit facility, training centers, infrastructure, banking facilities. The UAE has successfully established itself as an attractive destination for entrepreneurs. In the UAE, three-quarters of young respondents say that their communities are good places to live for entrepreneurs forming new businesses. Such perceptions are similar to those expressed by young respondents in the U.S. (73%) and the U.K. (71%).

Dubai’s status as an emerging market makes it an ideal place for entrepreneurship. The Dubai government strongly supports entrepreneurs through the Mohammed Bin Rashid Establishment for Young Business Leaders and the Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum Foundation. Both of these organizations seek to motivate young Arab leaders to become integral parts of their region’s economy (www.dubai.ae). Also, the Centre of Excellence for Applied Research and Training (CERT), which started in 1996 as the commercial arm of the Higher Colleges of Technology (HCT), is now the largest private education provider in the Middle East and also the largest MENA (Middle East North Africa) investor in the discovery and commercialization of technology. CERT is just one example of the exceptional work being done to advance entrepreneurship in the region.

3. Model of Entrepreneurial Motivation

3.1 Survey & Variable description

This study was conducted to develop a probability index for entrepreneurial motivation (EMI) among students pursuing their bachelors program (in varied disciplines) based on extrinsic variables that serve as indicators for the same. The study explores and examines the relationship between the response variable (Score for entrepreneurial motivation) and the explanatory variables concerning the same. This study results could lead to a better understanding of how entrepreneurial aptitude can be encouraged and honed among students bearing in mind the effect of the predictor variables. 290 questionnaires were self administered to under graduate and post graduate students pursuing their studies in the UAE, chosen through convenient sampling. With a response rate of 82%, 238 fully responded forms were received.

The latent variable which is the observed response variable is a sum total of 10 response indicative of the student’s entrepreneurial motivation. Students responded to each statement in the construct according to whether they show strong agreement (5) to little/no agreement (1). The total of observed values in this construct hence ranges between 10 and 50. The responses were transformed into the response variable (Y) indicative of two categories of High and Low scores. Based on the review findings, six explanatory variables have been used in the model. The potential explanatory variables that are to be included in the model were examined through literature reviews. Responses to queries on Ownership of Business by family (X1) and Gender(X2) are dichotomous in nature. Each of the remaining explanatory variable is a cumulative of a set of indicative questions; the responses of which are on a scale of 1(little or no agreement) to 5 (strong agreement). To suit the logistic regression model, these responses were further dichotomized into two categories of high/low (Table 1)
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>Variable description</th>
<th>Nature of the variable</th>
<th>Response/Variable value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EMI &amp; Y</td>
<td>Motivation for entrepreneurship (10 indicator statements)</td>
<td>Continuous between 10 and 50. Dichotomous after categorizing</td>
<td>Sum of responses range between 10 and 50; A score less than 30 indicates ‘low = 0’ and that more than or equal to 30 is ‘high = 1’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X1</td>
<td>Family Owns a business</td>
<td>Dichotomous</td>
<td>Yes = 1/ No = 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X2</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Dichotomous</td>
<td>Male = 1 / Female = 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X3</td>
<td>Education for entrepreneurship (19 indicator statements)</td>
<td>Continuous between 19 and 85. Categorical after classifying</td>
<td>Sum of Responses range between 19 and 85; Categorized on a scale of 1 (least agreement) to 5 (highest agreement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X4</td>
<td>Perception about the UAE market (10 indicator statements)</td>
<td>Continuous between 10 and 50. Categorical after classifying</td>
<td>Sum of responses range between 10 and 50; Categorized on a scale of 1 (least agreement) to 5 (highest agreement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X5</td>
<td>Opportunity and Risk awareness (10 indicator statements)</td>
<td>Continuous between 10 and 50. Categorical after classifying</td>
<td>Sum of responses range between 10 and 50; Categorized on a scale of 1 (least agreement) to 5 (highest agreement)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questionnaire is a re-designed version of one previously used (Biju & Vardhan, 2011) in a study by the authors.

3.2 Theoretical background of Binary Logistic regression (Tarling, 2009) (Healy M, 2006)

Regression analysis is a multivariate statistical methodology to investigate cause and effect associations. Linear regression models are developed on the assumptions that the response variables are continuous in nature and also that the underlying distribution of the variable is Gaussian. Logistic regression resolves the inconsistencies associated with these assumptions and that of ordinary sum of squares regression methods. With logistic regression the response variable is an indicator of some (binary) characteristic. Based on the logit transformation of the dependent variable, the binary logistic regression model quantifies the ‘odds’ of the occurrence of an event. The outcome probabilities for each dependent variable value are the basis of the model.

Let \( \pi \) be the probability of the occurrence of an event, then \( 1 - \pi \) is the probability of its non-occurrence. Thus the odds of the event is given by

\[
\text{odds} = \frac{\pi}{1 - \pi}.
\]  (1)

The logit function based on a single predictor variable is defined as

\[
\log \left( \frac{\pi}{1 - \pi} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x
\]  (2)

The general linear logistic model can be now written as

\[
\log \text{it} \pi_j = \log \left( \frac{\pi_j}{1 - \pi_j} \right) = X_j^T \beta
\]  (3)

\[
\pi_j = \frac{e^{X_j^T \beta}}{1 + e^{X_j^T \beta}}
\]  (4)

Where \( X \) is a vector of measurements corresponding to covariates and dummy variables corresponding to factor levels. The independent variables may be dichotomous, categorical or continuous. The MLEs of the estimates of the parameters \( \beta \) and consequently \( \pi_j \) are obtained by maximizing the log-likelihood function. The use of binary logistic regression model here is to evaluate the probability of a high index for entrepreneurial motivation based on a set of explanatory variables (all dichotomous in nature, i.e. to estimate \( P(Y = 1 / \hat{X}) \) where \( \hat{X} \) is the known vector of explanatory variables.
4. Data Analysis

4.1 Descriptive statistics

The response group consisted of 125 (52.5%) female respondents and 113 (47.5%) male respondents. 140 (58.8%) of them responded by saying that they or their parent did not own any business while 98 (41.2%) of the respondents were affirmative of the fact that their family owned a business. Based on the bifurcation 162 (68.1%) respondents indicated a high response score to the motivation construct. 188 (79%) of them agreed or strongly agreed to education playing a catalyst to entrepreneurial motivation. 102 (42.9%) of the respondents showed a high agreement to their perceptions of the UAE market. SPSS version 15.0.1 was used for the analysis.

![Figure 2](image)

4.2 Model building

A step-by-step development of the model is illustrated in this study. Models have been developed in two forms:

A: Motivation index as a function of single predictors
B: A multivariate binary logistic model for motivation index

4.2.1. The individual logistic regression lines using each indicator as a single predictor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A1: X1 – Family Business</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variables in the Equation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: X1_Family_Business.

Interpretation: From the predicted model the probability of an event can be estimated as in equation (4). The predictor variable X1 has only two levels (Coded 0 and 1);

If the respondent does not come from a family with a business background then X1=0; and the model will have a score

\[ \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 = 0.376 + (1.049 \times 0) = 0.376 \]

Thus the predicted probability \( P(Y=1 \text{ given } X1=0) \)

\[ \pi_{(y=1/x_1=0)} = \frac{e^{0.376}}{1 + e^{0.376}} = 0.5929 \]
Alternatively at $X_1=1$ the model will have a score 
\[
\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 = 0.376 + (1.049 \times 1) = 1.425
\]
(7)

The predicted probability 
\[
\pi_{(y=1/X_1=1)} = \frac{e^{1.425}}{1 + e^{1.425}} = 0.8061
\]
(8)

Further 
\[
\pi_{(y=0/X_1=0)} = 1 - 0.5929 = 0.4071; \quad \pi_{(y=1/X_1=1)} = 1 - 0.8061 = 0.1939
\]

\[
\frac{odds(y=1/x=0)}{0.5929} = \frac{0.5929}{0.4071} = 1.4564 \quad \& \quad \frac{odds(y=1/x=1)}{0.7286} = \frac{0.7286}{0.2714} = 4.1573
\]
\[
\therefore OR = \frac{4.1573}{1.4564} = 2.8545
\]
(9)

The value of OR is reflected in exp(B) in Table 2. The analysis also shows that $X_1$ is significant ($p<0.05$). A student who hails from a business oriented family background ($X_1=1$) increases the odds of $Y$ being rated 1 by 2.8545. The odds of a high index for Entrepreneurial Motivation are 185.45% times higher for a student from a business oriented family. (The results of the remaining 4 variables have been summarized in Table 7)

Table 3

A2: X2 - Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1a X2_Gender</td>
<td>.477</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>2.850</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>1.611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td>8.503</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>1.717</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: X2_Gender.

Table 4

A3: X3 – Education for entrepreneurship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1a X3_edu</td>
<td>2.124</td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>35.688</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>8.366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-.847</td>
<td>.309</td>
<td>7.538</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.429</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: X3_edu.

Table 5

A4: X4 – Perception about UAE market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1a X4_UAE</td>
<td>1.148</td>
<td>.308</td>
<td>13.890</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.326</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>3.527</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>1.386</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: X4_UAE.
Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A5 : X5 - Awareness of opportunities and risks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X5_risks_op 1.482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant -.236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: X5_risks_op.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor variable</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>log(π/(1−π))=β0+β1X</th>
<th>π = eβ0+β1X/1+eβ0+β1X</th>
<th>1−π</th>
<th>odds(y=1/x)</th>
<th>OR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>(7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X1 Family owns Business</td>
<td>X=0 NO 0.376</td>
<td>0.5929</td>
<td>0.4071</td>
<td>1.4564</td>
<td>2.955</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X=1 YES 1.425</td>
<td>0.8061</td>
<td>0.1939</td>
<td>4.1573</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X2 Gender</td>
<td>X=0 FEMALE 0.541</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td>0.368</td>
<td>1.7174</td>
<td>1.611</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X=1 MALE 1.081</td>
<td>0.7346</td>
<td>0.2654</td>
<td>2.7679</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X3 Education for Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>X=0 LOW Score -0.847</td>
<td>0.3001</td>
<td>0.6999</td>
<td>0.4288</td>
<td>8.361</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X=1 HIGH Score 1.277</td>
<td>0.7819</td>
<td>0.2181</td>
<td>3.585</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X4 UAE perception</td>
<td>X=0 LOW Score 0.326</td>
<td>0.5808</td>
<td>0.4192</td>
<td>1.3855</td>
<td>3.152</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X=1 HIGH Score 1.474</td>
<td>0.8137</td>
<td>0.1863</td>
<td>4.3669</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X5 Risk and opportunity awareness</td>
<td>X=0 LOW Score -0.236</td>
<td>0.4413</td>
<td>0.5587</td>
<td>0.7898</td>
<td>4.400</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X=1 HIGH Score 1.246</td>
<td>0.7766</td>
<td>0.2234</td>
<td>3.4737</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Beta coefficient insignificant at 5% los (p>0.05) - (refer Table 3)

4.2.4 A single model based on all indicators:

The SPSS output is as follows:

Table 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables in the Equation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X1_Family_Business 983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X2_Gender 995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X3_edu 2.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X4_UAE 421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X5_risks_op 1.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant -2.871</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen in Table 8, all explanatory variables except that of X4 (p>0.05) are significantly different from zero. Dropping the same from the model we have the following output table:

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables in the Equation</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1* X1_Family_Business</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td>8.157</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>2.835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X2_Gender</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>.357</td>
<td>7.334</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>2.626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X3_edu</td>
<td>2.409</td>
<td>.420</td>
<td>32.899</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>11.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X4_UAE</td>
<td>1.455</td>
<td>.357</td>
<td>16.630</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X5_risks_opp</td>
<td>-2.859</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td>27.754</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.057</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen, the Beta values of all the regressor variables are significantly different from zero (p<0.05). Education for entrepreneurship shows the greatest impact for a high motivation for entrepreneurship (the odds are 11.1 times greater with respect to students who do not derive from education). A strong awareness of the risks and opportunities of an entrepreneur increases the odds of a high entrepreneurial motivation to 4.286. Table 10 shows the probabilities of a high motivational index for the various (combination) values of the explanatory variables:

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>X1</th>
<th>X2</th>
<th>X3</th>
<th>X5</th>
<th>\log \left( \frac{\pi}{1-\pi} \right) = X^T \beta</th>
<th>\pi = \frac{e^{X^T \beta}}{1 + e^{X^T \beta}} = P(y = 1 / \tilde{x})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-2.859</td>
<td>0.0542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1.404</td>
<td>0.1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>0.3894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.005</td>
<td>0.7320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.893</td>
<td>0.1309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.438</td>
<td>0.3922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>0.6262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.971</td>
<td>0.8777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.817</td>
<td>0.1398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.362</td>
<td>0.4105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td>0.6438</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Results and Discussion

When treated in isolation all except Gender (p>0.05; refer Table 3) show significant effect on the response variable. The Exp(B) column of each table (Table 2 to Table 6) is used to infer about the effect of a high rating of the predictor variable for a high rating of the response variable as is also reflected in column 7 of Table 7. Family ties and supportive network as Sequeria’s study points out can affect entrepreneurial intention (Sequeira, Mueller, & McGee, 2007). The model suggests that students from business oriented families have a 1.8545 chance of being highly motivated, this when the model is based on this single variable (Table 2). This chance is almost the same (1.835) when considered in a full model with all explanatory variables (Table 9). There is a 3.4 greater chance for students who are strongly aware of the risks and opportunities for an entrepreneur to show a high probability for entrepreneurial motivation.

Mayoux and Kanto in their respective studies have argued about the constraints women experience in their economic activities relative to men (Kanto, 1999) (Mayoux, 2001). The results of this study reiterate these findings in a rather different perspective. With the effect of all influencing variables in the model, there is an apparent effect due to gender. Being male increases the chances for high motivation index 1.626. However, keeping all other factors as non-existent, gender shows no significant effect (Table 3). The model suggests Education has the maximum effect. Students who agree that education acts a catalyst for honing entrepreneurial abilities and also seek the same have a 7.36 times greater chance of being motivated. This effect is even higher as reflected in the full model with 10.126 higher chances for a high motivation index (Table 9). An awareness of the opportunities and risk is undoubtedly essential and as studied by Carsrud et. al is reiterated in the model (Table 6). Students who perceive themselves as well informed of this criteria show a 3.4 times greater chance of being highly motivated. In the full model this chance is 3.286 times higher than those who are not aware of the risks and opportunities (Table 9). Knowing the economy and its dynamism is imperative for budding entrepreneurs. The study showed Students who are more aware of the UAE market and have strong perceptions of the same have a 2.15 greater chance of being highly motivated (Table 5). However, statistically this variable was insignificant (p>0.05) when considered in a full model and so was included in the final model (Table 9). Could this mean that although the students are not quite aware of the market they do nurture the same level of motivation to being an entrepreneur? A study in this regard can follow this article.

6. Conclusion

This paper essentially is a reiteration of the importance of select extrinsic variables on entrepreneurial motivation among students. This is further justified by the use of a Binary logistic regression model to quantify the effect of these variables in expecting a high Entrepreneurial Motivation Index (EMI). Family owning business, Gender, Education for entrepreneurship, Opportunity and risk awareness and Perception of the UAE market were identified as the five extrinsic variables. The response variable Y is a transformed variable from a score cumulative. Y takes a value 1 if the motivation score is high and 0 otherwise. Two parallel models were established. Models based on single variables showed all the variables to be statistically significant except that of Gender. This implying that putting all other effects aside, women and men students is equally motivated! Alternatively, in a full model, the perception of the UAE market showed statistical insignificance. It is hoped that the study would be of help to policy makers and academicians to understand the Entrepreneurial motivation index in their areas particularly in these times of challenging economic environment.

While researchers and EFL teachers in several countries have discussed a great deal on the topics of learners’ characteristic differences in learning English, and language learning styles have been one of the most popular aspects researchers have focused on; little attention has paid to this field in Vietnam. Up to now, only a few studies have been found. Some researchers such as Nguyen (1989), Dao (1982), and Le (1982) in their studies referred to learning strategies in general. Le (1999) studied the differences in language learning strategies of learners of English in Hue City and Nguyen (2005) investigated the different reading style preferences of the ESP students at Ton Duc Thang University. In other words, in Vietnam, the field of perceptual learning style preferences in language learning has been ignored in the learning process. The majority of the teachers are unaware of their students’ learning styles. They are also unaware of the importance to identify learning styles. Thus, there is a need to assess the learning styles of the students as well as
other relevant variables such as gender, age, language experience, or English proficiency to accommodate different learners.

This study aims to explore students’ perceptual learning style preferences as well as whether any linkages between language learning styles and such variables as field of study, study length, gender, age, language learning experience, and English proficiency level subsist.

References


Further references will be provided on request.
Development of Environmental Education Trainer through PAIC Process

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Abstract

The objective of this research was to develop a prototype of environmental education trainer for undergraduate students of Mahasarakham University. The sample was selected by purposive sampling technique. Instruments composed of knowledge of trainer characteristics, public mind behavior, inspiration and environmental education trainer characteristics. One-Way-ANOVA and t-test was used for data analysis. The process for training of the trainer (TOT) was implemented with Participatory Appreciate-Influence-Control technique (PAIC) integrating with SWOT Analysis in the training process. The action plan formulations and project practices were evaluated with Participatory Performance, Assessment, Monitoring, Evaluation, and Impact (PAMEI). The results illustrated that after PAIC process implemented, the mean scores of posttest of knowledge of trainer characteristics, public mind behavior, inspiration and environmental education trainer characteristics were higher than pretest with statistical significance (p<.01, p<.01, p<.05, and p<.05). The Three Dimensional Evaluation was used to evaluate the participation of participant, the finding revealed that the mean scores of Friend Evaluation and Facilitator Evaluation showed no statistical difference (p>.05) but mean scores between Self-Evaluation and Friend-Evaluation, and between Self-Evaluation and Facilitator-Evaluation showed statistically difference (p<.01 and p<.05). The mean scores of both Friend-Evaluation and Facilitator-Evaluation were higher than Self-Evaluation. This indicated that the participants evaluated themselves lower than friend and facilitator because they are humble persons that are general style of Thai.

Key words: Environmental Education Trainer / PAIC Process

1. Introduction

The United Nations’ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) at the Paris Conference issued its Four Assessment Report, strengthening its conclusions about climate change and human behavior, reported that there is a new and stronger evidence that most of the warming observed over the last 50 years is attributable to human activities. Presently, it is clearly conclusion that the globe has been warming with the rate approximately 0.2°C per 10 years or 1 decade and this rate has increased in the future continuously (Environmental Journal, 2007).

Thailand was also accounted at the 23 order of world that released the gas carbon dioxide with 277.51 million ton
per year. It was calculated that Thailand was in the list of countries by carbon dioxide emissions per capita in 2007 with 4.1 ton (Wikipedia, 2010).

Even through in the past, Thailand had promoted, had maintained environmental quality and had tried to solve the environmental problem, but there was only governmental sector that took an important role without the participation of all sectors, particularly, the popular participation. However, the main causes, the people are lacking of knowledge and understanding, consciousness and attitude to practice themselves toward environment with the realization of their importance to take responsibilities for natural resources and environmental conservation (Thiengkamol, 2010a). Therefore, all sectors of Thai society must turn their interesting to collaborate alleviating the global problem such as global warming, which is the hot issue that global population has taken a notice to this problem including Thai people too. The way of living of humans depended on the other living things so all of them are interdependent each other, so it is impossible to live with regarding to only them but they must take the responsibility for society as a whole. Therefore the social development can grow further, it needs to build the public consciousness to act others or society or public being increasingly since at present society is a high competition. The materialism of present society was a push pressures for people to be more selfish and to take more advantage from the others without concerning to the others. Therefore, the serious and continuous changing on behavior and consciousness, the governmental sector had set a measurement of national education management that “one of goals of education management is to make the learner to have the moral and social responsibilities in order to make him to be a good member and trainer for community and society as Thai citizen and global citizen (Office of Secretary of Educational Council, 2005).

For the undergraduate students of Faculty of environment and Resource Studies, Mahasarakham University, they must take important roles in the future to be a leader in the aspect of environment and natural resources conservation that are congruent to the roles and functions for taking responsibility for Thai society in order to accomplish the philosophy that of faculty that “The intelligent student should be a leader and living with environmental friend”. Therefore, they should have ideal to be congruent to those roles and burdens in the future, then it needs to introduce the environmental education process to develop and create the public consciousness with the ideal to devote themselves for society in aspect of environment and natural resources conservation through the PAIC technique integrating with SWOT Analysis and focus group discussion during the training process. This participatory training technique will be able to stimulate their inspiration to have public consciousness to change their awareness, attitude, and practice because during the implementation of PAIC training, they have a chance to participate by brain storming to create a imagine and creating ideas across the training process through different activities such as presentations of their project proposed in the focus group discussion and role play as trainer for environment and natural resources conservation. PAIC composes different features that are similar to environmental education process such as PAIC stimulating voluntary mind, public mind and behavior of the participants on environment and natural resources conservation and PAIC stimulating the participants about the sensitivity, skill, and responsibility to work together in focus group discussion including raising awareness on facing environmental problem (Thiengkamol, 2005b; Thiengkamol, 2008; Thiengkamol, 2010b). They should take responsibility as environmental education leader in the future, so they should have truly environment knowledge and understanding with solving problem and making decision properly including correctly attitude and sensitivity to perceive environmental problem. Moreover, they should practice to gain more skill to regularly perform activities in the daily life until it becomes the permanent behavior in their lives. Nevertheless, they should be able to transfer their knowledge and understanding for environmental conservation to their families and societies through the practice and behavior in terms of proper model because PAIC training technique is able to adjust the participant to freely create the imagination and thinking from the process of participate in the focus group discussion and brain storming process (Thiengkamol, 2005b). The brain storming principle is introduced widely in the various work of innovation creation.

2. Research Objective

The objective of this research was to develop a prototype of environmental education trainer for undergraduate students of Mahasarakham University.

3. Methodology

The research design was implemented in steps by step as follows:

2) The research tools composed of test, questionnaire and evaluation form. The test was used for determining their knowledge of trainer characteristics, and questionnaire was used for determining public mind behavior, inspiration and environmental education trainer characteristics.

3) The evaluation form of Three Dimensional was constructed to assess the participant practice during PAIC implemented.

4) The undergraduate students of Faculty of Environment and Resource Studies were selected with purposive sampling from the undergraduate student, Mahasarakham University. They would be recruited according to the setting criteria (willingness, time, devotion, commitment, and public mind).

5) The 30 participants were employed for testing of knowledge of trainer characteristics, public mind behavior, inspiration and environmental education trainer characteristics. The systematic operation of 30 participants was trained with Participatory-Appreciate-Influence-Control (PAIC). The focus group discussion included brain storming and SWOT (Strength-Weakness-Opportunity-Threat) analysis (Langly, 1998; Weiss, 1993; Sproull, 1988; Thiengkamol, 2005b).

6) The Pretest-Posttest One Group Design was used to test for before and after training process with Participatory-Appreciate-Influence-Control (PAIC). Additionally, the Three Dimensional Evaluation (TDE) was used to determine the congruence of three aspects evaluation; Self-evaluation, Friend-evaluation, and Facilitator-evaluation for training participation (Thiengkamol, 2004; Thiengkamol, 2005b; Thiengkamol, 2008b).

7) PAMEI technique was employed for identify the performance, assessment, monitoring, evaluating for participants performance of undergraduate student of Mahasarakham University as the environmental education trainer for alleviating global warming (Thiengkamol, 2004; Thiengkamol, 2005a; Thiengkamol, 2008).

4. Results

4.1 General Characteristics of Sample Group

The sample group of this study was 30 undergraduate students that were selected by purposive sampling technique from Faculty of Environment and Natural Resources Studies, Mahasarakham University in the academic year of 2010. Most of them were female with 76.67%, all of them were third year student of Program Environment and Natural Resources Management with 100%, and they lived at dormitory with 76.67% as shown in table 1.

Table 1 Characteristics of Undergraduate Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Undergraduate Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Year</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Year</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Year</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Year</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Education</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Management</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Technology</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live at</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dormitory</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent House</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Results of Pretest and Posttest with PAIC technique

PAIC technique was implemented for undergraduate students on the concept development of environmental education trainer for alleviating global warming based on knowledge of trainer characteristics, public mind behavior, inspiration and environmental education trainer characteristics contents.

The research results illustrated that before and after PAIC process implemented, the mean scores of posttest of
knowledge of trainer characteristics, public mind behavior, inspiration and environmental education trainer characteristics were higher than pretest with statistical significance ($p<.01$, $p<.01$, $p<.05$, and $p<.05$) as presented in table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Issues</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\bar{x}$</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>$\bar{x}$</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Trainer Characteristics</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>8.95</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Mind Behavior</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>9.60</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiration of Environmental Conservation</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>9.50</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Educator Characteristics</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>12.45</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Achievement</td>
<td>35.15</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>40.50</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant Level at .05; ** Significant Level at .01

4.3 Results of Three Dimensional Evaluations for Participation

Three Dimensional Evaluations were employed for determination the perceptions of 30 undergraduate students in three aspects evaluation; Self-evaluation, Friend-evaluation, and Facilitator-evaluation by using One-way ANOVA in order to investigate the mean scores difference of three group during focus group discussion. The results of One-way ANOVA showed that there were different of mean scores about participation in training process through brain storming with statistical significance ($p<.01$) as illustrated in table 3. This meant that the perceptions of student on himself, his friend in the group and his facilitator were highly different for their participation during the focus group discussion during training process as showed in table 3.

Table 3 Three Dimensional Evaluations for Participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Group</td>
<td>133.433</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66.717</td>
<td>13.079</td>
<td>.000$^*$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>290.750</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>5.101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>424.183</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>5.101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant Level at .01

The Three Dimensional Evaluation was used to evaluate the participation of participant, the finding revealed that the mean scores of Friend Evaluation and Facilitator Evaluation showed no statistical difference ($p>.05$) but mean scores between Self-Evaluation and Friend-Evaluation, and between Self-Evaluation and Facilitator-Evaluation showed statistical difference ($p<.01$ and $p<.05$) as illustrated in table 4. The mean scores of both Friend-Evaluation and Facilitator-Evaluation were higher than Self-Evaluation as presented in table 4.
Table 4. Each Pair Comparisons among Self-Evaluation, Friend Evaluation and Facilitator Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>Self-Evaluation</th>
<th>Facilitator Evaluation</th>
<th>Friend Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\bar{x}$</td>
<td>19.85</td>
<td>21.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Evaluation</td>
<td>19.85</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-1.950 (.030*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator Evaluation</td>
<td>21.80</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant Level at .01 and * Significant Level at .05

4. Results of Four Dimensional Evaluations for Trainer Role Play

Four Dimensional Evaluations (FDE) included trainer self-evaluation, trainer friend evaluation, audience evaluation, and expert trainer evaluation. It was used for trainer role play evaluation of 10 selected undergraduates who had top ten scores for posttest scores. They were selected to play a role as trainer. After they played as trainers, they were evaluated by FDE, One Way ANOVA was employed to investigate the mean scores of four groups. The results showed that there were no different mean score on role play as trainer ($p<.05$) as presented in table 5. This can be explained that the opinion of four aspects on trainer role play are congruent, therefore the undergraduate can perform as trainer for environmental education.

Table 5 Four Dimensional Evaluations for Trainer Role Play

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Group</td>
<td>2.521</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.840</td>
<td>1.016</td>
<td>.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Group</td>
<td>29.778</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>.827</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32.299</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant Level at .05

During PAIC implemented, the five focus groups discussion were done, the overall results showed that there were at least five projects purposed such as “Transferring Environmental Knowledge to Community”, “Teenage of New Generation Concern to Environment” “Green University Project”, “Paper Saving Bank” and “Project of Caravan of Global Warming Alleviation” to be implemented according to the action plans on “Empowerment of Environmental Education Trainer. The pilot projects selected for implementing were three from five proposed projects. These were “Transferring Environmental Knowledge to Community”, “Teenage of New Generation Concern to Environment” and “Paper Saving Bank”. After some part of three of projects were started implementing, the students gained more experiences including raising their awareness and responsibility to environmental conservation. Particularly, they got more skill to make decisions on solving environmental problems correctly. The PAMEI used for participatory assessment, participatory monitoring, participatory evaluation and participatory impact were approval for three project implementations. Moreover, it was revealed that after the undergraduate students had implemented the three pilot projects, then they gain more experiences, increase more awareness raise and take more responsibility for environmental conservation, particularly, they have more skill to make a decision of environmental problem solving properly.

PAMEI technique was used for monitoring, evaluating, and impact from project implementing with 3 projects. Moreover, after the PAIC training finished. The finding revealed that before training, the students had less to moderate level of knowledge of trainer characteristics and public mind behavior at moderate level. At the beginning of training process, some of them lacked of self-confidence to express their ideas and thinking. But after using the integration of
environmental education and training of trainer through focus group discussion and brain storming process, they can be express and explain their ideas and thinking fluently. Furthermore, PAIC can be introduced to stimulate students to increase their public mind behavior and inspiration of environmental conservation better than before training with statistically significant (p<.01 and p<.05) as shown in table 2. However, PAIC is able to use for encouraging the participant to be able to make a decision on the facing problem by practicing so it is similar to environmental education process that entails practice in decision making of self-formulation of a code of behavior about issues concerning environmental quality.

5. Discussions
The results indicated that the undergraduate student, Faculty of Environment and Resource Studies, Mahasarakham University will have knowledge of trainer characteristics, and questionnaire was used for determining public mind behavior, inspiration and environmental education trainer characteristics after participating in the PAIC training. It was congruent to these studies of Thiengkamol, 2004; Thiengkamol, 2005a; Thiengkamol, 2005a; Jansab, 2006 and Thiengkamol, 2010b. It might be explained that the training with PAIC technique is able to raise knowledge in various issues and for different target groups and it stimulate the attitude and behavior changing. Moreover, it is able to stimulate public mind and inspiration for environmental conservation through practice proper behavior in their daily life activities for alleviating global warming. The findings are also pertinent to the results from the study of Jumreams, W., and Thiengkamol, N., (2010: in press) that the attitude is affected to inspiration creation and behaviors change for global warming alleviation.

The results of TDE of 30 Participants was employed for determination of the congruence of three aspects evaluation; Self-evaluation, Friend-evaluation, and Facilitator-evaluation. The mean scores of both Friend-Evaluation and Facilitator-Evaluation were higher than Self-Evaluation (p<.01 and p<.05) and the finding revealed that the mean scores of Friend Evaluation and Facilitator Evaluation showed no statistical difference (p>.05). This indicated that the participants evaluated themselves lower than friend and facilitator because they are humble persons that are general style of Thai students.

Furthermore, it was found that PAIC training is effective for training with integration of brain storming process to develop a shared vision, action plan and projects in different issues of training such as energy conservation, urban community food security management, environment and natural resource conservation, development of health cities network for Mekong Region, development of women’s political participation in Pattaya City and community strengthening (Thiengkamol, 2004; Thiengkamol, 2005a; Thiengkamol, 2005b; Jansab, 2006; Thiengkamol, 2010b).

During, the PAIC training implemented, focus groups discussion and SWOT (Strength-Weakness-Opportunity-Threat) analysis were integrated, therefore, it is obviously seen that after they had intended to run 3 pilot projects from 5 projects. They search the way to maintain the three pilot projects with different ideas being suggested during this brain storming process in order to meet their intentions of being environmental education trainer for alleviating global warming, especially they plan to build network of global warming alleviation across the Mahasarakham University and to join with other colleges and universities in the Northeastern region. Additionally, in accordance with different studies of Thiengkamol (2005a), Thiengkamol (2005b) Jumreams and Thiengkamol (2010b); Thiengkamol, (2010:inpress). and Jansab, (2006), the findings revealed that PAIC can initiate and stimulate the participant creative thinking to propose the projects to implement and attitude changing will be able to cause behavior change for environment conservation and participation, and political participation.

6. Recommendations

1. Recommendation from the Research

1.1 The recommendations from the findings revealed that the undergraduate students of Mahasarakham University should be educated by using PAIC technique to accelerate their inspiration, public mind behavior, and to increase numbers of environmental education trainer in order to accomplish the goal of sustainable development through the brain storming process of PAIC. Therefore, university should introduce this participatory training technique as PAIC to use in every faculty of the university.

1.2 The students of every faculty of Mahasarakham University should join the project of environmental education trainer for alleviating global warming with public mind and collaborate to develop the network across the university to serve the policy of green university of Mahasarakham University.
1.3 It should be promoted and distributed PAIC technique for learning and teaching process on other topics based on environmental education integration to increase the amount of environmental education trainer for alleviating global warming with public mind to other level of education such primary school, and secondary school including vocational level and for every educational institute and work place.

1.4 PAIC technique can be used for network development of environmental education trainer for alleviating global warming with public mind to every educational institute and work place in order to accelerate the amount of people to practice proper daily life activity for environmental conservation.

2. Recommendations for Policy, Plan and Project Implementation

2.1 The Ministry of Education should issue policy and plan to support every level of education to use PAIC technique to develop the environmental education trainer for alleviating global warming with public mind to aware and take responsibility to participate for environmental and natural resources conservation to meet the sustainable development.

2.2 Every university, college and school should let teacher to receive the PAIC training for utilization and application for every subject since this technique is a participatory learning based on the brain storming and creative process to initiate the student to learn according to the student-centered concept.

2.3 The pilot projects implemented and evaluated after the PAIC training process should be supported to enhance to set other succeeding projects on environmental and natural resources conservation in order to meet the real sustainable development.

References


University Climate and Counseling Students' Self-Efficacy

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Abstract: Self-efficacy has been one of the main focuses of both counseling research and practice due to the influential impacts of counselors’ perceptions towards their counseling abilities on their performance and success. One of the primary missions of counseling education programs is to shape and develop students’ counseling self-efficacy so that they can successfully perform their future tasks and effectively solve clients’ problems. However, there is not enough information on the factors that influence counseling students’ self-efficacy formation and development specifically university climate. This research attempted to narrow the gap through employing a quantitative research method. The sample consisted of 109 undergraduate counseling students who were in the final year of their counseling education program and in practicum. These students were selected from three Malaysian universities. To measure the relationship between university climate and its components and the students’ counseling self-efficacy, a questionnaire was developed in two main sections. First, Counselor Activity Self-Efficacy Scales assessed the students’ counseling self-efficacy. Second, university climate section which contained four scales including University Environment, University Facilities and Social Support and Mentoring Scale. Analysis of the data indicated high and direct correlations between university climate and its components with students’ counseling self-efficacy. More specifically, a high and significant correlation was found between university environment, social support (friends), supervision and university facilities and students’ counseling self-efficacy. Therefore, a combination of factors in university climate develops counseling self-efficacy among students. Implication of the findings and agendas for future research are discussed in conclusion.

Key words: counseling self-efficacy; counseling students; university climate.

1. Introduction

Self-efficacy has been one of the main focuses of both counseling research and practice due to the influential impacts of counselors’ perceptions towards their counseling abilities on their performance and success (Maldon, 2008; Israelashvili, 2007; Lent, Schmidt, and Schmidt, 2006; Tang, Fouad, and Smith, 1999; Constantine, 2001; Lent, Hackett, and Brown, 1998; Larson and Daniels, 1998). The influential impacts of self-efficacy on counselors’ behaviours and their task performance turned self-efficacy development to one of the primary missions of counseling education programs in order to shape and develop students’ counseling self-efficacy and improve the probability of their success in learning counseling knowledge and skills and performing their future tasks and solving clients’ problems (Tang et al., 1999). However, there is not enough information on the factors that influence counseling students’ self-efficacy formation and development specifically university climate (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 2000). This paper reports the findings of a research aimed to examine the relationship between university climate and students’ counseling self-efficacy in order to assist counseling educators to develop more purposeful and effective counseling education programs.
2. Counseling self-efficacy: Definition and importance

From early 1980s, scholars introduced social cognitive theory and self-efficacy construct (Bandura, 1977) to career development theory (Hackett and Betz, 1981) based on the assumption that self-efficacy highly influences job performances (Judge and Bono, 2001). Accordingly, counseling researchers adapted self-efficacy to explain different aspects of counselors' behaviours and their task performance development. Researchers attempted to define and measure the concept and identify its impacts on initiation of counselors' behaviour as well as the process and outcomes of their counseling performances (Maldon, 2008; Israelashvili, 2007; Lent et al., 2006; Tang et al., 2004; Lent et al., 2000, Larson and Daniels, 1998; Sharpley and Ridgway, 1993).

Counseling self-efficacy has been defined as individuals' beliefs in their abilities to successfully perform various challenging and complex tasks of a counselor and effectively solve clients' problems (Manstead and Van-Eekelen, 1998; Newby-Fraser and Schlebusch, 1998; Pajares, 1996; Lane, Daugherty, and Nyman, 1998). To successfully cope with the challenges and difficulties associated with counseling career particularly, counseling different clients with different behavioural and mental problems, counselors need to possess a strong confidence in their capability and persistence to successfully accomplish counseling tasks and roles. Accordingly, a robust body of researchers examined the association between counseling self-efficacy and counselors' performance and success in solving their clients' problems. Tang et al. (2004) emphasize that "As counselors enter the field; self-efficacy is an important determinant of their ability to assume their roles as professionals with success and confidence" (p. 71). Bradley and Fiorini (1999) postulated that counselors' confidence in their capability to identify and use counseling strategies and skills directly influence the quality of the counseling service they offer and their effectiveness in solving clients' problems. Therefore, individuals' counseling performance can be measured by their counseling self-efficacy perceptions.

There is a strong consensus among scholars about distinctive impacts of counseling self-efficacy on counseling knowledge attainment, ability and skill development, and performance improvement. Specifically, researchers highlighted the significant influences of counseling self-efficacy on counseling effectiveness in solving clients' problems (Larson and Daniels, 1998; Wolters and Pintrich, 1998; Larson, Suzuki, Gillespie, Potenza, Bechtel, and Toulouse, 1992; Sharpley and Ridgway, 1993), quality of their counseling services and actions during a given session expending efforts and performing the complex and challenging tasks of a counselor (Constantine, 2001), and improvising multiple sub-skills to manage ever-changing circumstances (Larson and Daniels, 1998).

Despite the influential impacts of self-efficacy on selection into counseling career and a counselor performance and effectiveness in solving clients' problems, studies on counseling self-efficacy mostly focused on the association between counseling self-efficacy and various variables such as outcome expectations, affective arousal, and self-development (Daniels, 1997; Ridgway and Sharpley, 1990). Therefore, there is a scarcity of knowledge and understanding on the impacts of environmental factors on counseling self-efficacy and specifically in relation to the social cognitive theory (Larson and Daniels, 1998).

3. Counseling self-efficacy of counseling students

Counseling psychology scholars have attempted to understand and improve process of developing counseling knowledge and skills in individuals (Russell, Crimmings, and Lent, 1984) particularly in students who are in the process of learning and developing their counseling skills through counseling education and training programs (Larson et al., 1992). One useful approach was applying the social cognitive theory and specifically self-efficacy in developing counseling skills among students based on the assumption that self-efficacy can highly be improved in early stages of its development (Bandura, 1977). In fact, self-efficacy highly influences university students' motivation, learning, performance, and achievements in counseling. With high self-efficacy, students can better acquire counseling knowledge and skills (Daniels, 1997; Larson et al., 1992).

Understanding and measuring counseling self-efficacy in counseling students is not only important in its initial motivation to learn and development but can be applied for designing effective interventions particularly counseling education and training programs to build and improve counseling self-efficacy in counseling students (Betz, 2004; Larson et al., 1992). More specifically, it can be applied to improve counseling students' achievement and persistence in learning counseling knowledge and skills and their abilities to perform various challenging roles and tasks of a counselor (Tobian, 2006; DeWitz and Walsh, 2002).

By definition, counseling students' self-efficacy is "counselor trainees' judgments of their capabilities to counsel successfully in counseling" (Larson et al., 1992). Students with low counseling self-efficacy perceive themselves as unable to successfully learn counseling knowledge and skills, perform the tasks of a counselor, cope with the challenges...
involved in counseling clients, and experience various difficulties in cognitive processes and emotional arousal associated with counseling career even though they may have the required knowledge and skills (Klomegah, 2007; Larson and Daniels, 1998; Lane et al., 1998; Pajares, 1996; Bandura, 1977). Therefore, they may not choose counseling as their future career path and be successful in dealing with the challenges and difficulties of learning counseling knowledge and skills and effectively performing counseling tasks and roles (Lent et al., 2003; Larson et al., 1992).

Drawing upon the social cognitive theory assumptions that self-efficacy is most malleable at first stages of formation and can be improved by environmental factors (Bandura, 1977), counseling educators and researchers focused on inhabiting and improving counseling students’ self-efficacy as one of the main objectives of counseling education and training programs (Tang et al., 2004; Barbee, Scherer, and Combs, 2003; Daniels and Larson, 2001). In fact, counseling education and training programs should prepare future counselors not only with counseling knowledge and skills, but also with the competence and confidence that are vital for various demands of counseling profession (Larson et al., 1992).

A growing body of literature focused on identifying different factors affecting counseling students’ counseling self-efficacy and methods for enhancing their perceptions toward their counseling capabilities specifically through mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Maldonado, 2008; Carroll and Garavalia, 2004; Al-Darmaki, 2004; Barbee et al., 2003; Bandura, 1977). Moreover, researches concentrated on qualifying and measuring counseling self-efficacy among counseling students.

4. University climate and students’ self-efficacy

University climate has been one of the main focuses of research in universities in order to improve university environment and consequently students’ motivation, retention, and achievement (Love, Trammell, and Cartner, 2010; Hart and Fellabaum, 2008; Vogel, 2008; Edman and Brazil, 2007; Gloria and Ho, 2003). However, there is no commonly accepted conceptual definition and instrument for measuring university climate and its impacts on students’ self-efficacy (Hart and Fellabaum, 2008). The majority of researchers defined university climate as students’ perceptions, attitudes, and experiences toward distinctive attributes of the university that influence their motivation, learning, and behaviour (Cress, 2002; Woodard and Sims, 2000; Peterson and Spencer, 1990).

These distinctive characteristics include campus environment or learning environment, physical structure, and interactions between students and academics and staffs (Marshall and Roblyer, 2002). Suzana Haron, Wan Marzuki Wan Jaafar, Maznah Baba. (2010) classified effective learning institution climate into four categories. First, physical environment that is provision of effective infrastructures and learning opportunities for students, second, social environment that facilitates communication and interaction between students and people who have a hand in the process of teaching and learning third, affective environment that creates a sense of affiliation, belongingness, and self-esteem in students and finally, academic environment that provides the required learning opportunities for exploring and flourishing students’ talents and potentials.

The relationship between learning institutions’ climate and students’ self-efficacy has been documented in the literature (Rowe, Kim, Baker, Kamphaus, and Horne, 2010; Wan Marzuki Wan Jaafar., Othman Mohamed., Ab. Rahim Bakar., and Rohani Ahmad Tarmizi, 2009; Tobian, Ralph, Muller, Lauren, Turner, 2006; Gloria and Ho, 2003). In a content analysis of 188 university climate researches, Hart and Fellabaum (2008) concluded that the majority of studies have been conducted on the perceptions of university employees toward university climate. Therefore, research on students’ perceptions toward university climate and its impacts on their learning and achievement particularly in Malaysia is scarce.

Moreover, there is not a standardized instrument to measure university climate. Therefore, the studies assessed various dimensions of campus climate. Edman and Brazil (2007) examined the relationship between university climate and academic self-efficacy among 475 students from different ethnic groups. The findings indicate that campus climate correlates with students’ academic self-efficacy and students from different ethnic minority groups are more dissatisfied with campus climate. The following sections review the literature on specific components of university climate and students’ self-efficacy improvement (Figure, 1).
4.1 University environment and students' counseling self-efficacy

University not only targets to improve cognitive abilities and skills of students but it should also aims to provide the social and interpersonal environment and physical facilities that improve students' satisfaction, retention, and achievement (Gloria, Castellanos, & Orozco, 2005). In fact, university environment highly influence students' cognitive abilities and skills development (Steele and Aronoson, 1995). From Castillo, Conoley, Choi-Pearson, Archuleta, , Van Ladingham, Phoummarath (2006) point of view “The university environment is the social and cultural conditions, which include practices, policies, and behaviours that constitute the working and learning environment” (p. 268). Castillo et al. (2006) emphasized that university culture contains values, beliefs, and behaviours of individuals who interact in the university and highly impact the university environment.

A review of the literature shows that the research findings on the impacts of university environment on different aspects of students' cognitive abilities and skills development and achievements are inconsistent. While some researchers found significant relationship between different aspects of university environment including faculty diversity orientation, presence of students from various backgrounds, and scholarships and students' academic achievements (Byars and Hackett, 1998; Astin, 1993), others failed to report a significant difference between university environment and students' learning gains (Pike, Shannon, Lawrimore, McGee, Taylor, and Lamoreaux, 2003). Regarding students' self-efficacy in performing specific tasks of careers, Fuertes et al. (1994) found that factors in university environment such as the quality of teaching and respect from professors affect students' self-efficacy. Specifically for counseling students' self-efficacy, Lent et al. (1994) developed a model in which self-efficacy mediates the impacts of environmental factors.

Conducting a study on 160 Asian American university students, Gloria and Ho (2003) found a significant relationship between self-efficacy and students' perceived university environment. Specifically, the results showed that higher positive perceptions of the university environment were significantly related to higher self-efficacy. Castillo et al. (2006) examined the relationship between 175 Latino students' perceptions of the university environment and their resistance. The authors concluded that perceptions of university environment highly affect students' perseverance in facing the barriers and their attitudes toward resistance in university.

4.2 Social support and students' counseling self-efficacy

Social environment of a learning institution that facilitates communication and interaction between students, academics, and staffs significantly influence counseling students' sense of counseling self-efficacy (Suzana Haron et al., 2010). According to social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), social support is one of the influential factors in building and improving students' counseling self-efficacy. Furthermore, students with higher self-efficacy more likely integrate with the society and seek social support to improve their performances (Griffin, 1992). Shummaker and Hill (1991) defined social support in terms of both existence and type of interactions as well as function and resources of connections in a social network.

In general, the social support that students receive from academics, faculty staffs, and peers as a result of their communications and interactions highly influence their academic success, persistence rate, self-esteem, stress management, and maturity in social interactions (Booker, 2007; Griffin, 1992; Allen and Haniff, 1991; Davis, 1991). Specifically, social support has a significant and positive correlation with students' self-efficacy (Nebbitt, 2009; Gloria and Ho, 2003).

Examining the relationship between social support, campus climate, and academic self-efficacy among 475
students, Edman and Brazil (2007) provided evidence for significant impact of social support that students receive from academics, faculty staffs, and peers and self-efficacy of students. Dwyer and Cummings (2001) found significant correlation between social supports that students receive from their friends and their coping strategies. It is argued that interactions with peers affect students’ self-efficacy by group norms, aspiration, and performance improvement (Prussia and Kinicki, 1996). Pajares and Schunk (2001) explained the impacts of peers on students’ self-efficacy through observation and their peers making errors, behaviours in facing challenges, and verbalized emotive statements.

4.3 Supervision and students’ counseling self-efficacy

A review of the literature on the factors influencing counseling self-efficacy shows that supervision plays a critical role in inhabiting and developing self-efficacy among counselors (Nilsson and Duan, 2007; Cashwell and Dooley, 2001). Specifically, university students who are in the process learning counseling abilities and skills need to be highly supported by a close supervision. Young (2008) emphasized that “supervisors are vital guides throughout the journey, especially in the beginning” (p. 14). Maldoado (2008) highlights supervision as a critical part of a counselor education and developing counseling skills in students.

Supervision process is a set of supervisory behaviours that help supervisees to apply their knowledge, skills, and experiences to effectively counsel clients and thus it aims to facilitate the supervisee’s personal and professional development (Bradley, 1989). Therefore, supervisors play different roles to help supervisees learn and develop counseling knowledge and skills from the beginning to the stage that they can independently counsel and supervise themselves to improve their performances (Littrell, Lee-Borden, and Lorenz, 1979). Bernard and Goodyear (1992) defined supervision as “An intervention that is provided by a senior member of a profession to a junior member or members of the same profession” (p. 4). The findings of a study conducted by Larson et al. (1992) provided empirical support for the positive relationship between receiving supervision and students’ counseling self-efficacy. A comparison between 22 students receiving regular supervision and 11 students who received little or no supervision showed the students receiving regular supervision had higher counseling self-efficacy (Cashwell and Dooley, 2001).

Importantly, supervisors play both promoting and inhabiting roles in their relationship with counseling students. The findings of a research conducted by Smith (2007) show that supervisees had both positive and negative experiences such as structuring, struggling, connecting, and trusting in their relationship with their counseling supervisors. The author concludes that the supervisory relationship supports development of counseling skills in students; though the relationship is not always a comfortable one. Conflict in supervisory relationship is partially due to the nature of the relationship between counseling students and supervisors and highly influences students’ perceptions of their counseling abilities and skills (Nelson and Friedlander, 2001).

Foster, Dale, Brown (2007) looked at the supervisory relationship through attachment angle where in a mutual and secure-based relationship with the supervisor builds and develops counseling abilities and skills in students. The authors concluded that students “with an insecure attachment to their supervisor demonstrated low levels of professional development” (Foster et al., 2007, p. 353). Nilsson and Duan (2007) examined the relationship between supervision experiences and counseling self-efficacy among 69 supervisees from different racial minorities. Emphasizing that cultural backgrounds of both supervisors and supervisees impact the content, process, and outcome of supervision process, the authors found a significant relationship between supervision and students’ self-efficacy.

Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) investigated the relationship between supervisory styles (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and task-oriented) and perceived self-efficacy of 82 Master’s level counseling students. Emphasising that supervisors need to apply varied styles in their interactions with supervisees, the authors found that the task-oriented style was the only supervisory style that enhanced students’ counseling self-efficacy. The authors concluded that if supervisors identify specific factors that affect the outcomes of their supervision process, they can adapt more effective supervision practices.

Daniels and Larson (2001) examined the relationship between both positive and negative feedbacks that supervisees receive from their supervisors and their counseling self-efficacy. The findings demonstrated that supervisors’ positive feedbacks improve supervisees’ counseling self-efficacy. While, negative feedbacks from supervisors decrease the supervisees’ counseling self-efficacy.

In addition, mentors who are more experienced individuals and act as role models of the behaviours have influential impacts on improving counseling students’ self-efficacy (Landino, 1998). In fact, mentoring is a critical way to provide on-campus support for students (Hinderlie and Kenny, 2004). Paglis, Green, and Bauer (2006) tested the effectiveness of mentoring in improving doctoral students through a longitudinal study. The researchers concluded that mentoring improves students’ self-efficacy. However, further investigation is needed to examine whether supervisors and
mentors in a different counseling education system setting than America still affect students' counseling self-efficacy formation and development (Larson and Daniels, 1998).

4.4 University facilities and students' counseling self-efficacy

The effectiveness of university learning facilities and specifically electronic information searching system directly affect students’ academic experience and performance and create a positive attitude and a strong motivation in students to learn and practice their skills to improve their performances (Susskind, 2005; Ren, Dana, Rutgers, 2000). Griffin (1992) highlighted the importance of campus facilities in improving students' satisfaction with college life. Availability of facilities is only the first step in providing effective learning opportunities for students and students need to know how to effectively use the facilities to improve their knowledge and skills (Ren et al., 2000). Furthermore, students need to be provided with their specific needs and feel that faculty members and staffs care about them and provide them the facilities to succeed (Lopp, 1999).

Recently, Rowe et al. (2010) focused on the impacts of classroom environments on students' self-efficacy. The researchers highlighted the influences of classroom dimensions on students' motivation, involvement in class activities, social skills and competencies, and academic achievements. The findings demonstrated a significant relationship between classroom demotions and students' higher self-efficacy. Ren et al. (2000) investigated the relationship between existence of library electronic facilities and instruction to search electronic information sources for doing course assignments and projects and self-efficacy of 85 undergraduates. The findings showed a significant higher self-efficacy in electronic information searching among the students who received library instructions than the students who did not receive the instruction. Despite the critical importance of university facilities in improving students' self-efficacy, there is little knowledge on provision of specific facilities that counseling students require to learn and develop counseling skills and the impacts of these facilities on improving their counseling self-efficacy.

5. Method

This study employed a quantitative survey method to investigate the correlations between university climate and its components and counseling student’s self-efficacy.

5.1 Participants

The participants were selected by simple random sampling method. The sample comprised 109 final year students who were undergoing Bachelor of guidance and counseling courses and practicum programs in first semester of 2008-2009 at three Malaysian universities. The universities involved in this research were University Putra Malaysia, University Malaya, and University Science Islamic Malaysia. The number and percentage of students from each university involved in this study are illustrated in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UPM</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UM</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USIM</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the participants were females (82.6%) and between 21-23 years old (50.5%). Of the 109 students 104 (95.4%) were Malay, 4 were Chinese (3.7%) and 1 was Indian (.9%). The majority of the students (n=67, 61.5 %) did not have any previous experience in counseling. This indicates that counseling self-efficacy of the majority of the students were shaped and developed by the university counseling education programs.

5.2 Instruments

A questionnaire was developed based on previous researches to measure the relationship between university climate
and counseling students' self-efficacy. The questionnaire comprised two main sections and a total of 62 items (Table 2). First section measured the students' counseling self-efficacy. This section included 41 items of Counselor Activity Self-Efficacy Scales (CASES, Lent et al., 2003). The students were asked to rate their confidence in each item on a 9 point Likert scale (from 0 = No confidence, to 9 = at all confidence). This section measured the students' confidence in three main tasks of counselors including Helping Skills Self-Efficacy, Session Management Self-Efficacy, Counseling Challenges Self-Efficacy. The reliability of this section to measure students' counseling self-efficacy was confirmed by obtaining a Cronbach alpha = .98.

The second section assessed university climate components including university environment, university facilities, social support (friends), and supervision in five point Likert scale (from 1 = Not at all, to 5 = very true). University environment included 14 items of University Environment Scale developed by Gloria et al. (1996) and measured counseling students' perceptions about different aspects of the environment provided for counseling students in their universities The university facilities provided for counseling students were measured by University Facility scale (Poh Ju Peng et al., 2006) which encompassed 23 items. The social support that counseling students received was assessed by Social Support Scale (Gloria, Robinson Kurpius, Hamilton, and Willson (1999). This study focused only on supports that students receive from their friends because based on the previous studies university students' self-efficacy is more influenced by their peers rather than their family (Lundberg, Yngwe, Stjame, Bjork, and Fritzell, 2008). The final 5 items of this section were devoted to measuring supervision based on Mentoring Scale developed by Gloria (1993). The reliability test of this section also showed that it is highly reliable for measuring university climate (alpha= .90). The students were also asked to provide their demographic information including age, gender, race and counseling-related experience. We administered 139 questionnaires of which 109 questionnaires were completed.

Table 2. Scales and Number of Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>No. Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Counselor Activity Self-Efficacy Scales</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>University Environment</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>University Facilities</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Social Support</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mentoring Scale (Supervision)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Results

Analysis of multiple regression model indicated high contributions of university climate components including university environment, social support, university facilities, and supervision on counseling students' self-efficacy. Table 3 shows standard error of the coefficients, t-test and corresponding p-value for each variable.

Table 3. Coefficients of Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-30.824</td>
<td>7.277</td>
<td>-4.236</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University environment</td>
<td>1.044</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>5.616</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>2.565</td>
<td>.401</td>
<td>6.397</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University facilities</td>
<td>2.813</td>
<td>.713</td>
<td>3.943</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.960</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>5.478</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td>.228</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in the table, the p-value of each regression coefficients is significant at the 0 %. This means the four independent variables social support, university environment, supervision and university facilities have influential impacts on the students' counseling self-efficacy. The value of $R^2$ is 0.93 which is quite high. That is, the dependent variable, Self-efficacy, is explained 93% by the four independent variables which is quite satisfactory. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to explore the overall significance of the regression parameters (Table 4). The table shows that F-statistic is highly significant at the p value of 0.00.

101
Table 4. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>201198.698</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50299.675</td>
<td>375.678</td>
<td>.000&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>13924.586</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>133.890</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>215123.284</td>
<td>108</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Predictors: (Constant), university facility, social support, supervision, university environment

This study also examined the relationship between each component of university climate and the students' counseling self-efficacy. Analysis of correlation coefficient values and correlation test (Table 5) indicates a high significant correlation between these variables.

Table 5. Correlation Coefficients between Self-Efficacy and University Environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University environment</td>
<td>0.92&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>0.85&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>0.85&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University facilities</td>
<td>0.90&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>**</sup> Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As Table 5 shows there exists a high significant correlation between university environment (.92), social support that the students receive from their friends (.85), supervision and mentoring (.85), and university facilities (.90) and the students' counseling self-efficacy.

7. Discussion

This study aimed to examine the relationship between university climate and counseling students' self-efficacy in order to facilitate developing more purposeful and effective counseling education at universities specifically in Malaysia. Overall, the findings of this study indicated a high significant correlation between university climate and students' counseling self-efficacy. University climate as students' perceptions, attitudes, and experiences toward distinctive attributes of the university highly influence their motivation, learning, and behavior (Cress, 2002; Woodard and Sims, 2000; Peterson and Spencer, 1990). The findings of this research confirm the significant impact of university climate on developing students' confidence in their ability to perform the tasks and roles of a counselor (Gloria and Ho, 2003). The empirical evidence provided by this study on significant contribution of university climate in enhancing students' sense of counseling self-efficacy is one of the least studied factors on the impact of environmental factors in building students' counseling self-efficacy (Lent et al., 2000).

Furthermore, this study showed a significant correlation between university environment and counseling students' self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) postulated that self-efficacy is affected by environmental factors and specifically education. This finding supports the social cognitive theory by finding a significant correlation between university environment and the specific supports provided in the environment and counseling students' perceptions of their counseling knowledge, abilities and skills. More specifically, the findings demonstrated a significant correlation between attentions given to counseling students' needs by academic and faculty staffs and provision of communication and interaction opportunities among counseling students and their counseling self-efficacy. Suzana Haron et al. (2010) emphasized that the social environment of a learning organization that facilitates effective communication and interactions between students' academics and staffs significantly influence counseling self-efficacy of students.
Similar findings on the influential impacts of university environment and students' counseling self-efficacy among Latino students (Castillo et al., 2006) and Asian American students (Gloria and Ho, 2003) highlight university environment as one of the core factors in developing counseling self-efficacy among students from different educational and environmental settings. This necessitates provision of a adequate environment in which the specific needs of counseling students are addressed and students can practice and learn challenging counseling knowledge and skills effectively (Borders and Brown, 2005; Bernard and Goodyear, 2004).

The findings of this study indicated a high correlation between social support that the counseling students received from their peers and their counseling self-efficacy. According to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), social support is one of the influential factors in building and improving individuals' sense of self-efficacy. Therefore, the finding of this research supports the theory in influential impacts of social support and specifically supports from peers and students' counseling self-efficacy. The significant influence of peers in developing students' counseling self-efficacy can be mostly related to the time that university students spend with their peers in the campuses and their great interactions with their friends than their families (Lundberg et al., 2008). This finding support previous research finding indicated a high association between social support that students receive from their peers and their counseling self-efficacy (Booker, 2007; Griffer, 1992; Allen and Haniff, 1991; Davis, 1991).

Dwyer et al. (2001) argue that social support from peers enhances students' strategies in coping with challenges and increases their resistance against problems and difficulties. In fact, interactions with peers who are involved in the same education program and are struggling with learning challenges of the same knowledge and skills improves students' self-efficacy by group norms, aspiration, and performance improvement (Prussia and Kinicki, 1996). Furthermore, peers improve students' self-efficacy through a process of observing their friends making errors, their behaviours in facing with challenges and verbalized motive statements (Pajares and Schunk, 2001). Accordingly, counseling educators should provide opportunities for counseling students to communicate and interact with their peers through organizing them in different counseling groups, clubs and social networks.

According to the findings of this study, one of the significant factors that influence students' counseling self-efficacy improvement is specific facilities provided for counseling students. Lopp (1999) argues that students should be provided with their specific needs and facilities to successfully learn and feel that faculty members and staffs care about them and their specific needs for learning. The effectiveness of university learning facilities in assisting students to learn and practice the skills directly affects their academic experience and performance and creates a positive attitude and a strong motivation in them and thereby improves their self-efficacy (Susskind, 2005). This highlights the importance of providing specific counseling facilities for university students and equipping them with the skills to apply these facilities to improve their counseling knowledge and skills and thereby enhancing their counseling self-efficacy and increasing the probability of their success in their future career as a counselor (Ren et al., 2000).

The findings of this research also support previous research findings in the significant relationship between supervision and counseling self-efficacy of students (Maldoado, 2008; Young, 2008; Nilsson and Duan, 2007; Al-Darmaki, 2004; Cashwell and Dooley, 2001; Daniel and Larson, 2001; Larson et al., 1992) particularly in Malaysia (Wan Marzuki Wan Jaafar et al., 2007). In fact, supervision process is a set of supervisory behaviors that facilitate personal and professional development of counseling students and help them to apply their knowledge, skills and experiences to effectively learn counseling skills and solve clients' problems (Bradley, 1989). In this fundamental relationship, supervisors need to apply varied styles in their interactions with counseling students and specifically use a task-oriented style to more effectively enhance students' counseling self-efficacy and their future career performance and success (Fernando and Hulse-Killacky, 2005).

According to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977) verbal persuasion is an important source of self-efficacy formation and development. The high relationship between supervision and students' counseling self-efficacy can be interpreted by the feedbacks and emotional impressions that the students receive as a result of their interactions with their supervisors particularly the specific and positive feedbacks about their counseling performances that improve counseling self-efficacy (Clark, 2006; Daniels and Larson, 2001; Cashwell and Dooley, 2001; Daniels, 1997; Larson et al., 1992). Additionally, supervisors apply some strategies and interventions that highly enhance their self-efficacy (Crutchfield and Borders, 1997). The results of this study align with previous researches emphasize the critically important role that supervisors play in shaping and developing counseling students' self-efficacy. Therefore, counseling educators should provide counseling students with effective supervisors and equip both supervisors and students with the skills to effectively manage their relationships and interactions. These effective interactions better develop students' counseling knowledge and skills.

One of the main components of supervision factor in this study was mentoring and its relationship with students' counseling self-efficacy. The findings indicated a significant correlation between mentoring and students' counseling self-
efficacy. This confirms previous research results on the key role that mentors play in enhancing students' counseling self-efficacy (Paglis et al., 2006; Hinderlie and Kenny, 2004). Mentors who are more experienced individuals act as students' role models and highly improve their counseling self-efficacy (Landino, 1998). In accordance with social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), observing mentors who fulfill challenging tasks with lots of efforts highly improves counseling students' self-efficacy learning. Therefore, the findings of the current study support the social cognitive theory on the influential role that counseling mentors can play in developing students' counseling self-efficacy. This emphasize provision of mentors for counseling students in order to enhance their counseling self-efficacy and thereby improve the probability of their success in their future career path.

8. Conclusion and implications

This study provided empirical evidence for the correlation between university climate and its components and counseling self-efficacy of Malaysian university students based on which development of more purposeful and effective counseling education programs, curriculum and delivery methods would be possible. From the findings, it can be concluded that university climate is a critically significant factor in counseling self-efficacy development among university students that should be given more attention in order to improve the possibility of students’ success in solving their future clients’ problems.

Furthermore, each of university climate components including university environment, social support, supervision, and university facilities has significant contribution to students' counseling self-efficacy development. Therefore, a combination of variables in university climate builds and develops students’ counseling self-efficacy beliefs. These variables are sources of information according to Bandura (1997) that can facilitate or impede students' sense of counseling self-efficacy. This set of variables should be considered as influential in developing a strong sense of counseling self-efficacy among students.

This study provides contributions to the few empirical researches on the relationship between university climate and students' counseling self-efficacy (Tang et al., 2004; Lent et al., 2000) specifically in Malaysia (Suzana Haron et al., 2010; Wan Marzuki Wan Jaafar et al., 2007). It also provides a better understanding and knowledge of the components of university climate about which few researches has been done (Lent et al., 2000). Specifically, it contributes four components of university climate included university environment, social support, supervision and university facilities to the literature. However, it opens new agendas for future research on university climate and counseling self-efficacy as well as the association between the two constructs.

Among the factors that build university climate construct, this study focused on university environment, social support, supervision, and university facilities. Future research can be done to explore other factors in university climate and developing scales for measuring the emerging university climate factors in particular through qualitative studies. Qualitative research can also be undertaken to explore other dimensions of counseling self-efficacy rather than the factors included in this study. Sources of information that build students’ counseling self-efficacy can be a subject of further investigations in order to identify the factors that build counseling self-efficacy among students. The association between university climate and counseling self-efficacy perceptions of university students has also a great potential for further investigation. Future research can be done with a larger and more diverse group of counseling students to examine if contextual factors related to the location of the universities affect the relationship between the two variables. Furthermore, future qualitative studies can focus on the process through which the factors of university climate affect counseling self-efficacy development among university students.

References


Barbee, P.W., Scherer, D., and Combs, D.C. (2003). Pre-practicum service-learning: Examination the relationship with counselor self-


Through Challenges from the Theoretical Conception of the Bologna Process in Higher Educational System in its Practical Realization, in the Albanian Public Universities

Ledri Kurti

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Abstract This study has surveyed Albanian high education and examined the relationship in practice of Bologna system conceptions. The structural model showed in higher education, and master degree is not yet showing a functional suitability for higher education that aims involvement in the application of this system and the goals that it has. This applied process has identified interactive difficulties income through structural model to be implemented as practical dimension until now. Graphics were analyzed using structural modeling of some universities: Albanian, Pristina and Bologna, with branches related to humanities or social sciences, where literature is its integral part.

Keywords: Achievement; Albanian language and literature; Bologna system; concept; challenge; function; implementation; level; reforms; relation; separated branch; theory and practice.

1. Introduction

Is it raised as a problem to be solved the higher education reforms, according to Bologna system with the consequences of this continuity? It has been done a lot of work in the application of the new system of education, but we cannot leave apart the difficulties of the application in the concrete terrain. What way should we follow now, especially in leading those specific branches which have in their programs subjects from linguistics and literature in a common bachelor curricula, at a time when almost all the public universities have fulfilled the remodeling phrases from 4 to 3 plus 2 (scientific master) or plus 1 or 1/2 (professional master). Could it be better to examine the bachelor system critically for the sake of its functionality not only as a structure?

Frequently, find the alternatives in order that this new educational system in the public Albanian universities to be efficient and functional in practice is an obligation. The raised problematic tried to offer focus with the possibilities of examining this system, especially the faculties of social subjects, branches of the Albanian Language- Literature (Bachelor system & Master, which are their outgrowth). There is a consideration staining the relationships between the theoretic concept of Bologna system and the useful results brought by reforms in the higher education in the Albanian public Universities.

Previous research has suggested that today’s map of the implementation of the new educational system exists as such despite the way it is applied (Blazič Marjan, Volume 1, € CNSI (2008), Slovenia, Contemporary Didactics between theory and practice, Pedagogy and The Knowledge Society; Nuredini Vaxhid, Volume 2, € CNSI (2008) Priorities and difficulties in implementation of the European credit transfer system (ECTS), Pedagogy and The Knowledge Society; Kumnova Mazlom and Baliu Begzad, Volume 1, € CNSI (2008), University of Pristina, Faculty of Education, Kosovo, Lifelong learning – A challenge for Kosova, Pedagogy and The Knowledge Society;

For example, if we want to walk further in the solution of the problem let us be urges by the expressed thoughts by Marjan Blazič (2008), in his article: One fundamental question that is difficult to answer is how to connect practice with theory and theory with practice so that both would have an advantage from such a relationship as well as for both of them to develop quickly and organically (Blazič, 2008, p. 25).

The focus of this research is to find the alternatives, in order that this new educational system in the public Albanian universities to be efficient and functional in practice. The raised problematic tried to offer our focus with the possibilities of examining this system. This examination will be carried out mainly in the faculties of social subjects, especially in the branches of the Albanian Language- Literature (Bachelor system & Master which are their outgrowth) by considering the relationship between the theoretic concept of the Bachelor system and the useful results brought by reforms in the higher education in the Albanian public Universities.
2. Method

2.1 Participants

UniT (University of Tirane)  1 Bachelor (Ba)  3 Master (Ma)
UniSH (University of Shkoder)  1 Bachelor (Ba)  4 Master (Ma)
UniE (University of Elbasan)  2 Bachelor (Ba)  2 Master (Ma)
UniD (University of Durrës)  1 Bachelor (Ba)  - Master (Ma)
UniV (University of Vlorë)  1 Bachelor (Ba)  3 Master (Ma)
UniP (University of Prishtinë)  3 Bachelor (Ba)  3 Master (Ma)
UniBo (University of Bologna)  3 Bachelor (Ba)  3 Master (Ma)

A schematic review of the number (BA) Bachelors and (MA) masters in 2012 in the Albanian public universities, (taking into consideration that this process, therefore, such as structuring, has began the first efforts in the beginning of the first decade, of this millennium) especially the Albanian Language- Literature branch, and the models in the University of Pristina or Bologna, in the specific branches that are connected to literature and linguistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Bachelor (Ba)</th>
<th>(years)</th>
<th>Master Degree (Ma)</th>
<th>(years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UniT</td>
<td>History–Philology;</td>
<td>Albanian Language-Literature;</td>
<td>I, II, III;</td>
<td>Albanian Language- Literature; (Teachers for secondary schools) I 1/2;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Literary Studies I, II;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cultural heritage I, II;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UniSh</td>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>Albanian Language-Literature;</td>
<td>I, II, III;</td>
<td>Linguistic I, II;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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Here acquainted with the results of its integration in the university structures, especially in the faculty of social sciences or (in some public universities that in Albanian are called or included in the assignment of the faculty of human sciences).

The way that we will follow to clarify the reasoning toward the solution of the problem that is raised will be based by taking as an object of comparison to be examined, the concrete faculties of the social sciences, or human sciences such as that of Elbasan, or otherwise called the Faculty of History Philology in the University of Tirana, the Faculty of education in the University of Durres, the Faculty of Human Science in Vlorë, faculties which in their structure include among the other departments such as the ones of history, geography and journalism, the department of literature or Albanian language as well.

There is an exception for the University of Elbasan, which in this branch includes trinity Albanian language-literature- journalism curricular, and the type of bachelor diploma which is given is Bachelor in Albanian language and literature.

In addition, we will make as our participant the University of Pristina as well, again the Faculty is called the Faculty
of Philology, where for the sake of our purpose and of our problematic, we will examine in details the specificity of the
division of the structure that this university makes to the bachelor level and consequently the objects of the human and
linguistic, (Albanian language and Literature) as a way of perception and application of the new educational system
resulting in the number and the type of the bachelor diplomas as well, which come out of it in this aspect.

Since Italy is one of the first countries where the university system was adopted according to the new system in the
process of Bologna (in some universities has begun in 1998 / 1999; and in some other universities in 1999/2000).

Finally, to be correct, in comparison to the achievement of our purpose, we take into consideration the University of
Bologna itself, at the same human sciences and linguistics.

Concerning this, first of all, in structuring the bachelors (especially in leading the Albanian Language- Literature)
and later focusing on how the things have come up to now, the passing from a considerable number of subjects that
structured the old four year system, in the efforts to reduce and exclude the conception of this new system, as from the
number of years which would pass in three years (bachelor system) and the number of the subjects that are included or
excluded, or modified for the sake of being adopted with this system, in one of the public universities, especially that of
Shkodra. As to be more sensible we will focus as well in the number of the subjects how they are put together or re-
modified through the “strict” modules, for the sake of a simple structural scheme, in the branch of Albanian Language-
Literature, University of Shkodra.

3. Results

Let's see the graphic, according to the years and the quantity of the subjects existing as a common branch Albanian
Language- Literature, University of Shkodra, and let's try to understand it based on the applied methodology and the
graphic the efforts to be integrated with the reforms of the new educational system.

University of Shkodra; the Faculty of the Social Science; Albanian Language- Literature; consequently to
understand and to judge on the paths of this process, by recognizing the subject load in which this process has
proceeded until nowadays:

2003- 2007: 41 compulsory subjects with points of credits & Diploma
1. 2007-2008: 36 compulsory subjects with points of credits & 11 subjects- signature (no exam) & Diploma;
2. 2009-2012: 22 compulsory subjects (most of them for the sake of the reforms, in structure, are constructed as
an “obligatory” attachment of ex - subjects in two modules, which will accomplish in the end an exam) & 14
optional subjects, with points of credit (no exam); where the student chooses based on the corresponding
years, on the whole to purge 7 of them ) & Diploma;

4. Discussion

The application of a new system of education itself is the system of Bologna, supposes or to say it differently offers a
dialogical way of communication among the cultures and the educational level and the common efforts as well to unify the
mobility and the inter-cultural of the knowledge and the structures through the educational system.

It has to do with a cute attention towards the public higher education and its curricula, on the respect of the reforms
of Bologna system, having bachelor directions better oriented and with open perspectives of choice and possibilities for
the future generations of the students but also with a higher didactic and professional level of the teaching staff itself and the development of their academic competences and the aims towards the whole pure values that come out by formation and accumulation and the given knowledge according to the most contemporary standards, aiming at not only formative objectives but also competence.

If the application of this new educational university system proposes to be at the same time even a model system, from different geographical spheres, where the exchanges between the levels ECT and the received knowledge to be a developed reflection, where this system and experience is applied, should we consider it finished or written towards the fulfilment of putting it in practise, going further to the phrase of creating a new tradition?

With a lot of carefulness in his structural vision, consequently, which supposes higher specific curricular claims and academic and employment level, is the model of the University of Pristina, which has chosen to offer three bachelor diplomas, Albanian language, Albanian literature, or general or comparative literature; moreover we can compare it to the model of University of Bologna. The models of perception of the subjects in curricula such as, cheaper “in the percentage that they occupy at each other, or why not and “the complete independence by creating separate curricula of bachelor, as we saw in the examples of the universities beyond the territories of the Albanian public universities, it would make possible not only the best possible approach towards a new system of education and its well-known, for more mobility, more academic responsibility level, perhaps creating such a bachelor, such as philology, or different bachelor of literature, consequently an employment of the academic staff, more possibilities, in today’s market for the student absorption and specializations in formation (as for the academic and student staff)

The university reforms, undertaken after 1999 with the Cart of Bologna, are not a strict application of the academic phenomena, but being a social reform at the same time in the higher level together with the effect that it transmits in itself as a novelty in the whole society, it is necessary to know how to self manage in the most efficient and maximal ways the role of the intellectual forces, by certainly including here the intellectual rise of the institutions and the put into motion of his economical sphere in general, by harmonizing the university system of the education in a broader context than itself.

It can be refered to the perceived models from the University of Pristina, by creating according to the model of European system that offers the cart of Bologna, some types of bachelor degree, in Albanian language, in Albanian literature, and why not of the general literature, or foreign and comparative literature; but, again, as productive and positive for the today’s university market could be the modelling of an interdisciplinary bachelor, with all-inclusive subjects such as civilization and European literature, philological studies, general linguistic, by taking into consideration the University of Bologna, or more; in this way the wide range of the extension of the subjects from the Albanian literature and not only, but also from all the other subjects that belong the literacy formation, from the foreign literature, theoretical literature, literary critic and so on, by considering the linguistic subjects as well, it would not be necessary to shrinking in oneself and only with themselves at one bachelor, Albanian language - literature, in all the public universities, and consequently by shrinking the circle of the students which could have had much wanted attractions of choice towards this formation and this trend, in order to be more in contact with the contemporary developments.

5. Conclusions

1. The use of the endless possibilities that the Process of Bologna offers in restructuring the Program degree, in the three year cycle, specifically for the branches of the Albanian language & literature in the public universities, being firstly considered as separated.
2. The creation and use of the most functional spheres for the subjects of the Albanian language and literature in the university education.
3. The increasing of the efficiency of this level, through the expansion of the possibilities, which the human sciences (especially in the branches of Albanian language and literature) can offer in the public universities in Albania by using the relationships or interactions with bachelor as well as the academic staff or university curricula beyond the region and especially with Albanological and with a new modern vision intermingled with sensible reports and attractive directions.
4. The increase of mobility and positive possibilities for a more real and efficient academic freedom for the academic staff in the right spheres within the concept of the positive change aiming at a quality level.
5. The expansion of the possibilities of the student of this geographical area for greater and unconditional opportunity in strict and overloaded programs which can be expanded in more attractive and wanted subjects by them.
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The Family and Substance Use among Maltese University Students

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Abstract This study examines how family structure and functioning impact on prevalence and frequency of substance use in late adolescence and emerging adulthood in Malta. Research participants are a convenience sample of 1130 University of Malta students aged between eighteen and twenty-five. Data was collected by means of a structured questionnaire exploring relationships between family functioning, family structure and substance use. The confidence interval for all results is 95% and the study has a maximum margin of error of 2.7%. The study explored the relationship between perceived family intactness, family size, emotional climate, parenting styles, family rituals and monitoring and supervision and patterns of self reported substance use. The results reveal significant relationships between perceived family functioning and family structural variables and self reported substance use especially for family intactness and monitoring and supervision. While the results do not allow for any interpretation regarding causality, they present novel data for the Maltese islands. Recommendations for policy development and further research are explored.

Key Words: adolescence/emerging adulthood, family, substance use, risk, resiliency.

1. Introduction

Consistently, research identifies the family as one of the most critical risk and resiliency variables for substance abuse in adolescence and emerging adulthood (Hawkins et al., 1992; Moon et al., 2000). No primary data in this regard has ever been collected in Malta. Recent approaches to drug prevention emphasize risk factors and several variables are identified differentiating those young people who use drugs from those who do not (Moon et al., 2000). Generally, the more risk factors a young person is exposed to, the more vulnerable he or she becomes. On the other hand, ‘protective’ or ‘resiliency’ factors enable sustained competent functioning even in the presence of major life stressors (Arthur et al., 2002; Luthar, 1991; Masten et al., 1990). Risk and resiliency factors present themselves in three systems: (a) the characteristics of the individual associated with greater risk or resiliency; (b) the family interaction system in which the young person is absorbed and; (c) the school and community milieu in which the adolescent is embedded (Lettieri et al., 1980; France and Crow, 2005; Glantz and Pickens, 1992; Hawkins et al., 2004; Petrakis et al., 1995; Schroeder et al., 2007; Sussman et al., 2002). In Malta, ESPAD (2007) reports “heavy episodic drinking” (ESPAD, 2007, p. 10) amongst 16 year olds and a continuous increase in the use of illicit drugs, although the averages for illicit drug use continue to be similar or less than the European average. The present study is the first large scale study in Malta examining the relationship between perceived types of family structures and particular family dynamics and patterns of self reported consumption of licit and illicit substances in a specific youth population: university students. It is hypothesized that there exists a significant relationship between young people’s perception of the intactness of the family unit, family size, emotional climate, parenting styles, discipline strategies, family rituals, and monitoring and supervision and patterns of self reported substance use. The data gathered is descriptive and while relationships in the data are examined, there is no attempt at causal analysis.

2. Adolescent Substance Use

Several theoretical frameworks which may be roughly grouped under biological, psychological and sociological explanations (Goode, 2008), have been developed to explain adolescent substance use, identifying factors that predict the use of licit and illicit substances as well as those promoting abstinence. While it is beyond the scope of this paper to review these here, brief reference will be made to some theories that draw on the family as an explanatory framework for
substance use. Hirschi’s Social Bonding Theory (1969) argued that behavioural conformity results from bonds developed between an individual and society (family, school, peers, religion, the work place etc). A strong social bond is manifested by a time factor or ‘involvement’, a stake in society or ‘commitment’ and by ‘attachment’ to role models about whose opinion the young person cares. Young people who spend time with their families, who care what their parents think of them and who are committed to conventional goals through the internalization of beliefs systems as a result of family opinion the young person cares. Young people who spend time with their families, who care what their parents think of them and who are committed to conventional goals through the internalization of beliefs systems as a result of family opinion the young person cares.

Social learning theories posit that youth substance use is primarily influenced by the associations one has with definitions or behaviour patterns that either reinforce or punish such behaviour, and that the acquisition of definitions favourable to law violation increases the likelihood of deviant conduct (Kobus, 2003; Sutherland, 1947). Social learning theories propose that the use and abuse of substances can be explained by differential exposure to groups in which such use is rewarded or at least goes unpunished. A number of studies that compared the relative effects of parental attachment and deviant peers on various types of substance use have found that association with deviant peers mediates the influence of social bonds on substance use and delinquency (Longshore et al., 2004). However more recent brain research suggests that adolescents give priorities to rewards over consequences in their decision-making, which means that the usual assumptions about the provisions of disincentives no longer seem all that useful (Mather & Lighthall, 2012). In their original Problem Behaviour Proneness Theory Jessor and Jessor (1977) identified unconventionality and the willingness to take risks as key elements in the initiation of substance use. While the willingness to take risks and indeed, the opportunity to take risks is identified as a significant positive factor (Trimpop, 1994), Jessor and Jessor highlighted how transition prone, unconventional youth are less likely to be attached to family. Gottfredson and Hirschi’s (1990) further development of his theory postulates that lack of self control is caused by inadequate parental socialization. Parents who lack affection for their children may not monitor them adequately and hence fail to identify deviant behaviour at its onset. Drawing on Routine Activities Theory (Cohen & Felson, 1979) one might consider how adult guardians counter drug use among adolescents.

3. Youth transitions

Transitions produce potential for long-term change (Pickles & Rutter, 1991; Henderson et al., 2007). It is often during the transitional periods of adolescence and emerging adulthood that independence and residential mobility occur; a critical juncture for generating life chances (Pulkkinen & Caspi, 2002). Many post teenagers attend colleges or universities creating an extended period of temporariness. Arnett (2000) has named this period emerging adulthood. In Malta however, small geographical size and the location of the only university in a central part of the island, as well as cultural attitudes means that most young people continue to reside with their family of origin while they are studying at university. While they may not be making any housing transitions, emerging adults are given increasing freedom with the family to make their own decisions. This is a time for decision-making, evaluation, finding one’s identity and carving out a place in the world (Santrock, 2007). While changes pose challenges for the young person, the vast majority deal with stresses well (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005). Risk taking may result from the struggle to find a place in society (Stroufe et al., 2005) While substance abuse is common during this period (Rowe & Liddle, 2006) the vast majority of youth use drugs only recreationally during their transition to adulthood and most often stop using them or continue to do so only sporadically once their lives encounter greater routine and commitment through the assumption of adult roles (Van Gundy & Rebellion, 2010).

As the adolescent begins to think more like an adult there is a push for autonomy. Independence is no longer symbolised by leaving one’s family but is more likely to mean emotional freedom within the family to make decisions concerning one’s life and to develop autonomy. One in four families experience difficulties during this time (Rutter et al., 1976). Noller and Callan (1991) discuss how if families spend constructive time together, this can be a vital place in which youth may continue to develop. Positive family connections are protective factors against a range of risky behaviours and family relationships in adolescence and emerging adulthood have important follow on effects for a number of domains such as autonomy and later independence (Coleman & Hendry, 1990; Borkowsky et al., 2002); self esteem (Rosenberg & Kaplan, 1982; Parker & Benson, 2004); individual psychopathology (Eirini, 2010); problem behaviour (Esfandyari et al., 2009); delinquent behaviour and drug use (Guilamo-Ramos et al., 2008).

4. Family Structure

In a predominantly Catholic Maltese society the traditional nuclear family still prevails. In Maltese households, two adults
and two dependent children, still make up the largest percentage of households. In 2007 the European Survey on Income and Living Conditions reported that in a sample of 55,950 households, 7% consisted of single parent households. However, over the last decade there has been a significant increase in births outside marriage and in marital separations (National Statistics Office, 2009). At the time of the research, it was not possible to legally divorce in Malta. Divorce became legal in October 2011. Despite this, Maltese adolescents now grow up in a variety of family structures (Tabone, 1995). Adolescents experiencing parental separation may have difficulty coping with anger, showing sadness and may be used as confidants by their parents (Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1999; Wallerstein, 2005; Lansford et al., 2006). They may act out, feel anxious about the future, and experience emotional and social withdrawal. Feelings of loss may put the adolescent at risk of substance abuse (Cooney, 1988; Amato, 2005; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002).

Some research finds that adolescents from non intact homes are more likely to be involved in delinquent and drug using behaviour (Curran & Renzetti, 1994). However others argue that it is the conflict preceding separation/divorce that contributes to problem behaviour rather than separation per se (Amato, 2001). The introduction of stepparents into the family situation is initially frequently problematic. (Santrock, 2007; Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992; Kerig & Swanson, 2010). The number of children in the family also influences the management of adolescents, with less parental monitoring and supervision in large families (Preto & Travis, 1985; Dunn, 2006; Tucker et al., 2003). Socioeconomic status, broadly defined as one’s level of income, is often seen as a basis for drug use with economic hardship facilitating substance use (Needle et al., 1990). Financial difficulties are likely to be encountered following separation or divorce and exacerbated in large families.

5. Family Functioning

Irrespective of structure, a family that functions adequately can provide a supportive environment for adolescents. Frequent exposure to negative emotion in the household may be overwhelming for adolescents, effecting their management of emotions (Gross, 2007). Parenting styles influence adolescent outcomes and are perceived in terms of two factors: responsiveness and demandingness (Baumrind, 1991). Baumrind (1991) identified four parenting styles. Authoritarian parenting is not responsive but demanding and directive. Children from such families tend to be less involved in problem behaviour and perform moderately well in school, but have poor social skills, lower self-esteem and higher levels of depression (Darling, 2010). Permissive indulgent parenting is low in demandingness but high in responsiveness and children regulate their own activities (Fagot as cited in Kaplan, 2004). These children have better social skills and higher self esteem but are more likely to be involved in risk behaviour. Permissive neglectful parents, characterised by low responsiveness and low demandingness, do not monitor their children’s activities and provide little structure giving the adolescent more opportunity to experiment with substances (Kaplan, 2004). Authoritative parenting is high in responsiveness and high in demandingness. Parents are supportive and assertive but not intrusive and restrictive and encourage their adolescents to be socially responsible and self-regulated (Baumrind, 1991). The child grows to be socially competent, self-reliant, independent, self-controlled and contented, leaving the adolescent less likely to develop problems with substances (Kaplan, 2004).

Families of drug users tend to have discipline issues that arise from both how the discipline is implemented and how it is used (Jurich, Polson, Jurich & Bates, 1985). Democratic discipline has been associated with the prevention of drug use (Baumrind, 1991). Adolescents have a higher self-esteem and sense of belonging when their families have structured routines and rituals (Fiese, 1992). Family rituals are capable of giving the adolescent meaning and stability in times of transition and make the adolescent more resilient in the face of substance use (Fink, 2000). Monitoring and supervision in adolescence “serve as a protective factor against association with deviant peers, and more seriously, the influences of substance-using peers and siblings” (Dishion & Kavanagh, 2001, p. 127). Farrell and Dintcheff (as cited in Segrin & Flora, 2005) found lower levels of alcohol abuse in adolescents who were monitored. Parents who are aware of their children’s activities are able to steer them from problematic situations. Even though adolescents usually detest supervision it shows them that their parents care for them fostering self-esteem and self-confidence (Segrin & Flora, 2005). Dishion, French and Patterson (as cited in Dishion & Kavanagh, 2001) found poor monitoring was associated with early onset adolescent substance use. Conflict within the family has been strongly correlated with an adolescent’s involvement with alcohol and other drugs (Hops et al., 1990).

Adolescent persistent users describe their lives at home as being troubled (Shedler & Block, 1990). Adolescent drug use lessens as the strength of the attachment to the family increases (Brook et al. as cited in Guber & Taylor, 2006). Baumrind (1985) found that delayed onset of marijuana use in girls is positively related to parental firmness, responsiveness, self awareness, demandingness and intellectual stimulation. The family’s social position and the maintenance of structure were also factors that were positively related to delayed onset. Delayed onset for boys was
related to parental conventionality and family intactness. The literature thus emphasises the role the family plays in adolescent drug use, and we can come to “a near unanimous conclusion that a positive relationship between the child and his or her parents can serve as a deterrent to the use of drugs” (Glynn & Haenlein, 1988, p. 44).

6. The Maltese Context

According to the Council of Europe Review of youth policy in Malta (2005):

In many respects Malta is a traditional Roman Catholic society in which faith, family and community constitute the main points of reference for the overwhelming majority of the population. It is a warm and cohesive society that certainly appears to care deeply for its young people. The family, for example, is a vital national resource and a socially protective factor. Unlike many other European countries, young people’s delayed transition to independent living is not perceived as a major problem in Malta. Most young people are content to remain living at home until their late twenties, and parents appear happy to accommodate them (p. 7).

The presence of one University in a country of 42 square km means that young people do not need to move out of home in order attend university. Many continue to live at home until they are married. According to Abela (2009) “parents continue to exert a great influence on their children, given that although younger generations tend to marry in their late twenties, most of them continue to live with their parents until they get married” (p.151). The family remains an important social context for emerging adults. A recent study on the health behaviours of university students (Cefai & Camilleri, 2009) at the University of Malta explores, similarly to this study, drug use among students. Using a random sample of 500 students, they found that 10.1% of students made use of drugs in the last month, 9.6% used cannabis and 4.4% used cocaine in the last month. 3% of students used inhalants, ecstasy, amphetamines and LSD in the last year. Students were unlikely to use heroin. Cannabis is the drug of choice for University of Malta students; 12% reported smoking tobacco regularly. In the Cefai and Camilleri study the most commonly used substance among students is alcohol; 11% drink on a regular basis, 45% drink at the weekend and 13% binge drink on a regular basis. Students seem more likely to consume alcohol rather than illicit drugs or tobacco, in the presence of family (Cefai & Camilleri, 2009).

7. Hypothesis and Research Instrument

This study hypothesized a relationship between the perceived intactness of the family unit, family size, perceived emotional climate, perceived parenting styles, participation in family rituals, perceived monitoring and supervision and patterns of self reported substance use among young people attending university in Malta. Causal analysis was not engaged in and hence the direction of the relationship was not explored. While the hypothesis that family functioning matters is somewhat predictable given the amount of research on the issue, the matter has never before been studied with such a sample locally.

Intactness of the family was measured by asking the respondents whether when they were growing up their parents were married, separated or divorced and in the case of the latter two, whether they then lived in a reconstituted family unit. Family size was measured by the number of family members living under the same roof, including extended family members like grandparents. The family functioning variable responses can only indicate what the respondents perceived to be the case at the time rather than an actual measure of the variable in question. Perceived emotional climate was measured through items in the questionnaire measuring perceived mood states of the family members, the degree of fighting in the home, an evaluation of the atmosphere as pleasant, relaxed or tense and the perceived warmth and availability of other family members.

The variable ‘parenting styles’ was measured through recall of parental discipline strategies and items reflecting authoritarian, authoritative and laissez faire styles. Participation in family rituals was measured by asking respondents if their family members did things together when they were growing up. Monitoring and supervision items included one that asked respondents if their parents would know where they were and who they were with and another asking if their parents knew what activities they were engaged in. The drug use variables measured substance use in lifetime and last month but most of the items focused on use in the last 30 days following the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD) and which is more indicative of actual use. The study approaches substance use as an activity rather than an inherent problem in the population under study, which have already demonstrated success in one major area of adolescent functioning, i.e. post secondary education.

A questionnaire was constructed to examine family structure and functioning and to relate these to patterns of self
reported substance use. Reliability of the research tool was measured using the test retest method. The Guttman Split-Half Coefficient was .91 showing that the questionnaire has sufficient reliability. Participants were assured full anonymity and confidentiality. The questionnaire comprised three main sections. The first section explored demographics. The second section explored family structure and student perception of family functioning. The last section measured the students’ self reported use of substances including alcohol, tobacco, marijuana, cocaine, magic mushrooms, crack, ecstasy, heroin by smoking, heroin by means other than smoking, LSD or other hallucinogen and anabolic steroids. The last part of the tool explored students’ alcohol consumption patterns in further detail since this is the most commonly used substance.

8. Methodology

The 1130 respondents (311 males and 819 females) were current students of the University of Malta for the scholastic year 2009/2010. Males and females had equal opportunities to take part in the study but women are generally more likely to respond to surveys (Martikainen, 2007). Participants were aged between 18 and 25 in the transition to adulthood. All participants had an A-Level standard of education and sufficient understanding of the English language. Convenience sampling was used through the University’s Electronic Student Information Management System (eSims) to which all students have access. In 2009 to 2010 there were 10,044 students enrolled; 4209 males and 5835 females. The system provides each student with an email address, login name and password, so that through a Webmail system, the university may send emails. The questionnaire was sent out (through the registrar’s office) to the 8,055 students between the ages of eighteen and twenty five, thus ensuring that each student within the eligibility bracket had an equal opportunity to take part in the study. The maximum margin of error was calculated with the degree of confidence being 95% and the population size 8055.

9. Results

9.1 Substance use

Table 1 illustrates the frequency of students’ substance use across their lifetime. Alcohol is the most commonly used substance, with almost half of the population having used it over twenty times in their lifetime. The most commonly used illicit substances were marijuana and ecstasy, used by 10% and 2% of students respectively. The substances that were used least by students across their lifetimes were heroin and crack.

Table 1 Frequency of Use across Lifetime

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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Alcohol</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>551</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tobacco</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>255</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marijuana</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocaine</td>
<td>64</td>
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<tr>
<td>Magic Mushrooms</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crack</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecstasy</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heroin (by smoking)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heroin (other than smoking)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSD</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anabolic Steroids</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3</td>
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</table>

It must be stated at the outset that the statistical relationships documented hereunder cannot be interpreted in a causal manner since causal analysis did not constitute part of the data analysis. Using analysis of variance each of the family
variables was separately correlated with the frequency of use of each substance across the students’ lifetime.

A correlation was established between perceived home emotional climate and substance use across the lifetime. Students who drank alcohol more than twenty times in their lifetime reported a more negative perceived home emotional climate than other students (SD = 1.09; p < .01). Similarly, students who smoked tobacco more than twenty times in their lifetime reported a more negative perceived home emotional climate than students who reported never smoking (SD = 1.19; p < .001). Students who reported using marijuana (SD = 2.41; p < .001), cocaine (SD = 1.00; p < .01), ecstasy (SD = 1.13; p < .001), LSD or other hallucinogens (SD = .03; p < .01), and anabolic steroids (SD = 1.73; p < .01) more than twenty times in their lifetime also perceived their home emotional climate as more negative than students who never used the substances. This finding suggests that students who perceive their family unit as being characterised by warmth, as opposed to tension, report less use of licit and illicit substances.

Perceived discipline strategy was examined in view of frequency of use across lifetime. A significant relationship was found between perceived inconsistent discipline by parents and the use of tobacco (SD = 1.12; p < .05), marijuana (SD = 1.18; p < .05) and anabolic steroids (SD = 1.41; p < .05). A significant interaction also emerged between perceived low monitoring and supervision and the use of marijuana (SD = 1.04; p < .001), cocaine (SD = 1.15; p < .001), magic mushrooms (SD = 1.18; p < .001), alcohol (SD = .90; p < .001), tobacco (SD = .10; p < .001), ecstasy (SD = 1.07; p < .001), LSD or other hallucinogens (SD = 1.32; p < .001) and anabolic steroids (SD = .71; p < .001).

A significant negative relationship was found between partaking in family rituals and the use of alcohol (SD = 1.05; p < .01), tobacco (SD = 1.13; p < .001), marijuana (SD = 1.17; p < .001), cocaine (SD = 1.18; p < .05) and LSD or other hallucinogen use (SD = .76; p < .01). One cannot conclude from the results that lack of family rituals brings about substance use in young people. It may be the case that youth who use drugs resist involvement in family rituals or that the two are influenced by third variable.

Students who reported that their parents exercised authoritative parenting were less likely to report consuming alcohol, tobacco, marijuana and LSD or other hallucinogens. Students who perceived their parents to have high permissive neglectful parenting style had a significantly higher use of alcohol (SD = .83; p < .01), tobacco (SD = .84; p < .001), marijuana (SD = .86; p < .001), cocaine (SD = .88; p < .01) and LSD or other hallucinogens (SD = .87; p < .01), when compared to those students who perceived their parents to have low permissive neglectful parenting style. Young people from non intact homes were more likely to report using tobacco, marijuana, magic mushrooms, ecstasy, heroin by smoking, and LSD or other hallucinogens. A significant positive interaction emerged between family size and cocaine use; those students with larger families were more likely to use the drug than students with smaller families (p < .05).

Analysis was carried out to explore the relationships between age of first use and the individual family variables. Parents’ marital status was significantly correlated to the mean age of first use of alcohol; 15 years of age for students whose parents were married in adolescence and 13 years of age for those students whose parents were separated in adolescence (SD = 2.55; p < .001). Age of first use of alcohol was also related to parenting style; students who perceived their parents to have an authoritative parenting style reported later onset of alcohol use (r = .10; p < .01) than students who perceived their parents to use a different style of parenting.

The age of first use of alcohol was also later for adolescents who perceived their parents to have a permissive indulgent parenting style (r = .07; p < .01). Students who perceived their parents to have a permissive neglectful parenting style (r = -.09; p < .01) were more likely to report drinking alcohol at an early age. Perceived parenting style was not related to age of onset of tobacco use (p > .05). Age of first use of alcohol was significantly correlated with monitoring and supervision (r = .23; p < .001); those students who perceived their parents to have high monitoring and supervision reported the first use of alcohol at a later age. Participation in family rituals was significantly correlated with reported age of first use of alcohol (p < .01).

A significant interaction was found between monitoring and supervision and binge drinking (p < .001). 20% of students who reported very low monitoring and supervision in their adolescence binge drink regularly, five or more times in a month, while only 1.6% of students who reported high monitoring and supervision in adolescence binge drink.

10. Discussion

The frequency of substance use, including the high rate of alcohol lifetime use among the student population in this study, was similar to that found locally by Cefai and Camilleri (2009) and ESPAD (1997, 2003, 2007). Consistent with World Health Organisation data (2008) marijuana is the most commonly used illicit substance by students. For most substances there is high lifetime use and low monthly use indicating experimentation rather than problem use.
While the role of families in youth substance use is well known, this research has yielded some novel preliminary results for the Maltese context. They should however be interpreted with caution. A relationship between variables does not necessarily mean that one variable is causing the other and further research in Malta is needed to determine this. In this study the strongest relationships were for family structure and monitoring and supervision, which are known to impact on each other (Moon et al, 2000). Students from non intact homes were more likely to report using substances. Living in a one parent family may result in less supervision since one parent may monitor and supervise less effectively than two. Parental separation may also place stress on the young person during this delicate period of transition. The literature in fact indicates that adolescents from non intact homes may have difficulty coping with their emotions (Wallerstein, 2008) and may begin to act out (Cooney, 1988; Hops et al., 1990). Parental separation thus emerges as an important risk factor. Children of divorced parents report greater alcohol and drug involvement compared with children from intact, married families (Doherty & Needle, 1991; Fergusson, Horwood, & Lynskey, 1994; Short, 1998). In Malta marital separation is on the increase (NSO, 2009) and divorce was legalised in October 2011. Current social changes affecting Maltese families include changing employment and working practices, new demographic trends and changing family structures (Abela et al, in press). In the present study students from non intact families were twice as likely to report having been intoxicated as students from intact families. Whether this is a function of the conflict preceding the separation remains to be ascertained.

Monitoring and supervision, for which this study also showed significant associations, is likely to be reduced in large families (Farrington & West, 1995) as well as in single parent households. Older adolescents may be encouraged to spend time out of the house while parents cope with younger children. Emotional climate was a factor that was significantly correlated with more than half of the substances supporting Wight and Barnes and Windle (as cited in Muisener, 1994). Emotional climate may be adversely affected as a result of parental separation or may be a precursor to it.

The present research has also shown that parenting styles may be related to an adolescent’s substance abuse with authoritative parenting style serving as a resiliency factor, while permissive indulgent and permissive neglectful parenting styles serving as risk factors. Authoritative parenting allows for emerging autonomy but still places some needed control and guidance on behaviour. The extensive dialogue afforded by this type of parenting often results in young people who are socially responsible and self reliant, protective factors for substance use (Jackobsen & Crockett, 2000). Authoritative parenting style has been shown to delay the age of use of alcohol and in the present study the two variables were positively correlated. In her longitudinal study Baumbird (1985) mentions those characteristics in parents that delay use of marijuana and alcohol, almost all of which fall under the authoritative parenting style. Results for permissive neglectful parenting style also corresponded with previous studies cited in the literature review for this paper - the higher the reported traits of this parenting style the higher the frequency of reported substance use. This style of parenting gives little structure and monitoring to an adolescent, and thus gives them time to experiment and use drugs more freely without worrying about the consequences. Baumbird (1985) found that structure is needed to delay onset of use of substances. Permissive indulgent parenting traits were positively related to the age of first use of alcohol. This is contrary to what was expected, as research indicates that adolescents who have parents with this style are more likely to be involved in problem behaviour. The adolescent may however come to respect the warmth that they receive from their parents and develop a strong social bond with them. Permissive indulgent parenting may still foster a positive emotional climate in the home although structure is lacking. The results on the parenting styles show how authoritative parenting is most effective in insulating youth from substance use. According to Baumbird authoritative parents "monitor and impart clear standards for their children's conduct. They are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive, rather than punitive. "(Baumbird, 1991, p. 62). This style of parenting produces socially responsible and self regulated adolescents.

Family rituals were significantly correlated with the frequency of reported use of substances and the age of first use of alcohol. This corresponds to Fink (2000), as he says that family rituals contribute to a young person’s resilience in the face of substance abuse. Family rituals serve as powerful organizers of family life that provide stability during times of transition such as the period of youth and emerging adulthood. Family rituals also delay the onset of use of alcohol, as the students whose families gave importance to family rituals such as sitting and eating together have a higher age of onset for alcohol. Rituals have been shown to protect mental health under high-risk conditions (Bennett et al., 1987). The results show that monitoring and supervision in adolescence is an important variable impacting substance abuse. It was related with the frequency of use of most substances and one may hypothesise that it could serve as a possible mediating variable when examining relationships between other variables, like family structure, family size and parenting styles. This study supports the findings by Dishion and Kavanagh (2001) that monitoring and supervision are protective factors for the adolescent. The results are also consistent with those of Farrell and Dintcheff (as cited in Segrin & Flora,
2005) who found lower levels of alcohol abuse in adolescents who have parental monitoring. The results also confirm that the age of first use of alcohol is significantly higher for those students who reported experiencing parental monitoring and supervision in adolescence. Monitoring and supervision is the only variable that was related to binge drinking, and the relationship is very strong.

Students who have low monitoring and supervision are almost twenty times more likely to binge drink regularly. Lack of monitoring allows young people to freely dabble in risky behaviour. This is evidenced by the results of the current study where monitoring and supervision was exceptionally correlated with frequency of intoxication. Thus this research continues to add to the evidence that parental monitoring is protective for young people. Knowing their children's whereabouts, activities, and peers when they are not under their direct supervision reduces the incidence of substance use. Fletcher et al. (2004) found that involved parents who solicit information concerning activities and consequently provided higher levels of control have a positive impact on their adolescents' behaviour.

11. Conclusion

The aim of the study was to explore the relationship between perceived family functioning and structure and reported substance use in the transitional period of late adolescence and emerging adulthood in a sample of university undergraduate students in Malta. The main areas of focus were the frequency of substance use, binge drinking and the frequency of intoxication in relation to family variables. Both family structure and perceived family functioning have been shown to be related to self reported substance use in this transitional period and it is hypothesised that they may also influence each other.

The family variables mostly related to young people's drug use were: family intactness and monitoring and supervision in the adolescent years. Clearly these two variables are related in that monitoring and supervision is likely to decrease as a consequence of separation or divorce and living in a one parent family. Family rituals and emotional climate are also likely to be affected by family structure. Other variables such as family size, discipline strategies, emotional climate, parenting styles and family rituals also showed a significant relationship to adolescent substance use. The study suggests that the ideal family environment to foster resiliency is an intact family that monitors the activities of the young people living within it. It is also advantageous if the family is not overly large, harbours a positive emotional climate, with parents exercising an authoritative parenting style and where discipline strategies are fair and consistent. Time and effort put into family rituals also impact positively.

This study adds weight to the ample evidence on the importance of the family in the transitional period of late adolescence and emerging adulthood. In Malta empirical research in this area is notably lacking and although this study cannot make any conclusions about the causal effect of family variables on substance use, it indicates areas for further research in the area. More specifically a research agenda that allows for interpretations with regards to the direction of the relationships highlighted in this preliminary study is in order. Research among different populations of young people is also recommended since the sample population in the present study is one that has already negotiated some major successes in terms of educational achievement.

It is clear from the self reports on substance use presented here that this population is likely to use in a recreational and unproblematic manner. Research in Malta on family dynamics among young problem drug users is therefore recommended. This will have important implications for both prevention and intervention given the trends of emerging adults to continue residing with their family of origin for longer than in the past. Other family related issues need to be explored locally, most notably, the impact of parental drug use, the impact of domestic violence and fostering, adoption and being in care.

On a policy level efforts in Malta need to be directed towards strengthening the family in a time of rapid social change. Recent research is indicating that Maltese parents are working more hours and often find it hard to negotiate work and family life (Abela, Borg Xuereb, Casha, Clark, Inguanez and Sammut Scerri, in press). The family unit may be subjected to added pressures when adolescents begin to move into young adulthood. Flexible families that have the potential to adapt to change are more likely to survive transitional periods than rigid family systems (Olson & Gorall, 2003). Practical measures that assist families in such times include but are not limited to: work family balance measures; relationship education and provision of parenting skills; and provision of affordable recreational opportunities.

In times of economic hardship fiscal measures assisting families to parent effectively are crucial. Healthy families balance home, work and outside activities but achieving a work family balance might be difficult for parents who have to struggle to provide financial security for their dependents. Monitoring and supervision are difficult to sustain if parents are working at several jobs in order to support the family unit. Maltese families are moving away from the traditional male breadwinner/female homemaker model. Part time work is also on the increase. Moreover over half of the Maltese work
more than the standard eight hours a day of work (Borg, 2011).

While Maltese society and the family in particular is undergoing rapid social change, epitomised in the recent introduction of divorce in the country, values surveys indicate that family unity and the need to uphold marriage are important values embedded within Maltese culture (Abela, 2000). According to Abela (2009) Malta continues to have a strong social fabric that promotes social control with parents continuing to have considerable influence on their children. Evidence based policy efforts promoting practices that strengthen the Maltese family further should be prioritised.

References


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University Professor: Researcher or Employee?

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Abstract: A professor plays an important role in a university. He is more than just a researcher or glorified teacher. He has a passion for acquiring and disseminating new knowledge in his field of specialty. He has numerous responsibilities, from teaching students and assistant to research and administration. Acquiring job security in a tenure-track position is a highly sought after prize for those seeking a career in academia. Tenure provides professors with a life of learning, flexibility, a stimulating work environment, opportunities in different sectors, and the reward of working with young minds. For those who find this lifestyle attractive and are considering professorship as a career, it is important to understand role of a professor. Considering this, unfortunately nowadays one can find in many universities that the task of a university teacher has changed from planner, developer, researcher to the function. In other word he has become an employee, his main concern become salary and traditional teaching. He has been converted into narrowly defined knowledge entrepreneurs and often feels excluded or marginalized as a leader by his own university. The balance among different tasks of a professor i.e. teaching, research, and service, however, differs widely across institution typesThus the question is : a) what is major role of a university professor? b) Whether a university professor should try to apply his knowledge to facilitate students' better understanding of the study course and provide better services to the society. b) Whether He should take the initiative to attend national and international conferences, seminars, in his field through which he can gain experiences . This study tries to answer these questions.

Key words: University professor, researcher, role, teacher, professorship

1. Introduction

Being a university professor is a big role in the development of society and future generations, does not deny that. The role of a university professor and his effectiveness are linked to his work and update of his knowledge and experience. A professor is more than just a researcher and glorified teacher. The professor’s focus is on understanding, gaining insight into, judging the significance of, and organizing old and new knowledge. He is disturbed by the pile-up of undigested and ill-understood new results. He is not happy until he has been able to fit these results into a larger context. He is happy if he can find a new conceptual framework with which to unify and simplify the results that have been found by the researcher. Before going into print, he lets his ideas ripen. Priority is not an issue for him. Perhaps the most important task of the professor is to be the mediator between the researcher and the teacher. Understanding the role of professors should contribute toward understanding the role of universities.

Considering what mentioned above, unfortunately nowadays one can find in many universities that the task of a university teacher has changed from planner, developer, researcher to the function. In other word he has become an employee, his main concern become salary and traditional teaching. He has been converted into narrowly defined knowledge entrepreneurs and often feels excluded or marginalized as a leader by his own university. Thus the question is : a) What is major role of a university professor? b) Whether a university professor should try to apply his knowledge to facilitate students better understanding of the study course and provide better services to the society. b) Whether He should take the initiative to attend national and international conferences, seminars, in his field through which he can gain experiences . This article is intended not only to illustrate and help professors better understand their own role, but also to help the public at large better appreciate this role

2. Who is a professor?

Professor is a scholarly teacher; Literally, professor derives from Latin as a “person who professes” being usually an expert in arts or sciences; a teacher of high rank. A professor as an individuals come to the professoriate with specific—professional—knowledge and skills, including content expertise, practice/clinical skills, and research techniques. These skills constitute what may be called the base profession of college faculty. But college professors are immediately called upon to perform at professional levels in four possible roles: teaching, scholarly or creative activities (including research), service to the institution and community, and administration. (Rayner, et al, 2010)
3. Duties and Responsibilities of the professors

Professors are qualified experts who generally perform the following:
Each professor is expected to maintain the highest personal standards of character and conduct, to keep abreast of his or her academic discipline through continuing study, research, and/or participation in the activities of his or her professional organization, to strive to improve the effectiveness of his or her teaching, to take a sympathetic interest in the progress and development of each of his or her students, to keep accurate records of academic standing of each student in his or her classes, and to hand in promptly all reports of grades and other information required by the deans, the Registrar, the Provost, or the President.

Each professor is expected to meet his or her classes as regularly scheduled. In case any professor is kept from his or her duties by illness or other disability, he must inform the chair of the department and/or the appropriate dean in advance, if possible, so that arrangements may be made for assignments or a substitute instructor. If a professor finds it necessary to incur an extended absence from his or her regular duties, he must seek approval from his or her dean. In addition, he is expected to maintain adequate office hours so that he or she may be available to the students for conferences. He is also expected to participate in the faculty-student advisory program.

Each professor is expected to attend all meetings of the University faculty and the faculty of the school in which the member teaches, to attend commencements and convocations, to serve loyally and diligently on faculty committees, to assist the chair and colleagues of the member's department in carrying out the program of the department, and to cooperate fully with the trustees, the President, the Provost, and the deans in promoting the interests of the University. Each university is expected to continue to teach until the end of the session for which his or her services were engaged. During the regular academic session a professor must secure the approval of the Provost whenever they assume additional work for which they receive compensation (other than modest honoraria for activities directly related to their scholarly work.). This is normally allowed provided they do not engage in any occupations that conflict with their University duties, reflect poorly upon the University, or require more than the equivalent of one day per week. A professor manages the teaching, research and publications in their department (in countries where a professor is head of a department), other duties and responsibilities of a professors can be summarized as follows:

- conduct lectures and seminars in their specialty (i.e., they "profess"), such as the basic fields of mathematics, science, humanities, social sciences, education, literature, music or the applied fields of engineering, design, medicine, law, or business;
- Perform advanced research in their fields.
- provide pro bono community service, including consulting functions (such as advising government and nonprofit organizations);
- teach campus-based or online courses adopting instructional technology;
- mentor young aspiring academics (graduate students);
- Conduct administrative or managerial functions, usually at a high level (e.g. deans, heads of department, librarians, etc.).

4. Differences between a Professor and a Teacher

There are important distinctions between a teacher, a researcher, and a pure professor. The teacher's focus is on his students. His task is to convey a fixed body of knowledge to his students and to worry about the best way to do so. He normally follows a textbook and a "syllabus". A very important part of his job is to assign homework and to give tests to find out how much his students are learning. He pays attention to what the students think of him and his performance. He sympathizes with his students' worry about their grades.

The professor's focus is on his subject. He "lives" his subject and cannot easily switch it off, even while lying in bed awake or on vacation. He recreates the subject in his mind each time he lectures on it. He cannot know, in the beginning of a course, exactly how and in what order he will present the material. He may even, in the middle of the course, change his mind about what material to include or exclude. He always tries to find a new approach to and better insight into the subject of his course. He almost never gives a course twice in the same way, and he considers it anathema to have to follow a textbook and a syllabus. He is pleased if some students follow and appreciate his efforts, but he finds homework, tests, and grades a nuisance.

He is happy if he can find a new conceptual framework with which to unify and simplify the results that have been found by the researcher. Before going into print, he lets his ideas ripen. Priority is not an issue for him.

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Most students do not know the difference between a teacher and a professor. They expect to be treated in college the same way as they were treated in high school. They do not know that, in college, they should be their own teachers.

One may argue that we need only teachers, and that professors are unnecessary. But without influence from the professor, the teacher's curriculum would soon become more and more outdated and lifeless. Even now, many of the people who write textbooks for elementary courses in mathematics are hacks who have only a very shallow understanding of the subjects they are writing about.

5. Is he a Researcher?

Why the professors enter academic life? What are his aspirations and expectations? And how to increase his experience and achievements in the short term and long term? And what can he do to improve and develop his career? What are the key issues that need to be for academics and aspiring academics taken care of?

The researcher's focus is on the discovery of new results. He is the creator of new knowledge. His nightmare is to get stuck in his search or to learn that what he has found has already been discovered shortly before by somebody else. Priority is very important to him and will sometimes induce him to rush into print prematurely. The professor's focus, on the other hand, is on understanding, gaining insight into, judging the significance of, and organizing old knowledge. He is disturbed by the pile-up of undigested and ill-understood new results. He is not happy until he has been able to fit these results into a larger context.

It is believed that a large number of university professors working in institutions of higher education does not create conditions appropriate for them to do their research to the fullest, and the reason for this is due to the existence of barriers to multiple sources, represented by the lack of a clear material support, and moral, and possibilities, and administrative regulations obstacles, and claustral part-time, and the heavy teaching load, and the perception of inadequate by both: the professor himself, and education policy, and society as a whole

6. Role of professors mired in confusion

An online survey of full professors has revealed that they see their role very differently from the universities that employ them. The 200-strong survey, conducted as part of a project for the UK Leadership Foundation, reveals significant 'expectation gaps' with respect to the importance of income generation, mentoring and the leadership of teaching.

Professors regard income generation as their least important role but acknowledge that their own institutions see this task as one of their top priorities. Just 50% of professors rated income generation as either important or very important to them personally. But, when asked how universities regard this part of their role, the figure became 82. While professors regard helping other colleagues to develop as their most important task, this was ranked only fourth as an institutional expectation. A similar disparity was apparent with regard to the leadership of teaching, demonstrating that professors feel this role is undervalued by universities.

Roles that related mainly to contributions professors make within their universities, including 'representing the department' and 'leadership of teaching', were less highly ranked as institutional expectations.

Since universities tend to see professors as research-oriented cosmopolitans rather than committed locals. As a result, many professors feel under-valued and excluded from the leadership of the university. From an organizational perspective, this is a short-sighted waste of a valuable resource.

Feedback from the survey confirms that professors feel their universities make insufficient use of their expertise. More than half said their expertise was used either 'a little' or 'not at all'.

Fewer than two in five respondents indicated that they played any role advising senior managers, with use of their expertise more typically confined to serving on university committees.

Opinions in the survey were divided regarding the role of professors as managers. Some see their role as research-focused intellectual leaders with minimal responsibilities as managers. According to this view, professors are often poorly equipped to be leaders anyway as their acquisition of the title resulted from the sometimes selfish pursuit of individual research and publication objectives.

But others take a very different position arguing that leadership, at least at the departmental level, should be the preserve of the professor. Here, there is a widely held belief that professors are able to command the respect of colleagues on the basis of their 'academic credibility' compared with career managers without a similar level of scholarly achievements.

The lack of clarity about the role of a professor is partly a symptom of the way that appointment criteria at professorial title have broadened in recent years. Universities now make appointments at full professorial level for
almost 10% of UK academics now holding this once exclusive title.

While there is no consensus as to whether a professor can be seen as a ‘manager’ it is clear they are ‘intellectual leaders’ with responsibilities such as being a role model and mentor to less experienced colleagues, an advocate for their discipline or profession, and a guardian of standards of scholarship. It is important that universities look at ways of developing a clearer role description for professors which could draw on a broader range of their qualities (Macfarlane, 2009).

7. Conclusion: What should be real role of a professor?

Bearing in mind all above discussions, the role of the professor would extend to the fields of welcome involving the bombing of the energies of students, and guidance of their abilities, and broaden their horizons and their knowledge, and build and develop capacity critical and analytical they have, and to contribute in the formation of their characters, building their awareness of cultural, social and humanitarian and support the independence of thinking, and help them to recognize their personalities, and areas of creativity, and fields of their superiority and equip them with the ability to deal systematically with their courses of study, and the development of critical awareness they have, and enhance their ability to sort and scrutiny informational, and provide them with skills they can develop the basics of specialized knowledge that is giving them out, and makes them the center of the educational process and its source, and works on building attitudes, scientific and creative fit with the requirements of the current phase and the challenges dictated by and for the university professor also its role in guiding the behavior of students, and enhance their personal development, knowledge and encouragement.

The university professors are tractor mental, scientific, cultural, and progressive, creative, important and powerful in society, and whenever the preparation of a university professor distinct during the stages of his presence in the university, and whenever there is a student, university professor command him scientifically morally active, aware, positive and neutral in the treatment requested in cases of children of his country and his nation.

If we examine the role that must be done by the professor, we can say that this teacher should be the gateway to the understanding of many issues of interest to the student and the university and the community. Password must be accompanied by a university professor in the tender. The professor, who plays a key role in the educational process to make an effort to explain to the student and the guidance, the professor who is trying to develop good minds of the people, had no difficulty in the development of the same systems and compatibility with the university and the harmony with the subject and with whatever requested eluded things.

Tight, M. (2002) in his book outlined some duties of a professor of the university, including: a university professor must be actively interacting with all the energies of academic and social, involved in campus life with students and directed them outside the classroom at their meetings and activities of social, cultural, sporting, artistic, contributes to the encouragement and incentive to cooperate and volunteering for community service.

The role of university professor and effectiveness are linked to work and update the knowledge and experience, so it should a professor of the university that seeks to employ his knowledge and his knowledge in the service of society. He should take the initiative to attend conferences, seminars, local and global in his field, and that the visits to see the experiences of universities and other countries in the field of public service.

The professors of colleges organize and perform the functions of higher education and engage in a variety of diverse activities, from laboratory experiments and supervision of research postgraduate students, to conduct large lecture to undergraduate students, and write books and textbooks. With the exception of hours teaching specific that can be consumed about three hours a week in graduate school, or about twelve to sixteen hours per week for undergraduate students, the time Professor concentrate heavily on scientific research, and preparation of scientific material for teaching, students and so on. Thus, the profession will best fit what suits those people who enjoy the stimulation and self-motivation and the biggest prize is out of their ability to discover the answers to the problems of origin in their respective areas of specialization. The permanent teachers are characterized by a high degree of job security and the freedom to accomplish their work once one upgrade to a professor (Professor), it defines its responsibilities himself and decide for themselves how to allocate his time between teaching, writing and research, and administrative work. The most difficult years of the university professor is the early years, where there is great pressure on the professor to publish how much distinct from the research work to establish a high-point lead to his promotion to professor (Professor). In any case, the work of Professor emerging and the old professor is very symmetric, and also provide professional stimulation and
cultural freedom for all its members. Now begin some medical schools to deal honestly with excess supply of doctorates in a variety of ways all over the world and many of the college is currently working on this task very difficult. We do not deny that there are university professors have crossed these restrictions their intelligence, and maintained their leadership position and Social Council in the community and have won the confidence of university administration and the trust of the community, and gathered with the university administration and the political leadership in intelligent amazing, and balance, distinct, and there may role of career and the title of university, and the impact of safety, and avoid friction and income and outside the university, and spent the rest of his life influenced the lives of families long in the job and died and did not call one line on the blackboard a distinct life.

8. Recommendations

ProfsNet is a model of how universities can make better strategic use of the trans-disciplinary expertise of the professoriate. This needs to be inward-facing as well as outward-facing.

1. Since Professors are the heart of academic institutions without whom there could be no productive output and the institutions could not evolve. Thus there should be institutional changes in the way professors are treated such that whatever gaps exist in the universities, in as far as perceptions or actual differences, are narrowed down to the minimum

2. Institutions should developing clearer expectations of professors as Intellectual leaders beyond biblio-metrics. Criteria for being not just becoming Professor should Balance their role of professors as ‘locals’ as well as ‘cosmopolitans’. They also should resist pressures that narrowly define the role of a professor as a knowledge producer and knowledge entrepreneur

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School Variables and English Studies Performance Among Students in Akwa Ibom State

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Abstract The focus of this study was particularly to examine the extent to which the school variables (school location, school type and school proprietorship) relatively and collectively contribute to students' performance in English studies. The hypothesis formulated to guide the study based on the purpose of the study was that the independent and interactive effects of the selected school variables on JS 3 students' performance in English Studies are not statistically significant. This ex-post-facto research employed simple random sampling technique in selecting a total of 853 students from 20 secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State. The study made use of a researcher developed and standardized instrument: a 50-item English Studies Achievement Test (ESAT). The effect of school variables on students' performance in English studies was analysed using a 3 way factorial ANOVA. The result returned school proprietorship as the only school variable that exerted a significant effect on students' performance in English studies. School type had no significant effect in predicting students' performance in English studies but when interacting with school location and school proprietorship respectively its underlying effect was uncovered. It was recommended that teaching/learning conditions should be improved in public schools to enable students in these schools compete favourably with their counterparts in private schools whilst rural schools are given increased attention vis-à-vis infrastructural and human resource development to ensure improvement in the gains from teaching and learning.

Keywords: English studies; School location; School type; School proprietorship; School performance.

1. Introduction

Nigeria as a multi ethnic and multi lingual nation adopts English language as a lingua franca; it is the medium of communication in commerce and education. This has necessitated the enforcement of English Language Studies as a compulsory subject at the Junior and Senior secondary school levels of education. This has also informed the governments’ decision to make a compulsory credit pass in this subject a prerequisite for admission into all programmes in tertiary institutions in the country.

The importance accorded this subject in the curricular reflects accurately the vital role it plays in contemporary society. Unfortunately an inspection of the Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination results in English Language from 2001-2004 shows a high rate of failure in this subject. For example, 67.43%, 52.79% and 41.82% of students who sat for these examination failed in 2001, 2003 and 2004 respectively (West African Examination Council, 2004). Various efforts have been made to unravel the possible reasons for this unwholesome trend; some of which include training and retaining of teachers, a conscious effort to revitalise the reading culture amongst school children and some definite research endeavours towards establishing possible reasons to the poor performances, this research is one of such efforts.

From literature it has been observed that investigation into the process of teaching and learning of English Language is limited. Thus this research study is poised to explore and possibly establish the effect of school variables namely school location, school type and school proprietorship on students’ performance in English studies among Junior Secondary Schools in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.

1.1. Purpose of study

This study was designed to determine the independent and interactive effect(s) of school variables namely - school location school type and school proprietorship, on Junior Secondary 3 students’ achievement in English Studies.

1.2. Research question

To achieve the purpose of the study, the research question formulated to guide the study was: What are the independent
and interactive effects of school variables (school location, school type and school proprietorship) on JS 3 students’ performance in English Studies?

1.3. Research hypothesis

The hypothesis to be tested in this research stated in the null form is: The independent and interactive effects of school variables (school location, school type and school proprietorship) on JS 3 students’ performance in English Studies are not statistically significant.

2. Review of Related Literature

According to Flanagan (2001) to deny children the opportunity to attend single-sex schools is to say that there is no value in specifically creating an environment to concentrate on the needs and interests of boys and girls separately. The purpose of single-sex schools must be to teach personal qualities to boys and girls that enhance their masculine and feminine natures and roles and re designed in different ways to provide the environment, guidance and training that is unique to each sex, and to concentrate on activities that are of particular interest to boys and girls. He Flanagan (2001) further posits that single-sex schools are for providing particular role model guidance for boys and girls to grow up to be men and women by concentrating on developing masculine and feminine qualities which are ultimately in service to each other and should be accompanied with mostly coed schools, as coed instruction and social development are most important and beneficial.

From a study conducted by Feingold (1988) to examined the relationship between gender and eight scales of cognitive ability using Differential Aptitude Test (DAT) administered on 193, 844 secondary students (grades 8-12) he that found girls scored higher on spelling, language, and clerical speed while boys scored higher on mechanical reasoning and space relations. No difference was found on verbal reasoning, abstract reasoning, or numerical ability.

Riordan (1990) conducted separate analyses for students by sex and race on academic and attitudinal outcomes. He discovered that among African American and Hispanic American students attending Catholic Secondary Schools, both males and females in single-sex schools scored higher on standardized cognitive tests than their peers in mixed-sex schools.

Harker and Nash (1997) used data gathered in a longitudinal study of more than 5,000 eighth-grade students in New Zealand to confirm statistically significant differences in favour of girls at single-sex schools. Yet after applying controls for ability levels and for social and ethnic backgrounds, differences disappeared. Studies that have found positive achievement outcomes attributable to the single-sex environment have all dealt with single-sex schools rather than classes.

Khandker, Lavy and Filmer (1994) were interested in surveying the school performance of male and female students from various regions in Morocco and the role played by demand – and supply – side factors in various educational outcomes.

Analysis of the data confirms the educational and cognitive achievements in Morocco are higher for wealthy and urban households than for poor and rural households urban children and rural boys consistently outperform rural children and rural girls respectively, in school attendance and attainment. The school attendance rate is 90 percent in urban areas as compared to 48 percent in rural areas and 64 percent for rural boys as compared to 32 percent for rural girls. Similarly, the completion rate for rural primary school pupils is 60 percent compared to 87 percent for urban pupils and it is 63 percent for rural boys as compared to 56 percent for rural girls. There were also sharp differences in cognitive achievement between male and female and between urban and rural children in Morocco. About 42.2% of these children were urban, 57.8% rural, 49.6% male and 50.4% female. Urban children outperformed their rural counterparts and boys outperformed girls.

2.1. School location and academic performance

Studies repeatedly show lower test performance for children from lower socioeconomic groups. In Nigeria; Ato (1986) in his study to find out students’ attitude toward the easiness and difficulty of science observed that boys from urban schools. In another study, Jegede (1984) sought to find out the effects of non-cognitive correlates on secondary school students’ achievement in physics. Based on a validated 50 item physics achievement test and three questionnaires for the students, teachers and school authorities, Jegede (1984) submitted the following findings: although there was no statistically significant difference between the performances of students from rural and urban schools, the mean score of
students from school in urban settlement was higher than those in rural schools. In the same vein, Daramola’s (1983) results on Basic Physics Test reveals also that urban students obtained a mean score which was greater than that obtained by the non-urban students. The observed significant difference in science achievement seemed obvious because most schools in urban settlement have better qualified teachers and facilities reasoned Jegede (1984) and Daramola (1983).

2.2. School proprietorship and academic performance

Choice is present when families sometimes at great financial sacrifice, decide to send their children to private schools instead of public schools. In many ways parents and students make choices that affect their education futures. This some parents do because of the superior organizational attributes of private schools (Elmore & Fuller, 1996). Goldhaber (1996) analyzed the result of 3 000 students using the NELS data in Mathematics and reading. After controlling for socio-economic status, he found no achievement advantage in private schools.

Private schools according to Lukbienski and Lubinski (2005) are free from much bureaucracy that plagues public schools they are able to avoid political entanglement but rather focus on a core academic curriculum. Coleman and Hoffer (1987) found a notable private school effect - inherent advantages for schools in the private sector that resulted in a greater academic achievement even after controlling for differences in student population. Figlio and Stone (1997) reported on student achievement for over 5,000 students in public, private religious and secular private schools. Accounting for selection effects, they found evidence of a slight but significant negative private school effect for Mathematics and science achievement in religious schools relative to public schools, except for benefit from religious schools relative to public schools except for urban minorities who were found to benefit from religious schools while secular private schools were shown to offer a substantive advantage in these subjects.

More recently Kim and Placier (2004) found significant differences in a sub sample of 144 private schools in the NELS data with non-Catholic schools outperforming Catholic schools in reading, but not in Mathematics. Lukbienski and Lubinski (2005) observed that on using the 2000 NAEP dataset, they found that public schools were infact performing as well as private schools on Mathematics achievement. Yet most recently, Lubinski and Lubinski (2005) analyzed Mathematics achievement data of National Assessment of Education Progress (NAPE) using 19,000 4th graders from 7485 schools and more than 153,000 8th graders from 6092 schools from NAPE using an advanced statistical tool (hierarchical linear modeling) to study the relationship between school controlling for demographic differences in the populations served by the school. Without controlling for student background difference private schools scored higher than public schools. After controlling for potential student and school-level confounding variable, like socioeconomic status, gender race, disability, English proficiency and school location. The overall study demonstrates that demographic differences between students in public and private schools more than account for the relatively high raw scores of private schools. Indeed after controlling for these differences the presumably advantageous private school effect disappeared and even reverses in most cases.

Obviously, these studies together present a rather blurred picture of the impact of different school sectors on student achievement. Indeed, findings from HSB, NELS and NAPE suggest that results are quite sensitive to methodological and sampling issues (Grogger and Neal, 2000).

3. Methodology

3.1. Sample

The study covered Akwa Ibom State in the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Akwa Ibom State is one of the 36 states in Nigeria. This state is located with the South-South geopolitical zone of Nigeria and it lies between latitudes 4°32’ and 5°33’ North of equator and longitudes 7°25’ and 8°25’ East of the Greenwich meridian, with a total area of 8412.00 square kilometers. The population of this study was made up of all the JS 3 students from both public and private secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State. There are a total of 438 secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State; this is made up of 240 public and 198 private schools with an approximate JS 3 student population of 29,000 for the 2005/2006 academic year. A total of 20 schools were sampled, from which 50 students were randomly sampled to make up a study sample of 1000 respondents. Out of the 1000 students, complete and correct data were obtained from 853 respondents of which, 407 were males and 446 were females representing a percentage of 47.7% and 52.3% respectively.
3.2. Instrument

The main instrument employed by the researcher to gather relevant information for this study; the instruments was the English Studies Achievement Test (ESAT). To ascertain the respondents’ academic performance in English studies, a 60-item test for English studies was constructed and used. The researcher developed the instrument in accordance with the JS 3 syllabus. Considering the cognitive level of the students, items included in the instrument were based on knowledge, comprehension and application levels of Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives. The content areas tested on were: comprehension; antonyms; structure; synonyms; spellings and register. The test items were vetted and reviewed for face validity by Measurement and Evaluation experts and Secondary school teachers who are currently teaching English studies.

The English studies achievement test was pre-tested using 100 JS 3 students in four secondary schools within the study area. To make the final fifty (50)-item instrument, items with negative discrimination indices were discarded while those with low discrimination indices between 0.2 and 0.45 were restructured. The reliability coefficient for the English studies achievement test was 0.87 this was ascertained through the split-half method. The researcher with the assistance of English studies teachers in the sampled schools administered the instruments. These teachers were enlisted by the researcher as research assistance for the proper collection and collation of the relevant data from the respondents. Each instrument was administered within a day in each school so, data collection in each school lasted two days.

3.3. Design

This research is part of a larger work which adopted the causal comparative design because in the course of conducting this research, the researcher had no direct control over the changes in the variables under study, therefore, the inferences from the dependent variables made are only based on the natural variations in the independent variables as they affect or effect the dependent variables.

4. Presentation and Discussion of Results

This research used a total of 853 respondents out of which 407 representing 47.7% were males and 446 representing 52.3% were females.

Table 1: Group means and standard deviation of students’ scores in English studies achievement test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Location</td>
<td>1(Urban)</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>49.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2(Rural)</td>
<td>444</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>39.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type</td>
<td>1(All Boys)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>38.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2(All Girls)</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>43.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3(Coedu)</td>
<td>672</td>
<td>78.8</td>
<td>44.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Proprietorship</td>
<td>1(Public)</td>
<td>505</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>35.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2(Private)</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>56.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \sum N = 853 \text{ in all cases.} \]

The result in Table 1 showed that 409 (47.9%) from school situated in urban areas scored a mean value of 49.31 to be superior to their 444 (52.1%) rural counterparts with the mean score of 39.30 on the ESAT. An inspection of the scores earned by the three groups classified on the basis of gender showed only slight disparity in scores of the 672 (78.8%) students from coeducational institutions had a mean score of 44.82 while the 121 (14.2%) from all girls’ schools recorded a mean score of 43.02 and the 60 students from the all boys’ school had 38.20 as their average score on the ESAT. The variable tagged school proprietorship showed a reasonable disparity in the margin of the scores earned by the 348 (40.8%) students from private school (56.55) while their peers from public schools had 35.52 as their average score on the ESAT. Results in Table 1 will further establish the level of significance if any of the reported means.

To verify the only hypothesis of this study which states that - the independent and interactive effects of the school variables (school location, school type and school proprietorship) on JS 3 students’ performance in English studies are not statistically significant, a 3-way factorial analysis of variance was employed. The independent and interactive effects of the independent variables (school location-categorized into urban and rural; school type-categorized as all boys, all
girls and coeducational and lastly school proprietorship made into public (government owned) and privately owned schools, on the dependent variable JS 3 students’ performance in English studies was analyzed. The result of the 3-way ANOVA is presented in Table 2.

**Table 2:** Results of Factorial ANOVA of Effect of School Location, School Type and School Proprietorship on Students’ Performance in English Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main effects</td>
<td>103493.71</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10349.371</td>
<td>57.921</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Location</td>
<td>237.008</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>237.008</td>
<td>1.326</td>
<td>0.250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type</td>
<td>225.014</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>112.507</td>
<td>0.630</td>
<td>0.533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School proprietorship</td>
<td>1402.929</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1402.929</td>
<td>7.852</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-way Interactions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL by ST</td>
<td>1125.528</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>562.764</td>
<td>3.150</td>
<td>0.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL by SP</td>
<td>16.772</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.772</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP by ST</td>
<td>1268.813</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>634.407</td>
<td>3.550</td>
<td>0.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-way Interactions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP by ST by SL</td>
<td>12.255</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.255</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>150450.02</td>
<td>842</td>
<td>178.682</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1912752.0</td>
<td>853</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R Squared = 0.408

Table 2 showed the result of the effect of school location, school type and school proprietorship on students’ performance in English studies. From the table it is shown that the F-ratio for type of school and school location are not statistically significant at 0.05 level. Thus the null hypothesis is retained for these two factors. On the same table, the F-ratio for school proprietorship is found to be significant at 0.05 alpha level. The researcher therefore rejects the null hypothesis for this factor and upholds the alternate hypothesis.

This result therefore implies that school location and type do not significantly affect students’ performance in English but school proprietorship does significantly effects students’ performance in the subject. This interpretation is further buttressed by the conspicuously higher mean score of 56.55 earned by students from privately owned schools as against a mean score of 35.52 for students in public schools. The variable were further subjected to a two-way interaction with each other. An underlying significant effect from the interaction school location by school type and school location by school proprietorship on students’ performance in English studies were uncovered. A statistical display and a graphical representation of these significant interactions are shown in Table 3 and Fig. 1.

**Table 3:** Display of significant location by type interaction cell means on students’ performance in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School type</th>
<th>School location</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 (Urban)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 (Rural)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 1</td>
<td>(All Boys)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>38.40</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 2</td>
<td>(All Girls)</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>38.52</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>48.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 3</td>
<td>(Coed)</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>34.58</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>58.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
School location and school type as single factors do not significantly affect students’ performance in English as shown by their insignificant F - ratio of 1.326 and 0.630 respectively (Table 2 refers). But entries on Table 3 as graphically represented in Fig. 1, has shown the nature of the effect of interaction of school type and school location on students’ performance in English. Although the result on Table 1 showed that urban students had a higher mean score of 49.31 as against 39.30 by rural students, when school location interacted with school type the urban advantage under the combined effect of school type was uncovered. Thus it can be interpreted that students in urban schools perform poorly when the variable of school type comes into play. This is shown by a conspicuously wide gap in the performance of students in coeducational schools from rural and urban settings as indicated by a 58.14 mean score for rural students and a 34.58 mean score from urban students (Table 3 refers). From the graph it is shown that students from all girls in both urban and rural areas performed almost at par while students from coeducational schools in the rural areas outperformed those in urban settlements. Thus it was obvious that students in urban schools performed poorly when the variable of school type was introduced.

Table 4: Display of significant proprietorship by type interaction cell means on students’ performance in English studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School proprietorship</th>
<th>Type 1 (All Boys)</th>
<th>Type 2 (All Girls)</th>
<th>Type 3 (Mixed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>32.40</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All though school type has no independent effect on students’ performance on English studies, the result on Table 34 as graphically represented in Fig. 2 showed that students in private schools perform better than students in public schools irrespective of the school type they attend. The F-ratio of the 2 way interaction between school proprietorship and school type was found to be 3.550 was significant at P < 0.05. This is interpreted to mean that the performance in English studies by students from public schools tend to dwindle when considered along with the school ownership factor, while students from private schools improve in their performance irrespective of their type of school.

The result of the 3-way interaction of school location by school type by school proprietorship on students’ performance in English studies was not statistically significant as shown in Table 2.

5. Discussion of Findings

The analysis of the effect of school variables on students’ performance in English studies using a 3 way factorial ANOVA indicates that school proprietorship earned an F – ratio of 7.852 to top the significance table at 0.05 this result was supported by results of researches carried out by Kim and Placier(2004) and Lukbiensk and Lukbiensk  (2005). Result displayed on Table 2 showed that school location does not affect performance in English studies significantly. This result confirms an earlier result reported by Jegede (1984) although it was at variance with the result submitted by Khandker et al (1994).

Although there was no main effect by school location, a further analysis involving the interplay of school type yielded a significant effect on English performance. On inspecting Table 1, the mean score of urban students was higher than that of rural students, but when the variable of school type was entered in the analysis, it was observed that students in rural schools performed better than those in urban schools. School location also significantly affected performance in English when it interacted with school proprietorship. School type of all the variables had the least effect on students’ performance in English studies.

6. Conclusion

The research findings indicated that school proprietorship was the only school variable out of the three that exerted a significant effect on students’ performance in English studies. School type on its own had no significant effect in predicting students’ performance in English studies but when interacting with school location and school proprietorship respectively its underlying effect was uncovered.

7. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher recommends that the government, teachers, parents and all stakeholders...
holders in the educational sector should put the necessary mechanism in place to improve.

1. Teaching/learning conditions should be improved in public schools to enable students in these schools compete favourably with their counterparts in private schools.

2. A greater attention be accorded educational institutions situated in the rural areas with the view of improving their human and material resources in order to boost the academic performance of students in these localities. School proprietorship was the only school variable out of the three that exerted a significant effect on students’ performance in English studies.

References


Effective Teaching with Information Technologies: Towards an Interactive Pedagogy

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Abstract: With the current increasing awareness of the theory associated with learning afforded with new Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs) there seem to exist a call for a change in the way teachers teach and learners learn. Based on the conception that interactivity is a means to a greater end – participant learning which may lead participants to a point of reflection on content, the present paper considers an important issue related to the validity and reliability of information technologies, based on interactive pedagogy accessed for use in classrooms, i.e., an interactive approach may be adopted in classrooms to promote collaborative process, learners’ autonomy and thus, learners’ centeredness which may in all probabilities manage the learner’s attention and create motivation in the classroom.

Key-words: Information technologies, interactive pedagogy, collaborative learning, motivation.

1. Introduction

“A new age demands a new paradigm!”
Walter McKenzie

“With the help of technology, teachers will be leaders in the transformation of education around the world.”
Craig R. Barrett, Chairman, Intel Corporation

A new global landscape is emerging as our world now witnesses a period which may be called “a digital age” where countries are trying to catch and utilize amazing technological developments into every area of their technical and social life. It is often assumed that one of the main challenges of current pedagogy seems to be the incursion of technology into classroom tasks. Language researchers strongly argue that it appears to be inevitable that, the more a teacher makes use of instructional technology in the classroom, the less teacher-centered and the more student-centered a classroom will become.

Throughout language teaching history, a great number of researchers have condemned teaching as being restricted to the teacher as the distributor of knowledge and the learner as the unquestioning recipient of knowledge, treating the minds of learners like storehouses to be filled with information. Within the current changes, like any area of research, education has witnessed a drastic but a noteworthy change which is characterized by the inclusion of ICTs within the field of education.

2. ICTs in Education

The sharp rise in the application of ICT resources in the curriculum has been driven to a large extent by the adoption of interactive pedagogy and related technologies in the classroom. Considering language as being a remarkable index of pedagogy changing, it would be surprising; indeed, if such a radically innovative phenomenon; namely technology did not have a fascinating impact on the way learners learn and grow. Joining this idea, NCEL (2004) states that:

The integration of new and powerful technologies in our educational institutions and increasing emphasis on higher-order skills in curriculum content will not bring about the broad changes required without essentially changing the ways teachers and learners work together.
However, the feasible combination of technology into education seems reasonably doubtful if it is not carefully integrated the curriculum accompanied by appropriate services, mechanisms and professional development support (Fox, 2003). Traditional classrooms treat the learner as an isolated and abstract being having little interaction with students or the teacher who is characterised by his authoritative nature. Hence, the genuine challenges for teachers at this point in the growth of digital classrooms seem to be tremendous to see the great potential that lies ahead, this is to master the interactive tools and the state of mind to begin collaborate with colleagues and students for effective use of these new tools within the teaching in the digital world.

3. Interactive Pedagogy

Interactivity may simply mean that teaching resources should be designed in a way which allows students interact with the tools either physically or mentally. It also may mean using software like Google Earth to pick up the whole globe, rotate it and zoom in, showing animated layers to demonstrate some geographical principle, or manipulating objects in a virtual physics environment in an easy way, economising time and energy too. Interactive pedagogy may take the form of “self-paced, student-controlled, individualized learning opportunities embedded with formative and summative assessments to gauge student learning outcomes”. Lawrance (2010:136)

Traditionally, classrooms were limited within the four walls, a teaching board and rows of tables and chairs; far too many teachers still believe the traditional tools for learning, i.e., textbooks, worksheets, the conventional teaching board are enough; and in far too many classrooms the teaching tends to be a one-way experience, with the teacher at the front imparting knowledge to students who passively absorb these facts in order to repeat them back in an exam.

Interactivity incorporation may in all probabilities transform classrooms into technology-enhanced learning environments which support, to a large extent, innovation, achievement and success. This may equip students with the spirit of collaboration, critical thinking and technology skills which they need to conduct leading-edge research in an interactive and collaborative environment which result successful careers in the classrooms and workplaces in the future.

Thus, it seems to be high time to explore the new world of ‘e-teaching’, which is usually described by the act of teaching using technology to enhance learners’ achievements. Online learning platforms such as Moodle or Blackboard are typical of e-learning environments which enhance interactivity in which students log into in order to check published documents, tasks and activities to support a course of study, or which in some cases are actually the entire course of study. On the other hand, Students may also submit assignments and tasks electronically through the learning system, creating a digital, interactive work between the teacher and students.

The most remarkable example of interactivity is the Interactive Whiteboards or IWBs for short, which is a large interactive display that combines the simplicity of a whiteboard, power of a computer and front projection. IWBs may engage students with vivid images, video and audio, it also enables anything that can be seen or done on a computer screen to be projected onto an interactive whiteboard – bringing every classroom to life.
Our argument is that successful learning takes place when learners achieve a capacity to learn at their own pace, engaging and interacting with creative ideas in motivating ways. For instance, activities such as writing, creating, designing, thinking, problem solving may be intensely personal in a way that and most learners will construct meaning for themselves in their own heads, in their own learning styles, as they work through these higher-order activities. In this way, teachers achieve well-run classrooms through well-organised curriculum which caters for the individual learning styles and needs.

4. Teachers’ Changing Views on Interactive Pedagogy

The majority of teachers seem to emphasis on the relationship between their role in generating interactivity and enhance learners’ responsibility for managing activities, generating ideas, reflecting on learning and assessing what they had achieved (their outcomes). In this fashion, teachers felt that group work may encourage learners to instigate interactions, and tasks were often structured to ensure that these interactions took place. ICT was seen by a great number of researchers and teachers as a means of encouraging and motivating learners.

As it seems to be clear, an interactive approach involves a radical change in teachers’ roles from traditional pedagogy. Teachers may become a manager or facilitator of interactions designed to bring about learning, while learners take an active role and engaging in actions such as questioning, evaluating and explaining, i.e., this approach calls for learners’ centeredness at a large extent. A great number of researchers were conscious to shift to a more dialogic pedagogy, where teachers incorporate ICTs and integrate its principles into their work and practice.

The following ATLAS framework seems to be valuable in revealing that learning may be affected according to orchestrating variables in the resources and support provided. Thus, the use of ICTs as a medium of interaction may be particularly valuable for effective learning.

![Figure 1. The ATLAS Framework](image)

At this level, it is worthwhile that one should be careful while creating an interactive lesson. This was the concern of many researchers to help teachers succeed in their teaching task. Hence, language teacher’ roles moved away from being the “source of all knowledge” to being more of an ‘information architect’ charged with the task of designing engaging learning pathways for their students”. Betcher et al (2009:77), i.e., designing digital lessons which cope for learners’ styles and needs. In this line of thought Strickland (2006) puts forward the ADDIE instructional system design model which aims at creating an Interactive Lesson. The abbreviation ADDIE stands for, Analyse, Design, Develop, Implement, Evaluate. Within each step in this model, a practical, hands-on task is completed as support to prove that the skill has been mastered. Here’s how it goes:
1. Analyze: define the needs and constraints
2. Design: specify learning activities, assessment and choose methods and media
3. Develop: begin production, formative evaluation, and revise
4. Implement: put the plan into action
5. Evaluate: evaluate the plan from all levels for next implementation; evaluation is essential after each step.

Figure 2. ADDIE Model

5. Conclusion

Armed with computers, mobile phones and social networks learners have easy access to enormous quantities of information, thus, they need to have digital learning opportunities which take into account their learning needs and styles for successful achievements.

To put it in a nutshell, this new technology-enhanced pedagogy may be put under a generic term to describe ‘e-teaching’ (Kent 2004). E-Teaching involves the use of ICTs to improve the art of teaching. Harnessing the potential of digital technology in presenting a concept, exploring the implications, placing the concept in various contexts, creating links with existing knowledge, and leading discussions that probe student understanding and allow students to take their learning in personally relevant directions.

IWBs may create another way that the class can interact with the content of the lesson. Teachers can use the technology to promote higher order thinking and to lead substantive conversations. Interactive Whiteboards used within an e-teaching pedagogical framework have the ability to make an important impact on classroom practice. It may allow teachers to manage the teaching and learning process so that the learners can interact with the content and context of the lesson.

References

A Predictive Study of Pre–Service Teachers’ Gender, Self-Concept, Interest and Attitude Towards Interactive Computer Technology (ICTS) in Nigeria Universities Faculties of Education

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Abstract The study examines the combined contribution computer self-concept, interest/attitude and gender of Nigerian Universities pre-service teachers towards Interactive Computer Technology (ICT). Three instruments was used to collect data for the study. The sample consisted of 240 pre-service teachers from the faculty of education of 5 Universities in the south west Nigeria. used for the study. The data collected was analyzed using Correlation matrix and Multiple regression. The results were tested at 0.05 alpha level. The outcome of the study showed that Two of the variables significantly predicted independent variable. While there was no significant relationship between gender and self-concept of pre-service teachers on ICT. The males had high self-concept than the females

Key words: Self-concept, Competency, pre-service teachers, attitude/interest, interactive computer Technology (ICT)

1. Introduction

Education is the backbone of all sector of the economy of any country and the delivery of quality education remains topmost priority for nations. Education is of course at the core of the developmental programme of every nation. and the knowledge and the role of ICT in educational institution is shifting charismatically. The traditional role of ICT has been that of minor curricular subject, sometimes called informatics, computer literacy. Currently in most countries, developed and developing alike, information Communication Technology ICT is now at the centre of educational reform efforts that involves its use in coordination with changes in curriculum teacher training pedagogy and assessment. (Adebusuyi 2010) Countries like Singapore, Chile, USA and Norway etc have taken the position that the integration of ICT into classroom and curricula can improve educational systems and prepare students for the 21st Century learning society. Similarly, Multinational organization such as the (OECD) organization for Economic Cooperation and development, the European Union (EU) commission and GS Nations have identified the need to prepare students for life long learning in the knowledge economy and key assign a central role to ICT in accomplishing this goal.

Tertiary institutions are relevant actors in the social system, in what concerns the development of human capital, through the supply of new professionals that have universalistic skills which provides a better identification of social and economic responsibilities. It roles among others is education and leaning. Organization of tertiary institutions through Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and its uses in teaching and learning may now be regarded as an indispensable requirement of educational institutions. Indeed, ICT resources of desktop, Laptop, Palmtop, (Notebook) personal computer with accompanying software and complementary hardware such as interactive whiteboards, Digital camera data projector (Power point) Scanner etc are now increasingly regarded as part of the teachers’ professional “tool Box”. Teachers are not only to teach using ICT, but to improve student ICT competencies well. Unfortunately, most of the Nigerian tertiary institution lack the conducive ICT friendly environment, hence ICT within the depressed environment in most of Nigerian tertiary institutions have yet to find expression. Investigation revealed that in the research study of Odogwu (2000) that 201 students, and 14 teachers sampled identified inadequate infrastructure, facilities and teachers as challenges though they recognized the strong potential of ICT in Nigeria education once these challenges are met. Survey of the use of ICT by university students showed that the level of awareness of the relevance and utilization of ICT in the classroom is unexpectedly low in this technological era. While less than 25% of the students have used the internet for one thing or the other, less than 25% agreed to the usefulness of computer in the science Laboratory. All the students agreed they had a computer course, but more than 80% never touched a computer during the computer course presentation, 90% disagreed that any lecturer had never used a computer in whatever form to teach them. (Owotu 2009).

The situation hardly changed now across the public or Government owned tertiary institution. If students are computer literate today, it is due to their own activities outside the immediate classroom environment. The use is a little
bit different in the private tertiary institutions. The difference tied to the fact that some of these private institutions are in a more socio-economically advantaged, a more endowed Physical emotional environment, higher parental expenditure on the learners’ education and good class size which are far from the perennial over-population in public tertiary institutions. It is against these backdrops of the perennial systematic inefficiencies and failure that the three critical actions led by UNESCO in collaboration with mentor states become all important capacity building of teacher training institution in 46 countries in sub-Saharan Africa including Nigeria that aims to provides a conducive institutional environment for pre-service and continuing in-service teachers. In 2006 UNESCO followed this situation analysis with the launch of the reform project known as the Teachers Training Initiative for Sub-Saharan Africa (TTISSA) based on need for quality training, supply, status and retention of teachers (Owhotu 2009). Advancing minimum quality standards for qualify teacher can only work when the condition of life and work are improved and if a democratic political climate where teacher are consulted and empowered exist(UNESCO). The case is yet to get to the idea state/condition in Nigeria and hence the incessant strike by ASUU in Nigeria Clamoring for an improvement in the present environmental condition of the tertiary institution facilities equipment and infrastructure. Strategies put in place by UNESCO, TTISSA which strongly emphasize 25% of National Budget on Education, training of trainers and school heads, the setting up of documentation centres and teacher support centres and university school of Education, the National use of technologies, the development and use of research and co-operation with universities (UNESCO 2005) Illustrate the gaps that characterized prevailing learning environment in Nigeria

A cursory look at the quantity of education in Nigeria is along way far from achieving the goals of education for all by 2015 or fulfilling the dream of being one of the largest economist in the world by the year 2010. It is the aspiration of any nation to provide quality education to her citizenry, since no nation can rise above the quantity of her education (Jekoyinta, 2005). Researchers are advocating integrating computers skills into the content area proclaiming that computer skills should not be taught in isolation and that separate computer classes do not really help teachers learn to apply computer skills in meaningful ways. Bawden (2001) noted the increasing recognition that the end result of computer literacy does not mean just to know how to operate computer, but to use technology as a tool for organization communication, research and problem solving purpose. It should be noted that specific computer skills are important for teachers. To learn “laundry list” approach does not provide an adequate model for teachers to transfer and apply skills from situation. Teachers may learn isolated skills fit together to solve problems and complete tasks but the ultimate is that teachers need to be able to use computers and other technologies with flexibility, creatively and purposefully.

Potter (2001) noted that individual computer skills taken to be meaningful when they are integrated within information problem solving process and teachers develop true information technology literacy when they have genuinely applied various information technology skills as part of the process involved in content delivery. With the growing numbers of student and teachers involved in most school system, some of the major applications of computer in education has being for school registration and class scheduling , test scoring , grading and , reporting. The computer is also useful to keep track of all the subject each student has studied and the grade earned and all the records are stored in a database. One of the most important use of computers by the teachers is in the education delivery system. i.e. computers are programmed to deliver educational content “computer assisted instruction (CAI)”.

It could be noticed that in order to check examination malpractice the JAMB has gone on line both at registration and at writing the exams .Writing the post UTME exams in some Universities is through ICT. The big question is; From where do we expect these students to have got the knowledge required for all these task as requisite for them to pass these exams. Are they given the opportunity acquire any of the experience while they are in schools? The funny aspect of the matter is that some of the teachers handling these students by preparing them in various subjects for these exams appear not to be computer literate or are with diminutive competency in computer

2. Problem

Adoption of ICTs in schools could be affected by a number of factors. These factor can be grouped into two (1) Contextual factors which refer to aspect of the environment in which ICT is used (2) Psycho-sociological factors (sex, age, teaching experience etc) which relate directly to the teachers knowledge willingness to adopt ICT. One expect the teachers to integrate technology into their leadership roles of teaching the young ones. But it was discovered that the in-service teachers attitude and interest at using these modern technology is very low with a far-reaching influence on their competency and their quality out-put in lesson delivery. To therefore revamp the education system in Nigeria, there is the need to produce technologically literate workforce with positive disposition to technology use and reasonable skills. Finding out the level of the pre-service teachers’ competency, attitude and interest along side their gender will assist in diagnosing existing problems in the instructional process and possible area to help the teacher trainees. It is on this
premises that this study seek to find out the level of Pre-service teachers' competency and the contribution of some selected variables (Self-concept, interest/attitude and gender) of pre-service teachers' towards ICT(s)

3. Questions

1. What is the contribution of the Pre-service teachers' self-concept, interest/attitude, and gender to the prediction of their competency towards Interactive Computer Technology (ICT)?

2. What is the relative contribution of Pre-service teachers' self-concept, interest/attitude, and gender to the prediction of their competency towards Interactive Computer Technology (ICT)?

3. Methodology

The study is a descriptive study of the survey type to investigate the prediction of the criterion variables (self-concept, interest/attitude, and gender) on their competency towards Interactive Computer Technology (ICT)? All the State owned Universities in the south west Nigeria constitute the targeted population of study. The sample used for the study were 240 pre-service teachers from 5 Universities in the south west Nigeria. The 5 Universities were selected through simple random sampling technique. Out of the 240 subjects for the study, 130 female = 54.2% and 110 Male = 45.8% were selected through stratified random sampling technique. The Instruments used for the study were (i) Self Concept Scale (SCS) (ii) Interest/ Attitude to computer technology scale (ICT S) and (iii) Computer Interactive skill scale (CISS) The self concept scale instrument used in the study was an adapted from Alaba (2010) which was an originally developed instrument by Camb and Silvester (2003) The instrument was developed to measure teachers' self-concept to using computer. The validity of the instrument was done by test and measurement expert. The reliability of the instrument was established through test-re test method and the two scores obtained were correlated using Pearson Moment Correlation which yielded a coefficient index \( r = 0.77 \). The attitude /Interest to computer technology scale instrument which contained 30 items, structured in 4-point scale ranging from 1-4 with strongly agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 3 and strongly disagree = 1. The psychometric property of the instrument was carried out by a test and measurement expert in order to ascertain its validity. Consideration was given to the suggestion raised before using the instrument. The reliability of the instrument through test retest method yielded a coefficient index \( r = 0.82 \). The third instrument Computer Interactive skill scale (CISS) This is a self-developed instrument measuring the computer interactive skills of the teachers to ascertain their competency at using computer. The questionnaire consisted of 5 item under 6 subdivision making a total of 30 items. It was structured in 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1-4. To ascertain the validity of the instrument, it was given to a psychometrician and the comments were considered before using the instrument. The reliability of the instrument which was done through test-retest yielded a coefficient index \( r = 0.75 \).

3.1 Administration of Instruments

The questionnaire were administered through 5 research assistants who visited the Universities to administer the instruments on the Pre-service teachers and collected them back immediately at different time of visit to the Universities. Inferential statistics of correlation matrix, and Multiple regression were used for the data analysis tested at 0.005 alpha level.

Hypotheses Testing

(\( H_0 \)): There is no significant relationship between the Pre-service teachers' predictive variables and ICT competency.

4. Results and Discussion

Table 1: Correlation matrix of the relationship between Pre-service teachers' predictive variables and ICT competency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Computer Competency</th>
<th>Self-concept</th>
<th>Attitude/interest</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer Competency</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-concept</td>
<td>0.1046</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest/Attitude</td>
<td>0.3407*</td>
<td>0.3706*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.2871*</td>
<td>-0.1771</td>
<td>0.5912*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 above shows the correlation between the pre-service teachers’ predictive variables and ICT competency. The relationship between Interest/Attitude is significant, while the relationship between gender competency is also significant. Also, students’ Interest/Attitude shows the highest relationship with r-calculated value of 0.5912 followed by gender as 0.2871 and self-concept is least at -0.1771. There is also a positive relationship between Interest/attitude and self-concept. while there is no relationship between gender and self-competence. This by implication is that there is a significant difference between male and female self-concept to use ICT and their computer capability.

Table 2: Analysis of variance of Pre-service teachers’ predictive variables and ICT competency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Ss</th>
<th>Ms</th>
<th>f-cal</th>
<th>f-table</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.263</td>
<td>7.544</td>
<td>29.69</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>p≤0.05</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>61.630</td>
<td>0.261</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>84.893</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1b shows that f-cal is greater than f-tab, hence the hypothesis is rejected. By implication there is a low, positive significant relationship between pre-service teachers’ predictive variables and ICT competency.

Table 3: Multiple regression analysis between students’ predictive variables and ICT competency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multiple R = 0.5235</th>
<th>R² = 0.2740</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error</td>
<td>0.5110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables in regression</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest/Attitude</td>
<td>0.4269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.0938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-concept.</td>
<td>0.0845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Competency</td>
<td>-0.1916</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that the regression equation is as follows:

Computer Competence = 0.43 × Interest/Attitude × 0.094 × Gender × 0.085 Self-concept
By interpretation, putting other subjects aside, for every unit score increase in students’ Interest/Attitude, there is a corresponding 0.43 unit score increase in ICT competency. Also, putting other subjects aside, for every unit score increase in gender there is a corresponding 0.094 unit score in their ICT competency. In the same vain putting other variables aside, for every unit score increase in Self-concept, there is a corresponding 0.085 unit score in students’ ICT competency. Putting other variables aside, for every unit score increase in all other variables, there is a corresponding 0.19 unit decrease in students’ ICT competency. The table also shows that there is a Multiple correlation of 0.5235 among the four variables. The degree of determination is 0.2740 among the four variables. By implication students’ ICT competency can be accountable for 27% of the degree of variability among the other three variables.

5. Discussion of Findings

The result of the study revealed that male teachers in the teacher Industry are more computer friendly than their female counterpart as the study revealed that a significant difference exists in the computer skills between the male and females Pre-service teachers. The relationship between Interest/Attitude is significant, while the relationship between gender competency is also significant. The female self-concept to computer use is very low compared to their male counterpart. This is inline with Rekabdarkolaei & Amuei (2008) that female teachers are more anxious or less experienced, less confident in ICT competence. Mehloff, 2001 reported that there was no relationship between gender and teacher computer use but that Female teachers are more nervous and less confident about their computer skills (Namlu & Ceyhan 2002 cited in Alaba, 2010).

Interest/Attitude shows the highest relationship with r-calculated value of 0.5912 followed by gender as 0.2871 and self-concept is least at 0.1771. This is inline with the report of Timothy et al. (2010) that pre-service teachers in Singapore...
had high computer self-efficacy with respect to Basic Computer Skills (BCS) and fair self-efficacy to Web-base Skills (WBS). There is also a positive relationship between interest/attitude and self-concept of to ICT competency. This is corroborated by the submission of Compeau and Higgins (1995) that an individual’s use of technology will be affected by their efficacy, and that participants with high self-efficacy beliefs, use computer more often and experience less anxiety. This will also be the same for an individual with high self-concept and interest as it is in the outcome of this study. Such beliefs will tend to see themselves as able to use computer technology, while those with low self-efficacy belief tend to become more frustrated and anxious when working with computer. An individual with little interest at using ICT will hesitate to use it when required pedagogically. (Olive & Shapiro 1993) Hence the need to enhance the female teacher trainees self-concept and self-efficacy in ICT so that they can have the confidence to develop the required skills to help them become ICT facilitators when they get to the field.

6. Conclusion

The study examines the combined contribution computer self-concept, interest/attitude and gender of Nigerian Universities pre-service teachers towards Interactive Computer Technology (ICT). According to Frances (2005), the specific skills required for the academic use of ICT can be acquired during secondary education. This emphasizes the importance of this study that the pre service teachers should be well trained on how to make secondary students are being prepared to teach to acquire the skills required for them for the academic use of ICT either to enhance their study or write examination and pass as the demand is now in almost all external Examinations in Nigeria.

The outcome of the study shows that the Nigerian undergraduate pre-service teachers had high interest and positive attitude to ICT. There is a low, positive significant relationship between pre-service teachers’ predictive variables and ICT competency. The relationship between interest/attitude is significant, while the relationship between gender competency is also significant. The female self-concept to computer use is very low compared to their male counterpart. There is also a positive relationship between Interest/attitude and self-concept, while there is no relationship between gender and self-concept. This by implication is that there is a significant difference between male and female self-concept to use ICT, and their computer capability.

7. Recommendation

There is no other time than now to experience a paradigm shift in the teaching of all subjects in our tertiary institutions from the conventional lecture approach to paperless classroom. Hence the following recommendations are made

1. Frantic effort should be made to train all our in-service teachers on short course training programs through seminar and workshop
2. The government should show more commitment through proper funding of the Education Section Following the UNESCO recommendation 25% of the national budgets.
3. The schools should be Equipped with enough computer sets to turn the schools around to a computer friendly Environment. This can be achieved through the collaborative efforts of the stake- holders, education agencies and philanthropies.
4. The curriculum planners should take the right step to re-package the education Technology curriculum for the pre-service teachers so as to produce the 21st century younger teachers who are completely computer literate.
5. The capacity building training on ICT for the in-service teachers should change from the theoretical impartation of computer skills to more proactive and pragmatic computer interactive approach.

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Strategies for Developing Curriculum Activities in Secondary Schools.
A Case for ‘Cognology’ System of Education

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Abstract The paper analyses Nigeria educational system as the springboard towards innovation in school curriculum and recommend urgent future direction having observed inherent weakness and failure of Nigeria system. The proposed direction is applicable to any society in the world. Strategies for selecting curriculum activities and school subjects for primary and secondary education as contained in National Policy on Education were highlighted. “Cognology” is propose as option for technology, cognitive and personality development of learners and subsequently, the society as a whole.

Key Words: Curriculum, Constructivism, Policy, Cognitive Development, Holistic Education

1. Introduction

The post-colonial Nigerian state witnessed a spontaneous reaction against colonial educational, policies shortly after independence in 10th October, 1960. The arrays of rising educated elites were in the fore-front of this somewhat radial movement which eventually culminated into adoption of a National Policy on Education following a National conference on curriculum that took place in 1969. The wide spectrum of those who attended the conference demonstrates the depth of societal desire for change: the artisan, professionals, federal and state government ministries of education officials, universities lecturers, and so on fully participated. Even though the focus of intended plan was African view, specifically Nigeria as focus, international agencies such as Ford Foundation, UNESCO, were fully represented. The final decision was adoption of 6:3:3:4 system of education, each figure representing number of years to be spent in each level of education structure i.e. 6 years in primary school, 3 years in Junior Secondary School, another 3 years in Senior secondary school and lastly a minimum of 4 years post-secondary education.

The effort of the conference was commendable as it sought to address Nigeria problems and geared towards her collective aspiration. The differentiation nature constitutes inherent weakness that makes the project goal unachievable. A distinction between intellectually and vocationally inclined students and the curriculum they will be exposed to at senior secondary school makes it unrealistic. Aside inherent deficiency embedded in such an educational system, there is no political will to execute it. The system failed to achieve “technical knowledge and vocational skills” which is one of the core objectives of secondary education in Nigeria.

Suffice to say that children exposed to intellectual curriculum provision eventually occupy higher social status. The implication is that future lives of students are rigidly determined while they are in secondary school. The belief that curriculum package should be differentiated into separate areas for different occupational pursuit has always been a subject of controversy and in most cases contested by curriculum theorist (Fraenelin 1982).

Subsequent to this background, the vocational and technical aspect of educational development suffered a fatal failure at least at high school educational level. It is our belief that while core curriculum provides sound intellectual, cognitive development, the different areas of specialization should be synthesized with a child preferred technical, vocational, etc area of interest in which such a child believes his/her future success lies. This is the core area of my proposition term ‘cognology’.

2. Curriculum Development Strategies for Primary School

The history of primary school development in Nigeria coincides with the history of education in Nigeria. Basically, there have been many factors that have influenced the development and adoption of this system.

i. The influence of educational system of ancient Greek educators such as Plato, Aristotle and Socrates. Their writings had profound influence on the development of primary school system.
ii. The ideas of Roman educators

iii. British education system which naturally diffused into Nigeria during colonialism. Nigeria school system was patterned after British system.

iv. Christian missionaries who introduced Western Education into Nigeria. Their belief system formed the basis of primary school curriculum in Nigeria. Learning was consistently related to the scripture no matter how remote the concept being taught.

v. Nigeria cultural heritage were integrated in the curriculum, cultural values such as story-telling, nature study, family living were part of primary school curriculum.

2.1. Objectives of Primary School and Curriculum Development

The objectives of school to a large extent determine the planned curriculum. It is from the objectives that the planners derive direction towards planning.

The objectives of primary education as stated in the National Policy on Education (2004) are as follows;

a. the inculcation of permanent literacy and numeracy and the ability to communicate effectively

b. the laying of a sound basis for scientific and reflective thinking.

c. Citizenship education as a basis for effective participation and contribution to the life of the society

d. Character and moral training and the development of sound attitudes

e. Developing in the child the ability to adopt to his changing environment.

f. Giving the child opportunities for developing manipulative skills that will enable him to function effectively in the society within the limits of his capabilities and

g. Providing basic tools for further educational advancement including preparation for trades and crafts by linking the school with the trades and crafts of the locality.

From the perspective of the planners, the subjects for the primary school include:

a. Language arts, using the mother tongue or the language of the immediate community for the first three years and English at a later stage (French, Arabic, English Language of the Environment)

b. Mathematics

c. Elementary science

d. Social studies and Citizenship Education

e. Cultural Arts and Creative Arts (Drawing, Handcrafts, Music and Cultural Activities

f. Physical Health Education

g. Religious Moral Instruction

h. Agriculture/Home Economics

3. Curriculum Strategies for Secondary School Education

3.1 Objectives of Secondary School Education

Unlike the primary school objectives, the secondary school objectives are limited in scope, but precise and definite.

The National Policy on Education states two broad aims of secondary education in Nigeria. They are;

i. Preparation for useful living within the society, and

ii. Preparation for higher education.

Aside the broad objectives, the specific objectives according to the policy are to:

a. provide all primary school leavers with the opportunity for education at a higher level, irrespective of sex, social status, religious or ethnic background;

b. offer diversified curriculum to cater for the differences in talents, opportunities and future roles;

c. provide trained manpower in the applied science, technology and commerce at sub-professionals grades

d. develop and promote Nigerian Languages, Art and culture in the context of world’s cultural heritage;

e. inspire students with a desire for self improvement and achievement of excellence;

f. foster National Unity with an emphasis on the common ties that unite us in our diversity;

g. raise a generation of people who can think for themselves, respect the visions and feelings of others, respect the dignity of labour, appreciate those values specified under our broad national goals and live as good citizens.

h. Provide technical knowledge and vocational skills necessary for agricultural, industrial, commercial and economic development.
At junior secondary school, students will be exposed to the following subjects:

3. 2. Core Subjects


Pre-Vocational Elective

Non-Prevocational Electives - Religious knowledge, Physical and Health Education, Arabic

At senior secondary schools, students are provided opportunities to study the following subjects:

Core Subjects - English (ii) Mathematics (iii) A major Nigeria Language (iv) One of biology, Chemistry, Physics or Health Science (v) One of Literature-in-English, History, Geography or Religious Studies (vi) A vocational subject.


Non-Vocational Electives - Biology, Physics, Chemistry, Further mathematics, Health Education, Literature-in-English, History, Geography, Bible-Knowledge, Islamic Studies, Arabic, Government, Economics, any Nigerian Language that is orthography and literature, etc

4. Operational Implication and Practice

At junior secondary school level, a child is expected to offer maximum of twelve and minimum of ten subjects. The core subjects are seven, while the rest subjects are selected from pre-vocational elective and non-prevocational electives. The original conception of 6:3:3:4 system was to distinguish between the academically inclined and vocationally inclined students. While the academic oriented students proceed to senior secondary school, the vocational oriented will proceed to technical school. Non adherence to this practice denied us the knowledge of effectiveness of this system in the light of educational and national goals.

At second year of senior secondary level, a child makes a choice whether to focus on arts, social science or natural science subjects. At first year, every child is exposed to all subjects in arts, social and natural sciences. This is to enable a child discover his/her area of interest. English language, Mathematics, Biology and language of immediate environment out of the language of three major ethnic groups in Nigeria serve as core curriculum and made compulsory at senior secondary school. After secondary school education, a child proceeds to higher institution where he/she is expected to spend a minimum of four years.

5. Defects of the Curriculum

As observed earlier in this paper, various shortcomings were observed in the conception and implementation of the curriculum provisions. Such problems include but are not limited to the following:

There was lack of political will to implement the provisions of the programme by the government. It appears government lacked the political will and required courage to implement the provisions. The obvious fact is that the curriculum is never implemented as planned. The technical schools are obviously non-existing.

Second there is inherent weakness such as distinction between intellectually and vocationally inclined students. It is the opinion of the writers that it is too earlier at age eleven to rigidly categorize some students as intellectually or vocationally inclined. They should be exposed to various aspect of human knowledge till they have completed senior secondary school. The early distinction negates the call for equal opportunities in education.

Lastly, from our point of view, there were lacks of fund to properly implement the project. The technical college requires the use of machines that has to be exported. This requires a huge financial outlay. Those machines that are imported for technical subjects require technical expert for effective maintenance. This was clearly lacked.
6. A New Direction

There is a remarkable paradigm shift in societal perception of goals of education and the realities of the moment. From the period of colonial era, a university degree is a sure avenue to a good job and subsequently, a enjoyment of a respectable standard of living. With an astonishing growing rate of unemployment in Nigeria, education should focus on a new direction. The societal unconfirmed perception is that of every three Nigerians, two is unemployed or under-employed. This represents about six five percent (65%) of the population.

As school administrator and curriculum planner, this is part of our motivation. We hold it imperative to look towards a new direction. However, one of our strongest inspirations emanates outside conventional curriculum literature, but rather from motivational literatures. This suggests that we need to think outside the box and project to unconventional ways of making the school and its curriculum more relevant to our world. Robert Kiyosaki and John C. Maxwell are quite handy in this respect. John Maxwell wrote:

many educators would have us believe that good grades leads to a better life, and that the more formal education the better lives one lives. Education can't deliver on such promises. Don't you know highly educated people who are highly unsuccessful? Haven't you see college professors with PhDs who cannot arrange their lives effectively? And conversely, don't you know of dropouts who live and become very successful? (Think of Bile gates, Thomas Edison, Federico Fellini).

Robert Kiyosaki reported a conversation between a woman and her son. The son response is quoted below:

Mon… Get with the times! Look around; the richest people didn’t get rich because of their educations. Look at Michael Jordan and Madonna. Even Bill Gates, who dropped out of Harvard, founded Microsoft; he is now the richest man in America, and he’s still in his 30s. There is a baseball player who makes more than $4 million a year even though he has been labeled “mentally challenged” …. I also know that a college graduates today earn less than you did when you graduated. Look at doctors. They don't make nearly as much money as they used to. I know I can’t rely on social security or company pensions for retirement. I need new answer.

To make education relevant in the incoming generation, school should provide answers to socio-economic challenges of her socio-cultural milieu. Though, the school may find it impracticable or most suitably impossible to produce learners who turn out to be millionaires like Bill Gates, it should reduce to the minimum the rate of unemployment and related dye functional traits of sub-standard living.

6.1. Core Curriculum Revisited

My focus is not to over-flog the concept of core curriculum. Since it is part of curriculum provision among secondary school students in Nigeria, attention must shift from mere designation of certain subjects as core while at the same time missing out the substance of core curriculum conceptualization.

Core curriculum is aspect of curriculum considered central and indispensable to learners’ critical and intellectual development. It is usually made mandatory for all students in a school system. In Nigeria, Ehindero (1994) observed that core curriculum is “organized around content of social problems or themes of social living, e.g national integration, and unity, political and religious tolerance, poverty, rural development, etc.

My conception of future core curriculum is rooted in the hybrid of the process and product conception of curriculum. The national policy on education states some core subjects especially for Junior Secondary School. The experience has shown that school focus on the product as reflected in mastery of these subjects. This is often reflected in biro and paper based assessment. While one cannot completely denounced cognitive based assessment, it is inadequate to assess the extent to which a child has mastered aspects of core curriculum. The core subjects should exploit development of thinking process, skills and intellectual reasoning of learners. In other words, curriculum is not just an end but a means to achieving desirable goal.

7. Towards Holistic Education – A case for ‘Cognology’ Approach

‘Cognology’ is coined from two words cognition and technology. The dream school curriculum is a product of cognitive development and mastery of technology. The technology should not be confused with traditional psychomotor domain nor
with vocational subjects even though they are intractably related. The cognition aspect focuses on the curriculum process and product as desired from the national educational goals. The technology aspect will focus on development of technology rooted in the learner career orientation. The technological drive is intrinsic of a specific learner and never be externally imposed by school stakeholders. The school will provide enabling environment in terms of diversity of options for learners, provision of enough facilities, flexible time structure and avenue for feedback in terms of learners’ progress and achieved innovation. A proper link between traditional school curriculum and learner preferred technology should be provided by the school. Areas of technology could be art work, financial intelligence, sports, catering, barbing, electrical work, mechanized farming, etc. Further suggestions from learners should be welcome with open hand. The argument is that learners’ goal expectancy should find expression within the structure of school system. It is the duties of instructors to ensure proper harmonization of interest and prevention of seemingly “white elephant” idea by learners.

‘Cognology’ is highly relevant considering the prohibitive cost of education when juxtaposed with the rate of available satisfying employment in Nigeria at present. Among Igbo speaking southeastern Nigeria, there is high rate of male dropouts from school. An average Igbo male would prefer learning trading enterprise to pursuit of career in formal education. The common trend is to see a wealthy Igbo trader without a formal education married to a PhD holder Igbo woman. It is our view that an avenue where learners areas of interest or where they are knowledgeable with deep seated conviction of attaining financial freedom should be made available in a formal school settings, alongside a cognitive based curriculum. Each child/learner should be given equal opportunity to develop cognitive aspect of learning without losing focus of their preferred ‘technology’. There should be no form of restrictions as applied in the 6: 3: 3: 4: system where the intellectually inclined proceed to higher secondary school and subsequently, to university for higher degrees, where as the technically inclined proceed to technical colleges without chance of acquiring university education.

The concept of ‘cognology’ is fundamentally related to experiential learning theories of Carl Rogers. Rogers (1969) identified two types of learning which he termed cognitive and experiential. Cognitive aspect focuses on academic knowledge and intellectual development, while experiential focuses on practical application of cognitive knowledge in specific areas of learners’ interest. He posits that in experiential theory, learning is initiated and evaluated by learners, where as teachers are to provide positive climate, clarify purposes and assist learners to balance their intellectual and emotional components of learning.

Expectancy- value theory establishes a direct link between the learners’ perception of likelihood of successful completion of a task and actual successful completion of such task. If learners belief they posses innate capacity to complete a task, the tendency is high that they will complete it. The value learners place on the task and successful mastery of the task are positively correlated (Atkinson, 1989). A self-determination theory posits that learners are well motivated if they feel they are in control of their duties. Svinicki (1999) sheds light on Attribution concept which is closely related to self-determination theory, in which, learners posses a reasonable degree of internal control over learning outcomes. This locus of control influences their energy towards achieving the set goals. He observed that; “when learners have choices and believe that their success rides on those choices, they are highly motivated”.

Brunner (1966) in his theory of instruction identified the primacy of intrinsic motivation. If learners are self-motivated, their chance of effective learning increases. Drawing support from current theories of learning and research, Svinicki (1999) rightly pointed out that “the best sources of motivation are those that are intrinsic”. Either from Dewey pragmatic paradigm or the general constructivist school of thought, we need to look into this direction, or possibly develop something higher.

‘Cognology’ seeks to employ meta cognition approach to learning process and to initiate curriculum content in a dynamic form in which the learners and teachers form a community of innovator.

7.1 Operational Strategy and Implication for school Administrator

One is not unmindful of various implications this would have on the existing school structure and organization. Such re-organization should not be seen as a cog in the wheel of development, but challenges that are central to any developmental enterprise. The following implications are noticeable;

There is tendency to increase the capacity of instructors in terms of increased depth of knowledge and sufficiency in terms of numerical strength. In this regard, capacity building enterprise is a recommended option couple with employment for more hands. From our point of view, the intended outcomes would justify the cost implication.

Meeting various needs of learners may be a daunting task. Since the ‘technology’ aspect is self-initiated, wide range of interest may likely correspond to available number of learners in a particular school. This calls for differentiation along the line of interests to a particular school or region. For example, students whose area of ‘technology’ is financial literacy are to apply into a defined school while those whose ‘technology’ is trading activities are to apply in another
defined school where such area of specialization exists, etc. School administrators and teachers roles will undergo certain changes. It is the duty of school to identify learners’ distinctive area of interest. School administrators should also ensure that resource persons are employed from time to time as situations and the needs arise. Agree that there are various areas learners may indicate an area of interest, but beyond the competence of available teachers in the school, the use of resource persons is a viable option. From another perspective, certain fields may be limited to a defined geographical location. It is left for learners to identify the locality where their preferred interest available.

The structure of school times table is another area of consideration. A suggested structure is where cognitive based subjects hold in the morning follow by ‘technology’ and round up by cognitive subjects may be adopted. Each school can adopt her own preferred structure. In cognitive based class, teachers take the lead, while in ‘technology’ class; a great deal of interaction prevails. The school actors- learners and teachers becomes a collaborative force in achieving desired roles.

Teachers become an agent of curriculum development. New tested ideas that emanate from new discoveries in “technology” class become an integral of school system. This can be integrated into the relevant cognitive based subjects.

Teachers discover various talents and provide guidance services for learners. This is one of the major tasks of teachers.

Teachers’ roles are in two fold. He is a leader in the cognitive based class while he acts as facilitator technology class.

Lastly, the use of constructivist-based teaching methods should properly be adopted and utilized. Methods should properly link cognitive aspects of learning to learners areas of technology specialization. In this regards, a distinction between the child preferred technology and core cognitive based subject is narrow down to possibly zero level. For example, a child whose ‘technology’ is Investment, cognitive based subject must include subjects such as Economics, Commerce, Accounting, etc. For a child whose ‘technology’ is Electronics and Invention, cognitive subjects must include applied science subjects.

8. Conclusion

The idea of ‘cognology’ will provide a converging point between the two school of thoughts on curriculum as a process and as a product. The cognitive aspect will take to consideration the concept of curriculum as a process, while the ‘technology’ will take care of product conception. Learners interest will be considerably taken care of, drop in the school enrolment will drastically decreased, e4mployment will be facilitated and invariably, overall growth and development of the society.

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The Beliefs of Iranian ESP Students about Language Learning

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Abstract This study investigated Iranian ESP learners' beliefs about language learning. It also aimed at finding the effect of gender on learners' beliefs about language learning. To this end, the Persian version of Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was administered among 40 male and 40 female students majoring in medicine, environmental health, and radiology at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences. The findings revealed that the highest mean average among the five components of beliefs about language learning is belief of motivations and expectations (M=3.1208), followed by belief of learning and communication strategies (M=3.0150), and belief of difficulty of language learning (M=2.5828). The two components with the lowest scores were belief of the nature of language (M=2.3479) and belief of foreign language aptitude (M=2.1917). Moreover, there was a significant difference between learners' beliefs and gender.

Key words: Beliefs about language learning; BALLI; Motivation; Learner beliefs; English for Specific Purposes

1. Introduction

In the past two decades, there has been an exponential growth in studying beliefs that language learners hold about language learning (Horwitz, 1999) and language educators have reached to this conclusion that beliefs play a major role in learner's language success (Dörnyei, 2006; Ryan 1984; Weinert & Kluwe 1987; Schommer 1990; Sakui & Gaius 1999). Horwitz (1987a, as cited in Diab, 2006) also highlights the importance of understanding language learning beliefs and states that such study is essential at least for two reasons: a) these beliefs may affect the expectations that learners have for learning the target language, and b) compared with cognitive style variables or affective variables such as attitude and motivation, such beliefs may be more easily led to change.

Leading work in examining language learner beliefs about learning a new language was carried out by Horwitz (1987; 1988). In order to gather these beliefs systematically, she constructed an instrument and called it "The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)". Her subjects were students learning German, French, and Spanish at Austin's University of Texas. The BALLI has been widely used in different contexts and cultures to evaluate EFL/ESL students' beliefs. For example in China (Zhang and Cui, 2010), Hong Kong (Peaccok, 2001), Hungary (Rieger, 2009), Korean (Park, 1995; Truitt, 1995), Lebanon (Diab, 2006), Malaysia (Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006), Thailand (Fujiwara, 2011) Turkey (Ariogul, Unal & Onursal, 2009), Vietnam (Bernat, 2004).

Bernat (2004) investigated beliefs about language learning among 20 adult Vietnamese ESL learners. To this end, Horwitz's (1987) BALLI questionnaire was used as an analytical tool. Bernat's results revealed that the learners' motivation stayed high, in spite of the participants' reported dearth of language learning aptitude, and the beliefs in the supremacy of child's second language acquisition. Atlan (2006) investigated 248 foreign language major students' language learning beliefs at five universities in Turkey. The participants were in the departments of English, German, French, Japanese, and Arabic, and they were all going to be the teachers of the language they were learning. Horwitz's BALLI questionnaire was administered among the participants. The finding showed that subjects held a range of beliefs. For instance, "some people were born with a special ability to learn a foreign language", or "it is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language" with varying degrees of validity. Bernat (2006) also used Horwitz's (1987) BALLI to study beliefs of 262 English for academic purposes (EAP) language learners at an Australian University. The findings...
were later compared with Siebert's (2003) study which was carried out at institutions of higher education in the Northwest region of the U.S. among 156 EAP learners. The results indicated that beliefs about language learning reported by both study groups were similar in all categories. Bernat regarded this concept that beliefs about language learning differ by contextual setting as a premature conclusion. Rieger (2009) examined beliefs of 109 English and German major freshmen about language learning in Budapest. The instrument employed in the study was a modified Hungarian version of Horwitz's (1987) BALLI. Regarding the analysis of language aptitude, difficulty, approaches, importance of practicing with authentic materials and motivation, the findings indicated significant differences that can be linked to gender and the language studies by the respondents. Zhang and Cui (2010) examined learning beliefs of 90 distance learners in a 3-year undergraduate English program in China. For gathering data, two instruments were used; Cotterall's (1995, 1999) questionnaire and Horwitz's (1987) BALLI. The results showed that the major difficulty in distance learning for most participants was the paucity of communication with teachers and peers. The study also revealed that anxiety and frustration in the distance language learners lessened as they considered more advantages in the autonomous method of learning. Fujiwara (2011) examined Thai EFL university students (N =542) using the 34-statement BALLI questionnaire to measure their language learning beliefs. A five-factor structure was identified for the language learning beliefs held by Thai university students learning EFL through a factor analysis of their responses to the BALLI questionnaire. The five factors were labeled as follows: (a) Factor 1: learning and communication strategies (8 items); (b) Factor 2: important aspects of language learning (6 items); (c) Factor 3: expectations and difficulty of learning English (6 items); (d) Factor 4: nature and aptitude of language learning (9 items); and (e) Factor 5: difficulty and ability of language learning (6 items). Although a substantial body of research has investigated beliefs about language learning of different groups of EFL learners from different cultural backgrounds, to the best knowledge of the researchers, no study has investigated Iranian ESP students' beliefs about language learning. The present study is a response to a recommendation by Horwitz (Personal communication, 2011) that there is a need for carrying out research, in different contexts and cultures, to determine whether beliefs about learning a foreign language that exist in a particular linguistic setting are unique to that setting or common to all linguistic and cultural context. Hence, the present study investigates Iranian ESP students' beliefs about language learning. It also explores the effect of gender on students' beliefs about learning a foreign language as Bernat (2006) states that "there is still paucity in literature on the relationship between language learner beliefs and stable individual differences, such as gender" (p. 80). To fill such gaps, the present study addresses the two following questions:

1. What beliefs do ESP students in Iran hold about English language learning?
2. Is there any relationship between gender of Iranian ESP students and their beliefs about language learning?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The setting of the current study was Shiraz University of Medical Sciences in Shiraz. The participants of the study were 80 second-year students majoring in medicine, environmental health, and radiology in the second semester of Iranian academic year 2010/2011. Among all the respondents, 40 were females and 40 were males. Students ranged in age from 19 to 25, with an average of 21.15. All participants were non-native English speakers. The participants were conveniently sampled as going through randomization was not practical. The consent forms of the subjects were obtained before the study began.

2.2. Instrumentation

The study used Horwitz's (1987) Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) as a research tool in order to examine the subjects' beliefs about English language learning (See Appendix A). The BALLI evaluates beliefs about five language learning areas: (1) Foreign language aptitude, (2) the difficulty of language learning, (3) the nature of language learning, (4) learning and communication strategies and (5) motivations and expectations. The BALLI has 34 items. Thirty two of them offer 5-point Likert-type responses, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree": Strongly agree (SA) = 5; Agree=4; Neither agree nor disagree (N) =3; Disagree (D) =2; Strongly disagree=1. The other two items; 4 and 14, are related to learners' rating of the difficulty level of English, ranging from very difficult, difficult, medium, easy, and very easy, and the amount of time needed to learn English very well. Considering this fact that the major of the participants was not English, the Persian version of the instrument was distributed among the participants. The Persian translation
was developed through the process of translation and back translation: one of the researchers translated the questionnaire into Persian; the questionnaire was then translated back into English by three M.A. students majoring in EFL at Shiraz Azad University.

2.3. Procedure and Data analysis

Prior to the initiation of the study, the subjects were asked to read the consent form and fill out. Before administering the questionnaire, the researcher guaranteed that he will use pseudonyms to keep the participants’ privacy and explained the aim and the nature of the study briefly and instructed the participants on how to respond to the questionnaire. Then, the questionnaire was distributed among the participants after getting permission from the participants' teachers. In order to complete the questionnaire, 30 minutes was allotted. The Cronbach alpha of the Persian version of BALLI administered in this study was 0.85, which was within the acceptable range of reliability. The analyses that were employed for each research question were descriptive statistics and t-test. The analytical procedures employed to explore the research questions were computed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 16.0.

3. Results

**Research question 1:** What are the students' beliefs about learning English language as a foreign language at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences?

**Table 1.** Mean Scores, Standard Deviation of the Five Beliefs about Language Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Belief of motivation and expectation</td>
<td>3.1208</td>
<td>.42804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Belief of learning and communication strategies</td>
<td>3.0105</td>
<td>.56099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Belief of difficulty of language learning</td>
<td>2.5828</td>
<td>.41764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Belief of the nature of language</td>
<td>2.3479</td>
<td>.59663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Belief of foreign language aptitude</td>
<td>2.1917</td>
<td>.65555</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Table 1, the highest mean average among the five components of beliefs about language learning was the belief of motivation and expectations (M= 3.1208), followed by belief of learning and communication strategies (M= 3.0105), and belief of the difficulty of foreign language (M= 2.5828). The two components with the lowest scores were belief of the nature of language (M=2.3479) and belief of foreign language aptitude (M=2.1917)

**Research question 2:** Is there any relationship between gender of Iranian ESP students and their beliefs about language learning?

**Table 2.** Descriptive Statistics and T-Test Results Combined

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.4787</td>
<td>.1679</td>
<td>-9.111</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.8779</td>
<td>.22045</td>
<td>-9.111</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As far as the impact of gender on BALLI scores is concerned, the results of Table 2 showed statistically significant difference between the male and female participants language learning beliefs (t= -9.111, p<.05). That is, female participants were more likely than their male counterparts to agree that certain approaches were important in language learning. The results also indicated that female participants had more overall optimistic beliefs about language learning.

4. Discussion

In this section, the research questions presented in this article are dealt with one by one. Each question will be answered based on the findings of the study.

First, regarding the five components of beliefs about language learning, the results revealed that students have the
strongest belief in motivation and expectations, followed by learning and communication strategies and the nature of language learning. The weakest two factors were belief of the nature of language and belief of foreign language aptitude. This result is consistent with outcomes reported by other researchers who examined language learners' beliefs about language learning in different contexts. For example, Shen (2006) studied junior high school students' beliefs about language learning. Shen reported that belief of motivation and expectations ranked first, while belief of foreign language aptitude ranked last. Lan (2010) studied Taiwanese 7th grades foreign language anxiety, beliefs about language learning and its relationship with their English achievements, the strongest of the five factors affecting language learning beliefs was the belief of motivation and expectations. Sioson (2011) investigated language learning strategies, beliefs about learning English as foreign language, and language anxiety among Philippine EFL students. With regard to beliefs about language learning, participants had a general positive belief about learning the language. Specifically, they had the most positive belief about their motivations and expectations. Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) claims that motivated students are more active in language classes and tasks and are less likely to drop out of language study in the following years. In addition, Gardner (1985) showed that motivation encouraged greater overall effort and results in greater success in terms of language proficiency and achievement. So, for the participants of this study, belief of motivation and expectations played an important role in learning English. Participants also revealed their strong beliefs of learning and communication strategies. Oxford (1990) pointed out that “language learning strategies encourage greater overall self-direction” (p. 10). Oxford (1990) also stated that “self-directed students gradually gain greater confidence, involvement, and proficiency” (p. 10).

Second, regarding the effects of gender on learners' beliefs about language learning, the results of the present study indicated that gender affect students' belief about learning language. The results revealed that female students were more likely than their male peers to agree that certain approaches were important in language learning. Generally speaking, the finding of the present study is in line with some research that has been carried out in this area. For example, In Bacon and Finnemann’s (1992) study females were more motivated and more open to authentic input, they also showed more positive attitude towards target language speakers. Siber (2003) used Horwitz's (1987) BALLI as the tool. The study found significant differences in the beliefs of male and female students. Rieger (2009) also found the existence of gender effect on a number of beliefs factors that were statistically significant. However, this finding contrasts with the results of some other studies in which no significant relation between language learners' beliefs and gender was observed. For example, Tercanlioglu (2005) found no significant difference between male and female participants' language learning beliefs in Turkey. Also, Bernat and Llyod (2007) used BALLI instrument as an analytical tool to investigate the relationship between beliefs about foreign language learning and gender among 155 female and 107 male EFL students. The findings showed that male and female students held similar beliefs about language learning.

5. Conclusion

The present study aimed at investigating Iranian ESP students' beliefs towards English language learning and examining whether or not gender affects students' belief about language learning. The scores of belief of the foreign language aptitude, belief of the difficulty of foreign language, belief of the nature of language learning, belief of learning and communication strategies, and belief of motivation and expectations were 2.1917, 2.5828, 2.3479, 3.0105, and 3.1208 respectively. The highest score was belief of motivation and expectations and the two categories with the lowest scores were belief of the nature of language and belief of foreign language aptitude. Findings also showed that female learners were more likely in agreement about certain approaches that were important in language learning in comparison with male participants. With respect to the results of the present study, a number of pedagogical implications can be provided which might prove useful for language instructors, especially helping them to increase students' level of motivation in English language classrooms. For example, EFL teachers can set goals for students in learning English, provide students knowledge regarding language learning, and inspire students to learn. These techniques may help students to like learning English and improve their English grades. Educators and language teachers may gain further insights in students' English learning situations with the understanding of participants' beliefs about language learning, as Horwitz (1988) suggests that better understanding of students' beliefs of language learning may allow language teachers to better understand students' expectations and satisfactions with their language class. Once students are able to face their beliefs, they may understand their weakness and try to solve the problem. Policy makers may design courses that arouse students' interests, and create curriculum in which students needs and goals are satisfied. By cultivating students' language learning beliefs in class, English language teachers can help students to eliminate their bias toward learning English. Teachers can give opportunities to students to share their own beliefs with peers, discuss language learning beliefs in class, and encourage the positive language learning beliefs. The results of the study may provide English
language learners a better understanding of their beliefs about language learning. Students may share their beliefs about language learning with parents that could enable parents to have a deeper understanding of their children's language learning beliefs, and help them to improve their language learning. 

The present study contains a few limitations. First of all, the number of the participants in this study is relatively small (N=80) for the findings to be generalized to the whole population of ESP students in Iran. Only ESP students from one university participated in this study.

Secondly, the present study just used survey approach to elicit students' beliefs, by taking into account the complexity of beliefs about language learning, the combination of multiple sources of data such as interview and observation could increase the validity of the data.

Last but not least, the present study used the Persian version of original BALLI questionnaire of Horwitz's (1987). Researchers who are interested in employing the BALLI should make a revision of some items. A number of BALLI items are decontextualized and drawing conclusions from them can be difficult. For instance, the items regarding the complexity of beliefs about language learning, the combination of multiple sources of data such as interview and observation could increase the validity of the data.

Acknowledgments: The authors would like to thank Professor Horwitz for getting permission the use of the BALLI questionnaire.

References


Appendix A

The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

Directions: For each item, indicate whether you (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) neither agree nor disagree (4) disagree or (5) strongly disagree. For questions 4 and 14, select the number that most closely corresponds to your opinion.

1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.
2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.
4. English is:
   1. a very difficult language.
   2. a difficult language.
   3. a language of medium difficulty.
   4. an easy language.
   5. a very easy language.
5. People from my country are good at learning foreign languages.
6. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.
7. It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.
8. It is necessary to know about Englishspeaking cultures in order to speak English.
9. You shouldn’t say anything in English until you can say it correctly.
10. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.
11. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.
12. I enjoy practicing English with the Americans I meet.
13. It’s O.K. to guess if you don’t know a word in English.
14. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it for them to learn that language very well?
   1. less than a year.
   2. 1–2 years.
   3. 3–5 years.
   4. 5–10 years.
   5. You can’t learn a language in one hour a day.
15. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.
16. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.
17. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.
18. I feel timid speaking English with other people.
19. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.
20. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar.
21. It is important to practice with cassettes or tapes.
22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.
23. I want to speak English well.
24. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.
25. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.
26. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language.
27. If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.
28. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.
29. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.
30. People in my country feel that it is important to speak English.
31. I would like to have American friends.
32. People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.
33. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know Americans.
34. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.
Job Satisfaction of Administrative Staff in South West Nigeria Universities

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Abstract This study examines the job satisfaction of administrative staff in federal and state universities in South West Nigeria universities. It also investigates whether working experience of these administrative staff will significantly influence their job satisfaction. A self-constructed questionnaire titled (JSQ) was used to elicit information from the respondents 400 subjects in different departments were rated by their supervisors or heads of departments. The selection was done through multistage techniques from four universities-two federal and two states universities. A descriptive research of the survey type was used. The data were subjected to t-test analysis and one way ANOVA for the analysis. The findings revealed that there is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of administrative staff in federal and state universities. Furthermore, working experience will not significantly influence the job satisfaction of administrative staff. Recommendations were made based on the findings that the government and the management of these universities should maintain uniformity in the organizational climate, salary and working conditions of the workers to get the best from them. If all these are well catered for, working experience will be insignificant to job satisfaction.

Keywords: Organization, internal state, Attitude, Quantitative, Qualitative

1. Introduction

Job satisfaction appears to be what most workers crave for and work towards in their various endeavours. It is a key to corporate success and a subject of discourse in work and organizational literature. Job satisfaction is so important that its absence often leads to worker’s lethargy and reduced organizational commitment. Many of the brain-drain in many of the organizations has been attributed to job dissatisfaction. Little wonder then, while Olowookere (2000) reiterated that job dissatisfaction is a great predictor of quitting jobs. Adeyemo (2006) considered the movement of the people from one occupation to the other for greener pasture has not been satisfied within their job as a result of poor condition of service. Diaz- Serrano and Carbral Vieria (2005) corroborated this assertion as they considered job satisfaction as a strong predictor of intentions of overall individual well-being as well as predictor to leave on a job (Gazioglu and Tansel 2002).

Job satisfaction has been described in various ways by different scholars. Peretomode (2006) perceived it as a fulfilment acquired with experiencing various job activities and rewards. He further said it is the feeling about, or effective responses to aspects of the work situation, while Robbins (2001) also supported the view that job satisfaction is an individual’s general attitude towards his or her job. While Mullins (2005) said job satisfaction is more of an attitude, an internal state which could be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative. He further viewed it as a complex and multifaceted concept which can mean different thing to different people. He further opined that job satisfaction is usually linked with motivation but said motivation of such relationship is not clear. Riggio (2000) asserted that job satisfaction is the amount of overall positive feelings that individuals have towards their job.

Rose (2001) saw job satisfaction as a bi-dimensional concept consisting of intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions. He further said intrinsic sources of satisfaction depend on individual characteristics such as ability to use initiative, relations with supervisors or the work that the person actually performs. These are qualitative facets of the job. While extrinsic source of satisfaction is situational and depends on environment such as Pay, Promotion, Job security and welfare. All these are financial and other material reward or advantage of a job.

Handy (1997) opined that an inspired workplace, whether state or federal owned university will result in inspired workers and draws attention to the importance of the atmosphere, quality and style of the buildings and offices for work performance. (Ade-Ajayi, 2001) asserted that both state and federal universities should be reformed in such a way that it would no longer depend on insecure and dwindling resources and facilities so that both satisfaction and performance of workers can be effective.

Avolio, Waldman and McDaniel (1990) opined that working experience is an important predictor of satisfaction and performance in organizations. (Rucci, Steven and Quinn, 1998) asserted that satisfied workers have more experience and better skill for performance in organizations.
The problem of the study therefore is to investigate the job satisfaction of administrative staff in federal and state universities in south-west Nigeria and to also investigate whether working experience of these administrative staff will significantly influence their job satisfaction.

2. Purpose of the Study

This study is to achieve two purposes namely;
1. To investigate the job satisfaction of federal and state universities in south-west Nigeria
2. To investigate whether working experience of these administrative will significantly influence their job satisfaction

3. Research Questions

I. Is there any difference between the job satisfaction of administrative staff in Federal and State Universities in South West Nigeria?
II. Will work experience influence the job satisfaction of administrative staff in South West Nigerian Universities?

The following hypotheses were generated to guide the study.

Ho1, there is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of administrative staff in federal and state Universities.

Ho2, working experience will not significantly influence the job satisfaction of administrative staff in South West Nigeria Universities.

4. Research design and study area

The descriptive research of the survey type was adopted in the study. The research covered four universities in the South West: Two Federal Universities and two State Universities.

4.1 Population

The population of the study comprised of all administrative staff in South West Nigeria Universities.

4.2 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The multi-stage sampling technique was used to select 400 subjects from four Universities two federal and two states.

4.3 Research Instruments

The instrument used for data collection was questionnaire titled Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSQ), to elicit both information from the administrative staff of both Federal and State Universities. Both face and content validity of the instrument was ascertained by experts. The construct validity of the instrument was established and the correlation coefficient was 0.357. The reliability of the instrument was established using Cronbach Alpha and a reliability coefficient of 0.920

5. Result

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of administrative staff in Federal and State Universities in South West Nigeria?

Table 1: Data were analysed using t-test comparison as presented in the table.

t-test of difference between job satisfaction of administrative staff in federal and state universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>t-table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Federal</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>117.18</td>
<td>13.34</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1.037</td>
<td>1.960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>119.25</td>
<td>20.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P>0.05
The table shows that the mean score for job satisfaction of federal and state administrative were 117.18 and (119.25 respectively). The t-calculated was 1.037 which was less than the corresponding t-table 1.960. Hence, the null hypothesis was accepted this implies that there is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of administrative staff in Federal and State Universities.

Hypothesis 2: Working experience will not significantly influence the job satisfaction of administrative staff.

Data were analysed using one-way ANOVA and the summary is presented in Table II.

Table 2: One-way ANOVA summary of working experience and job satisfaction of administrative staff.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>f-cal</th>
<th>f-table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1734.239</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>433.560</td>
<td>1.462</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>87766.991</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>296.510</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>89501.229</td>
<td>300</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II shows one-way ANOVA summary of working experience and job satisfaction of administrative staff. The F-calculated was 1.462 while the F-table was 2.37. Since the F-table was greater than the F-calculated, hence; the null hypothesis was accepted. It implies therefore, that working experience will not significantly influence the job satisfaction of the administrative staff in South West Nigeria Universities.

6. Discussion

The study revealed that there was no significant difference between the job satisfaction of administrative staff in Federal and State Universities. This finding implies that whether a university is owned by federal or state government, does not make any difference in job satisfaction of workers. this reason might not be unconnected with the way workers in both federal and state Universities viewed their job environment as conducive, security of staff is held in high esteem by the university management, salaries and allowance are paid as at when due. This finding is in consonance with Hughis, Ginnelt and Curphy (2009) who are of the view that it is the leader and management that make workers and institution whether State or Federal to perform. They further asserted that when leaders and management work in harmony. It will enhance workers satisfaction and effective performance. The study also revealed that working experience of workers will not influence their job satisfaction. This finding is in agreement with Robst Gilder and Polachek (2003) who asserted that workers have high expectations of success and may be aggressive in their behaviour at work if their desires appears to be unmet, may be disgruntled, dissatisfied and slack on performance irrespective of their experience and age.

7. Conclusion and recommendation

7.1 Conclusion

The study examined if there is significant difference between the job satisfaction of administrative staff in the Federal and State Universities whether the working experience of the administrative staff in the universities will significantly influence their job satisfaction. The study was able to conclude or reveal that there was no significant difference between the job satisfaction of administrative staff in Federal and State Universities. It was also revealed that working experience of workers will not influence the job satisfaction of the administrative staff in South West Nigerian Universities.

7.2 Recommendation

The fact that there is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of Administrative staff in Federal and State Universities is an indication that the universities have a conducive environment for their workers and this should be encouraged and more welfare packages that could enhance workers satisfaction should be provided. Also, since working experience was found out not to significantly influence the job satisfaction of workers, it means that all workers should be provided with materials to work and a good organizational climate for better satisfaction and effectiveness at work.
References


Distance Learning – An Educational Bridge among Albanian Universities and their Filials in Distant Communities

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Abstract The public higher education in Albania continues the traditional method of “in site” teaching. Under global crisis and surviving conditions in the Albanian society a new phenomenon is taking place; the emerging of new educational policies such as opening new filials by the main city universities to the distance communities. This phenomenon positively impacts not only the economic performance but also the global and social integration of distance, rural and poor communities. But on the other hand, this scheme requires constant mobility of the lecturers and very compressed modules of teaching. This article introduces a new hybrid scheme of off site learning by building a permanent educational “bridge” for the students of the filials, providing also the most economic way with the hardware and software use. The novelty stands in matching Lecturers “D-lecturer or distance-lecturers” in the main university with Assistants “A-lecturer or assistant-lecturer” in the filials, enabling a permanent communication by exploiting all the efficient means with the help of the information and communication technology. The large-scale cultural and educational impact for remote communities and a full economic solution for poor communities in terms of global crisis are described in this paper. There are many issues to be discussed but one thing is certain: The future belongs to the alternation of teaching methods and experiences facilitated by digital technology in the Albanian High Schools.

Key words: distance learning, technology of information and communication, university, filial

1. Introduction

Education for all ages and higher education in particular, is one of the main pillars of the Albanian society.

A.Gjonaj (2009) explains that “The main objective of the higher education and scientific research is the integration in the European area of higher education and research, aiming to grow a new generation of graduates with qualitative scientific and professional knowledge, able to compete in an open and developing economy... “

The research system is completely reformed in the last years. The reform optimized the use of the infrastructural, financial and human recources by integrating them in a unified system of the higher education and research.

Hundreds of scientists and researchers, many laboratories and other research facilities joined the universities. Today we count 12 public university centers, in Tirana and other cities that employ thousands of lecturers and researchers and host thousands of students.

In its whole, the reform also aims to increase the value and contribution of research in the development of the country as well as to increase the quality of knowledge dissemination in the higher education institutions to better serve the formation of a new Albanian generation. Thus there is an increase in the subsidies and financements for the higher
education and the research. But the higher education in Albania still suffers from old concepts, for instance the the government is still responsible for the education, and the prevailing method is still “the lecturer explains and the students listen” concept. Thus the higher education keeps following the “in site” tradition. The analysis done to the education system in Albania by A.Gjonaj (2009) shows that: “The investments done to improve the teaching, especially regarding the application of contemporary methods, are clearly insufficient. There is yet no system for the management of the performance of the academic staff, even though the Albanian law (2007) requires it”.

Implementing such system would help to identify the academic personnel that still use old teaching methods and that need updating teaching qualifications.

In order to achieve the above mentioned objectives; we can identify the following strategic priorities for the upcoming seven years:

- Extending the system in order to meet the needs of the country under the perspective of EU integration and reaching the European standards (in terms of tertiary education indicators), while parallelly granting access to the higher education to all those who demand it.
- Assuring a variety of formation offers that match the needs of the perspective development of the country.
- Improving the teaching and learning quality in the higher education system, through continuous development of the human resources and the culture of the quality....

2. Research Literature

2.1 “Education for all” policy and the phenomenon of opening filials by the universities in the far communities; the socio-economic impacts

Under the framework of the government’s program to keep the economic growth, decrease the regional disparities and adhere in the EU, the main challenge for the education sector is the development of a system and institutions that prepare professionals that effectively fit in the labor market, that become active citizens and contribute to strengthen the Albanian ability to compete.

This project will increase the quality of education in all levels and will provide the continuity of the current reforms in the education sector.

The project “Quality and Equability in Education” will for the first time adopt a multi-sectoral approach (SWAp) in Albania, in order to emphasize the governmental ownership of the reform, to facilitate the cooperation and coordination among the partners and to strengthen the managerial capacity of the education system.

The Education Policies “Life long and Equal Education for all” impose to the Albanian universities a new focus: their enlargement, since it is foreseen that: “The enlargement of Higher Education is a priority to be pursued consistently, but without compromising the quality...”

The objective regarding the higher education is that: Up to 2017, over 85% of the enrollment graduated from the high school, shall enter one of the cycles and programs of Higher Education. This implies that the number of students in all cycles of tertiary studies (post-secondary, bachelor, master and doctorate) and forms of study (full time, part time, distance learning) in 2013 shall be over 120 000, compared to around 90 000 (in 2008)....

Together with the development of the country, the needs of the labor market will also change with a faster pace than before. This means more people will need to return to learning in a given moment in their life, for instance with summer courses or evening courses. The opportunities for “life long learning” are limited right now, partly because of low demand, but also because there are no encouraging mechanisms for the Higher Education Institutions to offer such service.

Hence, the higher education in Albania keeps expanding addressing the increasing demand (around 5000 more students/year) and reaching the needs of the community by “establishing new public universities, faculties, departments or their filial”. A.Gjonal (2009)

The University “Aleksandër Moisiu” Durrës (UAMD) is the newst Albanian public university, firstly established in 2006-2007 and in third year time established its filial in the northeastern edge of Albania, in Peshkopi.

Through its studying-research programs of a contemporary theoretical, methodological and practical standard, UAMD aims to “professionally educate high specialists in fields that match the needs of the individuals and employers by preparing the graduates for diverse carriers in a competitive labor market in accord with the demands and needs of a dynamic and developing society".
Today Peshkopia feels appraised by the establishment of this decent university pole with 14 studying programs, 4 in Economy and Administration, 7 in Education and 3 studying programs by the High Professional School.

The phenomenon of filial establishment in Albania is precocious... Thus various filials were established in different cities such as Shkodra, Elbasani, Gjirokastra, Korca and later on in further edges of the country, such as new branches opened by the University of Tirana in Kukes and Saranda.

Some private institutions also followed the same path by establishing new branches in cities such as Berat, Fier, etc.

Such phenomenon has its positive impact also in the economic aspect of the social and global integration of the distance communities. Especially in this area it is crucial to understand the need to detach from the old mentality, to change the learning culture, not only of the formal but also informal learning.

The small and distance communities must also understand that learning is for all, that the government provides the learning infrastructure but the responsibility for his own personal development stands to the individual. Obviously learning is not just a survival tool of employment but also serve to the citizenship.

The extra-curricular environment in these communities also must understand that learning has not only to due with the intellectuals; it is not just the Youngs’ business and doesn’t end with the graduation.

Albania faces difficulties with the digital technology in the major cities let alone the distance communities.

2.2 The current scheme of traditional teaching in university filials with “fragmented and compressed” modules

Referring to the National Strategy of Higher Education, it is stated that: “The content of teaching, besides the teaching methods, must be updated with the newest developments of the XXI-st century within the national framework of qualifications and matching the general HEAL framework”. The higher education institutions are moving in adopting a modular approach and a credit transfer system for the studying programs, that is one of the priorities of the Bologna system. The higher education institutions must understand that the modular and credit transfer system is not done for administrative purposes, but for the benefit of the students. This system aims to expand the opportunities for the students, providing real alternatives and transfer options, within the institution and among higher education institutions.

So far the filials have been under the custody of the primary universities that indicated them the curriculas, organizing schemes and sent the lecturers from the universities to the filials.

In order to better explain the “in site” traditional teaching scheme in filials, let’s consider Peshkopia case which is familiar to us.

The filial employs qualified local staff, but the staff is still incomplete and there is an obvious need to receive training from the “center”.

This requires a constant mobility of the lecturers from Durres to Peshkopi and the application of “compressed and fragmented” modules among three lecturers, as follows:

The first lecturer teaches the first part of the course module and at its end organizes the first intermediate evaluation (test).

The second lecturer during the second week the second part of the course module and at its end organizes the second intermediate evaluation (test).

The third lecturer teaches the third part of the course module and at its end organizes the final evaluation (test), calculates the results of the students and posts them to the filial.

To speak the truth, because of the distance, climate, familiar obligations, etc, the elected lecturers are usually the youngest, the healthiest or single males and females.

This is clearly not the right way to re-structure the filial.

2.3 Distance learning – a contemporary idea for universities open towards knowledge

Weber teaches us that there are no successful policies without respecting the principles of honesty and this very outstanding person implies that without aiming at the impossible we can’t reach the possible.

“First of all, the higher education system doesn’t yet sufficiently satisfy the future needs of the country’s society and economy. Many aspects of the higher education, especially the level of teaching and research in higher education institutions didn’t match the dynamics of the Albanian society and the European disposition...”

This article introduces the idea of drawing an hybrid scheme of learning “off site” by building a permanent “bridge” of “distance” education for filial students and provide a complete and more economic solution, in hardware and software.
“Open and Distance Learning” ODL enables learning off the auditoriums independently. Due to information and communication technology (ICT), it is possible to improve the teaching quality by facilitating exchange and cooperation.”

Some universities and institutions in Europe offer this service beside the traditional teaching; as there are also universities that offer only learning by ODL.

The diversity of institutions and networks, languages and graduate courses, features the European distance learning. The diversity of cultural environments, education policies, employment needs, professional trainings and massive internet for students, are the main factors to develop distance learning.

The ODL idea became popular in Europe after the ‘90, following the British experience.

In 1999, the World Bank established the ODL center in South-Eastern Europe, located at Sofia University to promote regional ODL services, to provide pedagogical support for videoconferences, internet materials, online exams and print materials. The center opened the “Distance Class Learning” DCL, a multimedia video-interactive e-class in a computer lab with a main computer and PCs, microphones, etc, for each student as well as the online communication among the “peers group” and the instructors. The staff of the center includes a manager, a PR, a technician, tutors and coordinators.

The South-Eastern Europe University of Tetovo that teaches also in Albanian language offers “Distance studies” in Law, Business Administration, Science and Technology, Languages, etc, using the following ODL scheme:

At the beginning of the semester the students personally meet their lecturer in the auditorium. Some courses take place once in 2 weeks in the auditorium. Using the “Book” – a technology aided system of learning management; the students are guided towards self-teaching, with evaluation criteria, assisting materials and the possibility to participate in electronic forums. By the end of the semester an intensive workshop takes place in the auditorium with the lecturer finalized with the evaluation test (in the auditorium).

ODL is improved in time, eliminating the segregation and learning only by technology means. Today’s ODL students are able to participate in projects with their consultants in network “peers group”, constantly communicating with their instructors and read “offline” materials, therefore perceiving the bond with the “e-class”.

2.4 The digital bridge of distance learning in real time for filial students and the economic hardware and software solution

So far no distance university is established in Albania. Wisdom University completely licenced for ODL didn’t work.

Meanwhile Albanian lecturers teach for a global auditorium in real time through internet. While foreign lecturers from all over the world come and teach “in site” modules in the auditoriums of public and private universites.

The lecturers of the main universities keep going to filials according to a weekly based schedule and traditionally teach modules in auditorium. The novelty in this article is the idea of using ODL in Albanian filials according to the “Couples scheme”:

A Couple of lecturers must be established the “D-lecturer or distance-lecturer” in the main university and the “A-lecturer or assistant-lecturer” in the filial that will enable a permanent communication student-lecturer by exploiting all the effective means of learning through technology.

The D-lecturer is a qualified and interactive lecturer at the main university. At a specific time (after the formal working time of the filial students), he/she sits in his office in front of a computer equipped with webcam and explains in real time through the monitor and the camera, inter-rezcting with the A-lecturer and the e-class in the filial. The students may re-watch his/her recorded lectures any time they need through internet. He prepares week assignments online for the students and also compiles and evaluates online projects or assignments. The D-lecturer prepares the evaluation tests for the students, send them to the A-lecturer on-line, who controls the tests and bills online the intermediate results or the final grade through a coded system.

A-lecturer or the tutor might be a DNP – filial inhabitant, who assisted by the filial’s technician enables the connection in real time with the D-lecturer in the video-interactive e-class.

A-lecturer checks the week assignments during the e-class or online, distributes the printed lectures, supervises dhe tests and sent their scannings to the D-lecturer.

The Students form the third pillar of the ODL triangle scheme. They can have different ages, cultures or professions. They can work and follow after work a studying program as “evening courses”. They must be familiarized with the digital technology. They should then download the lectures and the assignments of the D-lecturer, and interreact online with him.

We believe that the attendance at the e-class is not obligatory but is strongly recommended as the attendance in the auditoriums. In this way they can ask and conversate with the D-lecturer through the cameras and the monitor.
The A-lecturer assists them step by step as a tutor in computing the week assignments and approaching the technology. The technology used in distance learning is classified as asynchronous and synchronous. The asynchronous technology is a way of online studying applied by students that study apart or individually. The “message board”, e-mail and recorded videos are examples of such technology. This method might be used by students for further individual studies. The synchronous technology of distance learning is applied by students that simultaneously attend the e-class according to a well-defined time schedule. Web conference is an example of this technology.

The technology of these “Web-conferences” incorporates the use of audio VoIP to enable a completely “web-based” communication. This performance includes:

- Power Point Presentations of the topics and the use of mouse-remote for the students in the auditorium
- Video Live or Stream with webcams used by both: the lecturer and the auditorium
- VoIP (audiocommunication in real time through headcuffs)
- Webtute in different websites
- Meeting Recording – the recording of the lecture in order for the dtudents to be able to watch it later
- Whiteboard for notes
- Multiple choice tests to assess the comprehension

Web-conference is the most economic option hosted by a webserver in internet.

The Filial is an all-inclusive education bridge for the community; all the main local actors must enable the well-functioning of knowledge transfer and cover the costs.

3. Objectives

The main objective of this paper is to analyze the positive impact of introducing digital technology in contemporary teaching. This study aims to argument that the involvement of the “couple” scheme in teaching process, particularly in high education will help:

- To promote a more high educational and cultural impact for the distant communities
- To create a new social dimension due to the larger number of students and the variety of ages and professions
- To approach to digital technology by the communities far from the main nuclei high;
- To offer the most economic solution for the poor communities in the conditions of the global crisis
- To implement low hardware and software costs
- To use better unified curricula and better implementation
- To approach to education opportunities for the adults through lifelong learning
- To choose the lectures by the best lecturers of the main universities
- To teach in real time and in an interactive way with the e-class
- To facilitate the lecturers work without interrupting their other commitments
- To create access anytime the downloaded lectures
- To offer high accessibility of the online lectures by the rest of the community as well
- To give a crucial impact in increasing the employability rate
- To reach the unserved citizens that show great will for studying

Some of the disadvantages of ODL schemes are: not all courses can be delivered by this scheme; the evaluation in distance always leads to discussions; and the human and social dimesion of face to face meetings is very important.

4. Methods

Methods we have used in this paper to process the data are: analysis, comparison, and observation.

4.1. Subjects

The study was conducted in a public Albanian university that is named “Aleksander Moisiu” University of Durrës and in Filial of Peshkopi. 200 people (40 lecturers, 100 students in Peshkopi, 60 students in Durrës).

To carry this study, we share experiences with our colleagues of the Department of Mathematics and Computer Sciences in UAMD that are actually teaching in the filial.

Furthermore, the students of “Aleksander Moisiu” University, Albania, more specifically, those who study in Durrës
and in filial were part of the survey. The target groups included in the survey were: lecturers and students of “Aleksander Moisiu” University in Durrës and in the filial of Peshkopi.

4.2. Instruments

The instrument used to collect the data was a Likert type questionnaire, which consisted of eight questions. The people surveyed expresses their view concerning the implementation of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the teaching process.

4.3 Data Analysis

We will analyze only three of the questions of the questionnaire. Then we compiled 3 different Questionnaires (check Annex I, II, III) filled in by 200 people (40 lecturers, 100 students in Peshkopi, 60 students in Durrës).

Survey of UAMD lecturers (check Annex I)

The first questionnaire was addressed to UAMD lecturers as they are very interested on this topic, directly related to their current and future activity.

The group of interviewees includes 40 lecturers, 30% out of which taught at the filial. The outcome of this survey indicates that the lecturers:

- Know the contemporary teaching methods and slightly used them
- They partially agree on the idea to deliver some of the courses in distance, through ICT, and half of them think these should be the theoretical courses
- Few of them would prefer “distance” examination
- Partly believe it is time to start implementing this method at UAMD

Survey of UAMD students - center (check Annex II)

60 students of different years and branches were randomly chosen.

The outcome of this survey indicates that the students:

- Consider the traditional education “in auditorium” the best option
- Know little on contemporary teaching methods and are mainly informed on the issue by the media
- The students never benefitted by these teaching methods
- Mostly agree on the idea to have some of the courses in filial, through ICT, and not to come to the auditorium
- Mostly believe it is time to start implementing this method at UAMD

Survey of UAMD students – Peshkopi filial (check Annex III)

100 students of different years were randomly chosen.

The outcome of this survey indicates that the students of the filial:

- Consider the traditional education “in auditorium” the best option
- Are not very satisfied with the teaching of the lecturers from the center
- Would prefer lectures in distance by noted lecturers rather than come to the auditorium
- But do not prefer “examination in distance”
- Unanimously think it is time to start implementing this method at the filial

Question: Do you know “E-Learning” and “Distance-Learning”? – 20% know it well, 60% know it a little, 20% not at all

Question: How did you know? – 1% Friends, 30% Media, 60% Internet, 0% UAMD 0% Reading.

Question: Students around the world benefit from this teaching methods, have you ever had such experience? – 0% often, 60% few, 40% never

5. Conclusions and recommendations

After a thoroughly elaborating the idea, we conclude that ODL and e-learning are generally little familiar to lecturers and students. It is the responsibility of Higher Education Institutions to advertise these contemporary methods already tested in Europe. Initially the traditional universities and later the new established ones must start experimenting this way of
teaching that helps life long education.

The applied strategy must be "... in accord with the main trends of the development of higher education in Europe and world, and especially with the Bologna process; its objective is to improve the higher education in Albania".

Albania like elsewhere in Europe is going to need skilled people, flexible, critically thinking, analytical and creative. Providing these abilities is the most important reform required by the higher education system. It will clearly be a continuous need for specific professional knowledge, but the general skills will be more and more important and for many graduates will be much more worthy than the specific knowledge." SKALA (2008-2013)

This is evident for small and poor communities located far from the main urban centers, which are eager to learn but face objective constrains. It would be an event for these places; the world is getting closer through technology.

E-classes, built through a governmental project to equip all the computer labs of pre-university education, might be of great use. This article was prepared referring to the avantguard experience in Europe for distance learning, which of course faced its own problems in implementation. On this regard there are obviously many issues to discuss but one thing is certain:

The future of teaching belongs to the alternation of methods and experiences assisted by the digital technology. Sooner or later everyone will take it on and perform better than today, be it students or lecturers.

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ANEKS I

Questionnaire for UAMD students in Durres

Dear Interviewee, please carefully fill in the questionnaire we prepared to improve teaching in higher education in Albania for distant communities or filials of Albanian universities.

175
Put X in the box that matches your answer.

1. Are you satisfied with the lecturer’s teaching in your university?
   - Very much □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

2. Do you consider the traditional education “in auditorium” the best option?
   - Yes □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

3. Do you know “e-learning” or “learning through technology”?
   - Yes □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

4. Do you know “distance-learning”?
   - Yes □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

5. How did you know?
   - Friends □
   - Media □
   - Internet □
   - UAMD □
   - Reading □

6. Students around the world benefit from this teaching methods, have you ever had such experience?
   - Many times □
   - Few times □
   - Never □

7. Would you prefer lectures in distance by noted lecturers rather than come to the auditorium?
   - Very much □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

8. Which courses would you prefer to have in distance?
   - Very much □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

9. How do you prefer “on-line” exams?
   - Very much □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

10. Do you think it is time to start implementing this method at UAMD
    - Yes □
    - No □

ANEKSI

Questionnaire for UAMD students in Peshkopi Filial

Dear Interviewee, please carefully fill in the questionnaire we prepared to improve teaching in higher education in Albania for distant communities or filials of Albanian universities.

Put X in the box that matches your answer.

1. Are you satisfied with the lecturer’s teaching in your filial?
   - Very much □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

2. Are you satisfied with the teaching in “modules” by the lecturers coming from Durres?
   - Very much □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

3. Do you consider the traditional education “in auditorium” the best option?
   - Yes □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

4. Do you know “e-learning” or “learning through technology”?
   - Yes □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

5. Do you know “distance-learning”?
   - Yes □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

6. How did you know?
   - Friends □
   - Media □
   - Internet □
   - UAMD □
   - Reading □

7. Students around the world benefit from these teaching methods, have you ever had such experience?
   - Many times □
   - Few times □
   - Never □

8. Would you prefer lectures in distance by noted lecturers live from Durres?
   - Very much □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

9. Which courses would you prefer to have in distance?
   - Very much □
   - Little □
   - Not at all □

10. How do you prefer “on-line” exams?
    - Very much □
    - Little □
    - Not at all □

11. Do you think it is time to start implementing this method at UAMD
    - Yes □
    - No □
ANEKS I

Questionnaire for lecturers
Dear Interviewee, please carefully fill in the questionnaire we prepared to improve teaching in higher education in Albania for distant communities or filials of Albanian universities.
Put X in the box that matches your answer.

1. Did you teach at Peshkopi Filial?
   Yes □ No □

2. Do you agree to send lecturers from Durres to the filial?
   Very much □ Little □ Not at all □

3. Are you satisfied with teaching in modules with lecturers from Durres?
   Very much □ Little □ Not at all □

4. Do you think traditional teaching “in auditorium” is the best option?
   Yes □ Little □ Not at all □

5. Do you know “e-learning” or “learning through technology”?
   Yes □ Little □ Not at all □

6. Do you know “distance-learning”?
   Yes □ Little □ Not at all □

7. How did you know?
   Media □ Internet □ UAMD □ Reading □

8. Elsewhere it is benefitted from these teaching methods; have you ever had such experience?
   Many times □ Few times □ Never □

9. Would you like to teach some courses “in distance – live from Durres” rather than go there?
   Very much □ Little □ Not at all □

10. Which courses would you like to teach in distance?
    Very much □ Little □ Not at all □

11. Do you agree with the lecturers’ evaluation from Durres?
    Very much □ Little □ Not at all □

12. Are familiar with the evaluation online?
    Very much □ Little □ Not at all □

13. How do you prefer “on-line” exams?
    Very much □ Little □ Not at all □

14. How do you think online examination must be?
    Very much □ Little □ Not at all □

15. Do you think it is time to start implementing this method at UAMD?
    Yes □ No □
A Study of the Relationship between EFL Learners’ Knowledge of Near Synonyms and their Collocational Behaviour

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Abstract This study attempts to investigate the relationship between EFL learners’ knowledge of near synonyms and their performance on a corpus-driven test of collocational behaviour. Near synonyms are defined here as lexical pairs that have very similar cognitive or denotative meanings (e.g. powerful and strong), but may differ in collocational behavior (strong tea but powerful car). The study is based on a random sampling of subjects (N= 60) drawn from a pool of 200 EFL learners taking English classes at different language institutes in Khorramabad, Iran. To elicit the data, two types of tests: a Near Synonym Test (NST) and a Collocational Behavior Test (CBT), were constructed, validated, and used. The items for both tests were mainly selected from COBUILD Dictionary. Pearson-Product Correlation was applied to measure the relationship between the specified variables. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between EFL learners’ knowledge of near synonyms and their performance on the corpus-driven test of collocational behavior. The implications of the findings for language pedagogy are discussed.

Key words: Collocational Behavior, Collocational patterns, EFL Learners, Near Synonyms, Corpus-driven test.

1. Introduction

In the process of vocabulary learning, L2 learners often have lots of problems. Of these, the problems of appropriate lexical choice and the distinctions of near synonyms are especially daunting for learners. Even advanced language learners may have difficulty handling the choice of lexical items, among near synonyms, in the second language. Jaen (2007:127) contends that “lexis is at the heart of language acquisition”. Sinclair (1991 realised that lexical meaning is closely related to its context and is sometimes collocational. So he paid special attention to the collocational research and pushed Firth’s linguistic theories forward to form Neo-Firthianism with the help of other linguists.

Concerning collocational patterns, corpus linguists (Sinclair, 1991; Stubbs, 1995; and Hoey, 2003, to name but a few) have experienced some instances in which a single word may have different connotations compared with its near synonym (cause death but bring about happiness). It can, therefore, be said that near synonyms are not collocationally interchangeable (Partridge, 2004). Greenbaum (1974: 81) states that near synonyms may be separated collocationally because of “restrictions to a language variety or style”, as shown in his examples: to cashier an army officer vs. to expel a school child. In the same line, Halliday (1976: 73, in McEnery & Xiao, 2006) noted that tea is typically described as strong rather than powerful, whereas car is more likely to be described as powerful than strong, even though the two modifiers share similar denotative meanings. Near synonyms, in addition to different collocational behavior, can also differ in semantic prosodies, e.g. fickle is negative whereas flexible is positive (McEnery & Xiao, 2006).

Followed from the above, it can be inferred that researchers have recognized the significance as well as the function of collocational behavior and near synonyms in language communication (Louw, 1993; Partington, 1998; McEnery & Xiao, 2006). To date, contrary to well accepted and practiced vocabulary testing, no specific study has been devoted to see whether EFL learners’ knowledge of near synonyms is related to their collocational behaviour based on a corpus-driven test. Hence, the study presented here aims to shed some light on this requirement. The results may hopefully have some implications for language education.
2. Literature Review

Generally, a dichotomy has traditionally been established in the field of vocabulary testing with respect to the nature of lexical competence: the distinction between breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge (Anderson & Freebody, 1981). The former tries to cover the number of words the students know, i.e. the size of their lexicon (Jaen, 2007), while the latter refers to the degree to which students know words whether they possess a multidimensional qualitative knowledge including pronunciation, spelling, meaning, register, frequency, and grammatical and collocational patterns (Qian & Schedl, 2004).

Since from a practical point of view it is easier to test lexical size, measures of vocabulary size are further developed than those of depth (Read, 2000). To investigate categories of lexical depth, measures of collocations have been developed. Collocational measures seem to fall into two categories: the ones which attempt to test productive knowledge and those assessing receptive knowledge. The former was the only aspect investigated during the 1990s, when Bahns and Eldaw (1993), Biskup (1992) and Farghal and Obiedat (1995) designed the first tests of collocations (see Jaen, 2007). In the current decade, however, most of the researchers’ attention has been focused on the design of the receptive category of the collocation measures (Barfield, 2003; Bonk, 2001; Keshavarz & Salimi, 2007; Mochizuki, 2002). In the present study, near synonym is referred to as breadth or size of vocabulary, while collocational behavior is looked at as lexical depth. The former can also be called quantitative knowledge and the latter qualitative knowledge.

Research into analysis of collocations is not new, though during the last three decades the most promising results have been shown in the field of collocation. Kennedy (1998:108) argues that identifying the repeated co-occurrence of certain words in the Bible by Cruden goes to 250 years ago. In the 1930s, the British linguist, H.E. Palmer, went through a corpus-based research on repeated combination of English words (Kennedy, 1998:108). On the other hand, McNerney and Xiao (2006:82) argue that collocation has been studied for 50 years. They further pinpoint that collocation, as a technical term, was first used by Firth (1957) when he argued "I propose to bring forward as a technical term, meaning by collocation, and apply the test of collocability" (see McNerney & Xiao, 2006:82).

However, for the definition of collocation, different researchers and linguists have different ideas. There is no absolute, unanimous consensus over the definition and classification of collocation. Based on the literature, different researchers have set their own criterion to continue their collocation studies. Martynska (2004:5) argues that although collocation, only recently, has attracted linguistics study, there is no exhaustive and uniform definition or categorisation of collocation and it seems to be one of the most problematic and error-generating areas of vocabulary, especially for second language learning.

Firth (1968 in Walsh, 2005:2) defines collocation as "statements of the habitual or customary places of the word". Sinclair (1991) sees collocations as two or more words in a text within a short space of each other. For Halliday, collocations are examples of "word combinations" (Halliday, 1966 in Walsh, 2005:3). Stubbs (1995: 24) considers collocation as "a relationship of habitual co-occurrence between words". It should be mentioned that Sinclair (1991) and Stubbs (1995) are Firth's followers in their view on collocation. However, the most commonly shared definition of collocation is: "the tendency of one word to co-occur with one or more other words in a specific field" (Hsu, 2007:2). This common definition is not still comprehensive in that it does not tell us whether these words are habitual or how far these words are from each other to be considered as a collocation. If collocations are in a "habitual company" (coined by Firth, 1957), how about discontinuous collocations like: the distinction I have made between these items (Kennedy, 1998:112).

On the other hand, Kjelmer (1982, in Kennedy, 1998: 112) noted that one of the features of collocations was that they were combinations which co-occur more often than the frequencies in the corpus of the constituents of the combination would lead us to expect. Kennedy (1998: 112), further, states that this criterion would select not only combinations such as another one or last week but also non-grammatical combinations such as although he or and he. Considering this criterion as problematic, Kennedy (1998: 112), however, argues that in some corpora some sequences which occur only once (and therefore do not count as collocations) are nevertheless immediately recognisable as recurring in the language.

Furthermore, Sinclair (1991:80) pinpoints that a span of up to four words in each side of a word is an environment in which collocation is most likely to occur although, of course, computer software makes it possible to explore much larger spans, including the size of a whole text. This idea is also discredited by discontinuous collocation. Furthermore, insistence on go-togetherness of the words would also cause "patterning to be lost (Kennedy 1998: 118). Moreover, viewing that collocations are "fixed and often fossilised building blocks" (Kennedy 1998: 118) not only allows no place for discontinuous collocations but also would seem to minimise the possibility of lemmatisation.

On the other hand, Kennedy's (1998) idea of collocation as "lexicalised" (p.118) has been criticised by Almela (2007: 26) for the lack of empirical adequacy. McNerney and Xiao (2006: 106), further, criticise Greenbaum's (1974: 82)
definition of collocation as "a frequent co-occurrence of two lexical items in the language", as a notion which only refers to statistically significant collocation. They further pinpoint that Greenbaum's definition does not tell us how frequent the co-occurrence of two lexical items should be considered as a collocation (McEnery and Xiao, 2006).

One of the most inclusive approaches to the notion of collocation, taken by corpus linguists, is that of Renouf and Sinclair (1991, in Kennedy, 1998:119), who have suggested that collocational patterning can be usefully described in terms of a framework which consists of two function words with an intervening lexical word.

Research has shown that words with close meanings (near synonyms) not only differ in their semantic prosody but also vary in their collocational behavior (McEnery & Xiao, 2006). Near synonyms are defined as "lexical pairs that have very similar cognitive or denotative meanings, but may differ in collocational or prosodic behaviour" (McEnery & Xiao, 2006). Knowledge of collocational behaviour is useful in the process of lexical choice between near synonyms. Widdowson (2007: 79) calls this behaviour lexical patterning. He states that lexical patterning has been a common theme in the "corpus linguistics literature". He further adds that "it is not, however, only the simple frequency and range of single items that is revealed in the corpus analysis of text but also, more interestingly and significantly, the frequency and range of their patterns of co-occurrence with other items".

3. The Study

3.1. Research question and hypothesis

As mentioned before, the present study tries to investigate the relationship between EFL learners' knowledge of near synonyms and their performance on a corpus-driven test of collocational behaviour. To do this, the researchers intend to spell out the procedures taken for the study reported below. Hence, based on the aims of the study, the following question was raised: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' knowledge of near synonyms and their performance on a corpus-driven test of collocational behaviour?

To provide more objective answer to the aforementioned question, the following null hypothesis was formulated to be tested out:

There is no significant relationship between EFL learners' knowledge of near synonyms and their performance on a corpus-driven test of collocational behaviour.

3.1. Participants

The subjects participating in this study were 60 Persian speaking EFL learners (40 male and 20 female) who were randomly selected from the population of 200 candidates studying English at five English language institutes in Khoramabad, Iran. Their age ranged 18-23. They had passed the Interchange courses for two years and had just entered the Passage course. Sex was not considered as a variable in this study. The main reason for choosing these subjects was that they attend English classes eight terms per year, six weeks per term, and three 2-hour sessions per week. In other words, they take about 200 hours of English classes for one year, and therefore, they had great chances to develop their language proficiency.

3.2. Instrumentation

The materials which were constructed for the present study included: Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary (New Edition) from which the researchers selected the vocabulary items for developing the Collocational Behavior Test (CBT) and the Near Synonym Test (NST), and a Validated Criterion Collocation Test (CCT) developed by Chen (2008) for the purpose of measuring the English collocation competence of college students in Taiwan. However, in this study, it was used as a criterion measure against which the concurrent validity of the CBT and NST was established.

3.3. The Pilot Study

One of the most important functions of a language test is to help decision-making during the trial or piloting of that test (Baker, 1989; Backman, 1990; Backman & Palmer, 1996; McNamara, 2000). This usually involves administering the test to a known population so that the analysis will throw light on the behavior of the test. Accordingly, in the present study, different steps were taken to collect information about the usefulness of the test itself, and for the improvement of testing procedures. The first step was item analysis. After a set of items for each sub-test was written, reviewed by experts, and
revised on the basis of their suggestions, the NST and the CBT were ready for experimentation tryout on a sample group (30 EFL learners). A thorough item analysis was conducted in order to obtain the index of item difficulty and item discrimination for both tests. The scores collected from these administrations were analysed using Brown's (2004) cut-off score.

The next step in the process of the pilot study was to establish the desired reliability of NST and CBT. To do this, Kuder-Richardson formula (KR-21) was used. This is generally assumed as the best technique to find out inter-item consistency of any test (Brown, 2004; Best & Khan, 2006). The reliability estimate for NST was .90 and for CBT was estimated to be .84.

The third phase of test standardisation through the pilot study was establishing the validity of both NST and CBT. For this purpose, Concurrent validity was run. It was believed that if the newly developed test is a valid measure of a particular construct, it will significantly correlate with the outside criterion measure of the same language ability (Chen, 2008). To achieve this objective and to establish concurrent validity, the researchers first administered both tests to a group of 30 subjects. Then, within two weeks interval, the Criterion Collocation Test (CCT) was administered to the same group. The results showed that the tests fulfill the criterion of concurrent validity (table 1).

| Table 1: Correlation between SPT and CCT in the pilot study |
|-------------|-----------|----------------|
|             | SPT       | CCT            |
|             | Pearson correlation | .289(**) | .093 |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .     | .093 |
| N           | 30       | 30             |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

3.4. Procedures

3.4.1. Item Selection and Test Construction

The items selected for the intended tests of CBT and NST were extracted from Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (2006). For example, the word *task* was once underlined in a context to test whether learners know its near synonym (*job*). In CBT, however, learners’ knowledge of collocational behavior was tested (e.g. *substantial meal*). Once the items on both tests were constructed, they were given to two lecturers of applied linguistics and language teaching at Arak University, Iran, for their expert opinion and advice. They were requested to analyse each item on the basis of their perceptual complexity and face validity.

Based on these procedures, two types of tests were developed: a 70-item test of collocational behaviour and a 40-item test of near synonymy. The item format for both tests was multiple-choice. For the CBT tasks, the subjects were presented to the definitions of the concepts expressed by the target collocations as provided by the Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (2006). The following is an example of the item for CBT (ex. 1).

(ex.1) I have always enjoyed eating a substantial................ in a northern restaurant
a. food        b. meal           c. cake          d. none of these

As it can be observed, the fourth choice in this example is “none of these”; this was done for every item, too. This alternative, which was the correct answer in 10% of the items, was introduced to minimise the effect of guessing (Lpez-Mezquita, 2005, in Jaen, 2007), and thus to improve test discrimination and reliability (Jaen, 2007). As for the NST, the stem was underlined and the subjects were required to choose the appropriate response among the four choices. As an example, consider the following NST item (ex. 2).

(ex.2) A daunting task is the one in which people feel nervous and less confident to do it.
   a. job        b. food                c. book          d. none of these
3.4.2. Data Collection and Data Analysis

After fulfilling the requirements of the test construction mentioned above, the main study was launched. In the first phase of launching this project, the near synonymy test (NST) was given to 60 EFL learners. As mentioned before, the aim of administering this test was to determine the participants' quantitative knowledge of near synonyms. However, to measure learners' knowledge of collocational behaviour, the validated CBT was administered to the same target group. To this end, two sets of scores were collected for each individual: The scores on the NST and those on the CBT. In terms of administration and timing for both the CBT and the NST, the subjects were allowed 70 and 40 minutes, respectively, to complete the tests, although most of the subjects were able to finish them before the allocated time, indicating that the measures were correctly designed or chosen from a practical point of view. Finally, each correct answer was scored one point and each incorrect answer was scored zero.

As for data analysis procedures, different statistical measurements were employed. To establish the reliability of tests, Kuder and Richardson (KR-20) formula was used. To fulfill the requirement of concurrent validity and to determine the degree of correlation between the specified variables (Near Synonymy and Collocational Behavior), Pearson-Product Correlation was applied.

4. Results

The research question addressed in this study concerned whether EFL learners’ knowledge of collocational behaviour related to their knowledge of near synonyms. The analysis of the data (see Table 2) shows that the mean of correct answers in the whole test is 29.63%, a considerably low score. Furthermore, the standard deviation (SD) is 9.36, which is relatively low showing that the group is fairly homogeneous in their level of collocation knowledge.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for CBT scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>valid</th>
<th>60</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>29.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>9.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>87.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To explore the relationship between the subjects' scores on CBT and NST, the statistical analysis of Pearson-Product correlation was conducted (see table 3). The correlation coefficient was reported to be .291, which is significant at 0.05 level, and enough to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between the specified variables. To determine how much of the variation of the subjects' scores on the NST can be accounted for by their scores on CBT, the simple regression was used.

Table 3: Correlation between NST and CBT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SPT</th>
<th>NST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPT</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.291**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2- tailed)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of regression analyses (Table 4) show that about 8 percent of variation of NST scores can be predicted on the basis of CBT scores. In other words, the amount of variance overlaps between X and Y represented by R square is shown to be .085. Put it another way, 92 percent of the variance of NST scores is due to factors other than the CBT scores.
Table 4: Model Summary of Regressing NST against CBT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.291</td>
<td>.085</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>7.04273</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Predictors: (Constant), CBT

Table 5 shows the ANOVA of regression. In this table, regression is one source of variation similar to between-group variance in ANOVA (explained variance). Equally important is the residual variable, which is another source of variance similar to within-group variation in ANOVA (error variance or leftover variance). Based on information on this table (table 5), the F-value is 5.35, which is significant at .024. The interpretation of the ANOVA table is exactly the same as a normal ANOVA with different names for the sources of variance. It determines the significance of the independent variable to the dependent variable. Thus, in the present study, the CBT is the independent variable and the NST is the dependent variable.

Table 5: ANOVA of Regressing NST against CBT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANOVA</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>265.596</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>265.596</td>
<td>5.355</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>2876.804</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>49.600</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3142.400</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Predictors: (Constant), CBT  b Dependent variable: NST

Based on information presented in Table 6, Beta value of SD unit changes of variables is also significant. Beta is the standardised regression coefficient, which is the number of standard deviation changes in Y for a unit standard deviation change in X. Based on this table, standard error Beta which is an index of variability of standardised BETA is shown to be 0.098. Furthermore, the predicted change in Y for a unit of change in X is represented in B which has the value of 17.68 (see Table 6).

Table 6: Beta Values for the Regression of NST against CBT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>17.683</td>
<td>3.042</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic prosody</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>2.314</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Dependent Variable: NST

5. Discussion

In the present study, knowledge of collocational patterns is considered to be undermined by EFL learners. L2 learners’ poor achievement on the test of collocational behavior verifies Nesselhauf’s (2003) contentions that collocations have been largely neglected by researchers, course designers and EFL practitioners. Researchers like Zughoul & Hussein (2001),...
and Keshavarz & Salimi, (2007) found that EFL learners have insufficient knowledge of English collocations; otherwise, in their studies, more proficient learners might perform better than less proficient learners using their collocational knowledge. This finding is in line with the results of the present study.

The Pearson correlation was employed to describe the relationship between CBT and NST scores. The estimated correlation between these two variables was reported to be .29 at .05 level of significance. This means that the more EFL learners know the range of near synonyms, the better they can handle patterns and behaviours of collocations. In other words, it can be said that quantitative knowledge (knowledge of near synonyms) is related to qualitative knowledge (Knowledge of collocational behavior).

Zhang's (2008) reported a similar finding: a strong correlation was observed between his EFL learners' use of lexical collocations and their writing fluency as measured by a paper-and-pencil TOEFL-like writing test. In fact, Zhang differentiated between quantity of collocations, i.e. "the collocations found in the subjects' writing samples" (p.165) and quality of collocations, i.e. the "variety and accuracy of collocations used in the writing" (p. 165). His grouping of quantity and quality of collocations is to some extent similar to that of NST and CBT used in the present study as well as to that of Hosseini & Akbarian's (2007) study in which they found significant relationship between depth and breadth of words.

However, it should be mentioned that the estimated correlation between NST and CBT scores, though significant, was low (r=.29, P<.05). This low estimation may be possibly due to the discrepancy of purposes between the CBT and NST. It can also be said that the SPT and the NST do not measure the same general area of behaviour. These explanations are supported by what Bachman (1990) purports. According to him, some correlations, if moderately high, can be cited as evidence that the new test measures approximately the same general area of behavior as other tests designed by the same name as the new test. This idea can also be supported by what Oller (1979:56 in Miao, 2006:9) states: "a low correlation may result from the fact that one of the tests may be too easy or too difficult".

According to Oller (1979, cited in Miao, 2006:9), low correlations between different tests or measures are sometimes too simply taken to mean that they are measuring different skills. Other possible reasons for low correlation may be found in Oller's explanation:

... It may mean that one of the tests is unreliable. Or that both of them are unreliable or a low correlation may result from the fact that one or both tests do not measure what they are supposed to measure (i.e., are not valid), or merely that one of them (or both) has (or have) a low degree of validity (Oller, 1979:56 in Miao, 2006:9).

Not contrary to the above justifications, Hatch & Farhady (1982) pinpoint that in interpreting a variable we should depend more on logical reasoning than on figures. "A correlation coefficient may be very high but meaningless, or it may be fairly low and still meaningful" (p 208). It is important to note here that any interpretation depends on what variables are being compared and what kind of decisions must be made on the basis of the discovered relation.

By and large, we have to rely on corpus evidence which suggests that the demand for an ever larger and larger vocabulary reflects a rather one-dimensional (quantitative) view of advanced level achievement (see Qian, 2002). What needs to happen alongside the increase in breadth is an increase in depth of knowledge, i.e. the knowledge of the various aspects of use of a word, including, beyond its formal properties, its collocations, its sub-senses, and its semantic prosody.

6. Conclusion and Implications

From the findings reported above, it can be concluded that L2 learners misuse near synonyms in their appropriate context. This is because they are unaware of the subtle pragmatic distinctions among near synonyms. Thus, it is fruitful for learners to make pragmatic meanings out of near synonyms. If they do so, then we can claim that L2 learners are collocationally competent. It can also be concluded that knowledge of near synonymy is to some extent related to L2 learners' knowledge of collocational behaviour.

The findings of this study can have some implications, too. First, taking benefit from the findings of the present study, teachers can realise the problems learners may have in the development of their language competence. These problems are supposed to be attributed to lack of collocational knowledge in ESL/EFL learning (Partington, 1998; Hoey, 2000; Nesselhauf, 2003; McEnery & Xiao, 2006). Second, teachers should integrate practice on collocational patterns into ESL/EFL vocabulary teaching to help language learners develop their vocabulary knowledge.

Moreover, in this study, learners showed insufficient knowledge of collocational behaviour based on the corpus-based test. This insufficiency can be like a warning for learners that for vocabulary learning they need to master not only...
a lexical item’s spelling, meanings, and grammatical features, but also its collocational behaviour. Without a command of its collocational knowledge, learners may have difficulty in using a given lexical item for effective communication (McEnery & Xiao, 2006). Thus, being aware of collocations is of great importance to language learners. One of the things that distinguishes an advanced learner’s language from that of a native speaker is that advanced learners often manifest "grammatical correctness but collocational inappropriateness" (Hoey, 2003:8). It means that advanced learners may not be able to apply and use the appropriate rules of collocation restrictions of words which might greatly relate to the cultural issues.

Furthermore, by considering the findings of this study, ESL/EFL textbook writers should exercise more care and be meticulous in their choice of vocabulary for classroom instructions and educational purposes. Their textbook glossaries, further to including near synonyms, may also present appropriate collocational patterns of lexical items.

References


H Methodist in their choice of vocabulary for classroom inst ructions and educational purposes. Their textbook glossaries,

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References


H Methodist in their choice of vocabulary for classroom inst ructions and educational purposes. Their textbook glossaries,


French Language Teachers and the Use of Textbooks as a Communicative Proficiency Tool for Nigerian Junior Secondary School Students

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Abstract This study examined French language teachers' use of communicative exercises and activities presented in three purposively selected of the five mostly used recommended French textbooks for Nigerian Junior Secondary Schools to achieve communicative proficiency in their students. The descriptive survey research design was used. The population for the study consisted of Junior Secondary School (JSS) French language teachers and students. The sample comprised 60 randomly selected (JSS) French teachers and their 465 students from 15 junior secondary schools in Lagos State, the most cosmopolitan State in Nigeria. One instrument namely “French Language Teaching Observation Schedule” (FTOS) was used to collect data on teachers’ organization of communicative activities, students’ participation, methodology and communicative use of the textbooks. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics. An average index of 58% was obtained for teachers’ communicative use of the activities and exercises contained in the recommended textbooks indicating that teachers were not as competent as required for developing communicative proficiency in their students. The study concluded that the present use of communicative activities and exercises presented in recommended French textbooks for Junior Secondary School students by French teachers could not produce the required and desired level of communicative proficiency in these students.

Keywords: french language, secondary school, nigerian students

1. Introduction

The roles of language cannot be over-emphasized in a dynamic and progressive country like Nigeria where education is considered an instrument ‘par excellence’ for effecting national development. More importantly, one cannot talk of globalization, technological breakthrough and economic progress without language, a communicative tool. Language plays a central role in the formation of the political, cultural, economic, professional developments and ethnic identities of the world. It is more than a tool for communication; it forms the basis of intercultural and international relationships. Language gives access to perspectives and viewpoints that might otherwise have remained closed.

The place of language in Nigerian education and the importance of language study in the nation’s educational process are recognized and clearly stated as follows in the National Policy on Education (NPE) (FGN, 2004, p. 10):

Government appreciates the importance of language as a means of promoting social interaction and national cohesion; and preserving cultures. Thus every child shall learn the language of the immediate environment. Furthermore in the interest of national unity, it is expedient that every child shall be required to learn one of the three Nigerian languages: Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba…For smooth interaction with our neighbours, it is desirable for every Nigerian to speak French. Accordingly, French shall be the second official language in Nigeria and it shall be compulsory in primary and junior secondary schools but a non-vocational elective at the senior secondary school.

In addition to geographical reasons, there are also reasons in line with global standards responsible for the emphasis placed on French. The importance placed on French, therefore, is not surprising as it is considered a major European language with a long tradition of being a foreign language.

Due to the global importance attached to this language and the emphasis placed on it in Nigeria’s NPE, one would expect to see a sizeable group of knowledgeable Nigerians, in French. Unfortunately, the contrary is the case as an average Nigerian cannot even speak French. Communication is the most basic index of language learning. This is
mainly achieved through exposure to communicative activities. Moss & Ross-Fieldman (2003) explain that communicative activities include any activity that encourages and requires a learner to speak with and listen to other learners based on a real need such as to find information, break down barriers, talk about self and learn about culture. Such communicative activities include games, role play, simulation, pair work, information gap activities and other activities that allow interaction amongst learners.

The most accessible institution to develop such skills is the school. In the school, the major role played by the teacher is incontrovertible. Yet, since the introduction of French as a second official language, there does not appear to have been any consideration in respect of the French teacher.

2. Teacher Preparation and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Fundamental to the planning of an effective language education program is needs analysis (Ajibade, 2000). Needs analysis is fundamental to several other aspects of language teaching such as effective textbook preparation and pedagogy. Effectively prepared textbooks need to be used communicatively by adequately prepared teachers. Rao (2002) posits that some teachers are not confident about using CLT pedagogies. There are several ways in which a teacher can prepare for the CLT class. The effective language teacher asks some questions like: Why is the student learning the language? What does he/she need to carry out the tasks to be performed? If a teacher answers these questions correctly, it would assist his/her preparation in the teaching-learning process.

The role of a teacher in CLT includes being a facilitator. It involves facilitating the communication process among all participants in the classroom, and among these participants and the various activities and exercises. The teacher is an independent participant in the teaching and learning group. He/She should be prepared to talk less and listen more. Borg (2006) opines that teachers’ characteristics can be defined in terms of personal qualities, pedagogical skills, classroom practices, subject matter and psychological constructs such as knowledge and attitudes. According to Borg, out of several characteristics of a language teacher identified by researchers, the following are the most desirable:

1. Knowledge and command of the target language;
2. Ability to organize, explain and clarify, as well as to arouse and sustain interest and motivation among students;
3. Fairness to students by showing neither favoritism nor prejudice; and
4. Availability to students.

Borg (2006) summarizes some language and language teaching related features which include teacher’s characteristics. Hammdou and Bernhardt (1987, p. 302) also submit concerning the foreign language teacher that:

*Being a foreign language teacher is in many ways unique within the profession of teaching. Becoming a foreign language teacher, too, is a different process from that which other future teachers experience. This reality is rooted in the subject matter of foreign language itself. In foreign language teaching, the content and the process for learning the content are the same. In other words, in foreign language teaching, the medium is the message.*

3. Methodology

The design used for the study was survey. Teachers’ and students’ observation of the use of activities and exercises for achieving communicative proficiency was done in the course of teaching and data were gathered using the French Language Teaching Observation Schedule (FTOS) which was face-validated by French teaching experts and tested for reliability yielding a co-efficient of 0.69. Three of the recommended French Language textbooks for junior secondary schools in Nigeria were examined. The selected textbooks are:


Analysis started with the scoring of relevant items recorded during the observation exercise. The following were scored on the FTOS:

a. Organization of the communication activities
b. Students’ participation
c. Methodology
d. Use of activities
Communication activities in the FTOS were classified as follows:

a. Use of no communicative activity – none (0)
b. Use of one communicative activity or poorly used communicative activities – poor (1)
c. Use of two communicative activities – fair (2)
d. Use of three communicative activities – good (3)
e. Use of four communicative activities – very good (4)
f. Use of five or more communicative activities – excellent (5)

4. Findings

Research Question 1: What activities and exercises are contained in recommended French textbooks for junior secondary schools?

Table 1  Analysis of Communicative Activities and Exercises in French Language Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Communicative Activities</th>
<th>Nouvel Horizon</th>
<th>Trans Afrique</th>
<th>On y va</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Role Play</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3/9</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Simulation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2/9</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Information gap</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3/9</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Choice in language form</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9/9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Choice in Language function</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9/9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Feedback Opportunities</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1/9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Dialogues</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5/9</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Debate</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0/9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Communication games</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1/9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Real life Conversation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0/9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Pair work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5/9</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Communication with peers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4/9</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0/9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7/9</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9/9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Small groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4/9</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 highlights the variety of activities presented in the three recommended textbooks.

Research Question 2: How do French teachers use communicative activities and exercises in the recommended books to develop proficiency in Junior Secondary School students?

Table 2  Analysis of Teachers’ Use of Communicative Activities and Exercises

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Nouvel Horizon</th>
<th>Trans Afrique</th>
<th>On y va</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teachers use of activities allows for learning objectives to be measurable</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7/15</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teachers role during activity disturbs learning</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8/15</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Activities target language as the communication tool and expects same from students 3 3 3 9/15 60
4. Activities focus on future use of the language 2 3 4 9/15 60
5. Activities are well guided and monitored 3 2 2 7/15 47
6. Activities are achievable within the allowed time 2 2 3 7/15 47
7. Transitions from activity to activity are clear and orderly 3 4 3 10/15 67
8. Teacher employs activities that promote learning and critical thinking 2 3 3 8/15 53
9. Teacher ensures that demonstrations are clearly visible to all students in class 2 2 2 6/15 40
10. Activities are motivating 3 3 4 10/15 67
11. Variety of activities are provided 4 5 5 14/15 93
12. Activity results are concrete 3 3 3 9/15 60

TOTAL 32 34 38 104 58

From the analysis presented in Table 2, the most striking thing is that teachers use a “variety of activities” as indicated by the highest percentage of 93%. The next highest percentage of 67% indicates that activities used by teachers are methodical and motivating though these activities are considered as “disturbing” at times as reflected in the index of 53%. The fact that activities that promote critical thinking are only fairly used is seen in the average score of 53% assigned to them. Even though activities are seen to be concrete, focused on future use of language as well as targeting communication to some extent as indicated by the index of 60% respectively, the activities are not seen to be well monitored, measurable or achievable as reflected in the poor index of 47%. Worst of all, teachers fail to ensure that all students are carried along as indicated by the index of 40%. The total average score of 58% indicates that teachers are not as competent as required in the use of communication activities and exercises.

Furthermore, during the observation of the teachers’ use of recommended textbooks, it was discovered that most of the activities in the textbooks were not judiciously used by the teachers. The teachers were concerned with finishing the syllabus to the detriment of communicative proficiency. Though a variety of activities was used as shown in Table 1, questioning, discussion and reading were the major activities that the teachers focused mostly on which is contrary to the ideas of the proponents of communicative language teaching approach.

According to the proponents of communicative language teaching, it is the duty of the teacher to set up real life situations that will encourage the students to communicate in the target language. Most of the teachers surveyed were only using the textbooks rigidly with little or no innovation that would motivate their students and encourage them to use the target language. Larsen-Freeman (2000) recommends that teachers in a communicative language class should talk less and serve as supervisors to allow satisfactory practice of the target language by the learner which was not so in the schools visited. The teachers operated as the alpha and the omega of the class giving out rules and instruction to the students. Most of the teachers relied on the grammar-translation method especially in schools where On y va was used because the book makes use of the target language from the beginning to the end.

Going by Nunan’s (1991) five features of “Communicative Language Teaching”, a communicative language class should use authentic text in the learning situation which was absent in most of the schools. None of the schools had a language laboratory; teaching was done without the use of audio visuals and cassette. Nunan recommends that efforts should be made to link teaching in the language class with activities outside the classroom. This was not found to be so in the way the teachers used the activities except the text itself recommended outside activities.

Communicative language teaching presumes that learners should be able to express their opinions and ideas but this was not so in the way most of the teachers used the activities. There was an over-reliance on the exercises and examples in the textbooks with little or no room for the learners to express their own ideas and opinions.

The overall aim of language teaching is to create in the learner the capacity to communicate in the target language. Unfortunately, the way activities are used in Nigerian junior secondary schools does not conform to the true nature of communication.
5. Conclusion

It was concluded that the present use of communicative activities and exercises presented in recommended French textbooks for Junior Secondary School students by French teachers could not produce the required and desired level of communicative proficiency in these students.

References


Rao, Z. (2002). *Chinese students’ misconception of communicative and non-communicative activities in the EFL classroom*. Holbrooks, Australia: University of South Australia

APPENDIX

FRENCH LANGUAGE TEACHING OBSERVATION SCHEDULE (FTOS)

Name of School………………………………………………

No of Students in Class……………………………………..

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION OF COMMUNICATION ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Activities are well arranged (from simple to complex)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Activities build on learners’ previous knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Objectives of activities clear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>There are clear instructions on how activities are to be performed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Activities occur in a realistic environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B</th>
<th>STUDENT PARTICIPATION</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Activities give enough room for students’ active participation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Activities allow students to engage in real dialog</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Activities allow students to break up into small groups to practice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Activities balance the students’ theoretical knowledge with practical experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Activities allow the use of target language for communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>There is adequate interaction among the students during activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Students play lead roles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C</th>
<th>METHODOLOGY</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Teacher’s use of activities allows for learning objectives to be measurable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Teacher’s role during activities disturbs learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Activities target language as a communication tool and expects same from students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Activities focus on future use of the language
5. Activities are well guided and monitored
6. Activities are achievable within the allowed time
7. Transitions from activity to activity are clear and orderly
8. Teacher employs activities that promote learning and critical thinking
9. Teacher ensures that demonstrations are clearly visible to all students in class
10. Activities are motivating
11. A variety of activities are provided
12. Activity results are concrete

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>USE OF ACTIVITIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Activities such as pairing and working in small groups are used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>There is the use of role play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>There is the use of game</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>There is the use of discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>There is the use of questioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Concrete objects are used to facilitate clear understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Audiovisual materials, television and cassettes are used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Activities allow oral practice of target language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Activities allow use of new vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Activities are ages and level appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Activities give enough room for practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Activities allow the learners to express their ideas and opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Activities are appropriate for teaching communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mode of Admission and Undergraduate Academic Performance: 
A Comparative Study in Delta State University

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Abstract This research investigated two modes of selection into the University. The intention was to find out which of them is more effective in ensuring that the best students are admitted. The two modes studied were the Joint admissions and Matriculation Board mode (JAMB) and the entrance examination by individual university mode, generally regarded as Continuing Education (C.E). The purpose was to predict the effects of the modes in terms of selection of the best students according to intellectual ability. It was an inferential study which adopted the two group comparison design; and was guided by six research hypotheses. Data was collected using first year first semester examination in five subject areas English Language, Modern Mathematics, Additional Mathematics, Physics and Accounts. The data collected was analysed using the t-test statistic. The results showed that the JAMB mode of selection was more effective compared to the C.E. mode. This result agrees with previous findings. The researcher recommended that the JAMB mode of admission be used exclusively for future admission exercise into Nigerian universities.

Keywords: selection, effectiveness, university, students, performance, intelligence test, prediction.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of Study

The study investigated academic performance of students admitted into undergraduate studies through two modes of admission; the nationwide joint admission and admission by individual universities policies. The study was intended to find out the academic performance of students of these two groups, using the two different modes of admission. The intention was to assess which of the two modes of admission admitted students more adequately, according to students' intellectual ability, as reflected in the students' examination performance at the end of the first semester of the first year.

Before the introduction of the national policy on admission of students into Nigerian universities in 1977, universities conducted their admission of undergraduates using the School Certificate and its equivalent qualifications such as the London General Certificate of Education (GCE) and the West African General Certificate of Education, the Advanced Level General Certificate of Education and the Higher School Certificate. Since that year (1977), admission has been through the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) taken nationwide. The JAMB admissions test is basically a test of intelligence. The structure of the test is "a 3 ½ hour multiple-choice intelligence test in four subjects, with a compulsory paper, the use of English; and test in three subjects of candidates' choice (JAMB Syllabus 2012). These four areas of intelligence tested by JAMB is guided by the various types of intelligence described by Sdorow (1995). Sdorow identified these as linguistic, logical, mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily kinaesthetic, intrapersonal, and interpersonal intelligence.

In the JAMB test, students who score 200 over 400 examination score were considered for admission, and those below 200 were not considered. It is this group not considered that usually enter the university through individual university entrance examination (C.E.). This mode of entry does not use test of intelligence such as the JAMB test. This is how universities admit into the same programmes students who did not take the JAMB examination. These two groups of students take the same lectures and use the same lecture materials; are given instruction by the same lecturers and instructors, take the same examination and are graded by the same examiners who are usually the same lecturers. In addition to these, the researcher established that the two group entry qualifications were comparable. There was no significant difference between the two groups when their entry qualifications were evaluated through a questionnaire. The age level of students in the two groups was similar and participants were both male and female each with adequate comparable representation (see questionnaire on participants’ demography in appendix 1).
From this questionnaire, it is derived that of the 300 respondents, 279 entered the university between the age of 17 and 23 while 21 were admitted at age above 23 and below 17. Of these 57 entered with very superior entry grades to qualify, 156 with above average grades, while 87 entered with average grades. 98 had attempted JAMB intelligence test and got admitted, 117 twice, and 85 three times. 150 entered through JAMB while 150 entered through C.E. 269 had attempted JAMB before entry while 31 did not. Of the 300 respondents, 53 obtained JAMB scores above 300, 190 obtained scores between 200 and 299 while 57 obtained scores below 200 at the year of entry (See table 1 on Psychological and Demographic characteristics).

Table 1: Summary of Demographic data obtained from questionnaire in appendix I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM ONE:</th>
<th>Male Participants</th>
<th>Female Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i)</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEM TWO:</td>
<td>Those who entered the University between age 17 and 23</td>
<td>Those who entered the University at above age 23 and below 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii)</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEM THREE:</td>
<td>Entered the university with very superior grades</td>
<td>Entered with above average grades</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v)</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vii)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEM FOUR:</td>
<td>Attempted JAMB only once before entry</td>
<td>Attempted JAMB twice before entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(viii)</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ix)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(x)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEM FIVE:</td>
<td>Entered the University through JAMB</td>
<td>Entered the University through C.E. examination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xi)</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xii)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEM SIX:</td>
<td>Number that attempted JAMB before entry</td>
<td>Number that did not attempt JAMB at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xiii)</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xiv)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEM SEVEN:</td>
<td>Obtained JAMB score above 300</td>
<td>Obtained JAMB score between 200 and 299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xv)</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xvi)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xvii)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This study wanted to find out the difference in performance of these two groups. The research wanted to see whether one mode of admission was more appropriate and adequate compared to the other mode: that is, admission through JAMB and admission without JAMB. JAMB is Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board. The intention was that the findings of the research would contribute to the process of making admission policies for the federated states in Nigeria and for individual universities.

1.2 Literature Review

Academic performance has been defined as the degree to which a student is accomplishing his or her tasks and studies (Ali, Jussoff, Ali, Mokhtar & Syafena, 2000). They state that there are several ways to determine students’ academic performance, which include grade point average (GPA), cumulative grade point average (CGPA) and test results. Researchers in Malaysia and in the United States of America, for example, have used these to evaluate students’ academic performance. Some of these studies are those of Manan and Mohamad (2003) and Agus and Makhbul (2002). Many researchers in other countries use these three methods to determine students’ academic performance. Some of these researchers are Galiher (2006), Darling (2005), Broh (2002), Amy (2000) and Stephens and Sihaben (2002).

These researchers say that students’ grades are scores for their classes and overall tenure; which are a tallying or average of assignment and test scores. They say that these grades may be affected by certain factors such as attendance and instructor’s opinion of the students; and that these grades may be in percentages, or may be put in A – F intervals or in grade point averages (GPA) from 0 - 4 and above.

Thome (2000) enumerated certain tests and scores as standardized. These are nationwide tests, Standard Achievement Test (SAT), the Stanford – Binet Intelligence Scale and the California Achievement Tests (CAT). In Nigeria, Ali et al. (2000) lists the General Certificate of Education Examination and the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) as standardized tests. According to them, these constitute basic entry requirements for students. Nigeria universities depend on standardized tests for selection of students into their academic programmes. These tests include the General Certificate Examinations Council (WAEC) standardized test. In addition to these tests, there is a standardized test referred to as Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB) test which every Nigerian university adopt for selection of students. This has been in use since 1977 in Nigeria. It is mainly a test of intelligence.
Sdorow (1995) discussed the concept of multiple intelligence. He says that the brain involved separate system for different adaptive ability which he calls intelligence. Sdorow says that there are seven types of intelligence, each of which is developed to a different extent in each person. The types of intelligence include linguistics, logical mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily kinesthetic, extrapersonal and interpersonal (Sdorow, 1995).

The Joint Admission and Matriculation Board test (JAMB) used in the admission of students into Nigeria Universities test for four of these types of intelligence for each discipline and subject course majors. Houghton Mifflin Publishing Company discussed the views of many researchers on intelligence tests. Becker (2003) discussed what intelligence testing is, its origin, advantages and disadvantages and types of intelligence tests. Garder (2003) exposed his involvement in standardized testing. From these sources, relevant facts emerged about intelligence tests and standardized tests. Binet (1905) says that standardized intelligence tests measure intelligence. Angoff (1982), Binet (1905), Binet and Simon (1916), Herring (1922) and Kuhlmann (1912) have the following views about intelligence and standardized tests; that these tests are measurement tools used by teachers to assess students' progress. That contrary to popular belief, intelligence tests do not measure amount of knowledge a person has already. From the works of these persons, the following are enumerated as the advantages of intelligence tests. That school systems compare test results with other school districts and also help parents and administrators determine a student's academic abilities. In addition, they say that it allows employers to determine an employee's ability to perform particular tasks and enables individual people confirm that they have high intelligence quotient. Standardized tests measure a person's capability for learning and potential intelligence. They do not measure knowledge. This is counted as a disadvantage (Pratt, 1917; Roid, 2003 and Sattler, 1965). There are different types of intelligence test. These are identified in the works of Becker (2003), Sattler (1965), Terman (1916) and Terman and Merril (1937). These types of intelligence tests include Wechsler intelligence test, Multiple Intelligence tests, Kaufman Brief Intelligence test, Wechsler Adult Intelligence Test and Free Wonderlic Test.

In recent years, certain psychologists have made efforts to review and enrich the contents and scopes of intelligence tests. This has been so since 1973. The psychologists include Terman and Merril (1973), Thorndike, Hagen and Sattler (1986). In Nigeria, certain test of intelligence have been in use as test for selection of students into universities. These are the West African Examination Council and General Certificate Examination tests and recently, the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board tests.

There are certain factors which Thome (2000) says can affect academic performance of students. These include extracurricular activities and the culture of the people and environment in which children are raised. It is also generally believed that parental assistance with home-work, poor motivation and racial and minority discrimination are other factors that can affect students' academic performance.

Also related to academic performance among students, Ali, Jusoff and Ali et al. (2000) enumerated active learning, students' attendance to class, extracurricular activities, peer influence, course assessment and demographic factor as some other factors. To measure academic performance, grade point averages (GPAs) have been widely used by different researchers. Some of these researchers are Galiher (2006), Darling (2005), Broh (2002) and Amy (2006). Grade point averages are calculated at the end of every semester. On the other hand, certain researchers have used test results to measure academic performance. Some of these researchers are Hijatzi and Nagzi (2006), Hake (1995) and Tho (1994). In this work, the researcher used the method of Hake and Tho for data collection.

On the aspect of the school subjects to be used to analyse performance, researchers say that not all school subjects need be used. They say that certain school subjects are more suitable than others in measuring performance, especially in school tests and cumulative grade point averages. Masri and Alimed (2007) state that these school subjects include English, Modern Mathematics, Additional Mathematics, Physics and Accounts.

Certain researchers in Nigerian had studied University selection examination in relation to selection into Nigeria Universities; predictive power of selection examination score and predictive value of the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) in Nigeria. Afemikhe (2005) found no significant difference between the effectiveness of JAMB and the individual university selection examination. The researcher thus concluded that there was no need to use these two examinations together for selection of students under the same condition in one particular year. According to this researcher, use of one of them at a time would be adequate. The researcher suggested that since JAMB Matriculation examination was widely accepted, it should be used alone for university admission exercise.

Acho, Aligba and Omananyi (2010) found that high score in GCE/WAEC did not predict high performance in mathematics at the university predegree end-of-tenure examination, and that this finding betrayed the Senior Secondary Certificate Examination result in mathematics. Abdullahi (1983), on the other hand, found that there was a significant and positive relationship between UME scores and student first year scores in a study of the prediction value of the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) and University Matriculation Examination (UME).
Certain researchers have identified some control variables that may influence test results. These are socio-economic status of parents, parents’ educational levels, class attendance, extra-curricular activities and peer group influence. Agus and Makhbul (2002) indicate that students from families of higher income levels perform better in their academic assessment as compared to those who come from families of lower income bracket. Checchi (2000) also concluded that family income provides an incentive for better student performance and richer parents internalize this effect by investing more resources in the education of their children; and that once the investment is undertaken, the students fulfill parents’ expectation by performing better in their studies.

But Raza Nagzi (2006) found that there is negative relationship between students’ performance and students’ family income. Also, Beblo and Lauer (2004) found that parents’ income and their market status have a weak impact on children’s education.

On parents’ educational level, Ermisch and Franceconi (2001) say that there is a significant gradient between each parent’s educational level and their child’s educational attainment. Also, the mother’s effect is stronger than the father’s effect (Agus and Makhbul, 2002). There is also the aspect of active learning by students. Researchers say that this leads to better students’ attitude and improvements in students’ thinking and writing. This finding was supported by Felder and Brent (2003). However, Delong’s studies did not support this hypothesis (Delong, 2008).

Class attendance has also been identified as a factor that affects students’ performance. Collett et al. (2007), Chow (2003), Darben and Ecis (1995) and Romer (1993) found that attendance has a small but statistically significant effect on students’ performance. They state that missing of classes by students leads to poorer performance.

Extra-curricular activities and peer influence have also been identified as factors that can influence students’ performance. Extra-curricular activities are found to be beneficial in building and strengthening academic achievement (March & Klectman, 2002; Guest and Schmaider (2003); Caldwell and Smith (2005). Hanushek et al. (2002), Goethal (2001) and Gonzales et al. (1996) have found that peer influence has more powerful effect than immediate family. This finding was, however, contradicted by Goedtals (2001), Giuliodoni, Lujan and Dicarto (2006).

We can observe these various control variables as those that can influence the result of studies that look into prediction effects of university admission examinations. Before students attain the stage of doing the university admission examinations, these variables have been controlled. On the basis of this, the result of such admission examination can be seen as valid. For example, such variables as extra-curricular activities, parents’ supervision, socio-economic status of parents, poor influence, class attendance, and so on have been controlled by the maturing process of students through the secondary school. Also, to control these variables is the sheer large number of students that take this examination and their various backgrounds. Large populations of test participants have been found to neutralize the effect of a control variable (Dunn, 1999). The GCE, WAEC and the UME examinations are used to measure students’ suitability for entry into the university and thus are seen to be valid. The studies of Afemikhe (2005), Aligba and Omananyi (2010) and Abdullahi (1983) found the JAMB examinations to be valid, popular and acceptable for the selection of students into Nigerian universities. The two modes of measure for admission of students can, therefore, be assessed to find out their comparative effects. The other mode is generally referred to as the Continuing Education mode (C.E).

1.3 Problem of the study

For some time now in Nigeria, thousands of candidates who fail to secure admission to universities through the nationally conducted entrance examination by the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB), are offered admission through the entrance examination conducted by individual universities. The problem of this study, therefore, was: could the admission exercise carried out by individual universities to admit students who otherwise could not be admitted through the nationally conducted entrance examination by JAMB, produce students of comparable intellectual standard?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated to guide the study.

(a) There is no significant difference in students’ performance in English language between the group admitted through JAMB and those admitted through University process (C.E).

(b) There is no significant difference in students’ performance in Modern Mathematics between those admitted through JAMB and those admitted through University process (C.E).

(c) There is no significant difference in students’ performance in Additional Mathematics between those admitted through JAMB and those admitted through University process (C.E).
(d) There is no significant difference in students’ performance in Physics between those admitted through JAMB and those admitted through University process (C.E).
(e) There is no significant difference in students’ performance in Accounts between those admitted through JAMB and those admitted through University process (C.E).
(f) There is no significant difference in students’ performance in overall students’ performance in the 5 subjects between those admitted through JAMB and those admitted through University process (C.E).

The Delta State University refers to the non-JAMB group Continuing Education (C.E.).

1.5 Purpose of Study

The research intended to ascertain which of the two modes of students’ selection into the university is more adequate. The purpose was to make a comparison of these two methods of admission using students’ test scores. The finding would form the basis for recommendation on the admission process in universities. The finding would be relevant to those who make admission policies. It would contribute to ensuring more valid and reliable mode of entrance examinations in Nigerian universities. It would contribute to ensuring that the best students are admitted.

2. Method

The method used to investigate the effectiveness of the two modes of admission selection exercise includes:

2.1 Participants

The researcher used intact classes where thirty (30) respondents per class were selected male and female through random sampling technique. This was done through balloting. The age of the respondents ranged between 17 years and 23 for both JAMB and C.E. groups. These were the students whose test scores were used for the study at the end of the first semester.

The study was carried out in Delta State University, Abraka, Nigeria, using students admitted to the University in the 2009/2010 Session through the JAMB admission mode and the Continuing Education admission mode. There were 2,653 students in all, out of whom 300 male and female students were proportionately and randomly selected for the study, using the balloting technique.

2.2 Research Instrument

The results of the students in the JAMB group and in the Continuing Education group in the First Semester examination in the first year of study by the students in Delta State University, Abraka, Nigeria were collected and collated in the five subject areas of English Language, Modern Mathematics, Additional Mathematics, Physics and Accounts. Test results were gathered for each subject areas of students in their first semester of the first year. The test scores were gathered and the mean for each group computed. It was the test scores and the mean that were used for the t-test method of data analysis.

2.3 Design

The research was a predictive study which used the two-group comparison design. It was a descriptive survey of the expost facto type, as no variable were manipulated.

2.4 Procedure

After the students were admitted through the JAMB admission mode and the Continuing Education admission mode, they were placed in the same class, taught by the same lecturers and exposed to the same course materials. They were also made to take the same examinations at the end of the first semester in their first year of study, in the five subject areas of concern. Their examination scripts were marked by the same lecturers who had taught the students. The results of the students that made up the study sample were arranged into the two groups of students and analysed accordingly. The statistic that was used to analyse the data was the t-test. The t-test was considered appropriate for the analysis because the study was concerned with determining if the academic performance of the two research groups differed significantly.
3. Results

The results showed that there was no significant difference in the performance of students in English language between students who come into the university through JAMB, and those selected by the individual university entry process (C.E). But for the other four subject areas, the hypotheses were rejected. The 6th hypothesis that measured the overall students’ performance in the five subject areas for the two groups was also rejected.

3.1 Hypothesis (a): table 2:

T-test analysis of students' performance in English language between the group admitted through JAMB and the group admitted by individual university (C.E.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-calculated</th>
<th>t-critical</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accepted</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54.97</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13.687</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>1.960</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>51.53</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13.216</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis (a) states that there is no significant difference between the two groups in English Language. The result showed that the group admitted through JAMB had a mean score of 54.97, while the other group, Continuing Education (C.E.) had a mean score of 51.53. The t-calculated was 0.917 while the t-critical was 1.960. The t-calculated was lower than the t-critical, thus the null hypothesis was accepted, at an alpha of 0.05 level of significance. This means that there was no significant difference in the academic performance of the two groups of students in English Language.

3.2 Hypothesis (b) table 3:

T-test analysis of students' performance in Modern Mathematics between the group admitted through JAMB and the group admitted by individual university (C.E.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-calculated</th>
<th>t-critical</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modern Mathematics JAMB</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>57.93</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>9.878</td>
<td>4.486</td>
<td>1.960</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern Mathematics CE.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42.80</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14.196</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis (b) states that there is no significant difference between the two groups in Modern Mathematics. The result showed that the JAMB group had a mean score of 57.93, while the C.E. group had a mean score of 42.80. The t-calculated was 4.486 while the t-critical was 1.960. The t-calculated was higher than the t-critical, thus the null hypothesis was rejected, at an alpha of 0.05 level of significance. This means that there was a significant difference in the academic performance of the two groups of students in Modern Mathematics. The difference was in favour of the students in the JAMB group.

3.3 Hypothesis (c) table 4:

T-test analysis of students' performance in Additional Mathematics between the group admitted through JAMB and the group admitted by individual university (C.E.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-calculated</th>
<th>t-critical</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additional Mathematics JAMB</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>59.93</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10.058</td>
<td>5.127</td>
<td>1.960</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional Mathematics CE.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42.80</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14.196</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis (c) states that there is no significant difference between the two groups in Additional Mathematics. The result showed that the JAMB group had a mean score of 59.93, while the C.E. group had a mean score of 42.80. The t-calculated was 5.127 while the t-critical was 1.960. The t-calculated was higher than the t-critical, thus the null
hypothesis was rejected, at an alpha of 0.05 level of significance. This shows that there was a significant difference in the academic performance of the two groups of students in Additional Mathematics, the difference being in favour of the students in the JAMB group.

3.4 Hypothesis (d) table 5:

**T-test analysis of students’ performance in Physics between the group admitted through JAMB and the group admitted by individual university (C.E.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-calculated</th>
<th>t-critical</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physics JAMB</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>57.40</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8.997</td>
<td>5.590</td>
<td>1.960</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics CE.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42.80</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14.196</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis (d) states that there is no significant difference in the performance of students between the JAMB group, and in C.E. group in Physics. The mean score of the JAMB group was 57.40, while that of the C.E. group was 42.80. The t-calculated was 5.590 while the t-critical was 1.960. The null hypothesis is thus rejected since the calculated-t is higher than the critical-t, calculated at an alpha of 0.05 level of significance. This means that there was a significant difference in the academic performance of the two groups of students; and the difference was in favour of the students in the JAMB group.

3.5 Hypothesis (e) table 6:

**T-test analysis of students’ performance in Accounts between the group admitted through JAMB and the group admitted by individual university (C.E.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-calculated</th>
<th>t-critical</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accounts JAMB</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54.70</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14.067</td>
<td>2.225</td>
<td>1.960</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts CE.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>45.47</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.610</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis (e) states that there is no significant difference between the JAMB group and the C.E. group in Accounts. The mean of the JAMB group was 54.70, while that of the C.E. group was 45.47. The t-calculated was 2.225, while the t-critical was 1.960. Since the t-calculated is higher than the t-critical, the null hypothesis was rejected. This shows that there was a significant difference in the academic performance of the two groups of students; and the difference was in favour of the students in the JAMB group.

3.6 Hypothesis (f) table 7:

**T-test analysis of students’ performance in the 5 subject areas between the group admitted through JAMB and the group admitted by individual university (C.E.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-calculated</th>
<th>t-critical</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All JAMB students</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>56.99</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>11.543</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>1.660</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All CE students</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>45.62</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>13.267</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis (f) states that there is no significant difference in the performance of students in the JAMB group and the C.E. group in the 5 subject areas. The mean score for the JAMB group was 56.99, while that of the C.E. group was 45.62. The t-calculated was 7.133 and the t-critical was 1.66. The null hypothesis was rejected since the t-calculated was higher than the t-critical. This means that there was a significant difference in the academic performance of the two groups of students; and that the difference was in favour of the students in the JAMB group.
4. Discussion, Implication and Recommendation

4.1 Discussion

The study set out to investigate the effectiveness of two modes of admission into the University. These two modes are the entrance examination conducted by the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) and the entrance examination conducted by individual universities (CE). A mode of selection is seen to be more effective between two groups if students admitted perform better than those in the other group in the university in the end-of-semester examinations.

It is expected that when a particular mode of entrance examination is found to be more effective, such a mode should be adopted in future selection. This is why the study was a predictive one, using a survey as the method of data collection.

The findings show that there was no significant difference in the performance of students among those students that study English language. This was derived from students’ test scores at the end of the first semester in English language. However, the findings showed significant difference among students who study Modern Mathematics, Additional Mathematics, Physics and Accounts. The research also measured the overall superiority of either of these two modes of admission among all the students in the five subject areas. The findings showed that there was no significant difference.

The research indicated lower mean scores among students in the CE group in the subject areas of study, even in English language. This goes to show that students admitted through JAMB showed superiority in the test scores. Thus it can be concluded that the JAMB mode of entry is superior to the individual university selection mode (C.E.). This result supports the stated advantages of standardized intelligence tests which states that intelligence tests are psychological tests used to measure a person’s ability to perform intellectual tasks, helps parents and administrators to determine a student’s academic ability. That they measure a person’s capability for learning (Becker, 2003). The fact that those who entered the university through JAMB showed superior performance is an indication that psychological concept of standardized intelligence test is able to measure students’ learning capability. The difference in the performance of the JAMB group and the C.E. cannot be traced to demographic difference, age level, and gender. What could be responsible for the superior performance can only be traced to the use of the JAMB intelligence test.

This finding supports the opinion that intelligence tests measures a person’s capability for learning and potential intelligence (Hugoff, 1982; Binet, 1905; Binet and Simon, 1916, Herring, 1922 and Kohlmann, 1912). Of all the 150 respondents that entered the university through JAMB, 53 obtained scores above 300. None of the C.E. respondents scored up to 300. This shows the adventure of intelligence test. Of the 31 respondents who entered the university without attempting the JAMB test, all were in the C.E. programme where students showed lower performance. The 85 respondents that attempted JAMB more than two times before being admitted, 63 were in the C.E. group. This indicates that respondents that scored poorly in the JAMB standardized intelligence test continuously before being admitted into the C.E. programme also performed less in the end of Semester examinations. Demographic data did not return discriminatory performance between male and female respondents in the two programmes. Age also did not account for differences in performance in the two programmes. The JAMB standardized intelligence test is one of the intelligence tests in Nigeria structured along the guidelines of Terman and Merrill (1973). The guidelines were made as efforts to enrich the contents and scopes of intelligence tests (Thorndike, Hegen and Sattler, 1986).

This finding agrees with that of Afemikhe in 2005. Afemikhe concluded that there was no need to conduct another examination for students’ admission in Nigerian universities and that the JAMB entrance examination was sufficient for this exercise. However, the result of this study differs from that of Abdullahi in 1983. Abdullahi had compared students’ test performance in their first year, between students who were admitted through JAMB and those admitted through another mode UME. He found a significant and positive relationship between the scores of these two groups of students in their first year terminal examinations.

4.2 Implications

The results here imply that the mode of entry through the examination conducted by the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) is a more effective mode compared to the entry mode conducted by the individual university. The universities can reliably use this selection examination (JAMB) in the admission of their students in all courses in Nigerian Universities. Afemikhe had a similar finding in 2005. This was after the research had to compare the effectiveness of JAMB and Post-JAMB examinations conducted by individual universities in Nigeria. Masri and Almed
(2007) state that certain school subjects are more suitable than others in measuring performance. They listed the school subjects as English language, Modern Mathematics, Additional Mathematics, Physics and Accounts. This guided the choice of subjects used in this research.

The findings also imply that there may be no need to duplicate efforts in the selection exercise to admit students to the university. This duplication of efforts has been on in various universities in Nigeria. Afemikhe (2005) stated that there was no need for this duplication and that JAMB examination could be reliably used by Nigerian Universities. Abdullahi (1983) also found the JAMB entry mode adequate. He made this assertion in his research on the predictive value of the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board examination for entry into the University.

4.3 Recommendations

Since the findings of this study confirm those studies conducted by Afemikhe (2005) and by Achor, Aliegba and Omananyi (2010), it is recommended that the JAMB admission mode which had students performing significantly better than the individual university admission mode (the CE), should be adopted exclusively for use by Nigerian Universities. In other words, the CE admission mode should be scrapped forthwith in Nigerian Universities.

References


School Variables and Internal Efficiency of Secondary Schools in Ondo State, Nigeria

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Abstract This paper investigated the relationship between school variables and internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. As an ex-post facto and correlational research, the study population comprised all the 295 secondary schools in the State. Out of this population, a sample of 242 secondary schools was taken and selected through the simple random sampling technique. Two instruments were used to collect data for the study. These were the inventory and the questionnaire. The data collected were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, the mean, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis, Correlation Matrix, Regression Analysis of Variance and Multiple Regression. It was found that secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria were internally efficient. Teachers' qualification was found to be the best predictor of internal efficiency in the schools. It was therefore recommended that increased efforts should be made by the State government in the recruitment of teachers with higher qualifications to all secondary schools in the State.

Keyword: School; Variables; Internal; Efficiency; Secondary; Nigeria

1. Introduction

The Nigerian educational system has witnessed a progressive change since independence in 1960. The Universal Basic Education (UBE) which was inaugurated in October, 1999 by the Federal Government of Nigeria has led to a considerable expansion of the school system. The free secondary education embarked upon by some States in the country including Ondo State has led to influx of students into secondary schools. Thus, the enrolment of students rose from 157,652 in 1999 to 210,520 in 2006 and to 244,712 in 2012 (Ondo State Nigeria Ministry of Education, 2012).

Considering the explosion in students' enrolment in the schools, one is tempted to assume that the internal efficiency of the schools was at a high rate. Many variables tend to influence how a school system performs at a particular time. Some of these variables include school location, school size, class size, teacher student ratio, teachers' qualifications and teachers' teaching experience.

School location in Ondo State, Nigeria could be seen in terms of urban and rural location of schools. Rural areas account for 168 secondary schools (57%) in the State while Urban schools account for the remaining 127 secondary schools (43%) (Ondo State Government, 1994; Adeyemi, 2008).

The size of the school tends to vary from one place to another. In some places, there are schools with less than 1,000 students while in other places there are schools with more than 1,000 students. In Ondo State, Nigeria, schools having population of students of below 1,000 are regarded as small schools while schools having population of 1,000 and above are regarded as big schools (Ondo State Nigeria Ministry of Education, 2010).

Class-size is an educational tool that can be used to describe the average number of students per class in a given institution. Much variation has been discovered in class-size in many countries of the world. This variation was identified by Watson and Prieto (1994) who compared the class-size in England and Spain and found out that “class-sizes in Spain are significantly higher than England especially in the 17-18 age range.” According to them, the mean class-sizes in Spain for the age range 11-16 was about 34 while in England, it was about 26. They found that for the age 17-18 “the mean class-size in England reduced to 13 whereas in Spain, the mean class-size remained almost the same as for earlier years.”

Commenting on class-size in British secondary schools, Dean (1994) remarked that “small classes are a priority for parents.” According to her, the average size of one-teacher class was 23 in 1994 compared with 22.7 in 1993 for pupils under 16. She made a comparison of class-size in secondary schools in some OECD countries. Her findings revealed that four countries - Turkey, Norway, Netherlands and New Zealand had class-sizes of 20 or more; the UK, USA, Japan, Canada and Ireland had class-sizes of between 15 and 20 while eight countries - France, Australia, Sweden, Denmark, Austria, Italy, Luxembourg and Belgium had class-sizes of below 15.

In the African setting, the situation seems to be different. Ajayi, (2000) for example, found large class sizes of above
40 students per class in Nigerian schools. The student-teacher ratio is another tool that can be used to measure the performance of the education system (Adeyemi, 1998). Researchers have identified varying student-teacher ratios in many countries. Blatchford and Mortimore (1994) for example, compared the pupil-teacher ratios in the UK in 1991 and found that the number of pupils per teacher in secondary schools in 1991 was 15.5 in England, 15.4 in Wales, 12.2 in Scotland and 14.9 in Northern Ireland. They concluded that “the size of a class in school is one of the most important and basic ways that the school environment affects children’s learning and behaviour.” In Nigeria, student teacher ratios of 30:1 in secondary schools and 25:1 in primary schools have been reported (Ondo State Nigeria Ministry of Education, 2010).

The teaching force in schools has been a major variable in determining the quality of a school. Towards this end, the nature of the teaching force in schools is examined in two different ways namely, teachers’ qualifications and teaching experience. Teachers as one of the inputs into the educational process constitute an important aspect in students’ learning. Considering this point, Umeasiegbu (1991) argued that “the level of performance in any school is intimately related to the quality of its teachers” while “the quality of any school system is a function of the aggregate quality of teachers who operate it.” Mullens (1993) also supported the argument and remarked that the level of a teacher’s subject matter competence is a prime predictor of student learning. He argued that it is not simply the completion of schooling that could contribute to a teacher’s effectiveness in the classroom but actual achievement in terms of subject matter competence.

In the same vein, the length of teaching experience of a teacher has been an important factor determining how effectively the teaching-learning process in a school has been achieved. Researchers have found that “experience improves teaching skills” while “students’ tend to learn better at the hands of a teacher who has taught them continuously over a period of years” (Waiching, 1994; McClelland, 1995).

Considering the aforementioned variables, it is pertinent to examine how efficient the school system is in Ondo State, Nigeria. Efficiency refers to the ratio between the output of an organization and the inputs used in producing the output. In efficiency, the attempt is to see how outputs produced could be kept at the same level even when input level is reduced (Owolabi & Akinwumiju, 1992). Efficiency is the ability to produce the desired effect with minimum of effort, expense or waste. The criterion of efficiency demands that, of two alternatives having the same cost, one might be chosen which will lead to a greater attainment of the organizational objectives. It also demands that, of two alternatives leading to the same degree of attainment, one might be chosen which entails the lesser cost. On one hand, efficiency involves the maximization of output if inputs are considered as fixed; and on the other hand, the minimization of outputs, if outputs are considered as fixed. It is concerned with the maintenance of a positive balanced of output over input (Babalola, 1991).

In Economics, efficiency is the optimal relations between inputs and outputs. An activity is being performed efficiently if a given quantity of outputs is obtained with a minimum of inputs or, alternatively, if a given quantity of inputs yield maximum outputs. The concept of efficiency is used to analyze production, which in economic terms is defined as a process of transformation in which a kind of goods or service is transformed into another. Efficiency could be measure in two ways. These are External efficiency and Internal efficiency. External efficiency means the extent to which the educational system meets the broad social, economic, cultural and political objectives of the community of which it is a part.

Internal efficiency is the relationship between the outputs and inputs of an education system. The internally efficient educational system is one, which turns out graduates without wasting any student-year or without dropouts and repeaters (Akinwumiju, 1995). The inputs of education can be summarized as teachers, materials, and buildings and these are all used to transform one set of outputs (say primary school leavers) into another set of output (i.e. secondary school graduates) (Olabor, 2004).

Efficiency in education, otherwise called internal efficiency, is the relationship between the outputs and inputs of an education system. Output of an education system is the number of successful completers of the course of study while an input to an education system is the number of students-years used by all students who passed through the system.

Internal efficiency is the extent to which resources made available to the educational system are being used to achieve the objectives for which the educational system has been set up. In this regard, the input into the system and the output from it needs to be measured.

The inputs include classroom teachers, furniture, textbooks, etc and all these can be quantified as the cost per student per year. Thus, the input has to be in terms of student years. The outputs of the educational system are the graduates from that system. In order to measure internal efficiency in education, a researcher needs to do a cohort analysis. The cohort analysis simply tells the history of a particular level of education to the time the group of students left the level. As such, it can show to what extent the educational system is able to use its raw materials (students) in the production of output (graduates). In this regard, the cohort analysis would show the flow rate in the system such as the
promotion rate, repetition rate and the drop out rate of students. If the system is able to see the students through the system in the shortest possible period, then the system is efficient. In another form, a system is efficient if the wastage rate of the system is low. The smaller the wastage rate, the more efficient the system (Babalola, 2003).

In view of the foregoing, this study was set-up to determine whether or not secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria were internally efficient. It was also to determine whether or not a relationship exist between school variables and internal efficiency of the schools in order to correct erroneous impressions.

1.1. Statement of the problem

The influx of students to secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria has been a matter of concern to stakeholders in education (Ondo State Nigeria Ministry of Education, 2010, Ondo State Teaching Service Commission, 2012). Common observation in the school system shows that input into the system were being provided by government at increasing numbers. Although, the output seems to be increasing, the quality of output however was perhaps at a fluctuating trend. The problem of this study was to determine what relationships actually exist between school variables and internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. In addressing this problem, the following research questions were raised:

1.1.1. Research Questions

1. What are the promotion rate, repetition rate and dropout rate in secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria between 2002 and 2007?
2. Are secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria internally efficient?
3. Is there any significant relationship between school variables and internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria?
4. Which of the school variables best predict internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria?

1.2. Method

This study adopted the ex-post facto and correlational research design. It was ex-post facto as it was an after fact or after event research (Gay, 1996). It was also “a correlational research as it involved the calculation of a correlation coefficient which is a measure of the extent to which variables vary in the same way” (Anderson, 1998). The study population comprised all the 295 secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. Out of this population, a sample of 242 secondary schools was taken and selected through the simple random sampling technique. The principals of the schools were the respondents in the study. A cohort of 75,360 students who entered the 295 secondary schools in 2002 and graduated in 2007 were purposively selected for the study. This was to enable the researcher to examine the flow rate of the students through the six-year school system in terms of the promotion rate, repetition rate and drop out rate.

Two instruments were used to collect data for the study. These were an inventory and a questionnaire. The inventory titled ‘secondary school Data and students’ flow rate inventory’ (SSDSFRI) consisted of two parts A and B. Part A was demographic. It elicited information on the name of the school, its location, year founded, type of school and number of classes. Part B required information on the school size, class size, student-teacher-ratio, teacher qualifications and teacher experience in all the schools. It also requested data on a cohort of students who entered the schools in JSS 1 in 2002 and graduated in SS 3 in 2007. He then required data on the number of promotees, number of repeaters and the number of dropout in each of the years.

The questionnaire titled ‘school variables and internal efficiency questionnaire (SVIEQ) also consisted of two parts A and B. Part A elicited demographic information about each school such as the name of the school, its location, year founded and number of classes. Part B requested information about school variables and internal efficiency.

The content validity of the instruments was determined by experts in Tests and Measurement who matched each item of the instruments with the research questions in order to determine whether or not the instruments actually measured what they were suppose to measure. Their observations were used to effect necessary corrections on the instrument. Only the questionnaire was exposed to a test of reliability. Reliability test was not conducted on the inventory because the data collected through the inventory were already in the schools. In conducting the reliability for the questionnaire, the test re-test reliability technique was used. In doing this, the questionnaires were administered to 40 respondents outside the study area. After a period of two weeks, the questionnaires were re-administered to the same respondents. The data collected on the two tests were collated and analyzed using the Pearson Product Moment
Correlation Technique. A correlation coefficient of 0.82 was obtained indicating that the instruments were reliable and consistent for the study. The instruments were administered by the researcher and research assistants. After a period of 2 weeks, the completed instruments were retrieved from the respondents. All the respondents duly completed the instruments indicating 100% response rate. The data collected were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, Pearson Product Moment Correlation, Correlation Matrix, Regression Analysis of Variance and Multiple Regression. All the null-hypotheses formulated for the study were tested for significance at 0.05 alpha level using the two-tailed test.

1.2.1 Results

**Question 1: What are the promotion rate, repetition rate and dropout rate in secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria between 2002 and 2007?**

In computing the promotion rate, repetition rate and drop out rate of students in secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria between 2002 and 2007, data on the number of promtees, number of repeaters and number of drop out were collected from the responses of the respondents to the inventory. A cohort of 75,360 students in JSS 1 in 2002 who graduated in SS3 in 2007 from all the schools was used. The data collected were analyzed using frequency count and percentages. The findings are presented in table 1.1.

**Table 1.1: Promotion: Repetition and Dropout Rate in Secondary School in Ondo State, Nigeria**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>JSS 1</th>
<th>JSS 2</th>
<th>JSS 3</th>
<th>SS 1</th>
<th>SS 2</th>
<th>SS 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>75,360</td>
<td>73,460</td>
<td>71,280</td>
<td>69,330</td>
<td>67,540</td>
<td>65,502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>73,460</td>
<td>71,280</td>
<td>69,330</td>
<td>67,540</td>
<td>65,502</td>
<td>8,903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>71,280</td>
<td>69,330</td>
<td>67,540</td>
<td>65,502</td>
<td>8,903</td>
<td>388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>69,330</td>
<td>67,540</td>
<td>65,502</td>
<td>8,903</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>67,540</td>
<td>65,502</td>
<td>8,903</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>65,502</td>
<td>8,903</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>8,903</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in table 1.1, the number of promtees in secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria was high in each of the years. Although, the cohort of 75,360 students started JSS 1 in 2002, the number of students reduced in 2003 to 73,460 as a result of repetition and drop out. The number of repeaters reduced from 3,200 in JSS 1 in 2002 to 1,840 in SS 3 in 2007. The number of drop out was at a fluctuating trend in each of the years from JSS 1 in 2002 to SS 3 in 2007. The years 2008 to 2010 accounted for the extra years spent by the repeaters and drop out who were yet to leave the school system.

In computing the promotion rate, repetition rate and drop out rate among students in the schools, the following formulas were used (Akinwumiju, 1995):

**1. Promotion Rate**

The promotion rate (pt) is the number promoted divided by the enrolment in the previous year. In equation form, the promotion rate is:

\[ Pt = \frac{P_{t+1}}{E_t} \times 100 \]

Where:

- \( Pt \) = promotion rate.
- \( P_{t+1} \) = Number of students promoted (promotees) to grade i+1 in year t+1.
- \( E_t \) = Enrolment in grade 1 in year t. (Previous year)
(2). Repetition Rate

\[ R_t = \frac{R_{i+1} \times 100}{E_t} \]

Where:
- \( R_t \) = repetition rate
- \( R_{i+1} \) = number of repeaters in year \( t+1 \) in a given class \( i \)
- \( E_t \) = total student enrolment in the former year in class \( i \).

(3). Drop out rate

\[ d_t = \frac{E_t - (P_{i+1} + R_{i+1}) \times 100}{E_t} \]

\[ d_t = \frac{D_{i+1} \times 100}{E_t} \]

Where:
- \( d_t \) = dropout rate
- \( E_t \) = Enrolment in present year
- \( P_t \) = Promotion rate, and
- \( r_t \) = repetition rate

Using the formulas, the promotion rate, repetition rate and drop out rate for the cohort of 75,360 students of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria were computed. The findings are shown in table 1.2.

### Table 1.2: Promotion, Repetition and Dropout Rates in Secondary Schools in Ondo State, Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>JSS 1</th>
<th>JSS 2</th>
<th>JSS 3</th>
<th>SS 1</th>
<th>SS 2</th>
<th>SS 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>75,360</td>
<td>73,460</td>
<td>71,280</td>
<td>69,330</td>
<td>67,540</td>
<td>65,502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Cohort</td>
<td>8,903</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No of promotees</td>
<td>93.2</td>
<td>93.1</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No of Repeaters</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No of dropout</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduates</td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 1.2, the promotion rate shows a fluctuating trend from JSS 1 in 2002 to SS 3 in 2007. The repetition rate reduced through out the 6years of schooling from 4.2% in JSS 1 in 2002 to 2.8% in SS 3 in 2007. It repetition rate also reduce to 2.8% in 2008, that is, the first year of the extra years of schooling while it increased to 7.7% in 2009, that is, the second year of the extra years of schooling. The dropout rate was at a fluctuating trend throughout the schooling period from 2002 to 2007. In the overall analysis, the table shows that the promotion rate was high throughout the schooling period while the repetition and dropout rates were at a low level.

### Question 2: Are secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria internally efficient?

In answering this question, data on the number of promotees, number of repeaters and drop out in the cohort of 75,360 students of secondary schools in Ondo State Nigeria were collected from the responses of the respondents to the inventory. The data were analyzed in a cohort showing the number of promotees, number of repeaters and drop out on yearly basis from JSS 1 in 2002 to SS 3 in 2007. The findings are presented in figure 1.
Figure 1: Cohort Analysis showing the flow rate of students in secondary school Ondo State, Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Output</th>
<th>Wastage Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>75,360</td>
<td>1,180</td>
<td>8.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>70,260</td>
<td>980</td>
<td>9.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>66,130</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>9.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>62,630</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>9.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>59,390</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>9.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>56,530</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>9.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total input = 431,831
Total output = 61,470
Ideal input/output ratio = $\frac{6}{1} = 6$

Wastage ratio = Actual input-output ratio = $\frac{7.02}{6} = 1.17$

\[ \text{Wastage Ratio} = 1.17 \]

In interpreting the wastage ratio, it means that one successful completer of secondary school in Ondo State, Nigeria on the average spent 7.02 student-years as against the ideal (optimum) student years of 6 years. A perfect situation will give a wastage ratio of 1 which is not possible in reality. As such, the nearer the wastage ratio is to 1, the more efficient is the system and vice-versa (Akinwumiju, 1995).

Thus, in order to determine the internal efficiency, otherwise known as the coefficient of efficiency, the reciprocal of the wastage ratio was determined. As such, the coefficient of efficiency is equal to 1 divided by the wastage ratio and multiply by 100 (Ayodele, 2005). This was represented as follows:

Coefficient of Efficiency = $\frac{1}{\text{wastage ratio}} \times 100$

\[ \text{Coefficient of Efficiency} = \frac{1}{1.17} \times 100 \]

\[ \text{Coefficient of Efficiency} = 85.5\% \]

The finding indicates that secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria are 85.5% internally efficient. This high coefficient of efficiency shows that secondary schools in the state are internally efficient.
Question 3: Is there any significant relationship between school variables and internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria?

In answering this question, data on teacher quality and internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria were collected from the responses of the respondents to the inventory. The data collected were analyzed using frequency counts and percentages while the hypothesis was tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation technique. The findings are presented in table 3.

Table 3: Correlation between School Variable and Internal Efficiency of Secondary Schools in Ondo State, Nigeria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>r-calculated</th>
<th>r-table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Variables</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>92.71</td>
<td>27.45</td>
<td>482</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>0.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Efficiency</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>62.57</td>
<td>23.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in table 3, the r-calculated (0.461) was greater than the r-table (0.195) at 0.05 alpha level. Hence, the null-hypothesis was rejected. This shows that there was a significant relationship between school variables and internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. This was reflected in the mean value (92.71) for school variables as against the mean value (62.57) for internal efficiency of the schools.

Question 4: Which of the school variables best predict internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria?

In testing this hypothesis, the multiple regression analysis was computed. The school variables namely school location, school size, class size, student teacher ratio, teachers’ qualifications and teacher teaching experience were the independent of predictor variables while internal efficiency was the dependent or criterion variable.

Since one of the first steps in calculating a multiple regression equation with several variables is to calculate a correlation matrix for all the variables (Norusis/SPSS Inc, 1993), correlation analysis was computed while a correlation matrix was derived showing the coefficient of correlation for each pair of variables. The findings are presented in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Correlation Matrix between School Variables and Internal Efficiency of Secondary Schools in Ondo State, Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Internal Efficiency</th>
<th>School Location</th>
<th>School Size</th>
<th>Class Size</th>
<th>Student Teacher Ratio</th>
<th>Teachers’ Qualification</th>
<th>Teacher Teaching Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Internal Efficiency</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 School Location</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 School Size</td>
<td>-0.231</td>
<td>-0.201</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Class Size</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>0.254</td>
<td>-0.202</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Student Teacher Ratio</td>
<td>0.453</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>-0.214</td>
<td>0.321</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Teachers’ Qualification</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>0.471</td>
<td>-0.242</td>
<td>0.374</td>
<td>0.352</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Teacher Teaching Experience</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>0.381</td>
<td>-0.243</td>
<td>0.362</td>
<td>0.341</td>
<td>0.542</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P< 0.05

Table 4.1 shows the relationship between each pair of variables examined in the study. The school variables show significant relationship with each other and with the internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. The value of ‘r’ shows the correlation coefficient between each pair of variables. The finding shows that each pair of variables was significant at 0.05 alpha level while the relationship between each pair of the school variables was value added. It needs to be mentioned however that the correlation analysis determines only the relationship between each pair of variables, it could not show the relationship among all the variables put together.
Hence, the multiple regression analysis was computed so as to determine the intercorrelation among the variables. In determining the multiple regression analysis, it is necessary to first determine the regression analysis of variance. As such, the sum of square, the mean square, the F Ratio and the significant F were computed. The findings are presented in table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: Regression Analysis of Variance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sign. F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.5742</td>
<td>2.3478</td>
<td>141.742</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>5.8674</td>
<td>1.0052</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in table 4.2, the F ratio = 141.742 while Sign. F = 0.0001.

In order to determine the intercorrelation among the variables put together and to determine which of the predictor variables could best predict the values of the criterion variable, all the variables were put into the regression model. The findings are shown in table 4.3.

**Table 4.3: Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictor variables with the Criterion Variable**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictive variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Signif. T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Location</td>
<td>0.35741</td>
<td>0.04723</td>
<td>0.32458</td>
<td>1.45821</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Size</td>
<td>0.25943</td>
<td>0.02124</td>
<td>0.21784</td>
<td>1.37487</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Size</td>
<td>0.54724</td>
<td>0.24327</td>
<td>0.52372</td>
<td>-1.27451</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Teacher Ratio</td>
<td>0.46272</td>
<td>0.01472</td>
<td>0.42149</td>
<td>-1.01745</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Qualification</td>
<td>0.62781</td>
<td>0.25841</td>
<td>0.60943</td>
<td>1.58471</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Teaching Experience</td>
<td>0.61434</td>
<td>0.23786</td>
<td>0.59721</td>
<td>1.47922</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.74152</td>
<td>0.04671</td>
<td>1.10754</td>
<td>1.0754</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 shows the output of the regression model. The findings also revealed the following output:

Multiple R = 0.81743
R Square = 0.72641
Adjusted R Square = 0.65784
Standard Error = 0.06157

\[ Y = 3.74152 + 0.62781 \text{(Teachers’ Qualification)} + 0.61434 \text{(Teachers’ Teaching Experience)} + 0.54724 \text{(Class Size)} + 0.46272 \text{(Students Teacher Ratio)} + 0.35741 \text{(School Location)} + 0.25943 \text{(School Size)}. \]

As indicated in table 4.3, all the predictor variables enter the regression equation. The significant t were less than 0.05 for all the variables. This shows a significant relationship between the predictor variables (school variables) and the criterion variables (internal efficiency). The best predictor of internal efficiency of the schools was teachers’ qualification which contributed 62.78% to the regression equation. This was followed by teachers’ teaching experience which contributed 61.43% to the regression equation. The contribution of other school variables to the regression equation include the following namely class size (54.72%), students teacher ratio (46.27%), school location (35.74%) and school size (25.94%).

The \( R^2 \) of 0.72641 found in this study shows that 72.64% of variations in internal efficiency are accounted for by the variations in school variables. The total balance of 27.36% might have been accounted for by the variations in the variables that were not examined in this study.

The adjusted \( R^2 \) of 0.65784 attempts to correct the \( R^2 \) in order to closely reflect the goodness of fit. It shows how well the data fits into the regression model. If the data fits into the model very well, the adjusted \( R^2 \) will have a value of 1 but if it does not fit into the model, the value will be 0. As such, the value of the adjusted \( R^2 \) is between 0 and 1 (Moore, 1994). Although it attempts to correct the optimistic bias of the sample \( R^2 \), the adjusted \( R^2 \) does not necessarily increase as more variables are added to an equation. The adjusted \( R^2 \) of 0.65784 is thus the preferred measure of goodness of fit because it is not subject to the bias of the unadjusted \( R^2 \).
1.3. Discussion

In the foregoing, the analysis of data collected for this study was made. The promotion rate was high throughout the 6 years of schooling by the cohort of students while the repetition rate and drop out rate were low.

The finding was consistent with findings made by Babalola (2003) who found high promotion rate and low repetition and dropout rates in secondary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The finding was also in consonance with those of other researchers (Afolabi, 2006; Adeleke, 2011). This finding suggests that the wastage rate in the schools was at a low level. Although, the level of internal efficiency of the schools was high (85.5%), the fact that there was repetition in the system suggest that some students still spends additional years in the schools beyond the normal 6 years period of secondary education in the State. This finding agreed with the findings made in earlier studies (Giwu, 1993; Mcmoshou, 1993; Fadipe, 1999).

The contribution made by the school variables to the regression equation depicts that school variables had significant relationship with the internal efficiency of schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. The findings of this study that isolated teachers' qualifications as the best predictor of internally efficiency of secondary schools in the State suggest that teachers’ with higher qualifications contribute substantially to the internal efficiency of schools. This finding was consistent with the findings made by (Wilson & Pearson, 1993; Rice, 2004; Adeyemi, 2007). This finding suggests that the larger the number of teachers’ with higher qualifications in schools the higher would be the internal efficiency of the schools.

1.3.1. Conclusion

Considering the finding of this study, it was concluded that school variables are critical variables in the internal efficiency of secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. Although, teachers’ qualification was the best predictor of internal efficiency in the schools. The findings of the study led the researcher to conclude that school variables are the function of internal efficiency of secondary schools in the State.

1.4. Recommendation

In view of the finding of this study, it was recommended that there should be a prudent and continuous recruitment of teachers’ with higher qualifications into all secondary schools in the State. The State government should endeavour to effect proper management of teachers' to make them stay on the job in a bid to improve the internal efficiency of the schools.

References


APPENDIX 1
Psychological Characteristics and Demographic Questionnaire

Instruction: Read through the following and tick (✓) where appropriate.

1. Indicate your gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

2. My age is: Between 17 and 23 years [ ]
   My age is above 23 or below 17 [ ]

3. I entered the University with GCE or WAEC grades as follows:
   (i) Distinctions in not less than 3 subjects among other credits and merits [ ]
   (ii) Distinctions in less than 3 subjects among other credits and merits [ ]
   (iii) No distinction at all but credits and merits [ ]

4. I entered the University in (a) One attempt at JAMB examination [ ]
   (b) Two attempts at JAMB [ ] (c) More than two attempts at JAMB [ ]

5. I entered the University through (a) JAMB [ ] (b) The University Examination [ ]

6. As a C.E. student, I had made (a) attempts at JAMB examination [ ] (b) No attempts at all at JAMB examination [ ]

7. My score of the last JAMB examination was (a) Above 300 (b) between 200 and 299 (c) Below 200
Teaching of Writing in Pakistan:  
A Review of Major Pedagogical Trends and Issues in Teaching of Writing

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Abstract  To meet the writing requirements of modern society, a model of teaching of writing must provide students a rich and diverse array of writing experiences. This article provides views regarding paradigm shift in teaching of writing which was first introduced by Hairston (1982) a unique model for teaching of writing. Best practices in teaching of writing place great importance on how the students write; here effort has been made to introduce the real essence of process approach of teaching of writing. It is beyond doubt that writers cannot be taught skills of writing unless they are aware of the processes involved in writing. In this paradigm response, revision, and editing have been looked upon differently. It is hoped that this article will help teachers and learners build the mental concept that a draft is a “document in flux” that can be edited, revised and improved, in other words it is a cyclic process. Further, this article suggests such an educational system in which teachers should have “the opportunity to ponder over how the students write not over what the students write. In Pakistan there is a dire need of changing a conventional, unprofessional model of teaching of writing. Our students lag behind not due to ability but owing to inadequate pedagogical approach.

Key Words: teaching of writing, process approach in writing, conventional approach in writing, classroom teaching, creative writing

1. Introduction

Writing has always been seen as an important skill in ESL classes. It is the area in which learners are expected to be offered adequate time to develop their writing skill. This is certainly an important element of learning English as a second language. But teaching of writing in Pakistan is carried out under the authority of a nationally unified syllabus and the examination system. The Pakistani English Syllabus highly values correct linguistic forms instead of students’ development of creative thought. That is why despite studying English in schools and colleges for about 6-8 years, students, especially coming from rural backgrounds, are not able to communicate in English with relative ease and success (Warsi, 2004).

Like the other developing countries and nations of the world we have big aspirations. And, also like most of them, we are not realistic about our Great Expectations. We would, for instance, very much like to enter the space race, and indulge in the fairy world dream of sending mission to the moon in a couple of years (Abidi, 1991).

We are willing to do a lot but are unable to realize that still we need to do a lot for putting ourselves on the path of development. Every year hundreds and thousands of students get admission to colleges and universities. But unfortunately they fail to satisfy the needs and expectations of their teachers as writers. The reasons lie in the background of the students from where they arrive. According to Sidiqui (2007, pp.150) “most of the students with rural background (about 70 percent people belong to rural areas) are not motivated to learn English”. This very attitude really reflects the existing situation of teaching of writing in Pakistan. That is why the students fail to satisfy the expectations of their teachers as writers. This situation is further augmented by the factor of teacher/educators, in the words of Abidi (1991) the large number of failure in English was due to the high borrow attitude of the teachers of English who insisted on maintaining the standards of Oxford and Cambridge in Pakistan. But the ability of these English teachers is questioned by Sidiqui (2007) as, “in a number of schools and colleges English is being taught by the teachers whose own specialty is not English. So most of the teachers teach English as they were taught by their teachers, that are by grammar translation method with a lot of translation and drilling to memorization”.

In Pakistan literary genres are overemphasized to extent that non-literary genres are even not taught, because the teachers have a literary background and they bring those typical methodologies with them. Sidiqui (2007, pp.151) claims that at the college level (intermediate and BA) English is being taught by teachers who are MA in English literature. A large majority of them are either unable or resistant to facilitate the process of empowering their students in terms of
linguistic enrichment. The result is that our students can memorize critical appreciations of great poetry and prose but when it comes to verbal or written discourse, they find themselves handicapped.

Humera (2011, pp.112) asserts that ‘traditionally, in Pakistan, creative writing was known as literature including the variety of its genres. As a result, Pakistani students and teachers are still confused about the term ‘creative writing’ and so tensions arise in the classroom. Considering the changing trends in teaching and the advantages of creative writing, it is certainly the responsibility of English teachers to give importance to creative writing, to understand the complexity of writing development. Nadeem (2007, p. 2 cited in Humera, 2011) believes that ‘Pakistani teachers should keep in view the needs and interests of students to be expressive in writing’. It is believed that creative writing can be pleasurable and self-developing if our expressive and communicative needs motivate us to write.

Most of the text books are literature based (Sidiqui, 2007). It also shows that non literary genres are least important in the syllabi of Pakistan. That is why teachers of L2 writing do not give due importance to writing. Nislua (2007) further claims that these text books are full of too much content. That is why the teachers pay their full time to the teaching of these books.

This situation is further supplemented by the evaluation system in Pakistan, according to Sidiqui(2007) “most of the examinations in the mainstream schools and colleges are memory driven. There are certain set of questions about the text books which are most likely to appear in the examination paper. These questions normally require production of memorized material from the text book. The students without bothering about the text books prepare for the examination with the help of “Get through guides” (help-books specially designed to prepare the examinations) that provide them with a short cut to pass the examination. These help-books contain summaries of the poems and ready-made answers to the comprehension questions of short stories, essays, poems and plays. All this works fine as the assessment system encourages rote learning.”

According to Abidi(1991) the greatest need of today is to save the student from a general education which prepares him for nothing, and help him through socialized education, to achieve some definite goal in life. This whole scenario of class room activities provide us a clear picture of the teaching of writing as well.

Almost three decades ago, Maxine Cousine Hairston, in her article, The Winds of Change: Thomas Kuhlan the Revolution in the Teaching of Writing", argued that the teaching of writing is currently at the point of a “paradigm shift”: composition theory is moving from an inadequate model of inquiry to a new one" (Nislua, 1986). Hairston in her article took her position as “paradigm shift was occurring in the way writing was being taught and if so, how for this shift paradigm had gone” (Totten, 2003). Hairston, in her article introduced paradigm shift as under:

“In 1963, the University of Chicago Press published a book titled The Structure of Scientific Revolutions, written by Thomas Kuhn, a University of California professor of the history of science. In the book Kuhn hypothesizes about the process by which major changes come about in scientific fields, and conjectures that they probably do not evolve gradually from patient and orderly inquiry by established investigators in the field. Rather, he suggests, revolutions in science come about as the result of breakdowns in intellectual systems, breakdown that occur when old methods won’t solve new problems. He calls the change in theory that underlies this kind of revolution a paradigm shift. I believe we are currently at the point of such a paradigm shift in the teaching of writing, and that it has been brought about by a variety of developments that have taken place in the last 25 years.

Hairston(1982)briefly, describes Kuhn’s thesis as under:

When a scientific field is going through a stable period, most of the practitioners in the discipline hold a common body of beliefs and assumptions; they agree on the problems that need to be solved, the rules that govern research, and on the standards by which performance is to be measured. They share a conceptual model that Kuhn calls a paradigm, and that paradigm governs activity in their profession. Students who enter the discipline prepare for membership in its intellectual community by studying that paradigm.

But paradigms are not necessarily immutable. When several people working in a field begin to encounter anomalies or phenomena that cannot be explained by the established model, the paradigm begins to show signs of instability. For a while, those who subscribe to the paradigm try to ignore the contradictions and inconsistencies that they find, or they make improvised, ad hoc changes to cope with immediate crises. Eventually, however, when enough anomalies accumulate to make a substantial number of scientists in the field question whether the traditional paradigm can solve many of the serious problems that face them, a few innovative thinkers will devise a new model. And if enough scientists become convinced that the new paradigm works better than the old one, they will accept it as the new norm.

This replacement of one conceptual model by another one is Kuhn’s paradigm shift. He cites as classic examples the astronomers’ substitution of the Copernican model of the solar system for the Ptolemaic model and the development of Newtonian physics. Such shifts are usually disorderly and often controversial, and the period in which they occur is apt to be marked by insecurity and conflict within the discipline.
Kuhn believes that because these shifts are so disruptive, they will occur only when the number of unsolved problems in a discipline reaches crisis proportions and some major figures in the field begin to focus on those unsolved problems. But even with mounting evidence that their conceptual model doesn’t work, supporters of the traditional paradigm resist change because they have an intellectual and sometimes emotional investment in the accepted view. The particularly resist abandoning the conventional textbooks that set forth the precepts of their discipline in clear and unqualified terms. Those texts, as Richard Young points out in his essay, “Paradigms and Problems: Needed Research in Rhetorical Theory,” are usually to similar that one way to discover the traditional paradigm of a field is to examine its textbooks.

Finally, however, most of the resistance to the new paradigm will dissipate when its advocates can demonstrate that it will solve problems that the traditional paradigm could not solve. Most of the new generation of scholars working in the field will adopt the new model, and the older practitioners will gradually come around to it. Those who cling to the old paradigm lose their influence in the field because the leaders in the profession simply ignore their work. When that happens, the paradigm shift is complete, and the theory that was revolutionary becomes conventional.

This summary of Kuhn’s book is sketchy and too simple, but I (Hairston) think it accurately reflects the key points in his theory. When he developed the theory, he considered only the so-called hard sciences, particularly chemistry, astronomy, and physics. He did not claim or even suggest that his model for scientific revolution could or should apply to social science or the humanities, where research is not done in laboratories and usually does not involve measurements or formulas. Nevertheless, I believe that composition theorists and writing teachers can learn from Thomas Kuhn if they see his theory of scientific revolutions as an analogy that can illuminate developments that are taking place in our profession. Those developments, the most prominent of which is the move to a process-centered theory of teaching writing, indicates that our profession is probably in the first stages of a paradigm shift.”

In Pakistan the current model of teaching of writing is based on traditional product oriented approach which is no more effective for the teaching of writing. This existing model pertains big problems as mentioned by Kuhan, cited in Hairston(1982).

2. Traditional Approach of Teaching of Writing in Pakistan

In order to understand the nature of that shift, we need to look at the principle features of the paradigm that has been the basis of composition teaching for several decades in Pakistan. Richard Young describes it this way: the emphasis on the composed product rather than the composing process is the main feature of teaching of writing(Richard Young,) mechanics, usage and style are the real concern in class room teaching along with the reproduction of memorized content(Sidiqui,2007).

According to Young, cited in Hairston(1982) that underlying the traditional paradigm is what he calls the “vitalist” attitude toward composing: that is, the assumption that no one can really teach anyone else how to write because writing is a mysterious creative activity that cannot be categorized or analyzed. This wrong conception of considering writing as gifted faculty is very common.

Still in Pakistan teachers and students are commonly only taught about the tools of the craft of writing: grammar, punctuation, spelling, usage, and handwriting, but not about the process of composing a written text itself. As Björk & Räisänen (1996) summarize, the "traditional testing-oriented view" for the teaching of composition which was interested in:

- the code: spelling, punctuation, grammar
- the subject knowledge: testing of factual knowledge in schools

James Berlin and Robert Inkster (1980, cited in Hairston, 1982) describe other features to the conventional paradigm. Basing their conclusions on an analysis of repeated patterns in four well-known and commercially successful rhetoric texts, they add that the traditional paradigm stresses expository writing to the virtual exclusion of all other forms, that it posits an unchanging reality which is independent of the writer and which all writers are expected to describe in the same way regardless of the rhetorical situation, that is, neglects invention almost entirely, and that it makes style the most important element in writing. The same situation still prevails in Pakistan; there is product of written work that takes a major share of the class in a typical product oriented class room in Pakistan.

In Pakistan it is still believed that that the composing process is linear, that it proceeds systematically from prewriting to writing to rewriting (Hairston, 1982). It is also believed that teaching of correcting verb and vocabulary mistakes is teaching of writing.

Despite an acknowledged fact that writing has an indispensable role in the four basic language skills; it has long been
ignored in a typical Pakistani class room. According to the national syllabus, reading ability is still regarded as the most important skill. Compared with the other three skills, writing is considered too complicated to teach or not important enough to teach in the class. In our English classrooms writing occupies a lower position and remains the weak point of students. As a result, this reading-dominated principle brings about negative feedback from the workplace where there are many complaints about graduates' lack of competence their writing and speaking skills. Further in the words of Warsi (2004), despite Chomsky's (1957) groundbreaking work revealing that language is not primarily learned through imitation, the obsolete translation method is still being adopted by most language programs in rural areas.

In Pakistan, it has long been the tradition that teachers are responsible for revising or editing their students' writing. This has led to the situation in which teacher-dominated feedback still remains prevalent in our classrooms. Due to the high pressure from the Examination Board, Institutes and heavy emphasis on linguistic forms, English (L2) teachers mainly concentrate on the correction of grammar and spelling and they believe that students can make progress only after teachers identify the mistakes. However, this over-dependence is said to induce a sense of lack of concern among students about the detailed corrections from their teachers because the teachers' efforts are taken for granted. Some students just take a glance at what the teacher has corrected, while many others may not even look at the corrections. This results in a mindset in which they fail to reflect upon their mistakes (Wang, 2005). Further, teacher-centered assessment is seen as not only time-consuming, but also an inefficient means to improve student writing level. The end result of this lack of independence is that student creativity and activeness are hindered, and motivation and proficiency in writing remain low.

In our country the current traditional product oriented model of writing is borrowed model which according to Hairston (1982) did not grow out of research or experimentation. It borrows all assumptions from the classical rhetorical model that organizes the production of discourse into invention, arrangement, and style, but mostly it seems to be based on same idealized and orderly vision of what literature scholars, whose professional focus is on the written product, seem to imagine is an efficient method of writing. Writing model in Pakistan, is a descriptive and orderly view of the creative act, a view that defines the successful writer as one who can systematically produce a 500-word theme of five paragraphs, each with a topic sentence (Hairston, 1982). In our country we still lack research to test the traditional product oriented model against the composing processes of actual writers and similarly we have no idea of process approach or in other words still the process model approach is not popular if ever it exists in Pakistan.

Humera (2011) in her study found that the participants in Pakistan provided a variety of definitions of creativity such as, 'creative writing is an expression of inner feelings and emotions' and 'creative writing encourages discussion of social problems prevalent in society'. She (ibid) says, it can be justified to argue that their definitions of creativity are derived from English Literature, which they have studied. The responses of the focus group interview also reinforce closed and open questions' data. For instance, an interviewee affirms 'creativity is a spontaneous overflow of emotions'. It seems that their conception of creativity is artistic, which also involves free thinking. Having said this, none uses words such as 'experimentation', 'risk taking', 'problem solving' or 'intuition' which are commonly used for creativity in a western educational context. The results of the gathered data indicate that most of the teachers choose topics from the textbooks and explain them, whereas a few teachers assert that they like to teach writing using discussion and brainstorming. The remaining teachers claim to teach creative writing using activities and audio visual aids. Nobody considers that 'creativity flourishes where there is a systematic strategy to promote it' (Robinson, 2001, p. 12 cited in Humera, 2011).

Unfortunately this traditional product oriented model is very emphatically encouraged in our class rooms by teachers. We lack writing experts in compare with reading and speaking. Further to Sidiqui(2007) asserts teachers who teach English in Pakistan some of them do not even have specialty in this subject. This questions the existing teaching scenario in Pakistan. Where the basic qualification for English teachers is simply MA in English this does not guarantee that the teachers have enough ability to teach writing as a well effective approach. Due to this teaching of writing is treated as an ordinary approach. The common misunderstanding found in Pakistan is that anyone with MA in English is an expert writing teacher. At this point I would like to opine that the teachers or administrator who think it just a fool's errand to discuss the issue of process approach in teaching of writing have not adopted the process model for teaching composition and have also not attentively gone through the research on the composing process in order to extract some pedagogical principles from it, a majority of college writing teachers in Pakistan are not professional writing teachers. They do not do research or publish on rhetoric or composition, and they do not know the scholarship in the field; they do not read the professional journals and they do not attend professional meetings; they also do not participate in faculty development workshops for writing teachers. They are trained as literary critics first and as teachers of literature second, yet out of necessity most of them are doing half or more of their teaching in composition. And they teach it by the traditional paradigm, just as they had learnt when they were students. Often they do not have enough information about a newer edition of the journals and books which have been publishing regularly in the field.
In Pakistan we still deny the significance of writing as a basic method of learning, takes away any incentive for the writing teacher to grow professionally (Hairston, 1982). We still negate that writing requires intellectual activity and ignore the importance of writing as a key factor that makes or mar the academic career of the students in every field. Teachers in our system are generally less respected and rewarded that might also be the reason of such an assumption. The reason is that there is no external pressure to find a better way to teach writing (Hairston, 1982).

According to Hairston (1982) "many teachers who cling to the traditional paradigm work very hard at teaching writing. They devote far more time than they can professionally afford to working with their students, but because they haven’t read Elbow or Bruffee they have no way of knowing that their students might benefit far more from small group meetings with each other than from the exhausting one-to-one conferences that the researchers hold. They both complain and brag about how much time they spent meticulously marking each paper, but because they haven’t read Diederich or Irmscher they don’t know that an hour spend meticulously marking every error in a paper is probably doing more harm than good. They are exhausting themselves trying to teach writing from an outmoded model, and they come to despise the job more and more because many of their students improve so little despite their time and effort”.

According to Sidiqui (2007) most of the textbooks of English are literature based. As in many other developing countries the emphasis is on ‘classics’ or a ‘high caliber’ literature. He further claims “another aspect of these books is that they contain too much content”. So these textbooks complicate the problem further (Hairston, 1982). As Kuhn repeatedly points out, the standard text in any discipline constitute a major black to a paradigm shift because they represent accepted authority. Many, though certainly not all, of the standard textbooks in rhetoric and composition for the past two decades have been product-centered books that focus on style, us-age, and argumentation; Sheridan Baker’s The Practical Stylist and Brooks and Warren’s Modern Rhetoric are typical examples (Kuhan, 1963, cited in Hairston, 1982). And textbooks change slowly. Publishers want to keep what sells, and they tend to direct the appeals of their books to what they believe the average composition teacher wants, not to what those in the vanguard of the profession would like to have (Hairston, 1982). This is further supported by Sidiqui(2007) "………most of these writers/editors have the background of English literature. Their passion for literature is manifest in the coursebooks designed by them which exposes the students to ‘great literature’ without helping them to improve their basic language skills.”

This view clearly exposes that traditional classrooms in Pakistan are based on teacher controlled, step-by-step, linear sequences, in contrast to the recursive nature of the writing in process oriented models, where teaching languages is teaching and learning languages as communication and, most important, it is neither the practice of forms or linguistic structures, nor the mere practice of skills (reading, speaking, writing and listening), nor just the practice of lexical items:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional-product oriented Paradigm of teaching writing</th>
<th>Process oriented paradigm of teaching of writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morphology &amp; Syntax</td>
<td>Pragmatics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence. Individual study of language out of context.</td>
<td>Text. Use of language in context as a tool for social interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic competence can be taught</td>
<td>Communicative competence must be learnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form: study of linguistic units and structures</td>
<td>Function: study of processes in communication. Emphasis on creativity depending on use and context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning the language is the objective in itself</td>
<td>Learning how to learn and learning how to communicate autonomously in different contexts and situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual knowledge of language</td>
<td>Social use of language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product-oriented</td>
<td>Process-oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Bottom up&quot; strategies and principles</td>
<td>&quot;Top-down&quot; and &quot;Bottom-up&quot; strategies and principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bound to specific context and dependent on teacher</td>
<td>Generalizable and autonomous, leading towards independent writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual/teacher centred work: authority and source of knowledge</td>
<td>Group work and sharing: facilitator and needs analyst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data-driven processing: focus on language elements present</td>
<td>Concept-driven processing: focus on ideas /concepts expressed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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3. Paradigm Shift in teaching of Writing in Pakistan

What is the basic flaw in the traditional paradigm for teaching writing? Why doesn’t it work? (Hairston, 1982). People can ask such questions that why we need a new paradigm, if the already existing paradigm is working since many years. I would like to share the remarks of Kuhan, cited in Hairston (1982) “novelty ordinarily emerges only for the man who, knowing with precision what he should expect, is able to recognize that something has gone wrong.” This is also supported by the change Rule No-1: People don’t change unless they share a compelling reason to change” (Chuck J. Schwan and William G Spady cited in Totten (2003, pp.45). Mina Shaughnessy in her book Errors and Expectations, describes the educational experience that made her, a professor at a prestigious university, stop to ask, “What went wrong?”

In the spring of 1970, the City University of New York adopted an admissions policy that guaranteed to every city resident with a high school diploma a place in one of its eighteen tuition-free colleges, thereby opening its doors not only to a larger population of students than any college had probably ever admitted or thought of admitting to its campus.

One of the first tasks these students faced when they arrived at college was to write a placement essay. Judged by the results of these tests, the young men and women who were to be known as open admissions students fell into one of three groups: I. Those who met the traditional requirements for college work, who appeared from their tests ... to be able to begin at the traditional starting points; 2. Those who had survived their secondary schooling … and whose writing reflected a flat competence; [those] who had been left so far behind the others in their formal education that they appeared to have little chance of catching up, students whose difficulties with the written language seemed of a different order from those of other groups, as if they had come, you might say, from a different country.

...The third group contained true outsiders...strangers in academia, unacquainted with the rules and rituals of college life, unprepared for the sorts of tasks their teachers were about to assign them ...

Not surprisingly, the essays these students wrote during their first weeks of class stunned the teachers who read them. Nothing, it seemed, short a miracle was going to turn such students into writers. ... To make matters worse, there were no studies nor guides, nor even suitable textbooks to turn to. Here were teachers trained to analyze the belletristic achievement of the ages marooned in basic writing classrooms with adult student writers who appeared by college standard to be illiterate?

Relying on their previous experience with selectively-admitted students at the City University, Shaughnessy and her colleagues thought they knew what to expect from “college writers.” The shock of facing a kind of writing that fit no familiar category, that met no traditional standard, forced Shaughnessy, at least, to recognize an anomaly. If these students had come through schools in which writing had been taught with standard textbooks and standard methods, then one had to conclude that the method and the textbooks did not work, at least not for a substantial and important group of students. The question was, “Why?”

To find the answer, Shaughnessy analyzed the placement essays of 4000 students and over a period of five years worked at trying to get at the roots of their problems and devise a way to overcome them(Hairston,1982). Eventually she became persuaded:

... that basic writers write the way they do, not because they are slow or non-verbal, indifferent to or incapable of academic excellence, but because they are beginners and must, like all beginners, learn by making mistakes ... And the keys to their development as writers often lie in the very features of their writing that English teachers have been trained to brush aside with a marginal code letter or a scribbled injunction to “Proofread!”

In our country it has been assumed that trial and error is really a good way of teaching that is why the teachers of writing do not go beyond the correction and re-correction of the written products. Any instructional system would come close to collapse under such a strain, and our system for teaching writing has been particularly vulnerable because it has been staffed largely by untrained teachers who have had little scholarly interest in this kind of teaching(Hairston,1982).

After the above stated findings of Shaughness(1960) it can be said that in Pakistan the prevailing methods of teaching of writing and existing models of textbooks do not work, they have failed to produce required outcomes. The reasons are described by Humera (2011, pp.112), the text books have model essays and stories which students memorize for tests. For example, writing a story is recurrent question. The type of question can remain unchanged year after year. Year, 20008: Write a story with a moral, The Boy Who Cried Wolf Year, 2007: ‘Write a story with a moral, Union is Strength’ Year, 2006: ‘Write a story with a moral. A Friend in Need is a Friend Indeed’. (Bullets added). Humera(2011, pp.112) further states, “these stories are prescribed in the syllabus. The question of story writing is
easy and learners need not think critically and imaginatively. In the tests the students have to remember the logical sequence of the events or paragraphs as they are given in the textbook, otherwise they would lose their score because the examiners would keep the model composition in view. The students do not write the stories by themselves. They are not taught to develop the plot, characterisation or dialogue. Sidiqui (2007, cited in Humera, 2011), believes, in Pakistan the assessment system excludes creativity and critical thinking out of its legitimate boundaries. The National Education Policy (1992, pp. 9) says that, we are caught in vicious circle; the cycle begins at a badly constructed syllabi and ends at rag bag system called examination. ‘

White and Arndt (1991) claim that focusing on language errors ‘improves neither grammatical accuracy nor writing fluency’ and they also suggest that attention should not be given to what students say but how they say. Findings of different studies have unanimously shown that feedback is more useful between drafts, not when it is done at the end of the task after the students hand in their composition to be marked. Corrections written on compositions returned to the student after the process has finished seem to do little to improve student writing (TE Editor BBC., 2003).

Shaughnessy’s insight is utterly simple and vitally important: we cannot teach students to write by looking only at what they have written. We must also understand how that product came into being, and why it assumed the form that it did. We have to try to understand what goes on during the internal act of writing and we have no intervene during the act of writing if we want to affect its outcome. We have to do the hard thing, examine the intangible process, rather than the easy thing, evaluate the tangible product. (Hairston, 1982).

Now in 21st century Pakistan needs to get rid of existing traditional model of teaching of writing that is unprofessional, static and ineffective(Hairston, 1982) and consider the process approach in writing.

As a learner and researcher I believe that there is no truth in such an unprofessional attitude towards writing that to write is to sit down in front of a blank page, to begin at the beginning and write through to the end, with no planning, break, editing, or changes in between. And unfortunately in our class rooms we yet, ask our students to do the same static drill. This is acknowledged that good writers plan and revise, rearrange and add, insert and delete text, re-reading and producing multiple drafts before they are able to produce their final written document. In the terms of writing research this approach is called process writing approach. Here, I would like to share what th Writing is not a linear act, one does not just write the first words which come to ones mind at that particular moment with little importance of purpose, interests, and context, while thinking they are the ideal and unchangeable units which express exactly the thoughts one wanted to convey in writing. Instead, while writing (Björk & Räisänen,1996) "you can actually see your thoughts on the paper in front of you, when you visualise your thinking, you can review your thinking, making reflection on and revision of your thinking easier”.

Process writing refers to a broad range of strategies that include pre-writing activities, such as defining the audience, using a variety of resources, planning the writing, as well as drafting and revising, where individual & group strategies to writing are equally interesting. These activities collectively referred to as "process-oriented instruction," approach writing as problem-solving, emphasizing the learning of how to write a text for a reason within a context and following both individual & group work and working with collaborative learning groups with a variety of group arrangements for the different stages. Among other, we should mention: Phillips 6/6 or Huddle Method, Buzz Group Method, Panel discussion, Interrogator panel, Lecture, Brainstorming, Role-playing, Case study, Interview, Workshop, Symposium, Round table, Pyramid discussions, and Groups ABC/Groups in rotation.

Writing, then, is a recursive process in which the writer plans, composes and reviews what has been written within a group of learners. Many studies (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Hillocks, 1986 and Applebee et all., 1994) show that weak writers spend little time planning, composing and reviewing, whereas better writers spend more time planning, composing and reviewing. Skilled writers, on the other hand, pay attention to content and organization, while poor writers are more interested in the mechanics of writing and, especially, in spelling.

The writing process means writing, rewriting and going back to read what we have written to generate new ideas and refine and recycle what we have just written on the paper. Writing means, as Flower and Hayes (1981) stated "a sequence of differentiated and recursive processes”.

This cyclical process when composing texts make writers move forwards and backwards: planning, actual writing on paper and revising, all these subprocesses interacting with one another in contrast to the traditional linear step-by-step procedure of writing where the emphasis was given to the student’s mastery of the code and certain subject matter. Although writing in general involves various stages, in reality however, the process of composing is not linear and writers do not follow a systematic sequence of rehearsing (planning), drafting (actual writing on paper) and revising but it is a recursive activity. Writing has been described as a recursive process, in which the writer plans, translates ideas into language, and reviews what has been written. As we have already mentioned previously, more skilled writers pay more attention to content and organization, while weaker writers are more preoccupied with the mechanics of writing, especially
spelling, punctuation and grammar. Good writers are found to use a longer pre-writing period than average writers. The recursive nature of writing sees a writer moving between drafting and revising with stages of replanning in between and this going back and forth makes writing a process that leads to clarity."As a process, writing does not move in a straight line from conception to completion: all planning is not done before words are put on paper; all the words are not on paper before writers review and revise. Writers move back and forth among these subprocesses"(Humes, 1983).

Writing can be explained as a process of exploring our own thoughts, as Shaughnessy cited in Zamel (1982:197) "the record of an idea developing. It is a process whereby an initial idea gets extended and refined."

Writing experts have identified the phases of the writing process which skilled writers follow when they write. For Murray (1980) there are three main phases:

Rehearsing (prewriting),
1. Drafting,
2. Writing.

For May Shih (1986) there are three main stages:
1. Prewriting,
2. Drafting,
3. Writing,
4. Revising

Hedge (1988) distinguishes four main stages:
1. Planning,
2. Composing,
3. Revising,
4. Editing,

White & Arndt (1991) identify the following six:
1. Generating,
2. Focusing,
3. Structuring,
4. Drafting,
5. Evaluating

Björk & Räisänen (1996) outline the following four steps:
1. Pre-Writing,
2. Drafting,
3. Feedback and Revision,
4. Evaluation and Grading.

Here I would also like to share the division of writing according to Flower (1979) writing can be divided into two main categories:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writer-oriented writing</th>
<th>Reader-oriented writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I-oriented writing which mainly takes place, as we shall present later, in the pre-writing stages of process-oriented approaches to teaching, and when using writing as a study tool in subjects.</td>
<td>Reader/audience-oriented writing for communication with others and/or between individuals, which takes place mainly during the response and revising stages of process-oriented models.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience: self in most cases.</td>
<td>Audience: others: peers and teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for writing: internal, personal exploration of ideas.</td>
<td>Reasons for writing: communication between individuals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+INFORMAL LANGUAGE</td>
<td>+FORMAL LANGUAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal examples: notes, rough drafts,...</td>
<td>Formal examples: essays, papers, letters,...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Based on the division of writing by Flower (1979).*

4. A summary of the differences

Process-driven approaches show some similarities with task-based learning, in that students are given considerable freedom within the task. They are not curbed by pre-emptive teaching of lexical or grammatical items. However, process
approaches do not repudiate all interest in the product, (i.e. the final draft). The aim is to achieve the best product possible. What differentiates a process-focused approach from a product-centered one is that the outcome of the writing, the product, is not preconceived.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process writing</th>
<th>Product writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>text as a resource for comparison</td>
<td>imitate model text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ideas as starting point</td>
<td>organisation of ideas more important than ideas themselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than one draft</td>
<td>one draft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more global, focus on purpose, theme, text type, i.e., reader is emphasised</td>
<td>features highlighted including controlled practice of those features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>collaborative</td>
<td>individual emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emphasis on creative process</td>
<td>emphasis on end product</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Product and process writing: A comparison Submitted by TE Editor on 3 May, 2004)

For the purpose of sharing some basics of process model of writing I have borrowed the features of paradigm for teaching writing from Hairston (1982) that has the following principal features:

- It focuses on the writing process: instructors intervene in students' writing during the process.
- It teaches strategies for invention and discovery; instructors help students to generate content and discover purpose.
- It is rhetorically based; audience, purpose, and occasion figure prominently in the assignment of writing tasks.
- Instructors evaluate the written product by how well it fulfills the writer's intention and meets the audience's needs.
- It views writing as a recursive rather than a linear process; pre-writing, wiring, and revision are activities that overlap and intertwine.
- It is holistic, viewing writing as an activity that involves the intuitive and non-rational as well as the rational faculties.
- It emphasizes that writing is a way of learning and developing as well as a communication skill.
- It includes a variety of variety of writing modes, expressive as well as expository.
- It is informed by other disciplines, especially cognitive psychology and linguistics.
- It views writing as a disciplined creative activity that can be analyzed and described; its practitioners believe that writing can be taught.
- It is based on linguistic research and research into the composing process.
- It stresses the principle that writing teachers should be people who write.

5. The future of this paradigm in Pakistan

Most, if not all, advocates of research-based writing programs would agree that the above features are essential components in a sound writing program and, thus, need to be an integral part of our school's writing programs (Totten, 2003). In the words of Linda Flower (1980), "because we are trying to chart and analyze an activity that goes on largely out of sight, the process is rather like trying to trace the path of dolphin by catching glimpses of it when it leaps out of the water. We are seeing only a tiny part of the whole process, but from it we can infer about what is going on beneath the surface." A large number of studies have proved unanimously that writing is an act of discovery for both skilled and unskilled writers; most writers have only a partial notion of what they want to say when they begin to write, and their ideas develop in the process of writing. They develop their topics intuitively, not methodically. Another truth is that usually the writing process is not linear, moving smoothly in one direction from start to finish. It is messy, review throughout the writing process, moving back and forth among the different operations involved in writing without any apparent plan. No practicing writing will be surprised at these findings: nevertheless, they seriously contradict the traditional paradigm that has dominated writing textbooks for years (Hairston, 1982). This unanimous point of researchers also questions the existing traditional textbook model in Pakistan. So this model needs a change that may help us promoting a professional model of writing in Pakistan. This will be very genuine question if some one asks how this paradigm will be implemented in our class rooms. So I have given the answer of this question in the words of Hairston (1982)
"I believe that important events of the recent past are going to speed the revolution and help to establish this new paradigm in the nation's classrooms.

But no revolution brings the millennium nor a guarantee of salvation, and we must remember that the new paradigm is sketchy and leaves many problems about the teaching or writing unresolved. As Kuhn points out, new paradigms are apt to be crude, and they seldom possess all the capabilities of their predecessors. So it is important for us to preserve the best parts of earlier methods for teaching writing: the concern for style and the preservation of high standards for the writing product. I believe we also need to continue giving students models of excellence to imitate.

Kuhn contends that "the transition between competing paradigms cannot be made a step at a time, forced by logic...... Like the gestalt switch, it must occur all at once (thought not necessarily in an instant) or not at all." He says, however, that, "if its supporters are competent, they will improve it [the paradigm], explore its possibilities, and show what it would be like to belong to the community guided by it." I see this last opportunity as the challenge to today's community of composition and rhetoric scholars: to refine the new paradigm for teaching composition so that it provides a rewarding, productive, and feasible way of teaching writing for the non-specialists who do most of the composition teaching in our colleges and universities."

Further we can help student writing by looking only at what they have written, not by neglecting the process.

6. Implications for Administrators and Teachers

According to Chuck J. Schwan and William G Spady cited in Totten(2003) there are some change rules that can be helpful for the promotion and implementation of process model writing in class room. I have summarized these rules in the following:

- Rule No-1: People don’t change unless they share a compelling reason to change" (45).
- Rule No-2: People don’t change unless they have ownership in the change" (46).
- Rule No-3: People don’t change unless their leaders model that they are serious about the change" (46).
- Rule No-4: People are unlikely to change unless they have a concrete picture of what the change will look like for them personally" (47).
- Rule No-5: People cannot make a change—or make it last-unless they receive organizational support for the change" (47).

So it is obvious that change needs some conducive conditions to take place. In Pakistan teaching of writing must need change that is subject to research and implication of the results of this research. For the implementation of the new paradigm we need to take the following measures:

a. We must train fresh teachers
b. We must start graduate programs
c. We must enhance enrollment in these programs
d. We must provide in service training
e. We must take measure for the promotion of process based text books on the teaching of writing
f. We must change the trends of publishing houses.

There is need to create a culture that is conducive for paradigm shift. From school to college level and from school administration to national level we need to give process writing a special place in our goals and objectives in every discipline (Totten, 2003). Teachers should be provided pre-service and in service training before the designing or implementation of course especially for teaching of writing.

Here are some recommendations for textbooks, curriculum and policy makers for the promotion of process approach of writing in Pakistan:

a. There is dire need for the development of special programs that target schools administrators, teachers and publishers to educate them about process writing.
b. Evaluation and assessment rubrics must be revised if ever exist and if they do not exist they must be developed immediately, so that a unanimous criterion for assessment of written products of the students be designed.
c. Literature on process writing in schools and colleges must be provided and research in teaching of writing should be encouraged.
d. Professional workshops, seminars and projects on teaching of writing should be encouraged both at institute level and national level.
e. Collaborative teaching should be promoted and national awards should be announced for those teachers and publishers who work best for the promotion of process writing model.
f. A writing project should be started immediately so that in future problems should be tackled in time.

Conclusion

In Pakistan it is not an easy task to replace already rooted conventional approach of teaching of writing without the full support, and resources which should be easily accessible. For a paradigm shift mere teachers and school and college administrators are not enough or do not have adequate means and resources, unless the policy makers take decisions. We must realize that this change demands a collective effort, and without such an effort, it seems impossible to give a realistic shape to a change. Many countries across the borders are leading the way of change, and to a major extant have succeeded; now it is time for us to truly make an effort for a better cause.

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Filial Piety and the Implementation of Taking Care of Elderly People in Vietnamese Families at Present Time

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Abstract Filial piety is a concept originating with Confucianism. In somewhat general terms, filial piety means to be good to one’s parents; to take care of one’s parents; to engage in good conduct not just towards parents but also outside the home so as to bring a good name to one’s parents and ancestors; to perform the duties of one’s job well so as to obtain the material means to support parents as well as carry out sacrifices to the ancestors; not be rebellious; show love, respect and support; display courtesy; ensure male heirs, uphold fraternity among brothers; wisely advise one’s parents, including sorrow for their sickness and death; and carry out sacrifices after their death. But a core ideal of filial piety is the fulfillment of child’s obligations to the parent. In every stage of history, Vietnamese people always attach very much importance to filial piety. Children always try to do best things for their parents to repay their sacrifice for them.

Keywords: elderly people, families, filial piety, taking care of, Vietnam.

1. Introduction

After twenty years of renovations, Vietnam has gained great economic achievements, which are historically significant in building a socialist oriented market economy. The economy grew quickly, society progressed, living standards improved, etc. However, during the years of renovation, social and family moral standards have been declining. Many families haven’t paid enough attention to teaching children resulting in difficulties. It is time for all families to pay attention to, to review, and renew family traditions and ethics. It is a must to think of filial piety and order in the family and society, which will lead to civilized and cultural routines. Because every person has parents, expressing piety to parents is not only a duty and a responsibility for children but also a holy right of every person. Educating children to understand about filial piety was highly important for Vietnamese families in the past and continues to be important. Insufficient attention paid to educating about filial piety in the family is a mistake. It must be considered a most essential basis of society and human morality that appears to have been forgotten.

There are children, who are good examples of filial piety to their parents. But in a rapidly changing society, there are children who neglect their duty are immoral, show no respect, and even rude to their parents. Some children even see serving parents a burden. Some think that if they contribute money to support their parents that they have fulfilled their duty. There are families avoiding serving or taking care of parents because they are in poor circumstances. There are wealthy people, who hire a stranger to take care of their parents as a way of showing gratitude to their parents but leave their parents lonely and sad. That’s caused a circumstance like:

“Không ăn thì ốm thì gây,
An thì nước mắt chan đầy bất com”
hoặc: “Cha mẹ nuôi con bằng trái bằng bể,
Con nuôi cha mẹ con kẻ tüm ngày”

(“Parents’ merits like the sky and the sea always remain / But children’s repayment is about to boast and complain”)

The positive and negative phenomena of ethics occurring in society have raised pressing issues that need to be
addressed. Besides promoting good practices of filial piety from children to parents, we need to condemn and criticize children who maltreat their parents.

This article tries to clarify the practice of filial piety in taking care of elderly people in Vietnamese families at present time. To do it, firstly I introduce the definition of filial piety, and secondly I analyze the implementation of taking care of elderly people in Vietnamese families nowadays.

2. Findings

2.1. Definition of filial piety

“Filial piety” has a long history dating back to its association with ancestor worship. Later it was developed and institutionalized as a moral standard of Confucianism. Basically, “filial piety” is a positive sentiment, which means as a child you must show reverence and devotion to your parents. Regarding filial piety practices, despite the heavy influence of Confucianism, the Vietnamese have their own concept of “filial piety”, which is not as highly strict and fixed as expected by Confucianism. Particularly, the “filial piety” tradition of the Vietnamese people was taken up and improved in the idealism and code of conduct of Ho Chi Minh. For Ho Chi Minh, the concept of “filial piety” had been revolutionarily changed. In the current conditions, I suppose we should further emphasize the role of “filial piety” in the family as well as in society. Filial piety should be taken on board and developed according to the spirit of Ho Chi Minh in association with the development requirements of newly developed families.

Traditionally, our great grandparents considered highly the need for the moral education of grandchildren with the primary emphasis on filial piety:

“Làm trai nết đủ trách đường,
Trước tiên hiểu đạo thường xướng nay”
(“As a man, filial piety is on top”)

It means a person who shows no filial piety to his parents or grandparents, neither loves nor respects them and has difficulty in becoming an empathetic person loving those around him or her.

The responsibility and duty for grandparents and parents is summarized in the concept of filial piety. Filial piety is seen not only a top ethic but also an origin of happiness:

“Diệu hiểu đương mừng,
Muôn điều thiên theo
Phúc thiên đúng đạo,
Phúc lành được gieo”.
(Xuân đình gia huấn)
(“If filial piety is highly appreciated/ Followed by acts of charity/ Have luck and fortunate”).

Accordingly, each an individual must follow regulations, family ethics and traditions, i.e. “respecting the elderly and making concessions to the younger”. Any deviation from this behavior is considered neglect of their duty. According to Confucius, compassion is rooted in love and respect while love and respect are rooted in filial piety. When talking about the rule of kings, Confucius said:

“Compassion grows if a person loves his relatives as much as he loves his parents, and so he is able to teach his people of filial piety. If a king teaches his people, he should start with the older citizens. A king who teaches his people with compassion is loved and seen as a family member of his people. A king who respects older people is loved and then followed by his people. If a king worships his parents with filial piety in accordance with ethics, his morality is extended and he is obeyed by all his people” (translated and cited from Nhan, 1999:18).

So, Confucius used filial piety as the core of moral education. According to Confucius, the practice of filial piety consisted of many requirements. Firstly, children must serve their parents when they get old and carry out traditional procedures when they die. Confucius said: “When parents are alive, children serve them following rites; when parents die, children hold a funeral following rites; and as they worship, they follow rites, too” (translated and cited from Sang, 2002:245). It means a child must show filial piety to his parents whether they are alive or dead. Confucius said children must serve
their parents with respect, if not they are considered neglecting their duty. Even dogs and horses are raised, so to serve parents without respect is likely raising beasts. Therefore, it is the most important for children to serve parents with respect though children have poor quality rice to eat but their behaviors please parents, it is called filial piety. Secondly, children should have capacity and conditions to go on their father’s career. Such a family is called happy. A father has a son and his son then should have a son, too. It means he should have a grandson, if not his family is called unhappy and his son is called no filial piety. Because it had paid too much attention to going on family name and due to historically limited awareness of human biology, Confucius’ judgments were highly strict. Thirdly, as a child, he/she was not allowed to disobey his parents. In the early of Confucianism, the concept of filial piety was certainly positive. For example, Confucius said: “As long as parents are alive, children shouldn’t travel far away from home. If they do, they should tell their parents beforehand” (translated and cited from Sang, 2002: 282). If parents have done something immoral, children should stop them in a peaceful manner. If parents don’t accept their counsel, children should continue to show filial piety and be respectful of parents and patiently persuade them about the right things:

“Nhuong dien gi tot trong cha me nen,
Nhuong dien huy hien trong cha me khoi”
("Desire parents to follow good deed and to avoid bad deed").

Those humanitarian features are needed not only for earlier Confucian society but are also important for filial piety to parents in a modern society today.

According to Confucism, children who demonstrate filial piety are the ones who are able to follow their parents’ will and ambition, learn good things from their parents, and are able to differentiate between good and bad things. Confucius said: “Judge a child when his father is alive for will or ambition and when his father dies, look at his behaviors. If he remains himself unchanged for three years, he is called filial piety” (cited and translated from Sang, 2002: 225).

When teaching filial piety, Confucius said it is a must to keep it being neutral. According to Confucius, parent worship doesn’t mean filial piety. Filial piety should lead to morality because filial piety means moral. Filial piety and moral go together; therefore highly positioned persons in society should pay special attentions to piety. “If a gentleman who has a high position is fully filial piety to his parents, his people will be oriented to morality, too; if a gentleman with a high position doesn’t neglect his friends, the people will not be ungrateful” (cited and translated from Sang, 2002: 358-359). Gentlemen are persons who have power and high positions and are good examples for others. If such people neglect their duty, they fail to make people compassionate.

Therefore, filial piety has a positive meaning and it originates from a traditional belief that children have to show piety to their parents. This emotional and moral requirement is widely popular in many nations - particularly for Eastern nations, including Vietnam. Vietnamese historical records have many good examples of children who demonstrated piety to their parents.

In terms of the practice of filial piety, Confucianism heavily influences Vietnamese people. However, Vietnamese piety is unique. It is not so draconian or as rigid as Chinese Confucianism. Even Vietnamese people of older ages who were fully trained in Confucian ways, acquired the practice of piety adapted it and made it a value and a moral standard with a uniquely Vietnamese character.

For instance, in the Tran dynasty, when Tran Lieu was on his deathbed, he urged his son, Prince Tran Quoc Tuan, to avenge what he felt was a personal shame. Tran Quoc Tuan, however, ignored the personal shame, focused on national benefits, and kept concord with Tran Quang Khai to fight against the Mongol Yuan invasions to show gratitude to the nation.

On the occurrence of the Minh invasion, Nguyen Phi Khanh was captured and marched off to Chi Lang. Nguyen Trai followed his father to Ai Nam Quan. Nguyen Phi Khanh said: “You must return to avenge me and the country. You shouldn’t follow me to cry”. Following his father’s words, Nguyen Trai went back. He spent days and nights thinking about avenging his father. He did his best to support King Binh Dinh to fight the Chinese invaders.

In the Nguyen dynasty, Phan Boi Chau nurtured his father’s ambition, studied hard, and gained the first laureate to please his father who was on his deathbed. He extended his practice of piety for his father to his nation and people and engaged in revolutionary activities to become a patriot well known in the early 20th century.

In the general, filial piety is expressed in lulling words for newly born babies:

“Cong cha nhu nui Thai Son,
Nghiia me nhu nuoc trong nguyen chay ra
Mot long tho me kinh cha,"
Filial piety is very simple, practical and applicable to the masses. Sincere filial piety is just appropriate. Sincere filial piety means concern, care, and wishes for parents to enjoy good health, long life, and happiness. It also implies making efforts to maintain and take advantage of family traditions such as being grateful to ancestors, grandparents, and educating the generations to follow.

The tradition of filial piety was taken up and improved in Ho Chi Minh’s philosophy and personality. Faith and filial piety as ethics were used in parallel and considered by Ho Chi Minh to be the highest standard of human behaviors. According to Ho Chi Minh’s philosophy, the piety cited in the statement “faithful to country, filial piety to people” is not only the accomplished ethic of children for parents but also serving for all people and serving because of people. Children should show love for their parents and the parents of others. Ho Chi Minh said: “The most revolutionary person is the most pious - the most dutiful and loyal. Why? If such a person doesn’t take part in revolutionary activities, not only his parents but million parents of others will be oppressed by empire and feudal lords. We save not only our parents but also the parents of other and parents in the whole country as well” (translated and cited from Ho Chi Minh Volume, 2000).

For Ho Chi Minh, showing filial piety to people means to be a servant of the people and take root of the people (see people as the fundamental in society). In the past, Manh Tu said: “Loving people is the highest and the best, followed by love of the country and the last is love of the king”. This means that the advantage of filial piety is its acknowledgement of people being its root. Following Confucius, Ho Chi Minh didn’t place himself higher than his people or apart from his people. For him, being loved by his people was the power. He always placed himself in the heart of his people, considered himself to be a servant of the people, and obtained public benefits in his life, his career, and the realization of the goals of the revolution: “There is nothing more valuable than people in the world. There is nothing stronger than public union” (translated and cited from Ho Chi Minh Volume, 2000). In other words, he changed people from the dependency on kings, lords and commanders into owners.

For Ho Chi Minh, the ideology of filial piety to the people no longer meant loving people as persons that need to be educated and given favors, but as people who need to be best served. That’s why, it is necessary to be close, to respect, to learn from, to rely on, and be rooted in people. According to Ho Chi Minh, leaders should master an understanding of the masses of the people, understand their wishes, often care about improving their living standards and enjoy rights but fulfill responsibilities. For a revolutionary, a leader with such a moral attitude will be trusted, loved, respected, and certainly generate power for revolutions.

Regardless of having such a broad meaning, filial piety is associated with faith. Ho Chi Minh himself is an example of such an association. Depending on certain people, Ho Chi Minh defined the content of faith and filial piety appropriate to revolutionary duties. Ho Chi Minh was excellent and creative at inheriting the traditional piety of Confucius. For him, filial piety had been changed with a revolutionary meaning - filial piety to people included parents.

In conclusion, filial piety is a concept originating with Confucianism. In somewhat general terms, filial piety means to be good to one’s parents; to take care of one’s parents; to engage in good conduct not just towards parents but also outside the home so as to bring a good name to one’s parents and ancestors; to perform the duties of one’s job well so as to obtain the material means to support parents as well as carry out sacrifices to the ancestors; not be rebellious; show love, respect and support; display courtesy; ensure male heirs, uphold fraternity among brothers; wisely advise one’s parents, including sorrow for their sickness and death; and carry out sacrifices after their death. But a core ideal of filial piety is the fulfillment of child’s obligations to the parent.

Filial piety is a social norm that parents should love their children and that children in turn should love and respect their parents (Lew, 1995) to repay the comfort and aid received: “Children were made to feel keenly that they owed parents a moral debt so immense as to be unpayable. A child was supposed to try to please his or her parents all the time and in every way, to increase their comfort, to accede to all their wishes, to fulfill their aspirations, to lighten their burden of work and of worry, and to comply with their wishes in all matters, great and small” (Jamieson, 1993:17). From that, we could define the filial piety is the responsibility of each person to respect their parents, obey them, take care of them as they age, advise parents, and of course to love them.

2.2. The practice of filial piety in taking care of elderly people in Vietnamese families

Since the old days, Vietnamese people attach very much importance to the man’s morality education for their
Filial piety in Vietnamese families is expressed in many ways but highlights are as follows:

Firstly, children must be grateful to and respect their grandparents and parents in families. When they are alive, children must provide respectful support, care to them. When they are older, such support and care must be more thoughtful. When they passed away, children must bury them properly.

Secondly, a child with filial piety is the one who knows to protect himself, his moral behavior, health, especially to improve his moral behavior and knowledge to become the one with good personality, the person of great righteousness and generosity, bringing fame to his family. This child with filial piety must establish his position in life, have successful career of which his parents may be proud.

Thirdly, a child with filial piety is the one who never do anything which may cause negative influence on his family's honor, able to take over from his parents' career, continue their will, follow their good example, protect family's order, tradition and way of life.

In this article, we focus on the first way in realization of filial piety in Vietnam as this is considered prominent expression, the nucleus and basic meaning in the realization of filial piety in Vietnamese families. It is children' care for the elderly in families. By that virtue, the filial piety in families is defined: “Filial piety is respect, taking good care of parents wholeheartedly”\(^1\). Parents' love and sacrifice to give birth, foster and educate their children is so great which can never be compensated, higher than sky and deeper than sea: “Parents' love and sacrifice to give birth, foster and educate children / Never forget all day and night / Higher than sky and deeper than sea” (Trai, N. 1952)

Children must show gratitude to their parents by performing specific action. When parents are alive, children must wholeheartedly support, always take care of, visit them; if unfortunately to live a beggarly life, hungry with only maize or manioc, children must try to provide parents with food and drink, give what more delicious, better for parents, desiring parents to live longer to receive repayment: “Old mother lives in a thatched hut/ Only visiting her day and night makes children' mind easy”. The family education of feudal system of Vietnam highlighted: “Parents are the most respectable ones/ Providing them with support and requital when they are old/ Never forget parents’ grace/ Children must repay their parents” (Cang, C.V. 2006 p. 181). Parents give birth, foster and bring up children, sacrificing their youth for their children's maturity, success. When children grow up, their parents are old, bad health, need good care from children. So many children are aware of this and repay their parents. They always pay attention, take care and encourage their parents, making them feel pleasant with their old age. There are the children who are very busy with their works but they have saved time to visit, to live with their parents, shared weal and woe with their old parents, learnt about their inmost feelings and expectation and repay their parents.

About the way of support: The parents who are in good health, wealthy often live separately from their children. Those who are old and weak or poor live with their children. Children who are wealthy give their parents the best amenities; serve them the best delicious food and drink. Those who are poor still know to give their parents good meal. There are children who live and have meal separately from their parent but they give their parents money monthly as support. Those who live very far send their parents' gifts or money sometimes.

In material term, when parents are old, children must serve their parents wholeheartedly. As a child, he/ she has to know their parents' meal taste, depending on his/ her financial capacity, to cook what their parents want to eat. There are something to be noted that the elderly, with week teeth and stomach, so children should prepare for them soft, easily digestive meal which is nutritious and suitable to parents' taste. About clothing, elderly are easily affected by weather so children must prepare suitable clothing for their parents, wool clothing in winter, silk clothing in summer, help them feel strong enough to resist changeable weather. Special attention should be paid to parents' sleep, it is very difficult for the elderly to have good sleep and easily awake by noise, children must prepare appropriate bedding for their parents' good sleep, quiet during their sleep, go to bed after and get up before their parents.

There are children who are wealthy, have provide for their parents both materially and spiritually. These children have build house for their parents, buy necessary amenities for them including good bedding to use in frosty winter, give medicine when they are ill. In some families, the children who are wealthy invite their parents to travel around the country or abroad. Some children who are not so wealthy but have repaid their parents with many deeds, which make others...

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moved.

Everyone has to go through birth, aging, disease, and death. When parents are sick, children must take care of them conscientiously, invite doctor, buy medicine for parents. Some elderly suffer from hemiplegia, cannot take care of themselves, have meal and relieve themselves at the same place. The children who have parents like that should not be fearful of serving their parents, should remember that when we were a small child, our parents were not fearful of serving us.

In the morning of 22nd August 2007, the fourth National festival of dutiful children opened in Ho Chi Minh city. There were 196 delegates of so many dutiful children from many provinces and cities of the country, of whom 65 distinguished dutiful children have been awarded certificates of merit by the Central Committee of Vietnamese fatherland front².

Mr. Vu Dinh Dau, 63 years old, living in Hoang Mai district, Hanoi has also been commended as a dutiful child. He has 3 children, 6 grandchildren but he by himself cooks meal for his parents who are 100 years of age. He shared the experience to take care of elderly: “The elderly are always fear of being stranded because they think they are unnecessary so we have to give them due attention, carefully explain for them to understand. Food must be soft, vegetable must be washed by ozone machine”.

Mr. Bui Quang Tuan, a teacher in Binh Hoa commune, Chau Thanh district, An Giang province. He is 37 years old, not married. He said: “Everyone wants to get married but I am too poor, have not thought about getting married yet”. His family has 6 children, 3 younger sisters got married, and two elder brothers have to earn living far away. Only Mr. Tuan stays at home to take care of old mother.

Mr. Nguyen Thanh Tam (28 years old, living in residential quarter 2, Thoi An ward, district 12) is another dutiful child. Everyday, he takes care of his adoptive parents as his biological ones. Since the day when his adoptive mother suffered from fatal disease, cannot sit or walk, Mr. Tam is both bread - winner and does housework. The daily unnamed works such as going to market, cooking meal, extracting medicine, washing their parents have taken all time of a young man. However, he always says with fun: “Not only girls are capable of doing housework, boys can go to market, cook meal, medicine, wash parents!”.

On old days, it is said that filial duty a child must: “fan parents when it hot, warm up when it is cold, visit them day and night”. Fan means in hot summer, children must stay up all night to fan their parents; warm up means in frosty winter, bedding is cold so children must lie down in bed for it warmer for their parents to have good sleep; visit day and night as the elderly are not as strong as young people. They may be in good health in the evening but may be ill the following morning; their health is changeable so children must visit their parents in the morning and in the evening to know their condition of health, to give them medicine in timely manner. Above is material repayment and about spiritual aspect, children must repay with all their heart. We have to understand that elderly always feel inferiority complex, self-pity when their children do not give them due attention. Therefore, children must conscientiously take care of sick parents and always talk with them. If children live far from parents, sometimes children must call to know their parents’ condition of health because if we don’t do so when our parents alive, we will have no more opportunity when they passed away.

Another reason, the elderly are always fear of sorrow and do not want nuisance to happen because it is very difficult for them to forget, to move such sorrow out of their heart once it happened. Therefore, children must try their best not to do wrong thing, which may make their parents be sad.

It is said that: “Grass grows on soil, bad habit in elderly”, parents at old age always feel aches and pains, pull-brained, unpleasant, sometimes they scold their children not for justified cause or even they have just been fed but said that they have not been fed, etc. Children must understand and sympathize with parents every time they changes their mood, not bear a grudge against parents. Filial piety, firstly, children must be always observe parents’ intention and must not make them feel sad and worried.

Children must try best to live a moral life and studious, make parents feel pleasant because elderly are always happy when their children are dutiful and successful. Moral life and success of children are always invaluable gift for their parents, are happiness and pride for their parents at old age.

Children should respect their parents’ pleasures and hobbies because young people have their own pleasures and elderly also have their own pleasures. For example, the parents who settled down far from their homeland always want to come back to their native land, children must save money, provide them with favorable condition, to satisfy their expectation. This means as a child, he or she must respect parents’ hobbies and expectation and try best to meet their needs to make parents happy.

² Dan Tri newspaper, 23rd August 2011.
A higher level of repayment is spiritual repayment, a child with full filial piety is the one who become the spiritual support for his or her parents depend on. Filial piety is one of moral standards, which must be done originated from the heart, voluntarily, regarding it as essential need. Public opinions always commend, encourage, wake up human conscience in realization of filial piety.

Over the current years, with the country’s development, children have better financial condition to realize filial piety. Many children who have strength of will, great learning, high social position, have provided for their parents both material and spiritual life, help their parents spend their old age peacefully. Nowadays, in addition to good financial condition, many families are happy with their good spiritual and moral life, preserving their family tradition, which become the very strong support for each family member.

In every stage of history, Vietnamese people always attach very much importance to filial piety. In a festival of dutiful children held in Thanh Hoa province, a middle-age child said that: “Love, respect old parents, aware of their great love and sacrifice. I always teach my children to be dutiful, grateful. I hope such dutifulness will make our parents live longer. I think: regardless of how old we are, if our parents passed away, we are orphaned. I am always awake of my duty as child, desire to provide for my parents and receive advices from them” (Kiet 2006 p. 120).

Or in history of Vietnam, the story "Chung cake, Day cake' has showed parents’ credit to give birth and bring up their children. Lang Lieu, the eighteenth prince, a dutiful, good-natured child has given his father, the King, Chung cake and Day cake. Chung cake symbolizes the earth, Day cake symbolize the sun, considering parents’ love and sacrifice as high as sun and as wide as earth, protecting their children to live a peaceful life. Therefore, Hung King agreed to entrust him with throne. Such awareness is a part of national culture to build a long-standing moral standards and principles. Chung cake and Day cake became one of traditional products, an evidence of moral standards. These cakes are always offered to ancestors in occasion of Lunar New Year holiday and annual holidays and festivals.

For all the children, the important thing is showing love and attention to their grandparents, parents both material and spiritual aspects, especially their spiritual life. As for the elderly, it is very important to take care of their spiritual life, encourage and console them. Only grandchildren and children can give the best consolation to their grandparents and parents. When parents are old and week, sick, their children’ care and help are much more valuable than tonic of any kind or expensive gifts. Meaning of support, repayment for grandparents and parents is not valuable over money but sincere heart. Love and respect are the most important for the children to foster and take care of their parents. Children’ love and filial duty, repayment make parents have peace of their mind, not feeling lonely. Parents find themselves in their children, their contribution to the society.

In Vietnamese fold verses, moral standards demonstrated the national cultural tradition have been agglomerated over many thousands of years. With simple and easily understandable words, parents’ love and sacrifice have been highly praised, fold verses are not academic literature but simple and popular over so many generations: “Parents’ love and sacrifice are so great/ Fostered us since early days/ Children must show deep gratitude to parents“.

If we wish our parents had creditability, we have to establish our position in life by learning a trade or pursue higher education, which will benefit the community and society, satisfying our parents’ expectation.

In the present context with so many complicated changes and difficulties, beside the dutiful children with benevolence and righteousness to their parents are the ones who are irresponsible for taking care of their parents, absorbed in pursuing personal purposes, not fulfilling filial piety as a child. These children are usually criticized: "Why you leave your old mother alone/ Who tidy up bedding for her sleep/ Who make tea for her". Especially some children who have left their parents alone but when parents passed away, they organized luxury funeral have to come under heavy criticism by the community. These children are considered great filial impiety: "Not feed parents when they alive/ Luxury funeral when they dead". In other words, they seemed not to know filial piety. They only know how to satisfy themselves, unintentionally or intentionally forget their responsibility to their parents.

Some children have understood filial piety as cold as marble. In 2008, in the media such as television, newspaper, etc. some heart-breaking stories about filial piety have been reflected, which make everybody, who has good judgment have to meditate. That is the son beats and ill-treats his biological mother when she was 85 years old3. Or Vinh Phuc Province People’s Court has just heard and tried the last case, rejecting the petition submitted by Mr. Ngo Xuan Thanh who claimed his mother to repay him money that he has fostered his mother4. This may be the "rare" information that son claimed his mother for nearly VND 150 million and asked half of the house of gratitude presented by the local government for the martyr’s mother. The case that Mr. Thanh claimed his mother, Mrs. Truoc for fostering money calculated from

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1997 to 2005, VND 50,000 each day and total is VND 146,050,000, the Jury decided that children are responsible for fostering their parents, there is no regulation by law that mother has to repay fostering money for children, etc. For some people, is money more important than morality, ethics that make them forget core value?

Some people often blame on situation and cause many pitiful stories in relation to filial piety. In their opinion, nowadays children have no enough time to show their attention to, care for, and have happy meal with parents or stay with parents when they are sick. Therefore, they find it the best solution to hire helpers or take their parents to elderly centers so that they can spend all their time and effort to their work. Thus, many people who have a lot of children and grandchildren but have to live with helpers. Weekly or monthly, their children send them an amount of money as fulfillment of their obligation. However, for parents, money is not all...because the elderly do not have much material demand. For them, spirit is more important. Many people who have not cared for their parents when parents alive cried a lot and organized luxury funeral as consolation and repentance when their parents passed away... It is a pity that such late filial piety has been popular.

Negative manifestations relating to filial piety in the current society, which has caused many pressing and urgent issues, contrary to national fine habits and customs require the special attention and urgent solution.

The society is "aging" meanwhile population in each family has rapidly decreased (originated from guideline "each married couple should have only one or two children"). That means the number of people who shoulder the family affairs such as support grandparents and parents has been rapidly decreased also. In such context, it is supposed that the caring for the elderly cannot be fully taken by each individual family but it must be included as an important social policy. Thus, in Vietnam, paying attention to and caring for grandparents, parents and the elderly aiming at improving and promoting the elderly in Vietnam currently have become a significant and consistent policy of the Party and the State, responsibility of the whole political system, and obligation of each family, community as well as society. It is very necessary to issue the Law on elderly to form legal corridor for organization of the association, serve the lofty cause of caring of the elderly and make contribution to realize filial piety in the new context.

3. Conclusion

We can realize that filial piety has positive meaning, derived from human sacred, and from obligation as a child to repay for their parents' love and sacrifice. By fulfilling filial piety in families, we shall succeed our family's business, bring fame to ancestry and make contribution to social stability and development. In current situation, we should continually confirm the role of filial piety, attach it with establishment of new cultural families, satisfy requirement of social modernization and build a comfortable and happy life.

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Ownership of Mobile Phones by Computer Engineering Undergraduates in a Private University in Nigeria

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Abstract This study was on the ownership of mobile phones by undergraduate students in Edo State, Nigeria. The study focused on undergraduate students in Computer Engineering departments of Igbinedion University, Okada, Edo State, Nigeria for the 2011/12 academic session. The number of registered students was sixty (60). This study was a survey and adopted a systematic random sampling technique. 61 questionnaires were distributed with 60 retrieved (100%). The study found out that 51 respondents (83.6%) were given their first mobile phones by family members and 41 (67.21%) own mobile phone for family reasons. Also, 35 respondents (57.37%) do not consider mobile phones as distraction. The study recommended that mobile phone technology be integrated into teaching, learning and library services offered in Universities in Nigeria.

Keywords: Ownership, Mobile Phones, Computer, Engineering, Undergraduates, Nigeria.

1. Introduction

Global Mobile System of Communication popularly called GSM has led to an astronomical rise in ownership and use of handsets especially in Nigeria. Since its inception and introduction in Nigeria in 2001, subscriber base hit 59 million in 2009 (Taiwo, 2010) and has grown to about 100 million by June, 2012 (Okereocha, 2012). Demography according to Olatokun (2009) has played a pivotal role in the rise of mobile ownership. This is not however without its attendant consequences of fraud and sabotage (Ojebode, 2012). However, the need for communication and interaction among peers and family has boosted the ownership of mobile phones among students (Adomi, 2006). Mitchel, et al (2010) recorded its wide usage among adolescents in Uganda.

2. Literature Review

Ownership of Mobile phones in Nigeria has become pre- eminent and predominant factor in communication (Elegbeleye, 2005). Utulu and Alonge (2011) have noted its wide ownership base and use among students in private Universities in Nigeria. Thornton & Houser (2004) reported that 100% of college students polled reported owning a cell phone in Japan. Dodds & Mason (2005) in a survey of middle school students found that over 75% own mobile phones in the United States. The rise in ownership can be attributed to communication purposes (Diamanduros and Downs, 2007). Aoki and Downes (2003) suggested that young people own mobile phones for a variety of reasons. These include: to help them feel safe, for financial benefits, to manage time efficiently, to keep in touch with friends and family members, et al. This study on ownership of mobile phones among computer engineering undergraduates is significant because it explores their level of technological awareness. This is because computer engineering is information communication technology based too.

3. Research Questions

1. Do you personally own a mobile phone?
2. How long have you owned a mobile phone?
3. How did you get your first mobile phone?
4. Which type of mobile phone do you own?
5. Why do you primarily own a mobile phone?
6. Do you consider owning a mobile phone a distraction?
4. Objectives

This study set out to achieve the following objectives:
1. To explore the level of ownership of mobile phones among
2. To discover the reason for owning a mobile phone
3. To find out if family is central in owning a handset
4. To determine if mobile phones are considered a distraction

5. Discussion

Table 1: Ownership of Mobile Phone

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 1</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you personally own a mobile phone?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 1 60 respondents (100%) actually own a mobile phone. This agrees with the submission of Utulu and Alonge (2011) that in Nigeria there is a wide ownership base and use of mobile phones among private university students.

Table 2: Length of ownership of Mobile Phone

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 2</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How long have you owned a mobile phone?</td>
<td>0-4 yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 reveals that 40 respondents (65.57%) have owned mobile phones for between five to nine years with 10 respondents (16.39%) owning it for zero to four years. The ratio is high signifying a ownership base that precede admission into the University. While the reason for ownership is outside the scope of this paper, it can be suggested that the need for communication might have prompted most to do.

Table 3: Manner of owning first Mobile phone

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 3</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How did you get your first mobile phone?</td>
<td>Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that 51 respondents (83.6%) got their first mobile phones from their parents. A reasonable factor that must not be neglected in this ownership factor by family is demography (Taiwo, 2010).
Table 4: Type of Mobile phone owned

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 4</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Which type of mobile phone do you own?</td>
<td>Blackberry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 show more respondents own and use Blackberry phones. This is because 28 respondents (45.9%) own Blackberry and 32 respondents (52.4%) own a Nokia phone. The popularity of Blackberry among this category of students is worth finding out.

Table 5: Reason for owning a Mobile Phone

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 5</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Why do you primarily own a handset?</td>
<td>Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 5, 41 respondents (67.21%) own mobile phone for family reasons while 27 (44.26%) do so to communicate with friends. However, 16 respondents (26.23%) own mobile phones for business purposes. Such business purpose include: selling recharge cards, phones parts and other income generating ventures to foot their school bills. 67.21% respondents' ratio supports the proposal of Adomi (2006) that communication with family members has been a driver for students owning mobile phones. Similarly, Aoki and Downes (2003) had suggested that young people own mobile phones for a multiple reasons. These include: to keep in touch with friends and family members especially being out of home. Furthermore, Chen (2007) observed in a research on Language students that students use the mobile phone in their daily life as students and people generally. Such use is for communicating with parents, friends and teachers among other purposes.

Table 6: Mobile Phones as distraction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 6</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you consider owning a handset a distraction as a student?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 6, majority of respondents did not see the ownership of mobile phones as distraction. 35 respondents (57.37%) believe it is not distraction while 20 respondents (42.78%) agree it does. While there are several debates as to the distracting effect of phones on students, several schools have adopted differing approaches on this subject. While the debate rages on, some scholars its application to teaching and learning has the potential to offer significant advantages (McManus 2002; Wood 2003; Ericsson 2006; Begum, 2011).
6. Findings

A. Family members are responsible for the owners of mobile phones
B. Communication with family is the principal reason for owning mobile phones
C. Mobile phones are not distraction in student educational pursuit

7. Recommendations

A. Universities and lecturers should explore application of mobile phone technology to e-learning
B. Library managers should re-examine its services to make it more suitable for mobile phone application and use
C. The government should as a matter of urgency mandate network providers to improve on the quality of their services and make network available everywhere.

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The Culture and Educational Development of Job Description
in Banking Services in Albania

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Doi:10.5901/jesr.2012v2n3p239

Abstract  Diffusion of information technology and communication, increasing the use of personal computers, facilitating the internet connections as well as the wide spread of mobile phones have attracted the attention of banks towards the possibility of development of electronic banking. In this material we will try to analyze the recent developments that occurred in the Albanian banking system, we will focus on the online services that banks offer. Another reason for using electronic banking was and the need to minimize costs and to increase the efficiency of banking services. Based on these two reasons banks have used Internet interactions as the main distinguishing characteristics, developing the structure of banking service in order to meet the customers increasing needs and their incomes. The challenge for this industry is how to design this new channel for the provision of banking services in a simple and reliable way for the costumers. Electronic banking is relatively new. Initially, he was presented at the 80’s, however only in the mid of the 90’s it was widely spread, especially in the last decade electronic banking transactions have increased.

Keywords: education development, comunication technology, electronic services

1. Introduction

Nowadays, banks offer various forms of electronic banking as informative, communicative or operative. All banks are presented on the internet with their site, JDBS (Job discription banking system) that gives general information about the bank and the provided services. However, electronic banking goes a step further because it allows customers to enter via internet in their accounts on-line 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, directly from home or their offices in order to perform banking transactions when they want to.

The main purpose of this topic is to determine the stage of on line service development in Albania, and which will be the perspective of this service.

1.2 Electronic banking and electronic services

1.2.1 Meaning of E-banking and communication

The implementation of preventive measures remains uneven across the financial sector. The banking sector understood properly the measures, and was sometimes complying with standards beyond of what were required by law. However, this tended to be as a result of higher foreign group standards. (Keenetz 2012) Measures for continuous monitoring and for the identification and the identification of the beneficial ownership were poorly implemented, with some confusion amongst financial institutions as to the scope of the requirements. In addition, whilst the concept of customer risk factors is a new development in the Albanian system which needs to be encouraged, its effectiveness can be enhanced with additional guidance on how to use them. (Gotann 2005)
The use of electronic banking service from banks caught the attention of many academic studies during the recent years (Andreas-Nikolaos Papandreou 2006; Shahzad Shariq 2006, etc.). Electronic JDBS banking can be defined as one of the distance services offered through electronic channels for the distribution and communication of traditional products and services and the new banking. It should be emphasized that the internet banking, at least in the actual phase is not trying to replace traditional distribution channels of banking products. It stands together with a set of channels ranging from traditional ones (like counters subsidiaries) to those automatic (such as ATM, POS), in the context of the completion and improving the relationship between the customers and the bank in order to realize the so-called strategy or apply new systems.

1.3 The concept of offering banking services JDBS

Internet banking has started working since 1980, in this period we see a rapid development of E-banking. In May of 1995 Wells Fargo was the first bank in the world that offered to their clients to enter into their accounts via the internet, allowing the customers to see their accounts online. In September of 1999 in Hong Kong Bank of East Asia launched the first Internet Banking.

Since their beginnings, banks work to keep our money safe. While preserving our money they allow us to take the interest on money deposited. Traditional JDBS banks have already done this for centuries and banks are continuing still nowadays the same direction, offering traditional services and new services in different ways.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

Many businesses accept various forms of electronic payments for products and their services. Financial institutions play an important role in electronic payment systems, creating and distributing a variety of electronic payment instruments, acceptance of a similar variety of instruments, processing of these payments. However, always, financial JDBS institutions are in competition with third parties to provide support services for payment system e-commerce.

Among the electronic payment mechanisms that financial institutions offer e-commerce are automated clearing houses (ACH) debits and credits through the internet, electronic money payment of bills and descriptions, electronic controls, e-mails, and electronic payments from credit cards. Most of financial institutions allow banking transfers between accounts of customer, as part of basic services e-banking. However, third party transfers with their increased risk of fraud often require additional protective security measures in the form of a certificate and confirmation of payment.

2.1 The confirmation of payment and receipt

Services and payments of electronic invoices allow consumers to instruct their financial institutions to transfer funds to a business account on a specific date in the future. Clients can make payment at one time or recurring basis with fees that are usually evaluated as one "per item" or monthly. Financial institutions typically advise clients to make payments effective 3-7 days before the date marked on the bill. Management of cash money through internet is the commercial version of bill payments to retail. Business customers use the system to start third-party payments or transfer money between accounts of the company.

Managing money (cash) includes service, to maintain the minimum amount in the balance sheet, repetition transfers between accounts and on-line reconciliation of an account. Businesses usually require strong controls, including the ability to manage so sure and check transactions between users in the business. Financial JDBS institutions can offer bill payment as a separate service or in combination with invoice description. Customers can see their bills by signing on their account to e-banking. After viewing the invoice, customer may initiate instructions for payment of bills or choose to pay the bill through another channel or other payer.

2.2 The culture of communication and institutional ethic of JDBS

In addition, some businesses have begun offering describing electronic invoices directly from their web sites and not through e-banking in a financial institution. According to these agreements customers can enter the website business to view their periodic bills. Then, if they want, they can authorize an electronic way business to "receive" payment from their account. When payment is done in the customer account that pay has a debit account followed with a credit account with the drafters of the bill. Institutions should ensure that businesses to use the ACH payment technology to begin payments from clients accounts.
Diffusion of information technologies and communication, increase the use of personal computers, facilitate the connection to the Internet, and wide spread of mobile phones, have attracted the attention of banks towards the possibility of internet banking. Another reason that made useful the use of this channel was the need to minimize costs and simultaneously to increase the efficiency of banking services. This is how, banks use the main distinguishing characteristics of the Internet, interaction, developing the structure of banking service delivery, to meet the growing needs of their clients and simultaneously, to increase their incomes.

2.2.1 Its components and banking services characteristics

E-banking system can change its configuration significantly. Financial institutions must choose their system configuration based on four factors: I. Strategic objectives for internet banking, II. Field of action, in systems and activities, III. Modern technology, IV. Security and the requirement for internal controls. System configuration of internet banking is based on a number of common components and processes such as: 1. Design and direction of the page 2. Configuration and management page 3. The central part of the system 4. E-banking Service

2.3 Phases of development and educational on Electronic Banking

Phase 1: Marketing and Promotion
This phase has low risks and for banks this phase is considered differently "learning from experience". This phase requires less investment and does not require more human resources to maintain the web. This is how the bank costs are reduced. During this phase, bank publishes on its web products and services offered providing information to the existing and potential customers.

Phase II: Interaction
At this phase banks try to give more value to existing and potential consumers. Some of the services offered at this phase are: calculations of interest rates for deposits and credits, exchange rates, online applications for credit or credit card. Bank publishes various research articles and terms applicable to the relevant offered products.

Graph 1. The cost indicators in Albanian Banking system, source BOA Report 2012

Phase III: Full Service
At this stage, bank offer the same services when the client appears at a bank counter such as: transfers, account statement, payment of bills etc... The development of this phase for the bank creates competitive position. Some banks consider this an important phase because they are protected through this in order to maintain the existing clients and to attrac new ones. While for some other banks, this is the profitable phase because the bank reduced costs.

Phase IV: Strategy
At this phase banks modernizes the processing of transactions, and interaction with clients through investment replacement s"brick & mortar" with investments in the advancement of web technology.
3. Methodology and Research Goal

3.1 Reasons for using e-banking and JDBS

Internet banking is the fastest way, more convenient and safe to manage money at all times wherever you are, giving you the opportunity to: 1) Manage your money 24 hours a day doing instant transfers between accounts 2) Real time balance, to control the money moved into or out of account. 3) Banks that offering internet banking service, you guarantee the return of funds in the event of fraud 4) Provide payments and giving important orders managing online all your debits 5) View and search your statements 6) Apply online to maintain account, manage overdraft and credit cards or personal loan. 7) To create a new vision and new culture standards in job description.

3.2 Services and Electronic Banking Products

3.2.1 E-banking services and Job description

- **Service payment of bills.** This service can facilitate payment of electronic and telephone bills, mobile phone, credit cards and insurance premium bills in whole country. To pay your bills, all you have to do is to complete a simple registration for each bill. You can also give online instructions to pay your recurring bills, automatically. In general, the bank does not upload consumers with commissions, for online bill payment.

- **Transfer of funds.** You can transfer any amount of money from one account to another in the same or any other bank. Customers can send money at any time. After you log into your account you should put the payer account number, bank and its branch. The transfer will be done within a day, while in the traditional methods it took about three working days.

- **Shopping.** Purchasing products in different stores through the internet, is a convenient way to shopping, and payment is made through your account via internet banking. You can also purchase tickets for travel by train and plane through internet banking.

3.3 The primary types of services

Customers use the internet banking services using an intelligent electronic distribution as a personal computer PC, ATM. In this section the beginning of the discussion is for two primary types of internet banking: informational site and transactional site. **Informative internet sites**

Informational sites on internet must provide clients access to general information about the financial institutions, its products and services. Researchers about the risk issues, during the review should consider that informational sites include: 1) Potential liability and violation of the clients rights on incorrect or incomplete information about products, services, and the price displayed on the website.

- 2. Access, on confidential data of financial institutions or data of the consumer if the Internet is not isolated from the internal network of financial institution.

- 3. Liability for the spread of viruses and other malicious codes in communicative computers with the institution’s website and negative public perception, if the on-line institutions services of are interrupted or if the site is destroyed or otherwise presents inappropriate or offensive material.

3.4 Transactional sites and informative services

Transactional websites enable the customers to conduct transactions with financial institutions. Starts activities of JDBS, banking transactions and purchase products and services. Banking transactions can range from something as basic inquiry of balance retail, in an account of a large transfer of funds from business to business. The table below lists some common services to retail and wholesale e-banking offered by financial institutions.
Table 1: Common Services e-banking for management and job application

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Retail services</th>
<th>Wholesale services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Account Management</td>
<td>Account Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment of bills and description</td>
<td>Money Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opening new accounts</td>
<td>Application and approval for credit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application and approval for credit</td>
<td>Payments from the business in business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collection of account</td>
<td>Employee benefits / pension administration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this material I’ll try to analyze the recent developments that have occurred in the Albanian banking system, I will pay attention on online services offered by banks. Currently, in the Albanian banking market compete 16 second tier banks. E-banking services, as those delivered through other channels of delivery are usually classified based on the type of customers that they support. Albanian banks are characterized by monopolistic competition. This means that banks are differentiated from each other, focused on different market segments or offer products with different characteristics within the same segment. However, banks continue to increase competition between them through the implementation of new products the bank electronically in customer service. Currently, the offered electronic products are:
- Transactions made in Bakomate (ATM)
- Transactions made in POS
- Services via the internet.

In Albania, the majority of electronic payments are carried out through debit cards and credit or ATM and POS terminals, ATM more. Also, a positive trend is noticed in connection with Internet use as electronic payment instrument. Currently, in Albania are eleven banks (refer to table no. 2) which offer via internet banking services. Some of the key features of this service in Albanian banking market are:
1. Service is new and no more time operating in Albanian banking market
2. This service is focused in a limited number of selected clients, that are corporations and SME "being neglected" individuals, but after the economic crisis are focusing more on individuals
3. Types of services offered do not constitute a set of "substantially" services through the internet.

3.5 Albanian Bank and its services offering

The facts above talk about electronic banking in its origins in Albania. The establishment of the inter-agency Coordination Committee against Money Laundering and the development of a National Strategy on the Investigation of Financial Crimes provides a good basis for domestic collaboration. The Coordination Committee and its associated working groups provide for discussing the implementation of the National Strategy as well as operational issues.

The creation of the JIUs has also contributed to greater collaboration between law enforcement, intelligence agencies, the prosecutor’s office, the FIU as well as other government agencies responsible for the fight against money laundering. However, cooperation between supervisory agencies should be improved and the FIU should work more closely with the financial supervisors to coordinate inspections and share findings or (results).

Statistics gathering (collection) is not coordinated because data do not match. So, from 16 banks that operate in the banking markets, 88 per cent of them offer banking services only in branches, 12 per cent of them offer banking services in the branch of service combined with services (information, communication or operating) offered through the Internet and none of the Albanian Banks offers banking services only through the internet.
4. Analyzes and Results

The mapping analyze is showing the five level of JDBS management indicators. In this groph we are studying that: GBS in two indicators (employment and unemployment) is 68% data results of management performance. The second level of management is 46% of management performance, flop show (low job level) is 45% of management performance. In other words, the majority of banks have published on the web page whoms role is informative on products and services that the bank offers, in order to encourage clients to visit bank branches. This result shows that regression data analyze is adapted in our paper research for JDBS study.

4.1 JDBS and its cost-benefit job description

The main reason why electronic banking is in its strands is associated with the ratio cost-profit. So, if there will be a significant number of clients who will use this service, then costs associated with providing this service will bring losses for banks. On the other hand, if designated service is not offered it is difficult to determine the number of potential users of it. The number of the clients that can use this service depends on:
- Sufficient knowledge of the Internet;
- Ability to use the Internet;
- Familiarity with electronic payments.

Table 2: Job Services for management and job application, management organization activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Retail job services</th>
<th>Different services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management activities</td>
<td>Management organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment description</td>
<td>Management first level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opening new sectors of job</td>
<td>Application for chiefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application and approval for second level of manager leader</td>
<td>Management from the business in business areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collection of performance</td>
<td>New Employee / third management level and administration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

At the end of the analyze of this paper research there are some of the key findings are:
1. Use of the MAPS tool has become widespread in the few years since its introduction and repeated assessments can provide a good measure of progress.
2. Political and economic issues are often the drivers that kick start and provide incentives for continued reforms, but also may be the blockers when the pace of reform is slower than expected. However, the most important reason is the telecommunication infrastructure. Also based on various studies, banks describe that one of the main requirements for successful development of electronic banking in Albania is a sophisticated system of information technology (internet network developed, fast Internet connection and and low cost)

3. The survey results show that the banks use the main distinguishing characteristics of the Internet, interaction, developing the structure of banking service delivery, to meet the growing needs of their clients and simultaneously, to increase their incomes.

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Business Organisations Awareness of Sustainable Development in Ondo State: Implications for Business and Industry Education

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Doi:10.5901/jesr.2012.v2n3p247

Abstract This paper investigates the activities of business organizations as they affect the biophysical environment. Given the fact that most business organizations seem not attuned to the tenets of sustainable development as they are guided by the growth model of development that ravages the environment. One hundred workers from three companies were administered with a questionnaire to ascertain their knowledge about sustainable development, findings show significant relationship between business ownership and awareness of sustainable development, there is also significant relationship between educational qualifications of business owners and awareness of sustainable development. The paper suggests a model for business and industry Education.

Key Words: Sustainable Development, Business and Industry Education, Environment, Business Organization, Natural Resources.

1. Introduction

One of the main issues that dominate developmental discourse in the 21st century is the issue of sustainable development, sustainable development is ‘development that meets the needs of the present without comprising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’. (WCED 1987: 43). The essential needs of the world’s poor, to which overriding priority should be given; and the idea of limitation imposed by the state of technology and social organization on the environment’s ability to meet present and future needs (WCED, 1987:43).

A core principle of sustainable development is to improve human well-being and to sustain those improvements over time, through passing the means of survival on to future generations unimpaired and building, or at least not diminishing, the total stock capital. It also requires the integration of social, economic, environmental and governance goals in decision making (WCED, 1987:43).

Sustainable development is comprised of the following distinct elements: Integration of economic, environmental and social considerations into all decision making. Fostering of intra-generational equity through the alleviation of poverty by concentrating the benefits of development in lesser developed areas. Consideration of the needs of future generations so as to ensure that intra-generation equity exists. (International Institute for Environment and Development, and World Business Council for sustainable Development 2002).

Sustainability therefore entails conducting ourselves in a manner in which current efforts to improve lives and conditions (i.e. “development”) can be continued (for ‘sustained’) indefinitely. Consequently, if a company is to operate in a manner that fosters sustainability, it needs to ensure that it does not undermine the continuing capacity of the natural environment to provide services, and that it does not contribute to any instability in the communities and economies in which it operates. Achieving this requires that innovative ways of changing institutional structures and influencing individual behaviour must with taking actions and changing practices at all levels from individuals to the international (The Prince of Wales, 2005).

Components of sustainable development or the ‘triple bottom line’ which in its broadest sense captures the spectrum of economic, environmental and social values that business organizations should seek to be measured against if they are to promote sustainability, has gained widespread recognition as a framework for measuring business performance (The Prince of Wales, 2005). These are:

- The economic bottom line (profit) includes financial and manufactured capital.
- The social bottom line (people) includes human and social capital.
- The environmental bottom line (planet) includes natural capital (The Prince of Wales, 2005)
2. Statement of problem

The accustomed growth based model of development, that guides the operation of business concerns has been fruitful for a few but detrimental to many. It is a part to prosperity that ravages the environment and leaves a majority behind in squalor. The deterioration of our natural habitat is not far from the misuse of natural resources by mankind through the activities of business organizations. Observations across many local governments in the state show that many of the business enterprises have little or no knowledge about sustainable development. This study is set to assess the level of their awareness of sustainable development.

3. Methodology

Three companies; a fast food company, a road construction company and an oil prospecting company were selected. One hundred members of staff were selected through accidental random sampling techniques. They were given a questionnaire that was meant to ascertain their knowledge about sustainable development.

Hypothesis 1

There will be no significant relationship between ownership of business and awareness of sustainable development.

Table 1: Zero order correlation showing the relationship between ownership of business and awareness of sustainable developments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Pearson correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>0.436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of sustainable</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>28.76</td>
<td>15.380</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 alpha level at 0.01 significance level. Table 1 above shows that there is significant relationship between ownership of business and awareness of sustainable development.

According to Peters and Porters (1990), sustainable development makes good business sense because it can create competitive advantages and new opportunities. This view of Peters and Porters is sharply in agreement with the above result because sustainable development brings about competitive advantages and new opportunities into business hence the owner must be aware of the new development.

Schmidheiny (1992) opined that sustainable development also requires far-reaching shifts in corporate attitudes and new ways of doing business.

According to Ulhoi (1992) if growing environmental concern is to be treated more as an opportunity than a threat, then a whole new strategies approach become crucial. The implications are far-reaching and include a redefinition of the corporate value system, a realignment of the corporate value system, and a change in behaviour throughout the entire organization. These assertions underscore the result of the hypothesis 1 above.

Hypothesis 2

There will be no significant relationship between educational qualification of business owners and awareness of sustainable development.

Table 2: Zero order correlation showing the relationship between educational qualification of business owners and awareness of sustainable development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Pearson correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational qualifications of</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>28.76</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td>-0.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>owner</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of sustainable</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>28.76</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above table, it can be seen that the result is significance at 0.01 level. This implies that the stated hypothesis is rejected. That is, there is a significant relationship between educational qualification of business owners and awareness of sustainable development. This implies that the owner must be educative enough before he can understand in detail all about sustainable development and how to practice it in his economic operations.

According to Cortes (1993), during the 1990’s an increasing number of University presidents signed the Tail Loire Declaration, which among other things call for the creation of programmes to enable faculties to introduce environmental
perspectives and values into all courses in order to produce future graduates, who are environmentally literate and competent.

As pointed out by Cortes (1993), there is still a need for a variety of highly educated and trained professionals. According to UNEP (1990), industry has five major environmental education needs:

i. Greater all round environmental awareness

ii. Environmental education for present and future managers;

iii. Training programmes for environmental specialists;

iv. Environmental education for engineers and other professionals and

v. Worker education and training.

This assertion is in agreement with the result of hypothesis 2.

**Hypothesis 3**

There will be no significant relationship between gender of respondents and their perception of sustainable development.

**Table 3**: Zero order correlation showing the relationship between gender and respondents perception of sustainable development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Pearson correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>-0.168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of sustainable development</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>28.76</td>
<td>15.380</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above table, the formulated hypothesis is accepted. That is, there is no significant relationship between respondent’s gender and their perception of sustainable development. This implies that, it is both female and male that make up any society and both of them are at the high peak of knowing and understanding what sustainable development is all about, because it is both gender that are making use of the environment.

According to Brundtland Report (1987), sustainable development is the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generation to meet their own needs. In other words, sustainable development focuses on improving the quality of life for all of the earth’s citizens without stressing these natural resources beyond the capacity of the environment to supply them indefinitely. Hence, all citizens both male and female are concerned about sustainable development.

4. **Conclusion**

The level of an awareness of sustainable development is still low among the business organizations and this has led to environment degradation, lives of workers is at stake and also, they do not enhance sustainability as a result of lack of knowledge of sustainable development.

The roles of the owners or the company to the environment such as giving contract to local contactor has been neglected and also the rights of their workers such as leisure time, good health and sound education or training have been deprived.

It is now left for us to employ all possible means as individuals, as group or as policy makers, to stop these harmful practices. This will be of help to owners, workers and the society at large.

4.1 **Implications for Industry Education**

The study adapt the recommendations of Tilbury, Adams and Keogh (2005) on steps for strengthening Environmental Education for sustainability within business and industry sector for the proposed industry education model;

Government policy should:

Recognise that Environmental Education initiatives focused on compliance, environmental performance and product stewardship need to be more closely aligned with learning for sustainability;

Encourage tools and resources that enhance motivation and capacity for long-term change;

Tap the potent power of informal learning;

Mobilise corporate organisations that seek to educate stakeholders on sustainability, for action.
Industries should:

Encourage incentives for corporate organisations to evaluate and learn from their education and training experiences. This would help them assess the impact of their current programmes and help them improve their management and performance concerning sustainability;

Enlist professional learning for sustainability educators to mentor business owners and managers from corporate organisations responsible for developing corporate stakeholder education programmes;

Provide support, in the form of training or other resources to facilitators of informal networks so that they are able to maximize the learning opportunities for participants;

Identify and categorise existing opportunities for informal learning for sustainability and available sustainability resources and tools.

Progressive stages in corporate sustainability should be mainstreamed in the model. This according to Tilbury, Adams and Keogh (2005) are:

1 Compliance - environmental considerations only of concern if obliged by law
2 Performance - improved environmental management leads to greater resource efficiency and reduced costs.
3 Stewardship – extended producer responsibility for product impacts; sustainability perceived in terms of benefit to long-term stakeholder prospects and continued license to operate
4 Social responsibility – management seeks to establish culture that is committed to meeting stakeholders interest and the needs (not just shareholders); profit is the goal, but not at any cost.
5 Learning organization – stakeholders in the business develop capacity to reflect on their roles in achieving sustainability and are actively involved in decision making and change for sustainability

5. Recommendations

The following recommendations are made:

Our policy makers should ensure proper monitoring of the business organization.
Government should ensure implementation of policies.
Widespread awareness of the perils of environmental degradation must be encouraged.
Widespread awareness on sustainable development through education at all level must be encouraged.
Government should use mass-media as a means of communication to the large community on sustainable development.
There is need for business leaders to come together and grapple with these complex problems in the company of representatives from government and civil society and with facilitation from expert practitioners in the fields.
In order to ensure that this support be effective, it is important, however, that efforts be well targeted and hence, that a too scattered approach be avoided.
There should be programmes or policies to foster. Small-to-medium enterprises. The policies should define:

- Capacity for ensuring sustainability at the community level
- Effective dispute resolution processes for community level.
- Social safeguard policies for vulnerable groups.
- Frameworks for local economic development.

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Characteristics of Intercultural Dialogue through Translation of Modern Greek Poetry

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Abstract: Readers are very familiar with at least one of "Four Evangelicals" Modern Greek Poetry, Kavafis, Seferis, Ritsos and Elitis, but not with other 20 century poets, especially of years 1970 - 1980, as example the poet Michalis Ganas, also translated into Albania. The purpose of this paper will be the missed success of contemporary Greek poets and the reasons for this recognition. They could be credit to translation quality, commercial marketing, language, cultural heritage of ancient Greece, etc. As instance, without hesitation can confirm that what constituted a significant advantage for the Greek poets; their ability to use easily variants of the Greek language, constituted a major disadvantage for its translation into other languages because did not allowed the interpreter to decide the same sort of "grades" as the author, in order to reproduce the same melody as original. Also, another factor like the fame and the heritage of the Ancient Greece is one of the major disadvantages for many young poets who failed in their efforts to become known and also to affect the poetic world, have suffered no doubt from Greek ancient past and a particular perception of Greece from the reader, included Albanian one, who also from political reasons was supply only with the images of Ancient Greek mythological heroes. Actually, despite the fact that Michalis Ganas was translated for more than 2 years in Albania with poetic volume "Barefoot Rain" continues to be unknown to the Albanian reader. These characteristics of Greek poetry translation will be analyzed in this study.

Keywords: Translation; Greek poetry; intercultural dialogue; international viewpoint; Albanian viewpoint; conclusions.

1. Introduction

The Modern Greek poetry walks on tracks of a long experience which roots are in the poetry of Homer and Hesiod, of lyric poet and antiquity dramaturge, and in the epigrammatic and bucolic poetry of Helen period. Leaving back a stagnation phase during roman era, it flourished again in Byzantine era and also during ottoman occupation as a folk poetry.

After the Greece won the independence, the Greek poetry comes with a new energy through Solomos works, Kalvos and Valaoritis's ones, later on with Palamas till reaching its peak during years '30 of last century. But it still continues to have an impressing force even nowadays in a no friendly atmosphere at all for poetry.

Greek poetry has become winner of Nobel prize twice, once with Jorgos Seferis and then with Odiseas Elitis, and at the same time personalities of Greek poetry like Nikos Kazantzakis, Jannis Ritcos are awarded and become world well-known, among them one of the most powerful poetic voices of 20th century, Konstandin Kavafis.

Regardless the tradition or the evident present in the world literature papers the Modern Greek poetry is not notorious and as a result not assessed by readers and poetic critics. This fact can be easily noted in the edition of 1952 “Little Treasure of World Poetry” (Creekmore, H. 1952), by Charles Scribner's Sons, where the contemporaneous Greek poetry is represented only by five poets with one verse each: Kavafis, Sikelianos, Seferis, Engonopoulos and Elitis.

2. Facts and literature

Konstandin A. Tripanis, a translator and British academic, as commenting Greek poetry, asserts the collision within during a century: “...though it has the longest maybe the most noble tradition in the west world, the best and authentic poetry in Greek, is written during the last hundred years than during the foregoing fourteen centuries” (Trypanis. 1971:54).

We can argue about the above fact, analyzing three events as significant proofs for not being internationally recognized of Greek poetry but, which infer persuasively the special importance the poetry had and stills does in Greece.

- 21st of March, year 2002, in National Book Shop in Ottava, Canada, the World Day of Poetry was celebrated by UNESCO, conceived as Canadian-European Union cooperation. Based on a Greek proposal, two verses of each, 15 participating countries were read in their native language, while the translation in English and French run on a big screen placed in the amphitheatre of National Book Shop.

Greece was represented by the part “Mermaids” from the poem “Odiseas” of Homer, and with verse “Itaka” of Kavafis.
While the literature representatives of each country were choosing the poets and verses, it was evident that Greece had no difficulty at all regarding choosing them. This simply, because of achievements of Greek poetry in antiquity and even of the Modern one. Only during the last century, the Greek poetry won two Nobel prizes in Literature and exactly with two poets, but especially for the fact that poetry in Greece was one of the most cultivated genres, and also with a continuity line in centuries.

- The Greek poet Odiseas Elitis, when receiving the Nobel Prize at Swedish Academy for Literature in 1979 commented, referring to himself, in a language spoken only by several millions of people and which is a language still spoken today, though it has been spoken for more than 2500 years constantly, and it has changed very little for eras. He underlined the fact that there is no century when the poetry created by Greeks has not been written in Greek, a fact that shows the great significance of tradition established by Greek language and the big responsibility for the Modern Greek poet.

- Konstandin Tripanis, highlighted in the Introduction of “Anthology of Greek Poetry” (Trypanis.1971), a very large summary volume considering that started with Homer and finished with Elitis: “The poetry written in Greek constitutes the longest and sustained tradition in all West World. From Homer to nowadays no generation of Greeks has lived without expressing his joy and sadness in verses, and always in very authentic and beautiful verses. (...) This is a nice event that in the last millennium the best poetry has been written in Greek, as it was in fourteen previous centuries: in the last 50 years Greek poetry, with indulgence of politic aspirations or simply national ones, has reached anew the former universal and important values it carried in antiquity” (Trypanis.1971:4).

Referring to Wallace Stevens affirming somewhere that “Poetry is the art of knowledge”, I think that as a special art of knowledge, poetry has had deep roots and relations with Greek people since in its infancy, that is why today it is considered as an issue of national importance.

3. Analysis of facts on international and Albanian viewpoint

3.1. Authors

Let’s begin from the most ancient event in time: Trypanis wrote his anthology in 1971, when Konstantin Kavafis had already become internationally famous and his works were translated in many world languages; when Jorgos Seferis was awarded with Nobel Prize for Literature in 1963; and when Janis Ritzos and Odisea Elitis were on the top of their poetic maturity and had started to be on international translation “market”, attracting widely the attention and interests of foreign reader.

Today, west readers are very much familiar with at least one of these “Four evangelists”, of Greek Modern Poetry. Four evangelists have been translated and have become very much known even in Albania; Ritsos earlier because of the communist dictatorship regime of years ’50 in Albania and the other three from various translations made during the democracy period.

Anyway, except Kavafis, Seferis, Ritsos and Elitis (listed chronologically according to their birthdates, but even by the order generally known in the literary world), a lot of Albanian readers must be known even with other poets of 20th century, especially of years during 1970-1980.

Of course, the grandeur of “Four Evangelists”, mentioned above, might have eclipsed to a certain point the fame of the other part of Modern Greek poets, and so the reader can be justified suggesting and arguing that they left no pupil successors behind and as a consequence, in contrast with the first half of 20th century, the second half did not produce any famous Greek poets’ generation.

But in fact, this is not the reason, not even because this generation has not been translated. Many of them, like Nikiforos Vretakos (1912-1991), Takis Sinopoulos (1917-1981), Miltos Sachtouris (1919-), Manolis Anagnostakis (1925-), Kiki Dhimoulia (1931-), Katerina Anghelaki – Rooker (1939-), etc, up to the most youngest ones like Jannis Kondos (1943-) and Michalis Ganas (1944-) have been published all in poetic volumes in the foreign market while some of them even in the Albanian market, and also in anthologies, topic or special essays in journals and literary magazines. In continue, I will often refer to the contemporary poet Michalis Ganas, whose poetic volume “The Barefoot Rain” has been brought to Albanian in 2008, through translation of Nikos Kacalidhas, a poet and writer. He was deeply influenced by Seferis, the poet and technique mentor, awarded by the National Greek Prize for Poetry in 1994.
Most of Greek poetry translated into Albanian, in antithesis of Greek prose which has achieved great success (enough to mention Kazantzakis), has failed to the impact on literary world. I underline that it is the same with international literary world where there is the same phenomena, Greek poets are obviously absent to the international literature and book shops.

But how can we consider this absence? Let’s analyze some of the most factors of this “lack of recognition” of 20th century Greek poetry.

3.2. Themes

We can otherwise start by making some argumentative thesis about the relative success of four Greek Poets, who managed to win fame at various levels, but we can also start with the descending order of familiarity of Greek poetry into translated literature.

Measuring the dimensions of poetic fame of the four Evangelists, as they have been given by the reader, it can be said that Kavafis was the most lucky one to be champion and this because of writing poetry with antiquity theme and with a special prosaic-philosophic tone of Kavafi’s voice, familiar for the poetic sensitivity of Albanian reader already accustomed with the rhythm of Albanian folk ballads.

Seferis (the first Greek awarded with Nobel Prize), very much influenced from Eliot and through Modern use of ancient Greek myths, is also rather familiar when reading him in different translations and just like Kavafis, there is a lot of exorcisms and ancientness in his themes to attract the reader.

Ritcos, who most of the time has lived far from Greece because of political persecutions and who has come to Albania too, took fame and became widely known for the reader during the seven years of Military Dictatorship in Greece (1967-1974) when translated became an opposing act versus imperialist Greek military regime and an appeal for democracy of “labour class”.

The contrary happened with Elitis poetry, which was vitally related with form of typical word and tone of Greek language, even though the Nobel Prize for Literature conferred to him in 1979, in a way contributed more to give a bigger role to his position in foreign literature world, he remained almost unknown and ignored in Albania, this because of the simple fact that he belonged to an imperialist country in objection with Albanian regime of that time. However, during the last years, thanks to the impressive translation of Nikos Kacalidhas and of Aegean images of symbolic word “sea”, which are so dear and known for the Albanian reader too, has become known and famous even in Albania.

However, let’s stop a while to the contemporary poet Michalis Ganas.

He was born in 1944 in the village of Camanta, only some kilometres far from the border to Albania. Since when he was a child, he lived the climate of instability caused from Civil War in Greece. As a consequence of this war, he would live for nearly six years in the Socialist Republic of Albania. When he came back to his motherland after the end of civil war, he went to Athens where he stills lives, to continue the studies. He has written many poetic volumes like “Glasses Jannina”, “Ballad”, “Bouquet” etc; but he is widely recognized in the wide public for his strings converted to songs by famous Greek composers.

He is the poet that writes for the Modern Greek with inspiration, talent and free soul using the main topics like fatherland, love, time, soul and material immigration, and death. Everything in his work shows the contrary of what we already underlined above regarding the four Evangelists; no topic from antiquity and anxieties of the old Greek – only the anxieties of Modern Greek, no Aegean landscape, the contrary, deeply in love with his mountainous birthplace, Epirus. To illustrate the aforementioned, I would extract from his poetic volume translated into Albanian “The Barefoot Rain” the poem “National Road” (Ganas.2008:56):

This way
Emigrated
Half of fatherland

Or the other poem which opens this poetic volume, “Robin in the third millennium’s eve” (Ganas.2008:3):

Mythic bird
In red
Tightly covered
Frightened of being taken away
3.3. Language

But, doubtless what was an important advantage for Greek poets, was of course their skill to use easily the variants of Greek language, though in different phases of its development – ancient, biblical, medieval, the one taught at school or the folk one – was a big disadvantage for its translation to other languages. This was a real difficulty for the translator to put the "keys" to the same order like the author, to allow the translator reproduces the original musicality.

For instance, in many foreign languages, including Albanian, there are no corresponding idioms to those “pure” Greek or as they are called “katharevousa”, which is often used in Modern Greek literature to produce the desired literary effects, ordered from those official to the pompous and up to those ironic and exhilarated ones. It is virtually impossible for the translator to produce this mixture of languages to his own language.

On page 35 of poetic volume “The Barefoot Rain” of Ganas we read the poem “Equivalence” (Ganas.2008:35);

Only snake knows what it means
To change skin
Therefore a lot of poison he has.

In Greek this poem is:

«Μόνο το φίδι ξέρει τι θα πει ν’ αλλάξεις το πετσί σου, γι αυτό του περισσεύει το φαρμάκι.»

The translator uses the verb in optative manner of the verb "to have", “a lot of" is used to reach the same effect the poet gives to his poem using only a verb "περισσεύει”, that literally means "in excess".

The same thing happens with the lines on page 53 of the volume that I am not analyzing so that I do not go any further. (Ganas.2008:53);

Years that fell on us like projectors
Shoot us one by one
Like distracted bunnies

In Greek they would be:

Χρόνια που πέσαν πάνω μας σαν προβολείς.
Μας δουφεκίζουν έναν έναν
Σαστισμένους λαγούς

3.4. Heritage

Though not only the language, but even the very rich poetic and famous heritage of Greece becomes the biggest disadvantage for promotion of Modern Greek poetry. Many Modern Greek poets who have failed in their attempts to become known and at the same time influence to the international literary world, have doubtless suffered from the past of Greek antiquity and from a special conceiving of Greece by the foreigners and especially from the Albanian one who because of even politic reasons has been fed of only with the image of ancient Greek heroes of mythology like Hercules, Odiseas, Zeus etc.

From a research made by the Greek Culture Foundation of Tirana, on data basis of National Library of Tirana, in its files and its electronic sites, it concluded that there were over 80 titles translated during the period 1912-1990 (some of them republished more than twice), that in their most part, especially during the communist dictatorship years, their topics were from antiquity. Excluding a few cases of poetry translations like Sapho, Solomos, etc, the other translated literary works belonged to antiquity dramaturgy authors. After the fall of dictatorship, 500 items of translations circulate from 1990-2012 (GCFT.2012:2). Most of them have a literary content, about 240 of them and the others have a historic, linguistic content, art books, magazines etc. (GCFT.2012:3). If we ordered by the translated authors, it would be clearly noted that most of titles belong to the antiquity authors, republished several times and the most interesting is even from third languages, like French, Italian, English, Russian etc.

Lack of Modern Greek poets, actually of Ganas, of references to antiquity or folk images of Greece, collides with
what the reader is used to expect from Greek authors. Actually even though Mihalis Ganas has been translated since a year in Albania, he is still unknown for the Albanian reader.

In contrast with Ganas, poets like Seferis and Kavafis, filtered their reflections on Modern Greece and their individual responses of Modern man preachments, through the familiar prism of ancient Greece and Greek mythology. Even Ritsos, in his late creation period, used widely the topics and characters of ancient Greek myths. Elitis, consciously, avoided any reference to ancient myths, although he used the images from Aegean world like a recurrent leitmotif in his ancient poem. These Aegean images are completely acceptable and known by the reader.

3.5. Translation

One of possible factors can be even the weak and inaccurate translation by translators; it is always easy to blame the poor translations.

But this does not happen to translations of prose, however they are translated they are more successful and famous than poetic translations. We can say that this is not worthy saying for the volume “The Barefoot Rain” by the poet Michalis Ganas, who is presented to Albanian reader with a good translation of Kacalidhas, but is still unknown for Albanian reader.

3.6. Other Factors

But however someone can find other significant factors like distribution, marketing of Greek poetry during the translation process, and also the inherited ineffective policies of Greek state, regarding the promotion of Greek literature in the world.

4. Concluding notes

During the years passed since the appraisement of Trypanis two whole generations of Modern poets have cultivated poetry in Greece, even not in tracks of profile of forerunners generations, which has been distinguished by the "universal and significant assessment", and continue through their ways of expression the unbeatable poetic Greek tradition.

To write a poem it was and it still is the national Greek preoccupation, even though nowadays its privileged position has lost points in preferences of reader public comparing to novel and roman. It is mostly depended on expectancy of international and Albanian reader for the Greek literature but even of marketing policies of commercial Greek publicists or those international ones.

Despite this, the poetry remains, rooted deeply and passionately to the Greek psychic and the poets have reached the success of being recognized by the international reader, represent only some of the tops emerged on the surface of a deep sea of collective Greek poetic consciousness.

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Study of Barriers to use of Computers by School Teachers in Teaching-Learning Process

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Abstract The potential of computers usage towards enhancing teaching-learning process has received considerable attention in recent times. The present study systematically investigates various barriers that impede use of computers by school teachers in teaching-learning process. With a view to provide a nation-wide perspective and curb any regional and cultural bias, the teachers were selected from Kendriya Vidyalayas, run by Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan. The findings suggest that insufficient time for planning, preparing, and presenting computer-based instructions is the most important barrier. Various other barriers listed in order of descending importance based on school teacher responses, were as follows: access (hardware), access (software), support, training and competence. In addition, important barriers related to characteristics of students and attitude of teachers are also prevalent. The findings emphasize that unless suitable measures to overcome the existing barriers are adopted, the transformational potential of computers in education would not be harnessed in the truest sense. It is believed that the present study would empower stakeholders responsible for policy and strategy formulation with vital information and aid implementation of suitable measures for effecting widespread adoption of computer use in teaching-learning process.

Keywords: Barriers; Computer Use

1. Introduction

The past two decades have witnessed a dynamic shift in the way computers have been used as a tool in teaching-learning process. During the 1980s, curriculum practice emphasizing learning about computers gained dominance and specific subjects were developed to teach about computers. However, later, during late 1990s, the pendulum began to swing in favour of learning with, through and from computers across the curriculum and the shift reflected a growing awareness and an increasing consciousness of the interactive nature of computers, as tools for learning and discovery (Hodson, 1990). This great change has brought forth a fresh perspective in the process of teaching and learning.

The potential of computer technology to enhance teaching and learning has been recognized for some time. Generally, it is accepted that technology has the potential to enhance teaching and learning and provides students with a learning experience that other strategies cannot provide (Wellington, 2005). Schools have also recognized that use of computers in teaching-learning process is important as it presents unprecedented challenges that help students to acquire an inquisitive, critical and creative mind to capitalize on the opportunities driven by the explosive growth of information, knowledge and technology (Cuban, 2001). Computer technology has opened wide opportunities for school teachers to integrate computers in teaching-learning process and to improve the achievement of students (Jonassen, 1995). For the past decade there is a major push towards integrating computer technology in teaching-learning process because of the vast promise it offers such as cheap, accessible and instantaneous information, enormous potential for interactivity and media-rich communication, and powerful educational tools it will put at the service of students (Mouza, 2002).

Technology does not hold the potential to be transformative on its own - school teachers are integral elements that are required to play a key role in adoption of technology into curriculum. Hence, it is important for school teachers to be forthcoming to adopt information technology such that being prepared to exploit technology for supporting student learning must become integral skills in every school teacher’s professional repertoire.

In India, various initiatives, mandates, and recommendations such as those put forth in National Curriculum Framework for School Education 2000, Curriculum Guide Syllabus for Information Technology in Schools by NCERT 2001, 11th Five Year Plan National Mission in Education through ICT, and National Policy on ICT in School Education 2009 have definitely served as catalysts to motivate school teachers in this direction. The policy-makers in the country have identified several fundamental tenets of strategy for assessing school teachers’ ability to utilize modern-day...
instructional technology. These principles include: (1) ability to provide relevant instruction that reflects contemporary and future social and economic demands on students, (2) compatibility of certain computer technology with newer, research-based approaches to teaching and learning, (3) student and parent expectations.

Despite several measures in this direction, it has been found that the adoption of use of computers in teaching-learning process has been slow over the years (Krysa, 1998). According to Carlson and Gadio (2003) school teachers’ acceptance of computers (positive attitude) is absolutely essential if technology provided to schools is to be used effectively. The literature suggests that: (1) only a few school teachers routinely use computers for instructional purposes; (2) when computers are used, they are generally used for low-level tasks such as presentations, drill, word processing; and (3) computers are not sufficiently integrated across the curriculum.

Despite several measures in this direction, it has been found that the adoption of use of computers in teaching-learning process has been slow over the years (Krysa, 1998). According to Carlson and Gadio (2003) school teachers’ acceptance of computers (positive attitude) is absolutely essential if technology provided to schools is to be used effectively. The literature suggests that: (1) only a few school teachers routinely use computers for instructional purposes; (2) when computers are used, they are generally used for low-level tasks such as presentations, drill, word processing; and (3) computers are not sufficiently integrated across the curriculum.

Inspite of growing support for computers as tools for teaching and learning, the general unwillingness among school teachers to promote the use of computers across the curriculum points at some inherent barriers towards desired adoption of computer use. Notably, there remains a wide variation among schools and even classrooms in terms of quantity and quality of use of computers by school teachers. It is reasonable to conclude that selection and use of technological tools by school teachers in the teaching-learning process is inhibited by not only systemic and organizational barriers but also personal and individualistic barriers; and systematically recognizing such barriers in computer use by school teachers in teaching-learning process is a first step towards gaining insight into reasons for variation in use of computers by school teachers. It is only through such recognition and realization of existing barriers causing reluctance of school teachers towards incorporating use of computers to a desired extent in teaching learning process that, in a next logical progression, suitable measures could be designed and developed towards promoting use of computers by school teachers.

The study is intended to identify various existing barriers in the aforementioned context. The study will help to demystify seeming inconsistency and variation with regard to use of computers. What causes one school teacher to embrace the use of computers while another school teacher remains reluctant to use computers for any purpose whatsoever in teaching-learning process? Will school teachers tend to use computer technology in ways that fundamentally transform their instructional processes or will they be more likely to use it to facilitate and reinforce their current practices? What kind of individual characteristics of school teachers most significantly influence the way the computers are actually used in teaching-learning process?

The identification of various barriers will certainly pave the way for systematically planning reduction and complete elimination, wherever possible, of these barriers. Accordingly, it is believed that the study would empower the policy and decision makers with useful information to aid strategy formulation to implement widespread adoption of computer use in teaching-learning process.

2. Review

Over the past several decades technology has been exploited in various ways to achieve a variety of educational goals. In the past, various researchers employed several research methods in an attempt to understand the distinct ways in which computers can help educators in improving the teaching and learning process (Novak and Knowles, 1991; Becker, 1994; Ely, 1995; Stratford, 1997; Drury, 1995; Blankenship, 1998; Sinko and Lehtinen, 1999; Smeets, Mooij, Bamps, Bartolome, Lowyck, Redmond, and Steffens, 1999; Wallace, 2001; Dawson, 2008).

Researchers Harris (2000); Kellenberger and Hendricks (2000); and Martin and Ofori-Attah (2005) identified that school teachers could use computers for different purposes like, for teaching purposes, administration purposes, and personal purposes. The literature on computers and constructivist reforms also described a variety of activities that were permitted with the use of computers that were not feasible otherwise (Sheingold and Hadley, 1993; Shute and Psotka, 1996; Glennan and Melmed, 1996). Regarding the efficacy of the use of computers in these ways, there was a general concurrence that when combined with traditional instruction, the use of computers could increase student learning and produce higher academic achievement in a variety of subject areas than does traditional instruction alone (Means and Olson, 1995; Sivin-Kachala, Bialo and Langford, 1997; Bracewell, Breuleux, Laferriere, Benoit, and Abdous, 1998).

It was observed that mere introduction of computers and related technology in the schools could not result in desired adoption of computer use by school teachers, suggesting that there were several systemic and individualistic barriers that seemed to inhibit adoption to a desired extent. As a result, fostering technology usage among individual school teachers remained a critical challenge for school administrators, technology advocates and policy makers.

Hadley and Sheingold (1993) revealed (a) lack of time, (b) scheduling computer time, (c) too few computers, (d) not enough time in school schedule for computer-based instruction, and (e) inadequate financial support for computers as some of the significant obstacles towards use of computers. In a similar study, Ely (1993) identified (a) dissatisfaction with
the status quo, (b) insufficient knowledge and skill, (c) lack of resources, (d) available time, (e) commitment from supervisors, (f) lack of inspiration from leadership contingents, and (g) lack of rewards/incentives, as major barriers. 

Fisher (1996) in his book entitled “Education and technology: Reflections on computing in classrooms” primarily identified convenient access to hardware and software as the major barriers for the school teachers for not using new media instruction. In a study conducted in Western Sydney, Morton (1996) concluded that dependence on school teachers’ self-initiative for acquisition of computer skills, high levels of anxiety in using computers, lack of computer resources, focus on ‘learning about the computer’ instead of ‘learning through computers’, were the predominant barriers.

Blankenship (1998) investigated major barriers to computer use experienced by school teachers in Carroll County (Virginia) Public Schools. His study concluded that availability of computers, quality of available software, training, lack of sufficient time for planning and preparation, were the major barriers listed in order of frequency of responses.

Fairbrother and Kurina (2000) studied the factors for constraints on school teachers’ use of ICT in England. Some notable obstacles reported by the school teachers included: school teacher’s lack of confidence, lack of supportive organizational culture within the school, limited access to resources and lack of adequate technical support. Investigators confected that ‘innovation and adaptation are costly in terms of time energy’. They reasoned, when ‘initiative-overload’ made competing demands, lack of time was the most significant constraint as reported by 86-88 percent school teachers.

In a worldwide survey conducted by Pelgrum (2001), of nationally representative samples of schools from 26 countries including India, 38 obstacles for implementing computers in the classroom were identified. These obstacles were both material and non-material conditions. The top five obstacles in his list were insufficient number of computers, school teachers’ lack of knowledge/skills, difficulty in integrating with instruction, scheduling computer time, and insufficient peripherals. Pelgrum’s study revealed that the failure to equip schools with sufficient number of computers and to update school teachers with new knowledge and skills in computer use were the major reasons for the unsuccessful implementation of computers in schools.

In a report on the barriers that existed in schools that prevented school teachers from making full use of ICT in teaching, Jones (2004) summarised some of the key findings: a very significant determinant of school teachers’ levels of engagement in ICT was their level of confidence in using the technology; levels of access to ICT and training styles were also significant in determining levels of use of ICT by school teachers; school teachers were sometimes unable to make full use of technology because they lacked the time needed to fully prepare and research materials for lessons; technical faults with ICT equipment were likely to lead to lower levels of ICT use by school teachers; resistance to change was a factor which prevented the full integration of ICT in the classroom; school teachers who did not realize the advantages of using technology in their teaching were less likely to make use of ICT; there were close relationships between many of the identified barriers to ICT use; any factors influencing one barrier were also likely to influence several other barriers.

Aduwa-Ogiegbaen and Iyamu (2005) reported the effort of ICT usage and obstacles to use ICT in secondary schools in Nigeria. They claimed the obstacles for ICT use in secondary schools as cost, weak infrastructure, lack of skills, lack of relevant software, and limited access to the Internet. The findings of another study by Mohd Yunus (2007) regarding the main challenges to ICT integration perceived by the school teachers who taught in Malaysian technical schools revealed that ICT integration in teaching learning was dependent upon adequate access, adequate computer resources, school teacher development opportunities, and onsite support – all of which require funding, thought, planning and support.

As a conclusion of the review of research in this field and the published literature thereof, it is evident that various researchers have extensively made an attempt to study various barriers influencing computer-based instruction in the developed countries and to some extent in developing countries. As geographic and demographic factors can markedly influence various systemic and individualistic characteristics, and there exists a stark difference between the developed and the developing countries in terms of various socio-economic factors, a need was felt for conducting a systematic and comprehensive investigation of various barriers that are generally applicable in the context of developing countries and more particularly, in India.

3. Study

The present study systematically investigates various barriers inhibiting the use of computers in teaching-learning process in an Indian context. Due to similarity in socio-economic environment, it is believed that the barriers thus identified should be applicable to other developing countries to a large extent.

While the state of educational infrastructure and several other pertinent factors vary drastically across various schools in private, public and state government school systems in different regions of the country, Kendriya Vidyalayas, owing to inherent design, mission, and objectives, maintain considerable uniformity in various establishments across the
country. Kendriya Vidyalayas administer common curriculum, common text books, uniform academic calendar, uniform examination and performance assessment system, and uniform infrastructural facilities (as much as practically possible) across various schools. Hence, from the perspective of the present study, Kendriya Vidyalayas provided as ideal population. The implications of the study could be generalized to design recommendations for formulating policies and strategies at a national and international level.

In the present study, the term “use of computers” (or “computer use”) is intended to refer to various ways in which school teachers use computers for instructing their students. Thus, broadly speaking, any application of computers for instruction is intended to be referred to through the term “use of computers” (or “computer use”), as used in this study, this term shall be meant to include use of computers in both instruction and management of the teaching-learning process. The term “barrier”, as used in the present study, is intended to refer to any teacher-perceived impediment – systemic or individualistic – that may inhibit use of computers by school teachers in the teaching-learning process.

4. Method

Keeping in view the nature and wide perspective of the present study, it was decided to conduct the study in Kendriya Vidyalayas, run by Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan, a premier organization in India administering 981 schools not only in India but also in foreign countries such as Moscow, Kathmandu and Tehran.

Under the guidance of subject experts, a questionnaire including an open-ended question was framed to obtain a list of factors that school teachers perceive as barriers to using computers in teaching-learning process.

A request letter was submitted to the Assistant Commissioner, with a covering letter and the list of intended schools (the 20 schools selected from a list of Kendriya Vidyalayas, Delhi Region, based on random sampling) for data collection. Upon obtaining permission therefrom, the Principals of 20 schools were contacted to administer the questionnaire in their schools. After seeking permission from the Principals, the school teachers teaching various grades and various subjects (excluding computer teachers) were randomly selected. The questionnaire was provided to each selected school teacher in their free periods. The school teachers were given three days to fill-in the questionnaire and the filled-in questionnaires were collected from the school teachers on the agreed dates.

The open-ended question asked school teachers to list barriers to computer use in the classroom. The school teachers listed various factors that they considered as being barriers to computer use in the classroom. The responses were categorized according to major themes and subthemes. The frequency of each response was tallied and recorded in the matrix. The Matrix of Barriers to Computer Use by School Teachers (Table 1 in the following section) represents the data, thus collected.

5. Findings

The survey question was an open ended that asked the school teachers to list the things that they considered barriers to computer use in teaching-learning process. Table 1 is a list of responses by school teachers’ perceptions regarding barriers to computer use. The frequency of each category of school teachers’ responses was tallied; percentages were calculated and recorded in the matrix of barriers to computer use tabulated in the table.

Table 1: Matrix of barriers to computer use as perceived by school teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sub-Category of Responses</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Insufficient time to practice</td>
<td>87.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insufficient time to plan computer based lessons</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insufficient time for preparation of instructional material on computers</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insufficient classroom time for using computers</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time consumed to travel from one classroom to other classroom</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insufficient time for individualized instruction for students</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access (Hardware)</td>
<td>Laptops not provided to each school teacher</td>
<td>75.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occupancy of computer lab/resource room</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unavailability of the required facilities in classrooms</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High student computer ratio</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The respondents were asked to list the barriers to use of computers by school teachers in teaching-learning process. Among all, time was perceived to be the strongest barrier. Other barriers, listed in order of descending importance based on school teacher responses, were as follows: access (hardware), access (software), support, training and competence. Various aspects related to characteristics of students and attitudes of teachers were also considered to be the barriers to computer use by a few respondents.

As perceived by school teachers, insufficient time to practice (87.2%) was the most frequent barrier. Insufficient time to plan (33.3%), prepare (12.7%), and present (8.5%) computer based lessons were also listed as barriers by quite a
number of school teachers. Some school teachers (8.2%) also found the time consumed to travel from one classroom to another as a hindrance to use computers in classrooms. A few school teachers (0.3%) mentioned insufficient time for individualized instruction as a barrier.

The next most commonly perceived barrier was access to hardware resources especially access to personal laptops (75.3%). Occupancy of lab/resource room (45.7%) and unavailability of computer related facilities in classrooms (37.5%) was also seen as a barrier to computer use, as perceived by school teachers. Reasonable number of school teachers cited high student-computer ratio (23.1%), insufficient number of peripherals (17.2%) and lack of continuous access to internet (15.6%) as problems related to computer use. Very few school teachers mentioned about less computers with internet connectivity in the library (4.7%) and staffroom (4.2%), lack of networking of computers (3.2%), cumbersome equipment (2.9%), poor quality computers (2.0%) as obstacles to computer use.

The next item in the table indicates access to software resources as another significant barrier with unavailability of enough software for instructional purposes being the strongest barrier in this category, as it was perceived by 65.3% school teachers. Even for the software that were available, it can be inferred from the table that these were difficult to use (56.7%), inadaptable (18%) and unaccompanied with proper manuals and support materials (16.3%). Some school teachers (3%) also looked forward to have availability of software in their language of instruction and availability of paid educational websites.

Lack of support was also stated as a barrier by a sizable percentage of school teachers. They found heavy workload (43%), pressure to cover syllabus (40.2%), lack of conditions for computer integration (36.7%), and insufficient maintenance of equipments (32.3%) as barriers to computer use. Some school teachers (10%) complained that there was a lack of technical assistance and if at all assistants were available, they were not properly trained (5%). School teachers (10%) also expected a computer coordinator, with sufficient knowledge, to be present in the school.

Another obstacle to computer use as reported by the school teachers was training, which included insufficient training (32.4%), lack of relevant training (20.6%) and timing of training (7.8%).

School teachers (22.7%) found themselves less competent to be able to adapt software to curricular needs. They also found themselves lacking in computer knowledge for instructional purposes (13.3%), typing skills (10%) and English language (3%).

Certain limitations with students were also recognized as barriers to computer use by some of the school teachers. These limitations included, lack of computer at home (18.3%), lack of sufficient training to use computers across the curriculum (12.3%), lack of facilities like internet and peripherals at home (10.5%), parents’ lack of knowledge or inability to access computers (10.3%), use of computers to play games rather than study purposes (10%), students disillusioned with beauty of computers rather than skilled in using its brain (artificial intelligence) (6.1%) and some students too immature to use computers for learning (2%).

A few school teachers lacked positive attitude towards use of computer, which was evident from some facts that were highlighted by them. These facts included use of computers might lead to non-completion of syllabus (15.7%), breakage/loss/damages of computer hardware and software (12.3%), lack of interest/willingness/comfort in teaching (3%), wastage of time in arrangement (3%) and threats (lead to dehumanization and school teachers might have to take a back seat in future) (2.2%). 1% school teachers expressed a feeling of inadequacy in their abilities to use computers effectively in teaching-learning process.

6. Discussion

The potential of computers to support and enhance teaching and learning has received considerable attention in recent times. The recent advancement in information technology innovations and computer usage is rapidly transforming work culture and teachers cannot escape the fact that today’s teaching must provide technology-supported learning. However, the widespread acceptance of computer technology in teaching-learning process is a complex phenomenon affected by a multitude of factors. A large part of the problem stems not from lack of knowledge or expertise with use of computers but instead from several other barriers as identified through this study. Given the ever-increasing growth of computer use in education, it is essential for researchers to investigate the barriers that hamper different types of use of computers by school teachers in teaching-learning process. The study investigated the barriers to computer use in teaching-learning process as perceived by Kendriya Vidyalaya teachers in India. Findings from the study suggest that insufficient time allocation emerged as one of the biggest barriers in the present study. A majority of teachers complained that insufficient time to plan, prepare, and present computer based lessons was the strongest barrier. The barrier related to sufficient time allocation has been emphasized in the literature related to developed countries (Hadley and Sheingold, 1993; Ely, 1993; Pelgrum, 2001), and the situation in India is no exception. However, in the Indian context, the problem of insufficient time
is particularly aggravated due to much higher number of classroom teaching hours in a week. The significant difference between classroom teaching hours may be readily attributable to much extended syllabus prescribed in each grade compared to the developed countries. Not surprisingly, a large number of school teachers pointed to heavy workload in terms of not only the pressure to cover huge syllabus but also evaluate student performance within limited time as major barriers.

The second most prominent barrier identified in the present study was access in terms of hardware access as well as software access. The access-related barriers have been widely reported in literature (Newhouse, 1997; Middleton, Flores and Knaupp, 1997; Blankenship, 1998; Ginsberg and McCormack, 1998). The present study supports and extends such knowledge in the existing literature wherein this factor was perceived by teachers as being a serious barrier that had a negative effect on their using computers in their classrooms. The issues associated with access were: availability of requisite computer resources, placement of computer resources, and provision for both teachers’ and students’ use of computers. Middleton, Flores and Knaupp (1997) had identified only hardware factors as the key barriers. However, the present study clearly indicates that existing barriers relate not only to inadequate access to hardware but also to unsatisfactory availability of required software. Teachers’ concerns about the incompatibility of computers with existing curricula indicate that educational change cannot simply be attained by placing computers in schools. Thus, merely setting up a computer lab and provisioning a limited number of computers deployed with some educational software applications is never going to ensure sufficient access to school teachers and students to satisfactorily integrate computers in teaching-learning process.

Indeed, research has demonstrated that support provided by principals and other administrators consistently predicted successful integration of computers into the instructional process (Becker, 1994; Dupagne & Krendl, 1992; Mahmood and Hirt, 1992; Office of Technology Assessment, 1995; Field Research Corporation (1995) researchers). The present study also pointed out serious concerns related to availability of sufficient support provided to the school teachers. Again, however, this support comes in many forms. It might be a technical person available on demand, a fellow teacher with some encouraging words, or a principal who believes in technology and commits to implementation (money, time, conferences, specific training). Teachers’ readiness to use technology in classroom will increase with strong support systems that include communities, parents, business leaders, and administrators. In general, it can be concluded that support to teachers would lead to increased motivation among teachers to integrate computers into the teaching-learning process.

It is generally acknowledged that majority of teachers remained unsatisfied with the gap between potential of computer use and quality of in-service training in the use of computers in general. The findings of various researches have highlighted the need for adequate and careful training of teachers on the gadgets which are supposed to be used in the classroom setting by all the teachers (OTA, 1995; Specht, Wood and Willoughby, 1999; Tarleton, 2001). Some other researchers (Robertson, 1996; Seidman, 1996; Mintz, 1997) also pointed to professional development and training of teachers as a solution to successful computer implementation in education field, that would provide them with materials, strategies and new understanding to meet the learning goals. Stasz, Shavelson, and Stasz (1986) in Washington, DC also pointed out that ‘lack of adequately trained teachers’ presents a major obstacle to effective instructional use of computers. The present study substantiates such previous findings. Insufficient and irrelevant training is one factor that majority of respondents felt as a barrier to computer use in the present study. Interestingly, in their responses, several school teachers hinted at possible remediation steps for attending professional development and training programs to acquire technology skills and develop new teaching strategies for integrating technology in teaching-learning process. However, as noted in preceding discussion, training alone would not be sufficient, it is important to ensure that school teachers get adequate time to practice the newly-acquired skills, explore and experiment with various hardware-software resources, and thus, gain proficiency in technology use.

Researchers have indicated that although teachers may have positive attitudes toward technology (Duane & Kernel, 1992; Office of Technology Assessment, 1995), they may still not consider themselves qualified to teach with it or comfortable using it. In previous literature researchers reported that competency to use different technological tools was a pre-requisite for increasing technological use by teachers. (Wells and Anderson, 1995; Winnans and Brown, 1992; Fisher, 1996). The study by Russell, Finger and Russell (2000) revealed that teachers saw themselves as competent with basic computer skills but were less confident with activities requiring advanced use of computers. Findings from the current study substantiated this globally felt barrier. The respondents of the present study pointed lack of competence in suitably adapting software to curricular needs and also, lack of basic knowledge and skills about using computers as the predominant barriers.

Interestingly, it appears that previous studies in this field largely neglected an important factor in the teaching-learning process, namely the students. The present study revealed several barriers associated with characteristics of
students. Several teachers pointed that many students did not have access to computers at home and also, many of them did not receive proper training to use computers across the curriculum. Understandably, many students are generally not mature to use computers, and parents should play an integral role by providing necessary guidance at home. In the Indian context, several parents are themselves not sufficiently equipped with necessary skills to do so, which definitely is an impediment for required guidance to students at home. An unfortunate outcome of this situation is that a surprisingly high percentage of those students that have computers at home end-up using computers to play games rather than for educational purposes.

Findings from this study also suggest that attitude of teachers is also a significant barrier. The respondents seemed to have imbibed the rationale for integrating computer use in teaching-learning process in principle; however, it was found that there were several inhibitions that directly point towards their outlook towards such increased computer use. The school authorities must take steps to alleviate such inhibitions and create a more conducive environment such that school teachers develop a positive attitude towards use of technology.

### 7. Conclusion

In recent years, there had been a strong push to get educational technology into the hands of school teachers and students in India. With increased emphasis on integration of computer technology in education, a great majority of school teachers are motivated to adopt computer-based instruction methodologies in at least some form. Links have been made between computer use and constructivist, collaborative, and inquiry-based learning and also pedagogical change (Scrimshaw, 2004). Some researchers suggest that technology can overhaul education, serving as a panacea, or as an agent of change (e.g., there is a special interest group within the American Research in Education Association called Technology as an Agent of Change in Teaching and Learning). However, there are definitely some impediments that need to be addressed before the power of computers is exploited to its fullest potential to transform teaching-learning process in the most effective manner. It was important to identify these barriers, as perceived by school teachers, towards integration of computers in education so that a systematic effort to remove the barriers may be undertaken. Although the study was conducted in the Kendriya Vidyalayas of National Capital Territory of Delhi, the implications are applicable to various other government, public and private school systems existent in India and abroad.

One of the main barriers to use computers by school teachers in teaching-learning process perceived by teachers in this study is insufficient time for planning, preparing, and presenting computer-based instructions. It follows that the integration of computer-based instruction in teaching-learning process will not reach desired levels unless the school teachers are provided with ample time to practice, explore, conceptualize, and collaborate. Thus, there should be an earnest attempt to ensure sufficient allocation of time towards implementation of computer use. This may be attained by reducing the teaching load for the teachers. It is also desirable to introduce computer-based student performance assessment and examination management system, which will significantly ease workload on teachers owing to manual handling of such procedures.

Various other barriers listed in order of descending importance based on school teacher responses, were as follows: access (hardware), access (software), support, training and competence. Such conclusion points to the invariable importance of existence of computer resources for the success of initiatives regarding implementation of use of computers in teaching-learning process across the world. The present study indicates that school administrators and policy makers in India adopted a "one size fits all" approach, which is understandably, not an efficient way to address technology needs for use of computers by school teachers. It is highly recommended to focus on increasing availability of more syllabus-specific software for school teachers; formulating long-term funding strategies to ensure sufficient provision and maintenance of both hardware and software; cultivating tech-savvy habits amongst school teachers; and providing incentives to school teachers.

Teachers’ preparation necessitates not only merely providing additional training opportunities, but also aiding them in exploration and experimentation with computers before being able to use it in teaching learning process. Therefore, it is evident that implementation of an effective training program to codify standards for not only defining a requisite level of technology competence but also for assessing level of technology skills of individual school teachers is a critical measure that needs to be adopted by the policy makers and administrators. Towards this endeavor, it may be worthwhile to implement an assessment mechanism for gauging school teacher’s computer knowledge and skills on a regular basis. It follows that, steps such as mandatory implementation of computer-based content delivery; computerized pre- and non-instructional activities and transactions; and computerized students’ examination management system will also be beneficial.

In addition, important barriers related to characteristics of students are also prevalent. It is recommended that
policy makers and school authorities ought to take measures to provide training to students, which will aid students to integrate computers across curriculum. In addition, training to parents must be provided so that they can appreciate and encourage the use of computers by their children for educational purposes. Steps can also be taken to provide laptops to students at reasonable prices or discounted loans.

Other barriers reported in this study are teachers’ inhibitions which may have played important role in teachers’ successful integration of computers in teaching-learning process. Both policy makers and school authorities share this responsibility allay fears and qualms that school teachers have with regard to use of technology such as non-completion of syllabus, breakage/loss/damages of computer hardware and software, lack of interest/willingness/comfort in teaching, and wastage of time in arrangement of computer-based instruction.

If educationists, decision-makers, policy-makers want the successful implementation of use of computers in teaching-learning process, they have to find ways to overcome the barriers perceived by the teachers.

References


Appendix

A study instrument was prepared to gather information regarding teacher-perceived barriers in teaching-learning process.

General instructions: The aim of the research is to study barriers to use of computers by school teachers in teaching-learning process. Toward this end, a survey questionnaire has been prepared. You are requested to spare your valuable time to list out various impediments that you experience in your routine work as school teachers in using computers in teaching-learning process. Please use additional writing sheets, if required.

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name of the School: __________________________
Name: ____________________________________________
E-mail: ____________________________
E-mail: ____________________________
Teaching Experience (in years): ____________
Age (in years): _______________________
Teaching Grade ( PRT/TGT/PGT ): _________
Gender: ____________________________
Curriculum : ___________________________
(Science/Social Sc./Math/Language /Commerce)
Class: ______________________________
(considered for answering to questionnaire)

List things that you consider to be barriers to computer use in teaching-learning process:

1. ____________________________________________
Thank you for your participation in this survey!
Community – School Relations and Principals Administrative Effectiveness of Secondary Schools In Kwara State

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Abstract The study investigated the relationship between community-school relations and principals administrative effectiveness of secondary schools in Kwara State. A correlation survey method was adopted for the study. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select 2000 respondents comprising of principals, vice principals, PTA executives, prefects and representative of religions bodies. Split – half reliability method was used which gave reliability indices of .65 and .67 respectively. Pearson product moment correlation statistics was used to test all the four null hypotheses generated for the study at 0.05 significance level. The findings however revealed that high significant relationship exist between community school relations and principals administrative effectiveness, school plant provision and maintenance and instructional development of secondary school. It was however recommended that school-based management committee should be set up to foster the community school. Relations efforts in the interest of enhancing schools effectiveness in Kwara State.

Keywords: community-school, administrative effectiveness, school management, secondary school

1. Introduction

Education is a powerful dynamic and veritable instrument for achieving economic development and social transformation of every society. Owan, ëNoh (1992) regarded education as a social responsibility that every citizen should enjoy as a member of a country and that every one has a right to education. Federal Republic of Nigeria (2004) also accepted education as an instrument that brings about even and orderly development for a country.

Fafunwa (1998) opined that socio-economic development of any nation hungers on its level of educational development. Fafunwa stressed further that any country that fails to educate her citizens is trying with the level of her development, hence education is regarded as an investment which must yield high dividend. Ogundele (2008) noted that Nigeria as a country is faced with a lot of crises in her educational industry. These crises had been attributed to inadequate funding poor and irregular salaries students population explosion poor teachers job satisfaction, poor conducive learning environment inadequate supply of educational facilities and needed equipment for effective teaching learning process. The result of this brings about low quality and fallen standard of education in our secondary school system. The flimsy excuse of the government that of government alone can not take up total responsibilities of education, that it has to be paid for by all and sundry. Federal republic of Nigeria (2004) also stated that education can not be free at all level. It should be noted however that the need for effective teaching-learning process and principals administrative effectiveness called for the attention of community-school interactions. The interaction between the communities and schools in the education of the citizens. Community-school relations however become important aspect of school
administration. It deals with deliberate and sustainable efforts to establish and maintain mutual understanding between the school and community. The exchange of this relationship is to establish a good report between the school and country in order to achieve educational goals.

Ojedele (2000) also described community school relations as ways by which the school relates with the immediate and large communities where the schools are located. Oyedele however noted that through the relationships that exist between the schools and community, the school heads seek to learn about the progress development, problems, purposes, programs and the needs of the schools where the community could be involved and assisted Agbaje (1996) also reported that school community relations helps in bridging the gap between the towns and gowns. Suleiman (2001) also stated the importance of having community-school relations so as to enhance effective goals achievement of the schools. According to Suleiman, the school are established for the purpose of the immediate community. On the other hand the community needs to monitor and supervise the schools to see to their needs problems and progress towards the education of their children. Bello (2011) also believed that open relationship between the school and community could bring about high opportunities that will allow community resources to be optimally utilized for the school improvement. The rationale for this study is that if there is a mutual understanding between the school and community in secondary schools of Kwara State what impacts will it have on the variables of administrative effectiveness of principals such as infrastructural facilities, school discipline, teachers job performance students academic performance and school discipline of secondary school, especially in Kwara State.

According to Yusuf (2000) opined that community school relations are strong instrumentality for effective school administration. The authors however noted that school-community relation assist in the policy formulation.

2. Statement of the problem

In recent time, changes and innovation in educational system have called for adequate funds, equipment, facilities and human resource. Due to the fact that education is a joint responsibility of all and sundry. This study however investigated the strategies for integrating role community people to the school programmes. Role of the school-community relations on principals administrative effectiveness variables such as school discipline, job performance student academic. Performance and school plant provisions and maintenance as it is applicable to secondary schools in Kwara State.

3. Purpose of the study

This study aimed at investigating the influence of school-school relations intervention on the principals’ administrative effectiveness of secondary schools in Kwara State. Specifically, the study seeks to

- Investigate the availability of school-community relationships, among secondary schools in Kwara State.
- Find out the role played by the school-community relations on the variables of principals administrative effectiveness.
- Examine strategies for integrating community people into school programme.

4. Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were generated to guide the study.

- HO1: There is no significant relationship between community-school relations and principals administrative effectiveness.
- HO2: There is no significant relationship between community-school relations and school plants provision and maintenance.
- HO3: There is no significant relationship between community-school relations and school, personnel services of secondary schools in Kwara State.
- HO4: There is no significant relationship between school-community relations and instructional activities of secondary schools in Kwara State.

5. Research method

The design for this study was the descriptive survey or a correlation type. Attempts was made to investigate the relationship between school community relations and the principals’ administrative effectiveness of secondary schools in Kwara State. The independent variable is school-community relation and principals’ administrative effectiveness in the dependent variable. Correlational survey method is appropriate for this study because the study examined the
effectiveness of the availability of school-community relations as it influences the principals’ administrative effectiveness of secondary schools in Kwara State. The study population comprised of the principals, vice principals chairman and secretaries active members of PTA, and subject teachers. Stratified random sampling technique was adopted to select 15 secondary school from each of the three senatorial districts making 45 secondary schools in all. A total of 2000 respondent were used for the study. Community-school relations questionnaire (CSRQ) and principals administrative effectiveness questionnaire (PAEQ) were used to collect relevant data.

The content validity of the instrument was assured through comments and criticisms from experts in school administration. Test-retest reliability method was used to determine the reliability index of the instrument that gave $r^{*} .65$ and .67 indicating that a high level of reliability of the instruments.

The data obtained were analyzed using person product moment correlation statistics and tested at .05 significance level. Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) computer programme was used to analyse the data collected.

Result

All the null hypotheses were tested at .05 significance level. The result of the study are presented below.

HO1: There is no significant relationship between community-school relations and principals administrative effectiveness of secondary schools in Kwara State.

Table 1: Community-school relations and principal administrative effectiveness of secondary schools in Kwara State.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Calculated r-value</th>
<th>Critical r-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>78.52</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td></td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAE</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>53.22</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table show that the calculated $r$-value of .63 is greater than the critical $r$-value of .198 at .05 significance level and at 1989 degree of freedom. Thus, the null hypotheses which stated that there is no significant relationship between community-school relations and principals administrative effectiveness of secondary schools in Kwara State is how ever rejected. This implies that there is high significant relationship between community-school relations and principals administrative effectiveness of secondary schools. The result is in line with Agbaje (1990) which opined that active. Community participations enhance effective school administration, that involvement of parents in decision making process of the schools brings about school discipline, development of school facilities, teachers job performance and student academic performance.

HO2: There is no significant relationship between community-school relations and school plants provisions and maintenance of secondary schools in Kwara State.

Table 2: Community-school relations and school plants provisions and maintenance of secondary schools in Kwara State.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Calculated r-value</th>
<th>Critical r-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>78.52</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td></td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPPM</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>63.22</td>
<td>19.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that the calculated $r$-value of 153 is greater than the critical $r$-value of .198 at the degree of freedom of 1999 and tested at .05 significance level. Hence the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between community-school relations and school plants provisions and maintenance is rejected. It shows that high positive significant relationship exist between community-schools relations and school plants provisions and maintenance. The results is in line with the findings of Suleiman (2001) which stated that the schools are established for
the benefits of the communities that is to educate the community children to be responsible for the society. Suleiman also noted that the community also has role play for the benefit of the schools to make it grow.

Adeboyeje (1994) stressed further that efficient school plant maintenance and provision require maximum cooperation and hard work from a combined team of the ministry of education official, the school heads, the teacher the pupils, other school personnel and community. It indicates that efficient management of school facilities have influencer in the relationship between the community and the schools and that it is useful as cultural, civil recreational and youth centres. Adeboyeje revealed that community members have significant impacts on the provision and maintenance of school facilities through the parent-teachers association and other community base organizations.

**HO3:** There is no significant relationship between community-school relations and school personnel services of secondary schools in Kwara State.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Calculated r-value</th>
<th>Critical r-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>78.52</td>
<td>8.73</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>Rejected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPS</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>58.31</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 reveals that the calculated r-value of .55 is greater than the critical r-value of .198 at the degree of freedom of 1999 and tested at .05 significance level. Hence the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between community-school relations and school personnel services is however rejected. The result shows that high positive significant relationship exist between community-school relations and school personnel services. The result is in line with the opinion of Yusuf (2000) which stated that, for effectiveness of any school administrative settings there is the need for effective personnel services. Udensi however identified the needed school personnel services in the schools such as welfare, orientation, promotion, training and retraining, library services, counseling service, information and communication services and health services. Olokooba (1999) however opined that the community supplies human resources both academic, non-academic staffs and students necessary for the implementation of school programmes. Opadokun (2002) observed that the school personnel services are sponsored by both the communities where the schools are sited e.g. they provide classrooms buildings to complement government efforts. The adequate availability of personnel services in the schools and effective teachers learning process.

**HO4:** There is no significant relationship between community – school relations and instructional activites of secondary schools in Kwara State.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Calculated r-value</th>
<th>Critical r-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>78.54</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>Rejected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPPM</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>36.22</td>
<td>8.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that the calculated r-value of .64 is greater than the critical r-value of .195 at the degree of freedom of 1999 and tested at .05 significance level. Hence the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between community – school relations and instructional activities of secondary schools in Kwara State is however rejected it however indicates that high significant relationship exist between community – school relations and instructional activities of secondary schools in Kwara State. The result is supported by fasas: (2000) who observed that schools is established to satisfy the reads and aspiration of the community. Fasasi went further to state that the community members have to work together with the schools to monitor the instructional activities of the schools, to see that effective teaching –learning process take place. Community – school relations therefore becomes an avenue where
the school communicate their needs to the community, the community will therefore interact together in a bid to assist the school in their instructional activities.

6. Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, it could be concluded that the involvement of the community in the administration of secondary schools is very important. That community-school relations encourage positive contributions of school plants provision and maintenance, provision of schools personnel services and sponsoring programmes of activities that and effective instructional activities especially in Kwara State tertiary institutions.

7. Recommendations

In the high of the findings and the conclusion of the study the following recommendations are offered for implementations.

- Prompt establishment of school – Based Management Committee for Secondary Schools.
  
  School based management committee should be formed for the secondary schools in Kwara State. The board will serve as the liason officers and advisory board for the schools in the area of school discipline staff job performance, student curricular activities and all forms of programmes that will aid effectiveness of principal administration.

- Communities and schools should be partner with each other: - The stakeholders shoul ensure effective use of community-school relations to manage the activities of and to ensure adequate provision and maintenance of secondary school plants in Kwara State.

- The school administrators should adopt diplomatic and effective human relation strategies to encourage effective and positive participation of the community in the provision of school personnel services in the interest of enhancing principal administriveness in secondary schools.

- Organization of community – based activities and programmes like compulsory adult literacy programs, sport competitions, computer training opportunities, building interconnectivity centres for the youths. This will provide confidence in the school and they will be appreciated to be part of the school development.

- Accessibility of the school facility to the community members.

The available school facilities should be made accessible to the community members and allow them to use them for the social engagement wedding, meetings, religious activities and other purposes. The closer the country members to the school the better relations will exist for the principals administrative effectiveness in secondary schools of Kwara State.

References


The Important Role of Families in Present Day Vietnamese Society

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Abstract: After failing to reach economic output targets under the centrally-planned economy in the 1980s the country faced serious financial, economic and social problems. In response to this acute state failure, in 1986 (at the 6th Party Congress) the Vietnamese political leadership formally abandoned the centrally-planned economy and began introducing market-oriented policies (Quang & Kammeier, 2002). Since then, Vietnam is an emerging market, and has been one of the fastest growing countries in the world - becoming a new Asian tiger. Annual real gross domestic product (GDP) growth averaged 6.8 percent in the period 1986-2006, with relatively little volatility and moderate inflation. In nominal terms, the economy was 10 times its late-1980s size in 2006, at $61 billion, making Vietnam the 58th largest economy in the world in 2006, up from 76th in 1986. According to the Deutsche Bank research growth forecast model, Vietnam will remain in the same growth league as China and India until 2020. In this context of market economy with the expansion of cooperation and cultural exchange, Vietnamese families are changing and adjusting to the new conditions. Are Vietnamese families now important in society? The article will answer this question.

Keywords: cultural exchange, society, vietnamese families

1. Introduction

After failing to reach economic output targets under the centrally-planned economy in the 1980s the country faced serious financial, economic and social problems. In response to this acute state failure, in 1986 (at the 6th Party Congress) the Vietnamese political leadership formally abandoned the centrally-planned economy and began introducing market-oriented policies (Quang & Kammeier, 2002). Since then, Vietnam is an emerging market, and has been one of the fastest growing countries in the world - becoming a new Asian tiger. Annual real gross domestic product (GDP) growth averaged 6.8 percent in the period 1986-2006, with relatively little volatility and moderate inflation. In nominal terms, the economy was 10 times its late-1980s size in 2006, at $61 billion, making Vietnam the 58th largest economy in the world in 2006, up from 76th in 1986. According to the Deutsche Bank research growth forecast model, Vietnam will remain in the same growth league as China and India until 2020. In this context of market economy with the expansion of cooperation and cultural exchange, Vietnamese families are changing and adjusting to the new conditions. Are Vietnamese families now important in society? The article will answer this question.

2. Literature review

Families are not an unfamiliar and new research topic all over the world. As evidence, there are a lot of publications and working papers regarding to this issue. It is possible to list some examinations and investigations relating to aspects of families such as: origin of family (Engels, 1884), definition of family (Goode, 1982; Murdock, 1949), theory in studying family (Bich, 2003; Parsons, 1955), the family in the context of each country in the world (Engstler, 1999; Malinowski, 1913), functions of family (Robersons, 1991), the changes of family in the world (Goode, 1963; Thi, 2002), the future of family (Winch, 1979; Howe, 1972).

Also, family in general and sociology of family in particular become a very common research topic in Vietnam. Many organizations focused studying on families, many workshops and trainings on families have been held. Family studies have also been included as a subject in training programs of sociology faculties in some universities. Research topics focus on the following basic directions: Vietnamese traditional families (Dong, 1991; Huou, 1991), families changes in industrialization perspective (Bich, 1997; Binh, 2011), family and family education (Chuong, 2000), division of labor in the family (Teerawitchitchainan, Knodel, Loi, Huy, 2008; Minh, 2008), divorce (Tam, 2002; Phuong, 1986).

Based on the inheritance of previous documents in combination with the data collected; this article has attempted to fill the gaps in the existing literature, and contribute a more complete understanding of the important role of families in
present day Vietnamese society, in terms of both documented and the analytical approach.

3. Findings

Some sociologists such as: Skolnick, Ogburn already said that the families lose their functions in industrial perspective. That means it has no importance in society. However, with real evidence, we affirm that the families still have a vital role for the survival and development of Vietnamese society.

3.1. The Vietnamese families are a legal institution to give a birth to maintain human - beings

Childbirth and reproduce the labor force are considered sacred duty of Vietnamese families. No other institutions could undertake this responsibility. In the past, the cognitive level as well as the level of scientific and technical development were still low, so that Vietnamese people had no full consciousness and ability to control, to regulate the productive health for protecting mothers and children. The naturally productive standpoint led a lot of Vietnamese families were poor and sick. Members of families lived in narrowed, malnourished condition. The life - expectancy was low, and so on. Currently, the reproductive function of the Vietnamese families is as follow:

Vietnamese households’ fertility rate have substantially declined and reached the sub-replacement fertility rate over the past years. The fertility rate in rural areas decreases faster than in urban area, but it is still higher. The proportion of women having a third child decreases yearly. However, in some geographic regions, this rate tends to increase. The reasons for giving birth to a third child related to the implementation of population, family planning in local area such as: there is self-satisfaction about some achievement, the letting loose of leadership and population work conduction, the organization system of family planning staff has not been strong enough and overloaded with work, the propagandizing, educating, providing services and building policies, regimes face many problems, etc. The reasons for giving a third child also related to son preference of Vietnamese culture. Most of Vietnamese families want to have at least one son because the sons are responsible for caring for old parents, ancestor worship, continuity the lineage, etc.

The reduction of birth rate as well as the Vietnam’s population and family planning policy results in Vietnamese household size declining. It is also due to such negative factors as the increasing divorce rate of couples or the trend that a part of the population, especially young people do not want to get married or give birth in order to enjoy their own life. Across the country, single household account for a very low proportion. Small household size (households with 4 members or fewer) is common in our country, especially in urban areas. Generally, rural household size is larger than urban one throughout the country. In terms of geographic regions, the Central Highlands has the largest household size, the second is the Northern Midlands and Mountainous areas. The Red River Delta is the region with the smallest household size. Household size is inversely proportional to incomes of household. Household with the highest incomes (quintile 1) has the smallest size; in contrast, the poorest household (quintile 5) has the largest one. If the correlation between household size and genders of household heads is considered, female-headed households are smaller than male-headed households.

At present time, Vietnamese’s mean age of marriage, especially men’s is rising; for women, this trend has been likely to be stable compared with previous decades. Vietnamese men’s mean age at first marriage is higher than women’s in all the periods and regions. Urban young people get married later than rural ones because of the pressure of jobs, income, urban busy life; marriage is not regarded as important as other things. Kinh ethnic group - an ethnic majority in Vietnam, is considered to have more opportunities to get access to modern life, to know more about national policies so they have a trend to get married later than ethnic minorities. People working in public sector are more likely to get married later than people working in private sector or households because they suffer pressure from jobs they are in charge of in public sector, as well as seriously obey national policies related to marriage and family. People at low level of education and doing jobs concerning agriculture before getting married will often get married at younger age.

The abortion rate in Vietnam has been likely to rise for recent years. In rural area, this rate is a bit higher than in urban one. Young age groups’ abortion rate is relatively high and often higher than older age groups. The abortion of people at low education level is relatively high. The Northwest had the highest abortion rate, the lowest rate belonged to the South Central Coast. The highest abortion rate is of couples with 1 or 2 alive children.

The most widely used contraceptive method in Vietnamese families is intra-uterine device (IUDs). Over half of married women from 15 - 49 answered that they have been using this method. The next are methods of menstrual cycle and using condoms. Other methods as male or female sterilization, withdrawal are less chosen by couples. The women’s use of contraceptive methods is closely connected to some individual and public features. As the results given, couples’ residence has impact on the choice of contraceptive methods. In rural area, couples choose modern contraceptive
methods, specifically the method of IUDs, much more than urban households. Urban families with better life experience and awareness usually use traditional contraceptive methods as withdrawal, menstrual cycle more than households in rural area. In terms of geographic regions, the difference in the rate of using contraceptive methods has been reduced and the difference is not very clear. The age using contraceptive methods is likely to increase and women at the age of 35 - 39 reach the top rate, then this rate has the declining trend when women get much older. Education level is always considered as one of the factors affecting individuals' behavior. As can be seen from the research result, different education levels have different impacts on contraceptive methods used by women. The higher the education level, the more contraceptive methods are used. People with high education level are more and more likely to use traditional contraceptive methods. IUDs is a contraceptive method most chosen by people without education level and the rate of using this has a decreasing trend when the education level rises. Couples' current number of children affects the choice of contraceptive methods, as well. Families with 2 children use contraceptive methods most; the lowest rate belongs to households without children. The demand of giving birth and the distance of fertility have influence on the rate of using contraceptive methods. When people have demand of having children, the rate of using contraceptive methods is lowest and women who want to give birth within 2 years tend not to want to apply contraceptive methods. Women living in households with electricity and T.V accept contraceptive methods more than others. Similarly, women living in places with convenient transportation condition accept contraceptive methods more. The principal provision source of contraceptive methods is in towns/districts/intertown centers, the next is district and provincial hospitals. For recent years, the network system of population and family planning has been a main provision source of contraceptive methods for couples. The main provision source of contraceptive methods in rural area is medical clinics in towns/districts/intertown centers whereas chemist's in urban area plays a big role in providing these methods beside medical clinics in towns/districts/intertown centers keep an important position in providing services of IUDs and sterilization for people.

3.2. The Vietnamese families play an important role in the formation and development of their children’s personality

The process of nurturing and educating children started in the womb of his mother and cries when was born is in a family environment. The family is “the first school” of every human life. The family is the chief agent of socialization in all society (Smelser, 1994). According to Macarenco “what your parents did for you before 5 years of age, which is 90% the result of the educational process” (Chuong, 2000). The education of the family not only has strong effects and meanings for children but also has significance for human life. So that, Vietnamese families are interested in raising and educating their children. It is an obligation of the parents to prepare the children for independence, to teach them eventually “to stand on their own feet” (Aubert, 1968:83).

About educational function of Vietnamese families at present time, parents play an important role in educating their children. Fathers symbolize intelligence, will, and family’s discipline to unite children - especially sons. Therefore, the father needs to participate in bringing up children since they are small, spend time for and looking after them, etc. Mothers who are often careful, close to children everyday, find out and timely shape misleading, and better at raising children lifestyle, conduct and human life. With tender and tactful attitude, mothers convert, persuade and teach children to love even when they grow up.

Parents spend a lot of time and activities aiming at educating and socializing children. The most frequent activities showing parent’s care for children are: parent reunion, helping children with home studies, spare time for children, job orientation and marriage orientation.

However, in raising children, it is necessary to combine the entire power of family as a united team, and agree on aim and teaching methods, prove the roles of grandparents, siblings beside parents’ responsibility. It should be clearly aware of abilities, strengths, and weaknesses of different family members in raising children.

Out of the content items to educate children at present, parents should take care of moral education, education of working attitude and skills, education of independence character and sex education. All the matters above have role and certain influence on the development and perfection of children’s personalities.

In order to promote family’s role in educating - socializing children, some solutions are suggested: i) consolidating family institution, ii) strengthening relationship between family and school in educating - socializing children, iii) combining between family and community in educating - socializing children, iv) making social environment healthy.

3.3. The Vietnamese families have always been regarded as a unit of economic production and consumption of society

There is no known society in which the family doesn’t play a major economic role (Smelser, 1994), and Vietnam is not an
exception. Of course, the family is no longer a complete self catering production chain, but rather a production household, engaged in production, business or services with different trades and different incomes. In general, groups of households earning mainly from salaries, allowances, trade and services, have higher income than those engaged in farming or animal raising. The economic role of the family is reflected in two fundamental activities: direct work to generate cash such as salaries, trade, services, hiring out labor or selling craft products. The other is indirect work such as cultivation, animal husbandry, creating products to meet daily consumption needs of the family, including the preservation of food and foodstuffs, expenditure management, healthcare and meals for family members. In the family, the husband tends to engage in economic activity that generate cash income and the wife takes part in indirect economic activity, bringing products that meet daily needs of family members. Now, we can see that households’ income has had a rising and stable tendency. This demonstrates that households’ living standard has been improved better. Nevertheless, there still exists a quite big difference in the income of rural and urban households, as well as between the richest and poorest household groups. The Southeast is the region with households’ highest income, whereas the Northeast has the lowest income of households. As for the structure of income source, the biggest source is from salaries, the next is from agricultural activities. Meanwhile, the source from construction and forestry is lowest. There is a certain difference in the structure of income source of rural and urban households. Rural households get the biggest source of income from agricultural activities; the next is the source from salaries. On the contrary, income source from salaries is the main income of urban households. Income from agricultural activities only takes a small proportion in the structure of urban households’ income. Quintile 5 (the richest group) has the biggest income source from salaries and others while the poorest group (quintile 1) has the main income source from agricultural activities.

The average expense of Vietnamese households was significantly improved in recent years. Average monthly expense of households headed by women is higher than that of households headed by men. Average expense gap between urban and rural areas have decreased slightly but remained large differences of the expense rate. The biggest expense of all the households is living expense, but the rate of living expense in urban areas is always higher than that of rural areas. It is the same situation between the quintile 5 and quintile 1. Only the expense on education is almost no difference between groups at different living standards. In daily expenses, women have the highest right of deciding, most men do not take part in this duty. With other expenses like children’s education and disease treatment, men play higher role in deciding. This is common in all the households in spite of rural or urban families. Nevertheless, in buying expensive things, the rate of both wives and husbands discussing on making decisions ranks highest. Meanwhile, this rate of only women deciding this expense is not high, especially in rural areas.

3.4. The Vietnamese families are responsible for taking care of elderly people

The proportion of elderly people in Vietnam is rising sharply in recent years. The ageing population is focused mainly at the ages of 60 - 64 and 65 - 69. There are more ageing females than males. The rate of ageing males at lower ages is higher. But the rate of ageing females at higher ages is higher than that of the ageing males. Ageing Vietnamese are involved in various forms of economic activities to earn income for themselves and/or their families, especially related to agricultural activities. The statistics shows a majority of ageing Vietnamese is literate, whereas only a minority of the older people professes a religion. Co-residence with a spouse and a married child is the social norm for older persons whose children are adults. Co-residence is higher in urban than rural areas, a common pattern found in a number of developing countries. Elderly people mainly live in rural areas. Generally, in urban areas and deltas, the ratio of old people is higher than that in mountainous, remote and far-flung areas. The highest rate of old people is in Red River Delta, the lowest in Central Highlands.

In spite of the fact that Vietnamese government sputilated a lot of policies for elderly people, but the public support that is currently available to the elderly is extremely limited. The state’s inability to provide full support to the elderly people so that the responsibility of taking care of them actually belongs to family. It is confirmed by the number of elderly people living with their children when they are old and a lot of policies required families take care of elderly people. The family undoubtedly does still play a crucial role in providing older persons with care in Vietnam. The main reason for this situation is that the children want to compensate their parents’ sacrifices for them. It is called “filial piety” (Dao Hieu in Vietnamese). In somewhat general terms, filial piety means to be good to one’s parents; to take care of one’s parents; to engage in good conduct not just towards parents but also outside the home so as to bring a good name to one’s parents and ancestors; to perform the duties of one’s job well so as to obtain the material means to support parents as well as carry out sacrifices to the ancestors; not be rebellious; show love, respect and support; display courtesy; ensure male heirs, uphold fraternity among brothers; wisely advise one’s parents, including sorrow for their sickness and death; and carry out sacrifices after their death. But a core ideal of filial piety is the fulfillment of child’s obligations to the parent:
“children were made to feel keenly that they owned parents a moral debt so immense as to be unpayable. A child was supposed to try to please his or her parents all the time and in every way, to increase their comfort, to accede to all their wishes, to fulfill their aspirations, to lighten their burden of work and of worry, and to comply with their wishes in all matters, great and small” (Jamieson, 1993:17). Everyone in Vietnam is known that “Cong cha nhu nui Thai Son, nghia me nhu nuoc trong nguon chay ra” (Your father’s merit is immense like Thai Son mountain, and the moral debt to your mother is endless like the water from its source), so they would also support their old parents. That was the way they paid their moral debt to their parents to some extent. We could understand why families are very important in taking care of elderly in Vietnamese society.

4. Conclusion

Vietnam is undergoing the process of industrialization and modernization. It has brought the families in Vietnam new opportunities to develop; the living standard of the greatest part of Vietnamese families is improving, the basic functions of families have changed for the better. That means family is very important and inevitable in Vietnam. As a conclusion, I cited the Lack’s opinion when he made a remarkable comparison: “The Americans have social security, unemployment benefits, health insurance, orphanages, psychiatrists, marriage counselors, and old age homes. The Vietnamese have the family. The Americans have television, technology, mobility, independence, privacy, and the women’s movement. The Vietnamese have the family” (Lack, 1986).

Reference

The Development of Cultural Performance under EU Standards

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Abstract: This Albanian reform allows banks to better evaluate the creditworthiness of potential borrowers, facilitating access to credit for firms and individuals. Albania also strengthened investor protection. A new company law requires that disinterested shareholders approve transactions between interested parties and obligates those parties to disclose all information on the transaction to the public. The law also reinforces directors’ duties and requires directors, when found liable, to pay damages and return profits to the company. A new bankruptcy law approved during 2008 provides a more efficient framework for closing a business. The new Commercial Law entered into force in 2008. It replaced the former commercial legislation in Albania, namely the Law on the First Provisions of the Commercial Code and the Law on Commercial Companies. The new law is an attempt to approximate the Albanian commercial legislation and follows the recent reform in business registration enacted in 2007. This law intends to create a modern commercial system providing for flexible corporate structures and to facilitate the business climate in Albania. The cultural development and Balkan universalism tries to arrive to an ideal of a borderless world of tolerance. Globalization will construct a unique culture identity that will represent the human gender.

Keywords: Albanian reform, Commercial Law, Cultural development, Legislation, Public administration

1. Literature Review and Hypotheses

1.1 The impact, performance and cultural development in Albania and Balkan.

In this study we are trying to analyze empirically, the impact of cultural, economical, prejudices factors in the municipal bond market, like Balkan countries. We stress the role of education, culture and youth in promoting tolerance, ensuring ethnic and religious coexistence and shaping modern democratic societies. Based on positive political theory and the benefit principle of taxation, benefit of social development in Balkan areas, it is proposed that states that adhere to best practice debt management policies transmit signals to the credit ratings, investment community and influences of prejudices. (APR 2009).

Balkan countries and Albanian government, on the other hand, should meet its obligations in a timely manner, resulting in lower debt costs. Although the field of entrepreneurship in Balkan is recognized as being of fundamental importance for Balkan economy, and many researchers throughout the world have turned their attention to it, there’s, as yet, no agreement as to the research object in this scientific field. Another variant of this way of thinking is that Globalization will construct an environment in which culturally self-defining communities will coexist in harmonious way.

The benefits accruing to Albania as a member of the European Union are well established, if not fully communicated throughout the country. However, there are also considerable costs associated with the EU integration process. An initial estimate of costs was given in the National Plan for Implementation of the SAA, but these were seen as very preliminary and were not based on a full assessment of the existing public administration capacities. (APR 2008)

Not did such costs factor in the many softer capacity impacts associated with transformational changes in the style
of government, its culture, attitudes of civil servants and so on, all of which are needed, at least implicitly. (Ray & Bess 2011). At the present time, the overall existing capacity or the needs for capacity development of the public administration are unknown. It will be very difficult to develop the needed capacities without a clear, specific and consolidated set of capacity development priorities and how these might be timed and linked to EU integration and national development processes.

Fig 1. The form of management partnership

A simple partnership is required to follow a specific contract form only when it is deemed necessary in view of the nature of the goods contributed jointly. The contract duration may be extended without action for an indefinite period of time when the members continue to undertake business functions. The partnership may be managed separately or collectively by its members or through a representative elected to act as an administrator. (Kannol 2011) Profit shares are distributed only after the administration reports on the activities of the partnership. The partnership takes its directions and obligations from the members acting in the capacity of administrators. The members who have acted in the name and on behalf of the partnership are collectively or separately responsible for the partnership’s contingent liabilities toward third parties. (Stunner 2012)

The preceding discussion showed that there are substantial risks to national development and the EU integration process in terms of existing capacity gaps and weaknesses in public administration at the overall systems, institutional and individual levels. Estimates of the risk vary but the general consensus is the same. (APR 2011). If significant changes are not made to the government’s approaches to and investment in capacity development, it is unlikely that the public administration and the civil service will be able to implement fully the many provisions contained in SAA or NSDI.

New members who join the partnership are also collectively responsible for the liabilities assumed by the partnership prior to their membership. It is not admissible to compensate a third person’s obligation toward the partnership with their credit rights toward a partnership’s member.

1.2 Albania administrative influences

1.2.1 EU and supported developing programs in Public Administrative reforms

The Government of Albania has adopted a comprehensive policy reform program to strengthen Albania’s weak institutional and governance capacity. This policy reform program is being supported by a Structural Adjustment Credit, which was approved by the Bank in June of 1999. The overall objective of the proposed Public Administration Reform Project is to provide required resources for technical assistance, training, goods and incremental operating costs that are needed to implement the Government’s Institutional and Public Administration Reform agenda effectively. The Development Credit Agreement (DCA) states the objective of the project to be: The objective of the Project is to assist the Borrower to improve its capacity with regard to policy formulation and coordination, and administrative performance so as to create conditions that will encourage the Department of Public Administration of the Borrower to improve their service delivery. (Bundo 2010)
Sustainable return of refugees and internally displaced persons is critical for ethnic reconciliation and an index of democratic maturity; it remains high on our priority agenda. (BB 2012). Fragmentation and divisions along ethnic lines are incompatible with the European perspective, which should act as a catalyst for addressing problems in the region. The recent launching of the EU police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina and of the operation "Concordia" in the former of Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia are tangible proofs of the EU’s commitment to the region.

Simple partnership pursuant to the Civil Code Simple partnership entities are governed by the provisions of the Civil Code and do not have the characteristics of commercial companies. A simple partnership is a contract between two or more persons who agree to perform an economic activity with the purpose of sharing the derived profits. Members may contribute to the partnership’s activity in money, goods or services.

Fig. 2 Indicators of Public Administrative Reforms, source BCSDE Report 2011

H 1. The Albanian - reforms aimed to create the managerial and professional nucleus required to lead any serious efforts to improve the accountability and performance of public institutions.

1.2.2 Limited partnership and unlimited partners

They are in charge of the day-to-day management of the company and their unanimous renunciation of the ordinary business activity entails the winding up and liquidation of the company. On the other hand, limited liability partners are not entitled to take part in the management of the partnership although they might oppose those actions of unlimited partners which go beyond ordinary business activity. (Ray & Bess 2011). The absorptive capacity of the public administration and the civil service remains constrained. Even if more funds were made available, it is unlikely that the national development and integration processes could be speeded up.

Without a stable, competent and sufficiently staffed civil service supported by appropriate system-wide and institutional capacities, only so many reform initiatives can be managed, only so much can be delivered and only so many results can be produced. The Western Balkan countries welcome the decisions by the EU to strengthen its Stabilization and Association policy towards the region and to enrich it with elements from the experience of enlargement. They welcome in particular the launching of the European Partnerships, as well as the decisions for enhanced co-operation in the areas of political dialogue and the Common Foreign and Security Policy, parliamentary co-operation, support for institution building, opening of Community program.

They take note of the ongoing discussions for an increase in the budgeted Community financial support to the region through the CARDS program.

The Croatian application for EU membership is currently under examination by the Commission. The speed of movement ahead lies in the hands of the countries of the region. County economic potentialities valorized and improved, through the map of the economic strategic, competitive and sustainable county resources drafted. (Ray & Bess 2011). Technical assistance provided to improve and maintain competitive territorial value chains, able to include the most disadvantaged people in the economic circuit, assure gender equity, and safeguard the environment, through the following activities

H 2. The credit Albanian targeted governance and institution building to support both the public expenditure management and the human resource management agendas
The future of the Balkans is within the European Union. Realization of a plan for the inclusion of the most disadvantaged people in the mainstream economy. • Training and support to territorial economic value chains. • Fostering capacities for supporting innovations.

1.3 Albanian accounting system and the rights of employers.

The financial sector in Albania has in general been spared from the global financial turmoil, primarily due to the low amount of loans in relation to total deposits. Also the lack of a housing/construction bubble has minimized pressure on the banks. However, a significant reduction in bank deposits took place in the fall of September 2008 as individuals withdraw their money due to fear from losing their savings. (Blunt & Kiddnel 2012)

Since October 2008 deposits dropped by about 15% and during 2009 they were below their top level. After summer 2009 there has been a stable increase in bank deposits and by the end of 2009 they reached their pre-crisis level. Lower deposits created some liquidity issues but banks were well equipped to face the situation. Banks have increased their equity capital to better face the situation and also BOA has an active monitoring program to ensure enough liquidity in the banking sector.

1.3.1 Financial institutions in Albania, legal form or specific legal requirements

All economic for-profit entities in the Republic of Albania, including financial institutions and auditing companies, regardless of their legal form or specific legal requirements, are subject to Law No. 9228 dated 29 April 2004 on Accounting and Financial Statements. Other entities, including non-profit organizations, are also subject to this Law, except for those cases when their financial statements and accounting are subject to specific laws and regulations for regulatory and supervisory purposes. Entities which do not exceed turnover and/or total value of assets of ALL 10 million at the year end and with less than 10 employees, are defined as micro enterprises, and can keep their accounting and prepare their financial statements pursuant to the criteria defined by the National Accounting Council and approved by the Council of Ministers. All entities must adopt an accounting system in compliance with the accounting plans issued and approved by the Council of Ministers.

H 3 Albanian investment operations provided the technical assistance that was relevant to the development and implementation of the broader policy changes and allowed the Public Administration Reform project to focus on its core mission.

2. Methodology and Research Goal

The survey of this study will be conducted on: (1) Supported by donor assistance and international and local NGO’s the city initiated a community-based development strategy in the informal. The program brought together local government teams, NGO’s and residents to formulate a development plan for the neighborhood define priorities for improvements and determine equitable cost-sharing formulas to finance infrastructure. (Ray & Bess 2011). Public Strategies employees strive to support and improve the communities in which they live and work. The government support programs that help those in need who strive to provide for their families; and provide the youth of the community with the tools necessary to become leaders. Entrepreneurship ambition has worked to support changes in Albanian law that would offer anti-discrimination protections in keeping with international standards. (Calldnner 2012)

The another point of administrative changes in Albanian public policies as an obstacle to the operating foreign investments, comparison of EU is: (1) International investments contributed to the improvement of Albania’s financial regulatory environment which has strengthened public confidence in the banking system and has provided a more secure, efficient and transparent financial system to meet the credit, savings and insurance needs of businesses and individuals. (Koxhaj A 2008)

USAID helped improve the competitiveness and productivity of Albania’s private sector through technological innovations, facility renovations, application of best management practices, and compliance with international standards. In 2009, USAID provided technical assistance and training to 363 firms for technological innovations and 408 firms for management improvement and assisted 45 enterprises in obtaining loans from commercial banks or non-bank financial institutions. Many of these assisted enterprises successfully increased their shares in the domestic markets and penetrated new markets in the European Union and the Balkan Region, earning $2.18 million from domestic sales and $1.4 million from export sales. (APR 2009)
This paper identifies (on another aspect of study) the addresses of the important factors underlying of the in Albania and changes in the form of organization, under the administrative and implementing reforms in law. The paper also introduces with the changes in national law, private or state organizational form. (Blunt & Kiddnel 2012)

Fig 3. The methodology of study on Albania management practices of MHR

2.1 Gathering data and aspects of analyze

In this paper we have two aspect of the analysis of administrative changes in the field of judicial service and specifically the changes in the form of organization of the bailiff service totally in the hands of the state and already decentralized in the hands of private individual organizing form. We are trying to do an analyze for these government measures. (Ciceri 2008). The judicial power is one of the important parts of the legal state. As stated in the Albanian constitution, one basic principle is: equality and control between governments. (Ray 2006) Our paper research will analyze the justice reforms in Albania; will analyze bailiff organizational management (private or state form).

Both roles help to ensure that justice is fairly administered and carried to its proper conclusion. The Bailiffs and their assistants serve summonses and other important legal documents on parties as required by a Court or Tribunal, or as requested by a person who is a party to litigation, for example, a court or tribunal hearing which parties are required to attend clearly cannot proceed unless there is proof that the parties concerned have had the summonses to attend properly served on them in a manner specified by law. (Blunt 2006)

2.2 Albanian justice and European Convention of Human Rights

State authorities can not cite lack of funds as an excuse for not respecting a financial obligation that comes from a court decision, cited in most of the arguments with which the Court justifies its decisions. The event that has set in motion the Constitutional Court dates back to the city of Albanian region. In spring 2008 a citizen of the Inspectorate dismissed the National Urban Construction district court addressed the claim that during her discharge violated procedures are provided in the Labor Code. (Anastasi A. 2006)

Court decides in favor of former employee forces to indemnify him in five months' salary and a bonus for seniority for a period of six months and a half. After receiving the execution order of execution of some office notes that they could not impose Urban Construction Inspectorate to pay the fine and issue passes bailiff's office in Tirana. [Albania Civil Code, USAID and MOJ, year 2010 pp 23, 24, 26]

3. Conclusions and Recommendations

The escalating political situation in the country which brings delay in undertaking important reforms to the country viewed
with concern by representatives of the European Union Delegation in Albania. In a response of EU delegation notes the absence in the operation of some institutions because of the political stalemate. Among these institutions, the changed stated (public and private sector and its function) that because of the dispute is not doing its replacement with a new name.

The European Union is very concerned about the impact that has political stalemate in the functioning of the influences of institution. European Union calls on all political parties to urgently proceed with the appointment of a new People's Advocate. Political stalemate should not prevent the adoption by the Parliament of the reforms and measures in the interests of Albania and its citizens - is quoted by the EU delegation in Tirana. Part of the application has also been taking measures by the government to implement anti-discrimination law including financial and human support for protection forms. Administrative changes in Albanian public policies as an obstacle to the operating foreign investments, comparison of EU are progressed in Albania like as:

- Developing;
- International investments founds;
- Entrepreneurship ambition;
- Marshalling resources to exploit business opportunity;
- State regulatory statistical and tax reporting.

Local communities are also seen to employ some short-term use of reserve funds when facing negative expenditure pressures, but these funds are not used to completely prevent expenditure cuts. Furthermore, communities do not use debt as a mitigating response to external tax base pressures, but instead alter expenditure patterns. Using the EU measurements and assessment of different areas of the business, namely the production of goods and services, can take place smoothly in Albania. PSI worked closely with high-level public officials and community leaders and provided critical guidance and strategic planning.

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Unity in Diversity: The Nigerian Youth, Nigerian Pidgin English and the Nigerian Language Policy

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Abstract This study attempted to find out the perceptions of the Nigerian youth of pidgin, a mode of expression largely believed to be gaining ground in Nigeria, particularly among the youth. To accomplish this, the study investigated the influence of tribe, institution, age, location, sex and social status on their perceptions of the use of Pidgin English as a unifying factor and its consideration as a recognized official language in the Nigerian language policy. The study employed the survey research design. The population for the study consisted of the youth in Southwestern Nigeria. The quota sampling technique was employed in selecting 100 youths from each of the six geo-political zones of Nigeria making a total of 600 youths. A questionnaire was developed for the study by the researchers comprising three sections which solicited information from the youths on the variables of interest. The questionnaire was validated and a reliability coefficient of 0.78 was obtained. Six research hypotheses were formulated and tested while four research questions were asked and answered. The data collected were analyzed using t-test and One-Way ANOVA statistics. The study concluded that Pidgin English with its neutrality had the potentials to become a wider language of unity, largely at the informal level, than the major indigenous languages; this would contribute positively to Nigeria’s search for unity in diversity.

Keywords: Unity, Nigerian youth, Pidgin English and Nigeria language policy.

1. Introduction

Nigeria, a very vast country with about 150 million people is located in West Africa. It is made up of 36 states plus Abuja, the Federal Capital Territory. Nigeria is a multi-lingual, multi-cultural, and multi-ethnic society with between 250 and 300 ethnic groups and 400 to 500 local languages, some of which have dialects. In spite of the multiplicity of languages, three indigenous languages are singled out as major languages in the Nigerian Constitution, namely, Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba. These languages are considered to be official languages alongside English, the lingua franca. English Language, a foreign language in Nigeria, enjoys the status of a second language.

English was introduced into Nigeria via trade with and colonization by the British. According to Alagoa (1980), the Niger Delta area was probably the most actively involved in overseas trade from about the 17th century. The trade started with the Portuguese, the Dutch, then the British. Contact with these foreigners who came with different unintelligible languages to the indigenes brought about the need for communication. Pidgin emerged particularly in the Niger Delta as a contact language which served the need for communication and interaction. The Nigerian Pidgin English (NPE) appears to have outlived any other pidgin; this is probably due to the fact that the British stayed the longest in Nigeria. According to Osuafor (2002), pidgin could be restricted or extended. Gani-Ikilama (1989: 15) explains further that “a restricted pidgin is one which arises as a result of marginal contact such as minimal trading or in tourist areas; it serves only this limited purpose and tends to die when the contact which gave rise to it is withdrawn”. Till today, the impact of this early interaction with NPE is still highly concentrated in this area. The NPE started in Nigeria as a language of the non-literate as observed by Bamgbose, Banjo and Thomas (1995: 287) who state that “Not everyone had access to a school and the process of acquiring English was decidedly longer and more tedious than that of ‘picking up’ Pidgin. It remains a hallmark of Nigerian Pidgin that its speakers use it with a lot of freedom and creativity”. Interestingly, over the years the situation in terms of geographical spread and status of individual users has changed.
2. The Nigerian Pidgin English

In everyday parlance, pidgin is defined as a simple form of a language with a limited number of words that are used together with words from a local language. Bakker (1994) however sounds a note of caution that not all simplified or ‘broken’ forms of a language are pidgins; each pidgin has its own norms of usage which must be learned for proficiency in the pidgin. It is used when people who do not speak the same language need to talk to each other. According to Da Pidgin Coup (1999) the vocabulary of a pidgin, which is quite restricted in use and variable in structure, comes mainly from one particular language (called the ‘lexifier’). Though the pidgin lexicon is derived from the ‘lexifier’, the grammar is unique, pidgin does not have any rule; it does not follow any specific order. The origin of pidgin generally is traceable to poor use of a language either by the speaker or the receiver. Pidgin is never originally the native language of any speech community; it is originally learnt as a second language. A pidgin may evolve to an extent that it actually becomes a mother tongue referred to as creole.

Though Pidgin English in Nigeria started as a language with restricted use, it now enjoys an extended use. The NPE which is also referred to as ‘Brokin’ is widely spoken and is said to be the native language of approximately three to five million people particularly in the Niger Delta (making it a creole in this sense) and a second language for at least another 75 million (Ihemere, 2006), many of whom acquire it right from childhood. In Faraclas’ (2004: 828) view, he states: Well over half of the 140 million inhabitants of Nigeria are now fluent speakers of [NPE] making [it] the most widely spoken language in Nigeria, as well as the indigenous African language with the largest number of speakers. Given the rapid spread of [NPE] among younger Nigerians, this proportion should increase to cover over seventy or eighty percent by the time the present generation of children reaches adulthood. There is no creole worldwide with nearly as many speakers as [NPE].

Akande and Salami (2010) assert that NPE serves as a lingua franca across ethnic and regional boundaries. However, though each of over the 250 ethnic groups in Nigeria uses Pidgin English, it varies from place to place thereby assuming the status of a language with dialects. Such dialects have certain additional words added which however does not lead to a breakdown in communication. This is in line with the view expressed by Da Pidgin Coup (1999) that variation exists in pidgin on aspects of age and geographical origin. While there is a consensus about the spread of pidgin, there is no such consensus about the general status of its users. Researchers such as Jowitt (1991) and Agheyisi (1971), postulate that the less educated, those with little or no formal education, are the users of pidgin. Such views are expressed everywhere pidgin is used as discussed in Da Pidgin Coup (1999). However, other researchers, such as Akande (2008), submit that NPE is spoken by university graduates, professors, lawyers and journalists; used in both formal and informal settings. He concludes by saying that “…the claim that NPE is the code of the non-literate is invalid as a lot of educated speakers in Nigeria use both the Standard and Pidgin English proficiently.

3. The Nigerian Youth and Pidgin English

The period of youth is as distinct from that of the child as it is distinct from that of the adult. It is a period with a very definite culture noticeable in the behavior, thinking, dressing, style and language among others. Nigerian youths can be categorized into male and female, English literate/English non-literate, the southern/the northern, rural/urban, high/low social status, adolescent/young adult etc. This period appears to be one when there is a conscious departure from the norm and language is not exempt. Such a departure tends to give the youth a recognizable identity. Pidgin English appears to be doing this.

Scholars attest to the popularity of pidgin among the youth. Faraclas (2004) observes that the Nigerian Pidgin is spoken today by millions of people especially the younger generation representing various linguistic areas of the Nigerian society. He further explains that given the rapid spread of the language among the youth, the proportion of present speakers of NPE which he puts at well over half of the Nigerian population would have increased by over 70% or 80% by the time they reach adulthood. He summarizes that there is no creole worldwide with nearly as many speakers as the Nigerian Pidgin. Akande and Salami’s (2010) study also discusses the youth, their use of and attitude to NPE. According to Douglas (2011), NPE continues to serve as a lingua franca in higher institutions and even to some extent among graduates.

4. The Unifying Dimension of the Nigerian Language Policy

Language, with its diverse social, unifying and developmental roles can be considered to be the most important attribute of a society. Indeed, life without language will be meaningless. The role of language in education is as central to human
existence as it is in everyday use; this is why a nation’s language policy must provide meaningful, practicable and achievable statements. Policies are also meant to be reviewed from time to time in order to keep abreast of developments and changes in the society.

Nigeria’s language policy is incorporated into the National Policy on Education (2004). The policy recognizes the need for unity in a nation like Nigeria, full of diversities. Section 1, sub-section 10 (a) states “Government appreciates the importance of language as a means of promoting social interaction and national cohesion; and preserving cultures. Thus, every child shall learn the language of the immediate environment. Furthermore,… every child shall be required to learn one of the three Nigerian languages of Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba. Section 2, sub-section 14 (c) also states that “Government shall ensure that the medium of instruction is principally the mother tongue or the language of the immediate community. Furthermore, Section 4, sub-section 19 (e) states that that the medium of instruction in the primary school shall be the language of the environment for the first three years; (f) from the fourth year, English shall progressively be used as a medium of instruction and the language of the immediate environment and French shall be taught as subjects”.

The policy depicts a desire for unity and emphasizes the language of the environment. It however appears that not only is cognizance not given to some of these languages of interest, adequate guidelines are not provided for meaningful implementation which ultimately affects the achievement of this laudable desire.

In spite of the pervasiveness of NPE in the society particularly among the youth who are the ones found in the various institutions of learning highlighted, an examination of the policy shows that cognizance is not taken of its role and importance. This has been remarked by certain researchers such as Elugbe and Omamor (1991), Egbokare (2003), Igboanusi (2008), and Akande and Salami (2010). A familiar language is a much more effective way of capturing and retaining learners’ attention. However, before policy statements are issued in respect of NPE, there is a need to find out how popular NPE is among the youth using a much larger and varied group of respondents different from many of the studies hitherto carried out on this aspect in Nigeria.

5. Research Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth on the basis of tribe.
2. There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth on the basis of institution attended.
3. There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth based on age.
4. There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth on the basis of location.
5. There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth based on sex.
6. There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth on the basis of social status.

6. Methodology

The study adopted the survey design. The population for the study comprised the youth in Southwestern Nigeria. Quota sampling technique was used to select 100 youths from each of the six geo-political zones of Nigeria making a total of 600 youths. A questionnaire titled “Nigerian Youth, Nigeria Pidgin English and the Nigerian Language Policy” (NYPENLP) was developed by the researchers comprising three sections which solicited information from the youths on the variables of interest. The questionnaire was validated and a reliability coefficient of 0.78 was obtained. The data collected were analyzed using t-test and One-Way ANOVA statistics.

7. Results and Discussion

Six hypotheses were formulated and summaries of results obtained are presented in the following tables:
Table 1: Summary of Analysis of Variance on the Use of Pidgin English based on Tribe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pidgin by tribe</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>17622.858</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3524.572</td>
<td>40.252</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>52012.814</td>
<td>594</td>
<td>87.564</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69635.673</td>
<td>599</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Summary of Analysis of Variance on the Use of Pidgin English based on Institution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pidgin by Institutions</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>1435.316</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>358.829</td>
<td>3.131</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>68200.358</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>114.622</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69635.673</td>
<td>599</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Summary of Analysis of Variance on the Use of Pidgin English based on Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pidgin by Ages</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>156.704</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>52.235</td>
<td>.448</td>
<td>.719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>69478.969</td>
<td>596</td>
<td>116.575</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69635.673</td>
<td>599</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Use of Pidgin English as a Unifying Language as perceived by the Nigerian Youth based on Location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pidgin English</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>48.3664</td>
<td>11.0433</td>
<td></td>
<td>−1.379</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>49.6076</td>
<td>10.3470</td>
<td></td>
<td>598</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Summary of t-table on the Use of Pidgin English as a Unifying Language as perceived by the Nigerian Youth based on Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pidgin English</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>51.1747</td>
<td>9.79455</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>6.032</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>45.9861</td>
<td>11.26593</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Summary of t-table on the Use of Pidgin English as a Unifying Language as perceived by the Nigerian Youth based on Social Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pidgin English</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>47.2036</td>
<td>10.82248</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>−4.195</td>
<td>0.503</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>50.8635</td>
<td>10.40441</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth on the basis of tribe.

The ANOVA Table 1 shows that there is a significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigeria youth based on tribe (F = 40.252; p<0.05). Since the value of F is significant, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth on the basis of institution attended.
The ANOVA Table 2 shows that there is a significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth based on institution attended ($F = 3.131; \ p <0.05$). The null hypothesis is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth based on age.

Analysis of ANOVA, as presented in Table 3, shows that there is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth based on age ($F = 0.448; \ p>0.05$). Since the F-value is not significant, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis 4

There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth on the basis of location.

The results indicate that there is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth based on location ($t = -1.379; \ p>0.05$). The null hypothesis is hereby retained.

Hypothesis 5

There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth based on sex.

The results show that there is a significant different in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth based on sex ($t = 6.032; \ p<0.05$). The null hypothesis is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis 6

There is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as a unifying language as perceived by the Nigerian youth on the basis of social status.

The results show that there is no significant difference in the use of Pidgin English as perceived by the Nigerian youth on the basis of social status ($t=-4.195; \ p>0.05$). The null hypothesis is hereby retained.

Results in this study as presented in Hypothesis 1 imply that NPE may actually be more dominant in some tribes than in others as results show a significant difference in the use of NPE as a unifying factor among the Nigerian youth on the basis of tribe. This means that while some tribes and ethnic groups are more favorably disposed to NPE, some are not as favorably disposed.

Of interest is the fact that there is no significant difference in the use of NPE by Nigerian youth on the bases of age, location and social status. This in effect means that NPE is used alike by the youth irrespective of whether they are younger or older youth, living in rural or urban areas, with parents with high or low social status. Almost paradoxically, a significant difference is found in the use of NPE by the youth on the basis of institution. One would submit that if the use of NPE is not a function of age, then it will also not be a function of institution since the expectation will be that those who are in secondary school will be younger than those in tertiary institutions. The interesting thing however is that in this study, secondary school students are found to be more predisposed to the use of NPE than students in tertiary institutions. Could this have anything to do with differences in students’ levels of proficiency in Standard English at these stages? Not much has been done on NPE and students outside higher institutions to confirm or refute this speculation. This finding does not support the general trend that university students are the largest group of users (note, for example Akande and Salami’s (2010) assumption that university towns are strong factors influencing students’ use of and attitudes to NPE.

Equally interesting though not surprising is the fact that there is a significant difference in the use of NPE by the youth on the basis of sex. Could this be related to the fact that females tend to appreciate correctness in language use more than the males? For as long as one can remember, research has consistently shown that girls tend to perform better than their male counterpart in language. Could it simply be a case of self-consciousness? Again, not much has been done in this area to shed more light on these grey areas.

Results of these hypotheses are complemented by those obtained from the four research questions asked presented as
follows:

Research Question 1

What is the extent of use of Nigerian Pidgin as a unifying language among the youth? The extent of the use of NPE does not appear to be as high among the youth as generally claimed as only 52% of the youth sampled claim that they speak Pidgin English very well while 48% state that they do not speak Pidgin English at all. This underplays the popularity of the language as noted by Douglas (2011), Akande and Salami (2010) and Faracas (2004). A probable reason for this difference may be the much larger and more diversified sample used in the present study.

Research Question 2

What are the attitudes and perceptions of the Nigerian youth to NPE? The attitudes and perceptions of youths to the NPE are again not as high as expected as a positive attitude to its use as perceived by them yielded an average percentage index of only 54%. Furthermore, 52% of the youths indicate their preference for the NPE. However, it is worthy of note that youths do have some reservations about the use of Pidgin. These findings buttress the ambivalent status of the NPE in the view of the youth as reported by Shnukal (1992); Siegel (1993); Bakker (1994); and Akande and Salami (2010).

Research Question 3

What are the reasons for the choice and use of NPE by the Nigerian youth? Reasons given include: (i) the unifying role of the NPE; (ii) large coverage and accessibility; (iii) freedom of use, ease of communication and better understanding; (iv) ability to overcome self-consciousness and prevent lack of self-esteem; (v) ability to remove social barriers. The preference of the youth for NPE echoes Douglas’ (2011) findings. However, the fear expressed in her study that the NPE may send indigenous languages into extinction may be more real in some areas where the NPE is more dominant than in others.

Research Question 4

What are the social and educational implications of the choice and use of NPE by the Nigerian youth? The social implications identified in the study include: (i) the fact that Nigeria cannot afford to neglect a language that has powerful unifying features such as the NPE; (ii) the social and communicative nature of the NPE, which as an important group marker, creates unique identities. However 52% of the youth claim that the NPE has made the use of the mother tongue difficult when necessary. As regards educational implications, the study reflects the NPE as an unofficial, informal language that presently has no educational value in Nigeria. These results are consistent with those of other studies; as regards social implications, Akande and Salami (2010) talk about the marginalization of the NPE as no major roles are not assigned to it.

In relation to educational implications, findings in this study are in line with Igboanusi’s (2008) study which shows that there is no agreement among his subjects as to whether NPE should be given any official national status. Likewise, Siegel (1997: 87) explains that “pidgins and creoles rarely have any official use in formal education, even in countries such as Jamaica where the creole is the mother tongue of the vast majority. Instead, the standard variety of the lexifier, most often the former colonial language, is usually the sole language of education”. In spite of this observation, however, he shows that initial instruction in Melanisian Pidgin is actually more of a help than a hindrance to learning English and other subjects when used to teach pre-school children as such children continued to outperform those who were not exposed to the program. Likewise, Rynkoff’s (1993) study does not show any disadvantage or negative effect on the acquisition of Standard English when pidgin is used in the classroom. According to Da Pidgin Coup (1999), many non-standardized varieties have been successfully included in classrooms in the US and Australia using the home language in a variety of ways. However, due to the marginalization of NPE, some researchers suggest that NPE be given the status of an official or national language (Elugbe and Omamor, 1991; Egbokhare, 2003); others such as Igboanusi (2008) call for its use as a medium of instruction for NPE children in the early stage of primary school. Igbonuasi (2008: 69) remarks that “education is the most important institution through which to raise the value of NP [Nigerian Pidgin]".
8. Conclusion

One can therefore summarize by saying that since NPE has a neutral code without an ethnic bias, it has the potentials to become a wider language of unity largely at the informal level than the major indigenous languages. Its use in the school setting as a medium of instruction could help transition of students from a familiar language (NPE) for those in this category to an unfamiliar language (the Standard English). Unlike suggestions being made in certain quarters, once it becomes a language to be taught in the formal setting of the school, most of the advantages listed by respondents in this study will no longer apply, which will in effect diminish from its potency to be an informal language of unity. In this regard, educators need to be proactive and look for ways of maximizing the strengths in the NPE for the benefit of the entire nation in a way that it can bring about unity in diversity.

References


The Learning of Mathematics Supported by GBL – A Novelty for Albanian Preschool System

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Abstract This study aims to explore the impact of including digital technology in teaching, compared to the traditional teaching methods that are actually being used in our school environment. Digital technology is a novelty in Albanian schools and based on the priorities of this method we suggest that it should be used extensively in our education system, for all the pupils comprising those with disabilities. The use of GBL (Games-Based Learning), especially in Elementary Education helps to promote a more consistent learning, improve students' communication with each other, especially within the class environment, enable pupils to put ideas into practice, as well as make them familiar with new technologies at an early age. This is a qualitative study that will analyze various theories concerning teaching with digital technology, especially the use of GBL in front of traditional teaching methods. It will also be illustrated with numerous examples from practice, which will make the difference between these two methods of teaching clearer and more convincing. The results of the study will be based on the observation of the phenomenon from the point of view of traditional teaching methods, as well as from the perspective of digital technology methods in teaching. Furthermore, in this paper will also be listed and analyzed the main advantages and disadvantages of implementing this contemporary method in the Albanian school and further on. As a conclusion, we should emphasize that the findings of this study will be of use to all pupils, especially the disabled ones and to the teachers, because it facilitates teaching and learning processes as well as his/her communication with pupils.

Keywords: GBL, smart board, digital technology, disabled pupils

1. Introduction

Being an innovative and advanced practice, GBL has recently appeared even in Albanian educational system as a novelty that we believe should be implemented throughout our educational system. Smart board - a new interactive tool – is a way of learning by playing in groups. It is used in class as "Smart table with her magic stick." This "magic class" which works with the motto: THINK-PLAY-DANCE-SING-ENJOY-LEARN, describes the philosophy of our school. Smart board, connected to the Internet and placed in front of the pupils and between two classic blackboards is a near and far away dream for the Albanian pupil. "The Magic Blackboard" provides the advantage of functioning as an open window of the world contemporary Encyclopedia which is updated every moment from the web, as a tireless assistant of every teacher and what is more, a friend for children.

2. Research Literature

The interest in game-based learning has increased considerably in these recent years. This way of learning has become more popular, among others, because of the increasing power of PCs. Games today are recognized for their universal attraction and ability to involve learners in concepts that are otherwise difficult to teach and understand. Both, teachers and learners appreciate the effectiveness of games in overcoming apparent barriers to learning. Most importantly, games are no longer regarded as just tools for kids.

Marc Prensky (2001) explains that “the emergence of digital game-based learning came in the last decades of the 20th century, when there was a global technology boom. He adds that recent generations of students in grades K-12 have lived their entire lives with access to technology — not only computers, but also digital music and video players, cell
phones, video games, and a host of other gizmos that require technology." Because of this he argues that today's students "think and process information fundamentally differently than their predecessors."

When using computer games, and games in general, for educational purposes several aspects of the learning process are supported: learners are encouraged to combine knowledge from different areas to choose a solution or to make a decision at a certain point, learners can test how the outcome of the game changes based on their decisions and actions, learners are encouraged to contact other team members and discuss and negotiate subsequent steps, thus improving, among other things, their social skills. This supports the view of most researchers in the field of GBL who conceptualize learning as a multidimensional construct of learning skills, cognitive learning outcomes and attitudes. Akilli (2007) in his study about GBL mentions that cognitive abilities as e.g. visual abilities or problem-solving skills are improved by game based learning. For example the lessons of history and geography would be much more interesting if students would visit the places described their virtually.

The GBL model is implemented in formal education very successfully. If used effectively and in a relevant way, it can support both the option of more choice for how the learner can learn as well as offering the potential for personalizing the learning experience. In addition it offers a way of integrating a range of different learning tools (e.g. social software) into a more coherent view of learning from the learner's perspective. There are specific educational domains where game-based learning concepts and approaches have a high learning value. These domains are interdisciplinary topics where skills such as critical thinking, group communication, debate and decision making are of high importance. Such subjects, if learned in isolation, often cannot be applied in real world contexts. Duchenaut et al. (2006) assume that collaborative online games can foster mutual support and encouragement. Thereby collaborative online games can help learners to learn more effectively.

Furthermore, the use of GBL can influence motivation and engagement of the learners in a positive way. As we know, motivation is a key aspect of effective learning, but it needs to be sustained through feedback responses, reflection and active involvement in. Game-based learning offers a particular strength of motivating users and this is why many learning games have been developed for particular groups that have difficulties with sustaining motivation. This view is also supported by Malone (1980) who suggests that general, computer games are supposed to result in positive effects because of the increase in motivation.

3. Objectives

The main objective of this paper is to analyze the positive impact of introducing digital technology in contemporary game based teaching. This study aims to argument that the involvement of GBL in teaching process, particularly in primary education will help:

- To promote a more stable learning;
- To improve communication of pupils with each other;
- To create a climate of cooperation within and outside the classroom;
- To enable pupils to use their knowledge in everyday life;
- To familiarize pupils with digital technology at an early age;
- To implement this new technology in pupils with disabilities;

4. Methods

Methods we have used in this paper to process the data are: analysis, comparison, and observation.

4.1. Subjects

The study was conducted in the private college "Turgut Ozal" and in a public school. Furthermore, students of "Aleksander Moisiu" University, Albania, more specifically, those who study in the branch of Elementary Education were part of the survey. The target- groups included in the survey were: pupils in primary school, teachers, students of "Aleksander Moisiu" University and parents.

4.2. Instruments

The instrument used to collect the data was a Likert type questionnaire, which consisted of eight questions. The people
surveyed expresses their view concerning the implementation of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the teaching process.

4.3 Data Analysis

We will analyze only three of the questions of the questionnaire.

**Graphic 1.**
The results of graphic 1 indicate that the target group that uses computers more frequently is that of the students.

**Graphic 2**
As we can see from the second graphic, the target group that is more interested to introduce ICT in teaching is that of the pupils. Whereas students express the view that ICT should be part of the teaching process only when it is necessary or for specific topics.
From the analysis of the third graphic it is noticed that almost all the target groups surveyed expressed the opinion that the role of the teacher is not minimised by the use of smartboard.

5. Discussion

5.1 Two models of teaching in our classrooms

In this paper will be presented two models: A – the traditional teaching model (teacher centered), B – the contemporary teaching model based on ICT (pupil centered)

Model A - the teacher’s word dominates the class. It is already known that the regular model of transmitting information is usually followed by a specific recapitulation of this information by the students. The main feature that is noticed in these classes is the physical appearance of the class itself. The teacher’s table is placed in front of the students. Students are set in their desks and in front of the teacher. The walls of the class are relatively naked, in this way they do not attract students’ attention.

Model B - follows the teaching method that respects the individual efforts and abilities of each child to build his own system of learning. The understanding of this concept is the basis element in the complex process of learning. For the teachers who follow this view, the child is at the center of learning. They work hard in order to create the environment that reflects this idea. Teachers should invite students to recognize the benefits of the surrounding environment, urge them to ask questions and find answers themselves, while encouraging them to understand the complex parts of the world (Brooks 1993).

MASH-SKAP, (2009) The Albanian National Pre-university Education Strategy suggests that “The extensive application of ICT in the teaching process aims to make our students confident and effective users as well as active competitors in European labor market.” Based on that, our teachers are required to be equipped with basic ICT skills and contribute to enhance the quality of teaching through the integration and the extensive use of ICT in the teaching process. In order to reach this objective, it is aimed the development of a contemporary curriculum in the field of ICT in pre-university education with the aim to enable students in ICT in accordance with European standards. This will be based on the improvement of technological infrastructure by equipping schools with computer laboratories and peripheral units and supplying every class with a computer.

The main goal is to achieve the standard “one computer for 10 students” in pre-university education. This process will be accompanied with:

- The development of educational digital content and multimedia materials;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>When I need it</th>
<th>Once/week</th>
<th>Once/month</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students of Education Faculty</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The equipment of schools with mobile laboratories and applicable programs in order to improve consequently the quality of teaching;
Integration of ICT in different subjects of the curricula.
This will be followed by the improvement of internet service in all schools and its use as a way of providing teaching materials for both teachers and students. Providing the necessary capacities through the continuous training of all pre-university teachers will make the latter more confident concerning the use of ICT in the teaching process. So we think that it is the time that computer – the child's friend, becomes a tireless assistant of the teacher.

How can this be realized?
The first step includes the presence of ICT infrastructure in schools. This can begin with a personal computer equipped with a digital projector and a package of games for each class.

The second step includes the alternative of training all in-service teachers to use ICT. However at this point it is emphasized the idea that it would be a very effective practice one teacher per school was trained concerning the use of ICT and then he/she could train all the other teachers in the school.

Thus, the innovation of this study is the concept of "ICT-trainer". The ICT trainer can be a teacher with good computer skills and who is acquainted with the computer, the Internet and the software that are suitable for pupils. The ICT trainer will train other colleagues in his/her school and will support them with multimedia materials for every unit. ICT will make a significant change in the classroom.

5.2 The computer - A tireless teacher even for disabled children

The question raised at this point is: Can the computer become a friend as well as a tireless teacher for children with disabilities who are included in our classrooms?

Based on literature and on our observations, it results that children with disabilities approach the computer with pleasure and are attracted by digital games. By nature disabled children are inclined to self-isolation and the "silent" computer apart from being a good friend to play games can also become an "indefatigable teacher" for him.

Studies conducted by experts have gone so far as to consider the interaction with the computer as vital for the disabled child, thus "... thanks to the tremendous benefit of the computer, it should be considered as an integral part of the curricula of special education not simply as a game ...." Susan Stokes (2008).

Students with motor disabilities can enjoy the use of smart board as well. Due to the large format, it may be easier for students to use the table by touching it than by using the mouse. It has been noticed that the use of Smart board has proved very successful with preschool children and primary school children, who have just learned how to write. They could better write by using their fingers rather than using a piece of chalk or other writing tools.

This might possibly require the use of a "special" computer customized according to the abilities the disabled children lack.

Griffiths, a researcher in the field of digital games, supports the view that using digital games with special-needs children has many benefits. He mentions a case where digital games had a tranquilizing effect on a seven-year-old child with autism. In his study Griffiths provides data that suggests that adolescents with attention deficit disorder experienced improvements in grades and organizational skills when they used educational digital games. It is said that cognitive abilities such as memory retention and analytical skills are improved by repeated playing of digital games, even to the extent of assisting with the offset of learning disabilities (Klingberg, Forssberg and Westerberg, 2002)

5.3. A Game based teaching class

In "Turgut Ozal" college all children starting from those aged 4 visit each day of the smart board with the magic stick and learn mathematics, foreign languages and scientific or experimental topics by playing with specialized software carefully prepared for each class.
5.4. Advantages and disadvantages of GBL

Advantages of game-based learning
Using GBL in teaching has many advantages. First of all, it has been noticed that using games can increase considerably students' motivation and engagement in learning. Game-based learning offers a particular strength of motivating learners, for this reason many learning games have been developed for particular groups that manifest difficulties with sustaining motivation and have proved successful. Druckman, (1995) states that games enhance motivation and increase students' interest in subject matter, yet the extent to which this translates into more effective learning is less clear.

In addition, games promote the acquisition of different skills, especially complex ones like decision-making, communication and collaboration skills, problem solving skills, strategic thinking skills, social skills etc. Also there is some indications that cognitive abilities as e.g. visual abilities or problem-solving skills are improved by game based learning Akilli (2007). GBL enables students/pupils to learn from their mistakes where failure is considered to be the point where the teacher provides feedback. As Prensky suggests this is the only way we learn from computer games. He maintains that in game-based learning, making a mistake – or trial and error – is a primary way to learn and is considered the motivation for players to keep on trying.

Furthermore, games have a positive impact even in collaborative learning. During the games students can exchange information as well as give solutions, simplify problems, provide examples etc. Deubel (2006) also mentions the important role of game-based learning in the development of vocabulary skills and the enhancement of mental quickness. The interactive nature of games promotes learning and encourages students to challenge new topics or
Another advantage of using GBL in teaching is that it improves pupils’ general performance at school and increases his/her cognitive development. From the studies conducted in this field it has been noticed that it has a positive impact in the improvement of psychomotor abilities of children. GBL based on ICT stimulates children’s imagination and their desire to know the world. It is a well known fact that children who use the computer at home and in class are familiarized more quickly with it compared to the other children.

**Disadvantages of game-based learning**

Among the disadvantages we can mention the fact that teachers often lack the required skills of computer technology, consequently, they may not be able to integrate successfully the new games with the topic of the lesson.

Secondly, developing and producing digital learning games of a good quality have a high financial cost.

Thirdly, teachers are expected to spend a greater amount of time in order to plan each step of the lesson when using ICT in teaching.

Fourthly, another disadvantage is related to the uncontrolled use of computer games, which may be more specific at home than at school.

Fifthly, using the computer excessively brings a series of risks for the health of the children such as:

- Progressive myopia, which seems to aggravate during the process of following the moving picture in the monitor compared to the process of following the letters when reading a book. Another cause is related to the fact that the child may not be able to adapt the light in the room with that of the monitor.

- Problems with eye irritation caused by playing computer games for a long time. Furthermore, staying for a long time in front of the computer may cause deformations in the shoulders, neck and spinal cord of children.

Finally, not all the schools are fully equipped so that we can use GBL there.

![Image of a child with Progressive myopia](image)

**Figure 3**: This presents a child with “Progressive myopia”

### 6. Conclusions

In conclusion, we support the idea of the extensive use of GBL based on ICT, despite the high financial cost that it presents for the Albanian school. This could be one of the national priorities in our system of education and should be included in the national strategy for the Albania school.

The future in the Albanian school belongs to the alternation of teaching methods and the use of GBL based on ICT. The traditional classrooms with the blackboard in front of the students should leave it place to e-classroom with smart board connected to the Internet and placed between two blackboards, with the contemporary teacher that manages the class by alternating teaching methods and interacting with students in an interactive lessons designed with a game scenario.
7. Recommendations

- GBL, based on ICT, has made a revolution in teaching. Therefore, it is time to introduce and apply it massively in it Albanian schools.
- Children are already familiarized with their PC at home. This facilitates the use of computer as teacher’s assistant in school, which would make lessons more attractive for students.
- In order to reduce the risk to children’s health it is recommended that parents and teachers create a "posture neutral" for the child when he is in front of the computer.
- Not every topic can be explained with the help of GBL, but it is time to introduce GBL in smart classroom.
- Teaching with the help of technology and alternating teaching methods presents the need for changes in the curricula of universities that prepare future and changes in the infrastructure of pre-university education institutions.
- Teachers should start training in order to acquire the skills needed to work with ICT based on GBL, initially the "ICT-trainers" and then the others.
- Specialized institutions of pre-university education should begin to set up specialized teams of teachers and computer experts with the aim to prepare software packages for the preparation of the curriculum by implementing GBL method based on ICT.

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www.univlora.edu.al
www.uamd.edu.al
www.universitetieuropian.com
ANEKS I

Questionnaire for pupils
Dear teacher, please interview the students and fill out the questionnaire carefully and correctly, that we have designed to make an intervention in teaching, to be close to modern models, in relation with the role of computers in teaching. Digital technology in teaching should be understood as assistant of the teacher, for all children no matter how different they may be.
Indicate with X in the box that corresponds to your response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Type of question</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>When it seems reasonable</th>
<th>Once a week</th>
<th>Once a month</th>
<th>Never</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Do you use the computer?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Do you like that the digital technology to be included in teaching?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Do you use Smart-Board (computer table)?</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Do you think it is necessary to use it in the case of Albanian language?</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Do you think it is necessary to use it in the case of Nature Science?</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Do you think it is necessary to use it in the case of Mathematics?</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Do you think that the use of Smart-Board removes the attention of students to the topic?</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Do you think that the use of Smart-Board reduces the role of teachers in learning?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

ANEKS II

Questionnaire for teachers
Dear teacher fill out the questionnaire carefully and correctly, that we have designed to make an intervention in teaching, to be close to modern models, in relation with the role of computers in teaching. Digital technology in teaching should be understood as assistant of the teacher, for all children no matter how different they may be. Indicate with X in the box that corresponds to your response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Type of question</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>When it seems reasonable</th>
<th>Once a week</th>
<th>Once a month</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Do you use the computer?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Do you like that the digital technology to be included in teaching?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Do you use Smart-Board (computer table)?</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Do you think it is necessary to use it in the case of Albanian language?</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Do you think it is necessary to use it in the case of Nature Science?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Do you think it is necessary to use it in the case of Mathematics?</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Do you think that the use of Smart-Board removes the attention of students to the topic?</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Do you think that the use of Smart-Board reduces the role of teachers in learning?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

ANEKS III

Questionnaire for students of branch of Elementary Education, of UAMD
Questionnaire for teachers
Dear students fill out the questionnaire carefully and correctly, that we have designed to make an intervention in teaching,
to be close to modern models, in relation with the role of computers in teaching. Digital technology in teaching should be understood as assistant of teacher, for all children no matter how different they may be.

Indicate with X in the box that corresponds to your response.

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<tr>
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ANEKS IV

Questionnaire for parents

Dear parents, please fill out the questionnaire carefully and correctly, that we have designed to make an intervention in teaching, to be close to modern models, in relation with the role of computers in teaching. Digital technology in teaching should be understood as assistant of teacher, for all children no matter how different they may be.

Indicate with X in the box that corresponds to your response.

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</table>
Library Awareness of part-time Students in the University of Benin, Benin City

Ngozi Blessing Ossai-Ugbah

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University of Benin, Benin City. Edo State, Nigeria.
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Doi:10.5901/jesr.2012v2n3p307

Abstract This study was on library awareness and use by part-time students in the University of Benin, Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria. The study was conducted on with 300 level undergraduate part-time students in department of Local Government Management in the 2010/2011 session. The study adopted a random survey method in the distribution of questionnaire. 50 questionnaires were distributed but thirty nine (78%) was retrieved and analyzed. The study found that 24 respondents (61.53%) are more aware of the library outside library sources and 33 respondents (84.61%) do not participate in library orientation for students. The study recommends that library orientation be made a criterion for admission and actual visit to the library be a part of the course on use of the library for part-time students.

Keywords: Library, awareness, Part-time Students, University, Benin.

1. Introduction

A library attached to a university, college or any educational institution is known as an academic library and plays what Nwalo (2000) called “behind the scenes” activity. Academic Libraries play educational roles with a primary objective to meet the academic needs of the particular institution for which it is created to serve. The purpose of a University Library is to enhance research projects apart from the curricular needs of students and the institution. University libraries propel their services to improve the teaching and research missions of the institutions, particularly for students. However, student location dictates their awareness and use of library services.


Two types of part-time degree programmes are offered by Nigerian universities: on-campus and those offered via outreach programmes. The on-campus, part-time programmes are offered at main campuses; outreach programmes are offered at satellite outreach centres..., in theory part-time students must meet the same admissions requirements as their full-time student counterparts. On-campus students studying part-time are taught by regular faculty, use the same facilities, and attend lectures during the evenings, weekends or vacations, as full-time students studying on-campus. It is the former viz: on campus part-time students that the scope of this study covers. The rise in part-time University education is attributable to increasing quest for knowledge, and growing societal-demands by school leavers and adult workers for greater opportunity to enhance their education (Adeyemi, 2001; Nwadiani, 1993). This study examines the level of library awareness of part-time students of the University of Benin, Benin City.

2. Literature Review

An academic library according to Islam (2004) is an institution operated for knowledge and run by trained personnel with a goal for education and self improvement. The library is the centre of intellectual and academic activities provides resources to enhance teaching and learning for both students and faculty (Mabawonku, 2004). Omojuwa (1993) described the library as a citadel of spiritual, inspirational, and recreational activities through reading. This is where awareness of library services becomes important to students in any institution of learning. Metzger, (1991) opined that Library services help each individual widen their scope of leaning and perception. Authors like Fowowe (1998) observed frequency in use of library services is a product of awareness of the role the library plays in educational development. Goje (1995) noted that students must have access to all resources available in the library. Ajibero (1998), and Aguolu and Aguolu (2002) find that Nigerian university libraries do not meet user expectations. As a result, most students do not learn how to use the library and are not aware of the relationship of the library to their studies. Rathinasabapathy (2005) noted
that an academic library fulfills the curriculum requirements of an institution and seeks to promote studies and research. This is why Whitmaire (2002) noted that an academic library should thoroughly be equipped like a one stop shop to meet the needs of the patrons. Payne (1983) concluded that part-time students’ level of library awareness was moderate. Oluwadare, I. B. (2006) noted that part-time Polytechnic awareness of the library was more of a reading place. Ajibero (1998), and Aguolu and Aguolu (2002) found out that most University students are not aware of the correlation between the library to their education. Adesoje and Amusa (2011) observed that part-time students are quite aware of library and its resources, as such, they make use of their institutional libraries to meet their information needs. Oladokun and Aina (2009) examined among others the library awareness and use of part-time students at the University of Botswana. Their study found out that major areas of library use of respondents are related to course of study; job opportunities; career development and further education.

3. Objectives

This study set out to achieve the following objectives:
   i. To find out if part-time students are aware there is a University Library
   ii. To discover the level of awareness of part-time students of the University Library
   iii. To find out if part-time students participate in Library orientation programs

4. Discussion

Library Awareness

Awareness has to do with consciousness and responsiveness. This section was intended to discover the level of consciousness of the existence of the main University library among the respondents.

Table 1: Awareness of Existence of University Library

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 1</th>
<th>Are you aware there is a main University Library?</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source – Fieldwork, 2012

The table above show that of the 39 respondents 36 (92.30%) were aware of the existence of the University main library while 3 respondents did not. This figure therefore might establish a possible responsiveness to library use

Table 1.1: Reason for Awareness of Existence of University Library

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 4</th>
<th>How did you become aware there is a University Library</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>Library Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source – Fieldwork, 2012

15 (38.46%) of the 39 respondents were aware about the existence of the University library through friends while 14 (35.89%) were aware because of library orientation. Library orientation would cover both the annual library orientation carried out for students (new and old) and the course on use of the library. Furthermore, 9 respondents (23.97%) were aware through lecturers while 1 respondent was not aware from any source about the existence of the library. Though 14 respondents (35.89%) who became aware of library orientation is slightly at par with those who became aware through
friends is 15 (38.46%), it reveals that library orientation must be re-focused and re-programmed to reach this group of students to be more effective.

**Table 1.2: Location of University Library**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 2</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Where is the main University library located?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ugbowo Campus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source – Fieldwork, 2012**

In table 1.2 above 36 respondents (92.30%) were aware of the location of the University of Benin library. The correct location is Ugbowo campus. The University of Benin runs two campuses at Ugbowo and Ekehuan respectively. However, Ugbowo is the main campus as the administrative nerve centre of the University. 3 respondents (7.70%) were not aware of the correct location of the University main library. The reason for the lack of awareness of location of the University library by the 3 respondents is not stated.

**Table 1.3: Name of University Library**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 3</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the name of the University of Benin main Library?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>John Harris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source – Fieldwork, 2012**

As part of the correct of awareness of the existence of the University library, this question sought to discover if the respondents knew the name. Of the 39 respondents 28 (71.79%) gave the right answer as John Harris while 11 respondents (28.21%) could not.

**Library Orientation**

This section on library orientation covers both the course on use of library and orientation carried out annually for students and those for fresh students. These two channels are intended to get students acquainted with the library and use of its resources.

**Table 2: Library Orientation Programme**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 5</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Was Library orientation carried out for you on resumption?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source – Fieldwork, 2012**

Library orientation serves as a compass guide or direction for students to become aware and familiarize with the library. In table 2 of the 39 respondents 15 (38.46%) accepted going through the officially prescribed library orientation for fresh
students. However, 20 respondents (51.28%) claimed it was not carried out while 5 respondents (12.82%) do not know if it was done. While the number of those who claimed it was not done is higher, however, since 15 (38.46%) of the respondents underwent the exercise show that it was legitimately carried out. Why 25 respondents (64.10%) were not aware of the exercise is outside the scope of this work.

Table 2.1: Participation in Library Orientation Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 6</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you ever taken part in the annual Library orientation for students?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The University of Benin annual library orientation is carried out at the beginning of each academic session. This gives both the fresh and new students the opportunity to familiarize and reacquaint themselves with the activities and resources of the library. In the table above only 6 respondents (15.38%) have ever participated in the annual library orientation exercise. 28 respondents (71.79%) had not ever participated while 5 respondents (12.82%) do not know about the exercise. While reasons for this downside figure cannot be readily accounted for, the library management information dissemination system in this regard should be examined and reinvigorated.

Table 2.2: Participation in Course on Use of Library

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 7</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did you do the course on use of library?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source – Fieldwork, 2012

In the above table, 30 (76.92%) of the 39 respondents accept took the course on use of the library. If this number of respondents (30) did take the course, it is startling that 15 respondents (38.46%) as shown in table 1.1 became aware of the library through friends and 9 (23.07%) through lecturers. The total number of those who became aware of the University library outside library orientation is 24 (61.53%). The reason for such high number might be because the course on use of library is more theoretical than practical. It does not involve actual visit to the library.

4. Findings

This study has found out the following:

i. Part-time students are aware of the University library
ii. Part-time students are not aware of library orientation program for students
iii. Several part-time students do not take part in library orientation for either fresh or old students at the beginning of each academic session
iv. Part-time students take the course on use of library but are more aware about the library from friends.

5. Recommendation

i. The Library management should be more proactive in getting part-time students to become aware of the library through use of fliers and other information driven platforms
ii. Part-time students should be given more reading assignments in reference section of the library that will compel them to actually visit and use the library.
iii. Library orientation should be made compulsory as a criterion for permanent admission into school after period of probation for all part-time students
iv. The course on use of library should involve actual visit to the University main library and on site assessment.

6. Conclusion

Part-time students like all other on-campus students are expected to fulfill the same academic criteria necessary for award of University degrees. Since the library plays a great role in realizing this dream, the extent of awareness of the library will propel its use. This study has found that part-time students' awareness of the library is below par. In the context of this study, the library should adopt renewed strategies to woe part-time students for greater awareness of her existence and services.

References


Oladokun, O. S. and L. O. Aina 2009: Library and information needs and barriers to the use of information sources by continuing education students at the University of Botswana. Information Development. 25 (4). http://dvsagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/25/1/43


Assessment of Parenting Styles on School Attendance and Academic Performance of Nomadic Children in Selected Settlements in Nigeria

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Educational Foundations and Counselling
Obafemi Awolowo University

Sharon Omoregbe
Mass Communication
Covenant University, Ota

Olatomide Onijuni Olufemi
Educational Foundations and Counselling
Obafemi Awolowo University

Abstract The study examined parenting styles on school attendance and academic performance of nomadic children in selected settlements in Nigeria. The study used 120 (44 male, 76 female) pupils between the ages of 10 and 13 from eight government primary schools that are from nomadic homes. The study made use of Baumrind's thirty items on parenting styles and the pupils' class attendance register and total examination scores in eight subjects in the previous two terms. Three hypotheses were generated, tested and analyzed using Chi-square and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient statistics. The results show that pupils from authoritative parenting home attend school most and they also performed academically best out of the three parenting styles used in the study. It was concluded that all necessary things being put in place, when parents dialogue and carry children along in their decision making and partake in the children's concerns, they tend to perform better especially in their academics. Therefore, teachers can use parents/teachers' association forum to encourage parents to be more warm and friendly with their children at home, and government should provide necessary amenities that would make nomadic pupils want to stay more in school and learn.

Keywords: Parenting Styles, School Attendance, Academic Performance, Nomadic Children, Nigeria.

1. Background

In the bid of accepting and expressing universal human right by allowing every citizen to have formal education, the Nigerian government launched the Nomadic Educational Policy (NEP) in 1989, which was aimed to provide free and compulsory primary education to the children of nomadic people from Fulani of the North especially (Usman, 2006). The nomads are mostly Fulani from the Western region of sub-Saharan Africa, densely populated in the Northern part of Nigeria. They are of three categories, the pastoralists (herdsmen or cattle rearers), the fishermen (mostly found around the riverine areas) and the migrant farmers. The pastoralists or cattle rearers are addressed in this study. Nomadic profession (the pastoralists) entails migrating from one location to the other in search of green pastures to feed their cattle. In most cases it requires the entire family migrating in the process, thereby limiting the children especially to acquire formal education in a school setting. According to UNESCO (2008) and Muhammad and Abbo (2010), there are 9.4 million nomads including 3.1 million school age children, and about 7 million are pastoralists and others are fishermen in Nigeria. However, as at the time of this study there has not been an existing data on the population of the pastoralists in the Southwest Nigeria; but there is an obvious evidence of their presence in the region whereby the pastoralists go

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about herding their flocks. Some of them are given a place to settle on the outskirts of the town, while some deliberately settle near by farmers on their farm lands, and some of these settlement areas are named after them. Their settlement areas are locally referred to as ‘Aba Fulani’ or ‘Gaa Fulani’ meaning Fulani settlement where they reside with their cattle, and often times the natives go to them to buy sheep and cows.

In Nigerian government efforts to render free and equal education to all school age children, several attempts were made to introduce education to the nomads and to sustain their interest. For instance, the Federal Government promulgated Decree 41 of 1989 which established the National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE); and the commission was saddled with the responsibility of providing the nomads with relevant and functional basic education, knowledge and skills that will be productive to them and the nation in general (Osokoya, Atinmo, Sarumi, Lawal, Ajayi & Osokoya, 2010).

Despite these laudable efforts of the government to educate the nomadic children, it is reported that they have not achieved much success especially in the Northern part of Nigeria where the nomads are mostly concentrated (Usman, 2006). Having inaugurated a commission to see to the affairs of the body (nomadic) holistically, Aderinoye, Ojokheta & Olojede (2007) identified some of the approaches that were adopted by the commission such as on-site schools whereby schools are mounted within the vicinity of the nomads. Classes are held under the trees or make-shift raft tents and mats. Shift school system is another approach to schooling the nomadic children. This method is similar to shift school system except that students are allowed to run morning and afternoon shifts in order to make it convenient and attractive to them. Another approach that was adopted by the commission is mobile schools. Iro (2006) described mobile schools as collapsible classrooms which can be assembled or disassembled within thirty minutes and carried conveniently by pack bulls. The entire school materials including furniture and teaching aids can be assembled and transferred from one school point to another; although motor caravans are being used instead of animals. In other words, this type of school is moved from one point to the other as the nomads migrate. In conjunction with mobile school is mobile learning. UNESCO (2004) in Aderinoye et.al. (2007) gave the ownership statistics of radio and television in Nigeria as 37.0 percent owned only radio, and 1.3 percent owned only TV sets. Nearly forty-eight percent (47.8%) owned both radio and TV sets, as 13.9 percent had neither. Aderinoye et.al. (2007) concluded that findings from the study revealed that radios are easily affordable, accessible, and often more handy to use (especially the transistor radio) than TV. The outcome of this study gave an identical description of how the Fulani pastoralists make use of radio by carrying it along while they lead their flocks to pasture. Having this information and to further improve the education of the nomads, the commission introduced education programme on the radio without disrupting the herding activity of the nomads. This can briefly be described as ‘learn while you work’. This method appeared more successful when compared with on-site, shift and even mobile schooling. This was corroborated by Muhammad, et.al (2010) in their pilot study of the use of radio school reported to have recorded a significant rise in the pupils’ regular attendance in school.

Having had such activity by National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE) in ensuring proper education for the nomads, it is still reported that its success has not reached the expected objective of the establishment of the commission. Some of the failures are attributed to low levels of enrolment of the students, high drop out rate of the students, inadequate teachers, inadequate instructional materials and infrastructure, inadequate supervision and inspection of schools, and funding (Department of Programme Development and Extension, National Commission for Nomadic Education (DPDENCNE, undated). But earlier on, Deng (1983) in his reference to Ezeoma (1983) gave reasons why cattle Fulani parents did not send their children to formal schools organized outside their camps because of long distances of free schools from their camps. Further, the children were involved in herding, and the fact that nomadic Fulani families are constantly on the move in search of grazing grounds and water for their cattle in the dry North; also, they have no land to call their own. These and many more would have been responsible for the failure of the project.

Despite these obvious reasons that are hampering the success of this commission, a striking and unequivocally observation is made by some analysts/researchers on the likelihood of this commission to breakthrough eventually. For instance, Iro (2006) in an interview observed that about eighty percent of the pastoral nomads were willing to go to school. Likewise, Wright (1988) in Iro (2006) reported that some of the nomads are beginning to tilt towards Western education so as to have representatives in governance and policy making which has over the time left them at the mercy of their counterparts that are well educated making policies and taking decisions for them. With this understanding of the nomads wanting to go to school perhaps might be responsible for the reason why some of them don’t hesitate to enroll their children in school whenever they migrate down Southwest of the country. The pastoralists in the South West now adopt a temporary-permanent settlement system whereby they take their flocks for grazing on daily basis and they come back to their huts in the evenings. This becomes practicable for them because South West is noted for its forest, grasses and water; invariably the pastoralists don’t have to go for days or weeks before they feed their flocks, thereby making the entire family to be in migration process. In addition, their wives engage in selling cheese that is milked from their cows at
public motor parks, this is locally called ‘wara’ to further support the family. It is in this process that some of their children are made to enroll in schools within the vicinity of their settlement. The nomads that are considered in this study are not the seasonal migrants, neither are they settled in the region permanently. Having believed in formal education and enrolling their children in schools, these investigators see the need to look into how the nomads’ parenting method might affect the academic performance and school attendance of these children. However, as at the time of this study, these researchers have not come across the use of parenting styles with academic performance of nomadic children both home and abroad, but it is believed that there is a lot of work done on parenting styles and nomadic activity independently that could be fused together to see if it would produce any meaningful research results.

Parenting goes beyond fathering or mothering a child, it is a complex activity that comprises a lot of specific behaviors that work independently and collectively to influence the life of an individual child. Parenting behaviors are acquired as a result of the parenting pattern that is inherited from one’s parents or caregivers, the particular style of parenting that is popular in one’s culture, and specifically, man’s biological, emotional, socio-economic and psychological make up. All these including the child’s personal traits determine the style of parenting that parents adopt. Many researchers have worked on parenting styles deriving their constructs from Baumrind’s (1991) three main approaches – authoritative, authoritarian and permissive based upon two aspects of parenting behaviour ‘warmth and control’.

2. Authoritarian Parents

Authoritarian parenting could also be called strict parenting, or monologue type of parenting where parents alone determine their children’s activity. Parents in this classification have high expectations for compliance to parental rules and instructions and give room for just little open discussion between the parent and the child. Authoritarian parenting is restrictive, the parent expects the child to follow their directions and to appreciate and respect their work and effort. Authoritarian parents expect much of their children; they are very demanding and give orders. ‘They are obedience- and status-oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation’ (Baumrind, 1991). This type of parents provides disciplined and ordered environments with obviously declared rules. Children are expected to follow the strict rules established by the parents without explaining the reason behind the laid down rules or set boundaries. Punitive measures are often meted on the children when such laid down rules are not adhered to. Such parents take full charge of the child’s life and insist that their orders be carried out as instructed without giving further explanations for their instructions. Authoritarian parents are less responsive to their children’s wants. Also, they are often likely to beat a child rather than talk about the issue.

3. Authoritative parents

Authoritative parenting, which could also be referred to as “assertive democratic” “dialogue” or “balanced” parenting, is a child-centered approach that embraces high expectations of maturity. Authoritative parents are able to comprehend their children’s emotions and educate them on how they can be controlled. Parents are usually attentive to their children, and they often help them to find proper ways of solving their problems. Even though authoritative parenting encourages children to be independent, it still places limits and has power over their actions. Authoritative parents are the type of parents that watch and teach clear standards for their children’s behaviour, they are firm, but not interfering, either are they restrictive. Their methods of discipline are encouraging, rather than punitive. They want their children to be self-confident, socially responsible, self-regulated and cooperative (Baumrind, 1991). Similar to authoritarian parents, those with an authoritative parenting style set rules and guidelines that their children are expected to adhere to, but this parenting style is much more democratic. Authoritative parents are responsive to their children’s needs and are willing to engage in open dialogue with their children and listen to questions raised by them. This category of parents is often nurturing and forgiving. Authoritative parents set restrictions or boundaries and demand maturity, and when punishing a child, explanations are given for punishment. They measure the punishments meted on their children vis-à-vis the offence and they are consistent in their discipline.

4. Permissive Parents

Permissive parenting style otherwise known as “nondirective” or “laisser-faire” is one of the styles used by parents in nurturing their children. These parents are accepting and warm but exert little control. They do not set limits, and allow children to set their own rules and schedules and activities. They do not demand the high levels of behavior as authoritarian or authoritative parents. Danny, (2007) described permissive parenting in three ways: as a parent who is
lazy or lacks knowledge to enforce discipline; a parent who just thinks that all things will become better with time; and a parent who neglects the discipline due to personal problems as being a single parent, health issues, work, addiction and depression. In further research by some psychologists (Maccoby and Martin, 1983), under the construct of permissive style of parenting came up with further division as indulgent and neglect.

5. School Attendance

School attendance in this study simply refers to the number of times pupils attend school in the last two terms of the three terms of one academic session. The total number of school days in first term was 65 and second term was 67 that pupils were meant to attend school. It implies that pupils must have attended school 132 times as at the time of this study. This record was gotten from the class teachers of the participants that were used in the study. The class attendance was obtained by the class teachers by taking attendance of the pupils in the classroom first in the morning as they come to school and the last in the afternoon as the school closes.

6. Academic Performance

Academic performance is the expected result of the academic activity of the individual pupil. In this study however, the pupils’ academic performance was based on the academic results of the pupils in the last two terms, obtained from their class teachers. The pupils offer eight subjects in a session on term basis (English Language, Mathematics, Social Studies, Elementary Science, Bible Knowledge, Cultural & Creative Arts, Yoruba Language, and Health Education). The expected total score for each subject is 100% including continuous assessment and other rated or measurable academic activity, therefore the highest total score for all the subjects in a term is 800 and 1,600 for the two terms. However, to be considered academically fit in the school system and be slated for the next class promotion, pupils must score 40% marks and above in each subject. Therefore, to be considered for good academic performance in this study, a pupil must have scored 320 marks and above in a term and a minimum of 640 in the two terms that were considered in this study.

7. Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were raised for this study:

1. There will be no significant relationship between parenting styles and school attendance.
2. There will be no significant relationship between parenting styles and academic performance.
3. There will be no significant relationship between school attendance and academic performance.

8. Participants

The study made use of 120 (44-male and 76-female) primary (5and6) pupils with age range of 10 and 13 years purposively selected from eight schools in two rural settings from two states in Nigeria (Osun and Ogun). The pupils were identified as children of nomadic parents who have settled within the regions for over five years and they have allowed their children to attend schools. The pupils were approached in their various primary schools having sought the consent of the head teachers in conjunction with their class teachers who helped in the interpretation of the questionnaire items to the pupils. They also released the last two terms’ internal examination scores of the pupils and the attendance registers showing daily attendance of the pupils to the researchers.

9. Instruments

The instrument used was the adapted version of Baumrind (1991) ‘Parental Authority Questionnaire’ (PAQ), thirty statements describing behaviors representative of authoritative parenting, authoritarian parenting, and permissive parenting. The pupils’ age (10 & 13 years) and level of education was considered in the understanding of the items of the questionnaire and this made the researchers seek the assistance of teachers in there schools that speak both Hausa and Yoruba languages to interpret the questions to them. However, the thirty items of the questionnaire was pilot tested with a similar set of students (30) in another rural setting and a reliability coefficient of 0.80 was obtained using Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient method.
10. Design

The design for this study was the descriptive survey carried out in an ex-post facto approach in that the variables that were identified in the study were facts on ground as school attendance; academic performance and parenting styles of the pupils were visible and could be measured with the use of a battery of scales.

11. Data Analysis

The statistical procedure used in analyzing the data generated for the three hypotheses were Chi square and Pearson Moment Product revealing the proportions of the results.

12. Results

The results are presented according to the hypotheses and in the tables below.

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant relationship between parenting styles and school attendance.

Table 1. Chi-Square showing the Relationship between Parenting Styles and School Attendance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parenting Styles</th>
<th>School Attendance</th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;40 times Attendance</td>
<td>40-77 times Attendance</td>
<td>78-116 times Attendance</td>
<td>116-132 times Attendance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>35.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44.1%</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32.6%</td>
<td>34.8%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32.5%</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above reveals that children from authoritative parenting style have the highest no of school attendance (116-132 days, 35.0%), while children from authoritative parenting style have the highest no of low school attendance (<40 days, 44.1%) and children from permissive parenting style fall within the class of low school attendance (<40 days: 32.6% and 40-77 days: 34.8%). This implies that children from authoritative home attend school most followed by authoritarian and permissive respectively. The hypothesis therefore upholds that there is a significant relationship between parenting styles and school attendance.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant relationship between parenting styles and academic performance.
Table 2. Chi-Square showing the relationship between Parenting Styles and Academic Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parenting Styles</th>
<th>Academic Performance</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>High Performance (960-1,600)</td>
<td>Average Performance (641-960)</td>
<td>Low Performance (&lt;640)</td>
<td>( \chi^2 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>57.5%</td>
<td>30.0%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>29.4%</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>32.6%</td>
<td>54.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>25.33</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above reveals the academic performance of the pupils with authoritative having the highest no of pupils with a record of high academic performance (23 pupils: 960-1,600,) followed by authoritarian having the same population of pupils that fall between high performance (10 pupils: 960-1,600) and low performance (10 pupils: <640), and permissive having the largest population of pupils that fall under low academic performance (25: <640). This implies that pupils from authoritative parenting style have the best academic performance. The hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between parenting styles and academic performance is therefore rejected.

**Hypothesis 3:** There will be no significant relationship between school attendance and academic performance.

Table 3. Pearson r showing the correlation between school attendance and academic performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Sig.(2 tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students’ Attendance in Two Terms</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>95.2500</td>
<td>21.02270</td>
<td>.749</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ Overall Performance in the Two Terms</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>877.4833</td>
<td>393.73514</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above reveals that there is a significant relationship between school attendance and academic performance (\( r = .749, \) sig. =.000.). It implies that the more pupils attend school, the better their academic performance in school.

13. Discussion

Findings of the analysis above show that authoritative parenting style had the highest percentage population of pupils that attended school. This finding corroborates the description of authoritative parents that they want their children to be self-confident, socially responsible, self-regulated and cooperative (Baumrind, 1991). It further implies that the type of friendly and warm relationship that exists between parents and children under authoritarian style that allows discussion, disagreement and settlement through verbal communication will likely make such children want to appreciate and obey their parents by being prompt in school thereby leading to good performance. As shown in table 2, authoritative parenting style had the largest number of pupils that performed academically best out of the three groups. This is much expected from the fall out of prompt school attendance, because it is hoped that the more pupils go to school to learn, the more likely they will excel. Results of table 3 also shows the correlation between school attendance and academic performance. It reveals that the more the pupils attend school the more and better academically they perform. Most parenting research findings have also been in favor of authoritative parenting style which is known for firmness and
warmth. The style allows children to be independent yet the parents maintain the limits and controls on their action. Querido, Warner and Eyberg (2002) examined the relations between parenting styles and child behaviour problems in African American preschool children and their result showed that authoritative style was most predictive of fewer child behaviour problems. Steinberg (2001) in Kokpo (2007) asserted that developmental psychologists overwhelmingly endorse authoritative parenting as the optimal parenting style for raising adolescents. Kokpo (2007) and Wargo (2007) in Kokpo (2007) both concluded that authoritative parenting style promotes teen’s exposure to positive activities and reduces teen’s opportunities for engaging in delinquent and risky behaviours. Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman and Roberts (1987), Leung, Lau and Lam (1998) and Boreja (1998) in Tiller, Garrison, Block, Cramer and Tiller (2002) reported that permissive parenting style was negatively associated with higher grades of the students but authoritative was positively associated, authoritarian style was negatively related to academic achievement of the adolescents and the adolescents of authoritative parents were more effective in learning and study strategies respectively. However, the latter (Tiller, et al, 2002) delved into families with young elementary school-aged children having had a lot of researches and literature on the adults with parenting styles. Hence, the authors made use of parenting styles and cognitive development of the young children, and their findings were in support of previous studies that authoritative parenting styles predicted better cognitive development of the children. The finding of this study also tallied with Tiller et al’s (2002) finding that authoritative parenting style children attend school most and they performed best when compared with other types of parenting styles (authoritarian and permissive). In the same vein, this study found authoritative parenting style to be most positively associated with class attendance and good academic performance of nomadic children in Nigeria.

14. Conclusion and Recommendations

It is concluded that there are different types of parenting style that are often adopted by parents in parenting their children, among are authoritative, authoritarian and permissive as indicated by Baumrind (1991) which was used in this study. It is further concluded that pupils from authoritative parenting home attended school most and they performed best in their academics when compared with other pupils from authoritarian and permissive homes. It is recommended therefore that going by the policies of the Nigerian government, where formal education is not a privilege but a right, government should further put in place the basic infrastructures that will make school attractive to pupils so that with the appropriate parenting style (authoritative) at home, children will attend school regularly and they will likely do well in their academics. Also, parents should further know that it is in friendly atmosphere that a child can learn and perform best. Therefore, parents should cooperate and relate with their children in a friendly manner in order to get the best optimal result from them both in their academics and other areas of life. In the same vein, teachers should encourage more parents/child cordial relationship which could be established during Parents’ Teachers’ Association (PTA) meetings to pass across to them the benefits that could be derived from being friendly and humane with their children at home.

References


Intellectual Property Rights and Economic Development

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Abstract: This paper looks at Intellectual Property Rights and the relation they have with economic growth. It also reveals the instruments of Intellectual Property Rights and their impact on the developing and developed countries. At the end it analyzes where Kosovo stands in regards to Intellectual Property rights and what are the steps that should be taken for the situation to improve. Intellectual property is an old concept. We can find the first step in Venetian law of the year 1474, reference is often, in terms of initial systematic approach to the protection of inventions by a form of patent, while setting an exclusive right of an individual, eliminating for the first time, the public interest. Before the 1800-es, although examples of industrial concentration can be identified by some European countries, output growth was more a matter of craft production in small scale, how new methods and radical organizations. Now, the Intellectual Property Rights is one strong point for developing the economic growth all over the world. On the other hand in this study we are trying to investigate the progress of the Intellectual Property Rights in Albania and in Kosovo institutions and government progressing reforms. The findings of this paper are some data, gathering in statistical analyze. Intellectual Property Rights in now days is not an old concept, but it evaluate with improving low reforming. The conclusions of this paper research consist in: The infrastructure and technological advancement in this country is still weak, therefore major innovations and discoveries are unlikely to happen (Kosovo case) In Albania the situation is in perfection under low influences.

Key words: Economic growth, Intellectual property rights, Patents, Innovation

1. Introduction

Economic growth is a goal that almost all countries seek vigorously. The increase in output that results in higher real incomes of workers, improve citizens’ standard of living. This way, the gap between peoples’ wants and scarcity is less severe. For a country like Kosovo, economic growth should be a priority and perhaps the most important goal of the government (Larry 1999) There have been numerous cases where countries with much weaker economy managed to gradually improve and eventually surpass the most developed countries. According to the US Bureau of East Asian and Pacific Affairs, Singapore managed to achieve an average growth rate of 7.8 percent between 1965 and 2009, despite the lack of physical resources (“Background Note: Singapore”, par. 15)1. This enabled Singapore to become one of the richest countries worldwide, with an estimated per-capita GDP of $35,515 (“Background Note: Singapore”, par. 1). Japan, Hong Kong, and South Korea have also experienced immense economic growth similar to that of Singapore.

This proves that even smaller and poorer countries can catch up with industrialized, wealthy countries. However, between 1750 and 1870, Europe underwent profound changes, which among others can include: growth of cities, construction of railways, capital investment and increased transatlantic economy. However, in Europe the main elements

1 Please refer to http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2798.htm for the full article on Singapore.
of intellectual property were still in their infancy.

While the American colonies had laws that give patents long before the outbreak of the American Revolution in 1775, and soon after the revolution, 12 of the 13 original colonies adopted laws on copyright. Kosovo should follow the path that these countries followed and analyze what they have done that worked so well for them. In general, many factors or institutional structures might foster economic growth, one of them believed to be the protection of intellectual property rights. But is this necessarily the case?

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

2.1 What are Intellectual Property Rights (IPRs)?

Before analyzing how these rights impact economic growth, certain keywords have to be defined first. When one speaks of Intellectual Property Rights, one refers to the new and unique ideas, creations and products that result from human creativity (Korn 9). IPR itself is a broad field. Because of this, countries dedicate many institutions to deal with IPR issues and develop mechanisms to enforce instruments of intellectual property rights. Some of these instruments include:

1. **Copyrights** - economic rights that authors possess for over their creations, including the right to make copies and display publicly their creations;
2. **Patents** - enable the holder of the patent to prevent others from making, using or selling the creation that is patented for a certain period of time;
3. **Trade Secrets** - involve the right of inventors to keep their creations secret for several reasons for an unlimited time (i.e. Coca Cola recipe); and Trade transfers in economy.
4. **Trademarks** - distinctive signs that identify a certain product or service produced or supplied by a company - i.e. Ferrari's trademark is the horse standing on two feet (Field Jr. 4-7).

2.2 The Relation between IPRs and Economic Development

2.2.1 Protection of intellectual property rights

The major Albanian legislative acts governing copyright and intellectual property are the Law on Industrial Property, No. 9947 dated 7 July 2008, and the Law on Copyright and Related Rights, No. 9380, dated 28 April 2005 (amended). The Law on Copyright and Related Rights governs the rights and obligations of participants in the creative, productive and commercial activities and any other evaluation, utilization, exercise, literature, art or science activity. This law is applicable to local and foreign natural persons and legal entities performing commercial, creative, productive or estimating works, exercise or a variation of artistic or scientific functions on Albanian territory. Subject to this law are original works and derived works and collections.

Intellectual Property Rights are widely believed to have a positive impact on economic development. At first sight, this might seem true, but matters have to be analyzed more in detail to come up with an answer. Having strong IPRs may be either advantageous or disadvantageous, depending on how one looks at it. First, what should be noted is that there is a difference between Property Rights and Intellectual Property Rights (MSSJ 2,1year 2012, pp19). As distinct from Property Rights, IPRs include patents, copyrights, trade secrets which may encourage individuals to innovate, but in the same time these instruments of IPRs might be counterproductive. (Maderly & Leidenenr 2005)

H1 One argument that IPRs do not help economic growth is that although strong patents and copyright foster innovation and discovery.

The cost of working in previously made discoveries is high. For example, patents enable the holder to acquire monopoly

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2 Please refer to http://www.minervaeurope.org/publications/guideipr1_0.pdf for the full report.
3 Please refer to http://www.america.gov/media/pdf/books/iprbook.pdf for the book section (pages 4-7) for more information on the instruments of IPR.
power because others cannot make use of their innovations, at least not legally (Cole 89). Another problem is that patents create unnecessary variations of products because competitors try to invent something similar to what the holders of the patents have done (Cole 92). As for copyrights, for a country deciding to strengthen these rights, this would mean not being able to copy technologies from developed countries so easily anymore. That is why the decision has to be made by countries about up to what point they should be willing to strengthen IPRs – and especially Patents and Copyrights.

Second, a larger group of people believe that the relation between Intellectual Property Rights and Economic Growth is positive.

2.3 International Trade and Intellectual Property Rights

H2 One of the most widely respected financial institutions, the World Bank, is one of the greatest promoters for Intellectual Property Rights.

On their 2002 Global Economic Prospects Report, they stated that “across the range of income levels, IPRs are associated with greater trade and foreign direct investment (FDI) flows, which in turn translate into faster rates of economic growth” (The World Bank 129). However, they encourage countries to do a cost-benefit analysis before deciding to what level of IPRs enforcement they should engage. This means that the level of IPR enforcement should depend on a countries income level. An empirical study, conducted by University of Nottingham professors, tried to measure the relation between the income level and IPRs enforcement. The object of their activity is the collection of income from the utilization of the works and their distribution to the title-holders of copyright and related rights who have assigned the administration of these rights to an agency. These agencies report to the Albanian Copyright Office in relation to the applicable tariffs within the first quarter of the following year. The Albanian Copyright Office is a central institution, a public legal entity depending on the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports established in compliance with the law within Albanian territory.

The results were quite interesting: high-income and low-income countries seem to profit from enforcement of IPRs the most, while middle-income countries do not (Falvey, Foster and Greenaway 16-17). They justify their findings by saying that high-income countries benefit by strong Intellectual Property Rights because innovation is fostered and discoveries are made. By enforcing IPRs, low-income countries benefit because international trade with that country is fostered. On the other hand, middle-income countries have no significant benefit by strengthening IPRs because such countries do not necessarily have innovative capacities (Falvey, Foster and Greenaway 17).

Method and Research study

3.1 Intellectual Property Rights in the South Eastern Europe (SEE)

Property Rights in SEE Countries remain very weak. Numerous cases concerning the infringement of IPRs can be detected in countries of this region, i.e. Kosovo, Macedonia, Albania and Serbia. For example, piracy- which is related to copyrights-currently enjoys free reign as one can find whichever movie he/she wants before it is officially released as a DVD. Trademarks also continue to be misused quite heavily (i.e. fast food “Mili” located in the city center of the Capital of Kosovo bears the McDonalds trademark without the appropriate permission). According to the European Union Progress Report for Kosovo (2011), only a slight progress in the field of IPRs has been detected in Kosovo (“Kosovo Under UNSCR 1244/99 2009 Progress Report” 32). This slight progress is mainly due to the creation of the Central Intellectual Property Rights Unit, back in February 2009. The duty of this unit is to ensure coordination between relevant authorities (police, customs authorities, the market inspectorate and prosecution offices) in order to implement the 2008 regulation establishing customs procedures for

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4 Please refer to http://mises.org/journals/jls/15_4/15_4_3.pdf for the full journal article.
6 Please refer to http://ictsd.org/i/ip/24237/?view=document for detailed empirical results.
action against counterfeit goods, pirated goods and goods infringing intellectual property rights” (“Kosovo Under UNSCR 1244/99 2009 Progress Report” 32). However, according to the same report, the enforcement of IPRs still remains very weak in Kosovo. Kosovo is not known for producing consumer goods, but it may foster economic development in many other ways. The Bureau of Economic, Energy and Business Affairs under the US department of state reconfirms claims of weak intellectual property rights in Kosovo. However, they suggest that “the development of a strong intellectual property rights regime will encourage future investment and economic development” (US Department of State - Bureau of Economic, par. 30)\(^8\).

3.2 Globalization, one impact factor very important for developing east states

3.2.1 Economic rights and moral rights. ACO and economic rights in Albania

Globalization has opened new avenues for both employers and job seekers. One off-shoot of this is the practice of outsourcing jobs (hiring lower-paid service workers in foreign countries to do work previously done by higher-paid workers) has been a contentious issue in high-income countries, especially the United States. Many American citizens dispute this industry trend because it takes away jobs from Americans, while others dispute it for the ethical implications of exploiting overseas workers. And when people are forced to work for low wages in poor working conditions, workplace safety and health is severely compromised (Field 2006, pp57).

Another facet of this phenomenon is the need for creation of sustainable livelihoods which has become an important factor in the present day world, especially in developing countries and among disadvantaged populations. Sustaining the progress calls for an explicit consideration of future generations. The law includes the specific cases when its provisions are applicable to works, entertainment or performances of artists’ players, sounds registration, radio or television programs. The author of a work is the owner of the moral and economic rights to their work. The moral rights are not subject to waiver. (Wedderman & Messenlyer 2012, pp12, 45, 78)

Further, these rights cannot be assigned and prescribed. According to the Civil Code, the moral rights may be assigned through inheritance after the author has passed away. Economic rights can be assigned according to the provision of this law and other legislative acts in force. (Gardild & Soccker 2009, pp23) In such a case, the related copyright rights do not affect the author’s rights. The economic right may be assigned exclusively or non-exclusively. The law provides that every agreement for the exclusive assignment of economic rights must be registered and certified by the Albanian Copyright Office (ACO).

\[\text{Fig 3. Indicators and important factors for progress on intellectual property}\]

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\(^8\) Please refer to [http://www.state.gov/e/eeb/rls/othr/ics/2009/117388.htm](http://www.state.gov/e/eeb/rls/othr/ics/2009/117388.htm) for the full article.
3.3 Albanian markets and Intellectual properties

In terms of our country, intellectual property already is a concept which is gaining citizenship. Thus, more and more, all the elements that comprise it are being made to listen, not only in technical environments, but they are accompanied by supportive legislation, the relevant bodies that administer them, treaties and agreements that our country is a party, etc.. More and more our country’s legal framework is supplemented, where we can mention the laws on patents, trademarks, industrial designs, appellations of origin, geographical indications, indications of the resources, royalties, while there are no laws to protect some other elements of intellectual property such as moral rights, personality rights, the defenses of plant varieties, trade dress, trade secrets. (Bello K, 2009)

The market in Albania is full of low cost, high quality real estate for sale. There are literally thousands of brand new, great value apartments, houses and offices on sale now at unbelievable prices. Even in the best locations, such as the capital Tirana, or the coastal metropolis of Durrësi there are fantastic bargains to take advantage of when it comes to buying Albanian real estate. From rural homesteads, to palatial urban apartments, there’s property for sale in Albania to suit the needs of every potential investor, all at prices that can’t be beaten – not even in neighboring countries. Property in Albania is great value beyond belief (Lummaj 2012, pp4)

Having long been overlooked by investors, Albanian properties are now beginning to be snapped up by savvy foreigners looking for a good deal. Albania is a rapidly developing economy, on the path to European integration, and as such is a safe bet for a healthy return on your investment.

4. Concluding Remarks

To conclude, the enforcement of Intellectual Property Rights generally is associated with greater economic activity, which in turn leads to economic development. However, few exceptions can be added to this generalization. Countries should make a cost-benefit analysis when determining the level of IPRs enforcement. For example, Kosovo currently falls under the low-income countries category and the property rights area has a lot of room for improvement. In order to encourage foreign investment and improve international trade, Intellectual Property Rights Protection has to be enhanced. In our opinion, copyrights and trademarks are the instruments of IPRs on which Kosovo should concentrate at the time being. The infrastructure and technological advancement in this country is still weak, therefore major innovations and discoveries are unlikely to happen. In this sense, the inclusion of patents and trade secrets would only add costs to our already weak economy. However, copyrights and trademarks should be used to promote investment.

A company like McDonalds will never open a fast-food restaurant here if they know that someone else might misuse their trademark and destroy their reputation. Recently, a coffee bar bearing the name of Starbucks in Prishtina has been asked to change their name in order to respect the copyrights of the famous coffee company. The request was fulfilled and currently the coffee bar functions under a different name. This example might suggest that steps towards improvement are being taken. However, still a lot of work is needed in the field of Intellectual Property Rights if countries of the SEE Region aim to encourage investment and grow economically.

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Teaching & Learning Vocabulary for Reading Skill Development and Utilizing Technology for It

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Abstract: Strengthening the stock of vocabulary is an unavoidable necessity for developing reading skill. Since a learner of language must develop reading skill, he/she should give due attention to vocabulary. The teachers also should adopt all possible steps to enrich students’ vocabulary. In the class room teachers can teach vocabulary both directly and indirectly. Various materials like text books, dictionaries, pictures and real things can be used for teaching vocabulary. Teachers can teach the meanings of words by using synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms and contexts etc. All these things will be much easier for a teacher if he/she uses multimedia projector and laptop with internet connection in the class room or shows these things in internet where the campus is Wi-Fi equipped. Teachers can show corpuses, online dictionaries and vocabulary teaching and testing websites. This article focuses on some important aspects of vocabulary, its relation with reading skill, the aspects of vocabulary teachers should focus, and the approaches he/she should follow for enhancing the stock of vocabulary.

Keywords: Expressive vocabulary, receptive vocabulary, reading skill, corpus, multimedia projector, WiFi

1. Introduction

Vocabulary is the sum of words, phrases and idioms which form a language. Since the term ‘vocabulary’ denotes not only single word, but also phrases made up of two or three words and multi words idioms, such as ‘call it a day, or ‘a bolt from the blue’ it’s better to use ‘vocabulary items’ rather than ‘vocabulary words’ while talking or writing about vocabulary. If we think about reading skill development there is no alternative to vocabulary development. Among various ways of teaching and learning vocabulary, the most attractive one is use of technology. By using internet through laptop and multimedia projector the teacher can make the class attractive and the students also can have a large stock of vocabulary by working with many valuable websites. This article deals with what aspects of vocabulary teachers should emphasize, what methodologies or approaches can be used for effective teaching of vocabulary and how information technology can be used for teaching and learning vocabulary.

2. Some important aspects of vocabulary

The vocabulary can be categorized as expressive and receptive vocabulary. Expressive vocabularies are those vocabularies which we use for expressing ourselves through writing and speaking and receptive vocabularies are those vocabularies which we use for receiving information through listening to speech and reading. It’s almost impossible to say exactly how many words there are in English. The Global Language Monitor, which tracks language trends, especially in the media, has counted up to 988,968 words. Webster’s Third New International Dictionary, Unabridged, together with its 1993 Addenda Section, includes around 470,000 entries. Counting words is, however, a complicated business as it is not exactly determined what we mean by a word. If we think about the word RUN, we find that many words are derived from it, such as, run, runs, running, ran, runner and runners. Should we count these as one “word” or six? How do we count different uses of the same word? For example, is the verb run in run a marathon the same as the verb in run a company? Is it the same as the noun a run? How do we deal with idiomatic uses like run out of gas, feel run down, or a run of bad luck? And, of course, new words are being added to the language all the time. The Internet especially has given us lots of new words like podcast, netizen, and blog, as well as new meanings such as surf as in surf the web. (Jeanne Mc Carter-2007, p-1) Despite such difficulties, researchers have tried to estimate how many words native speakers know so that they can assess the number of words learners need to learn. Estimates for native speakers vary between 12,000 and 20,000 depending on their level of education. One estimate is that a native speaker university graduate knows about
20,000 word families (Goulden, Nation, and Read, 1990), not including phrases and expressions. Current learners' dictionaries such as the Cambridge Dictionary of American English include “more than 40,000 frequently used words and phrases.” This huge number of items presents a challenge that would be impossible for most English language learners, and even for many native speakers. Fortunately, it is possible to get along in English with fewer than 20,000 words. Another way of deciding the number of words learners need is to count how many different words are used in an average spoken or written text. As some high-frequency words are repeated, it is said that learners can understand a large proportion of texts with a relatively small vocabulary. So, for example, learners who know the most frequent 2,000 words should be able to understand almost 80 percent of the words in an average text, and a knowledge of 5,000 words increases learners’ understanding to 88.7 percent (Francis and Kucera 1982).

2.1 Connection between reading skill development and vocabulary development and necessity of both aspects of language

We find that there is a close relation between vocabulary and reading skill, i.e., a capability and competence of comprehending any written text. It is to be mentioned here that, the importance of reading skill development is so great for some very practical reasons. In the first place English is the medium of instruction for many educational programs and most of texts, reference books and academic writings are available in English either in original text or in translation. So reading skill helps a student collect huge data on the subject of his/her study. Although various factors, like basic knowledge of the sentence structure and grammar, understanding the meanings of vocabulary items and background knowledge of the topic dealt with in that written text contribute to its comprehension, knowledge of vocabulary is the prime factor in this regard. One of the oldest findings in educational research is the strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Word knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension and determines how well students will be able to comprehend the texts they read. Vocabulary experts agree that adequate reading comprehension depends on a person’s knowing between 90 and 95 percent of the words in a text (Hirsch, 2003). Readers who do not recognize at least 90 percent of the words will not only have difficulty comprehending the text, but they will miss out on the opportunity to learn new words. The Report of the National Reading Panel (2000) concluded, “The importance of vocabulary knowledge has long been recognized in the development of reading skills. As early as 1924, researchers noted that growth in reading power relies on continuous growth in word knowledge” (pp. 4–15). Rupley, Logan & Nicholas, (1998/99) opine “Vocabulary is the glue that holds the stories, ideas and content together...making comprehension accessible for children.” As vocabulary is one of the major factors of comprehension, teachers of English language as well as learners should give due attention to it.

2.2 The aspects of vocabulary learners should know

Learning vocabulary is a challenge for learners, partly because of the size of the task, and partly because of the variety of vocabulary types to be learned, including single words, phrases, collocations, and strategic vocabulary, as well as grammatical patterning, idioms and fixed expressions. There are many aspects of vocabulary items, which learners should acquire. Richards (1976) and Nation (2001) list the different things learners need to know about a word before they can claim to have successfully learned it. These include:
* The meaning(s) of the word
* Its spoken and written forms
* What “word parts” it has (e.g., any prefix, suffix, and “root” form)
* Its grammatical behavior (e.g., its word class, typical grammatical patterns it occurs in)
* Its collocations
* Its register
* What associations it has (e.g., words that are similar or opposite in meaning)
* What connotations it has
* Its frequency

It would be unrealistic to teach everything there is to know about a word at the first time it is presented to students – and any such attempt would make for some very tedious lessons. Obviously we need to make choices about how much we teach on a first presentation. For example with the word like, in addition to its sound and spelling we might choose to teach only one of its meanings (to enjoy, find something to be pleasant) with one grammatical pattern (I like + singular or plural noun) and some associated vocabulary (I like football/cartoons; I can’t stand game shows). At a later date we can add other meanings such as to be similar to (I have a car like that) or add more grammatical patterns such as like+ to+
verb (I like to play tennis). (Jeanne Mc Carten 2007) Additionally, even from the elementary level, it is important to include in vocabulary lessons not just single words, but also larger “chunks” such as collocations, phrases, or expressions, even whole sentences, as well as strategic vocabulary (Sökmen-1997). By building up a stock of expressions as well as individual words, students can assemble the language they need to communicate more fluently.

2.3 Direct and indirect teaching of vocabulary

In its analysis of the research on vocabulary instruction, the National Reading Panel (2000) found that vocabulary should be taught both directly and indirectly. Direct instruction means teaching specific words, such as teaching vocabulary prior to reading a selection. It is estimated that students can be taught explicitly some 400 words per year in school (Beck, McKeown & Kucan, 2002). Another example of direct instruction is the analysis of word roots and affixes (suffixes and prefixes). However, one cannot teach students all of the words they need to learn. Vocabulary instruction must therefore also include indirect instruction methods, such as exposing students to lots of new words and having them read a lot by designing a syllabus, giving assignments and taking regular tests. Indirect instruction also includes helping students develop an appreciation for words and experience enjoyment and satisfaction in their use (Baumann, Kame’enui & Ash, 2003). One of the ways of direct instruction is providing direct meanings of the words. Teachers should provide direct, explicit instruction in specific words. Teachers must remember that direct instruction of specific words is only one component of effective vocabulary instruction.

2.4 Words the teacher should choose to teach

Teachers should focus on words that are important to the text, useful to know in many situations, and that are uncommon in everyday language but recurrent in books (Juel & Deffes, 2004). The following guide was adapted from J.D. Cooper and used in the Texas Reading Academy (Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts, 2002).

* Before instruction, preview the text, even when using text that has pre-selected vocabulary words.
* Read the passage and identify vocabulary words you think students will find unfamiliar. Ask yourself: “How difficult is this passage to understand?”
* Select words that are important to understanding the text.
* List words, which you predict, will be challenging for your students. You may not be able to teach all of these words. Research supports teaching only a few words before reading.
* Determine which words are adequately defined in the text. Some may be defined by direct definition and others through context. Expand on these words after reading, rather than directly teaching them before reading.
* Identify words students may know based on their prefixes, suffixes and base or root words. If structural elements help students determine words’ meanings, don’t teach them directly.
* Consider students’ prior knowledge. Words can be discussed as you activate and build prior knowledge. Words can also be extended.
* Determine the importance of the word. Ask yourself: “Does the word appear again and again? Is the word important for comprehending the passage? Will knowledge of the word help in other content areas?” (Cooper, J.D. (1997).

2.5 Clarifying and explaining words

Once specific words are chosen, the vocabulary instruction must be analytical and substantial for words to “really stick” (Juel & Deffes, 2004). Teachers must provide clear explanations and examples of the meanings of these words in various contexts, and provide students with opportunities to discuss, analyze, and use the words. Simply looking up a definition in a dictionary is not enough. Have students rewrite definitions in their own words, provide examples of situations where the word could be used, supply synonyms (and antonyms when possible) and create sentences using the word that clearly show the meaning. Sometimes it is useful to have students use more than one new word in a single sentence because it forces them to look for relations among words (Stahl, 1999). This kind of direct vocabulary instruction is particularly important for students with learning disabilities (Juell & Deffes, 2004). Direct instruction of specific words can include the following ways:

Synonym: Teachers can present items that convey the same or nearly same meaning. Such as for teaching the meaning of the word ‘bright’ it can be said that ‘bright’ is synonymous to ‘shining’. It can also mean ‘meritorious’, such as bright students means meritorious students.

Antonym: In order to make the meaning of one item teachers can present the opposite item, such as the word
'bright' is opposite of 'dim' as in 'dim light'. It may also be opposite of 'dull' as in 'dull student'.

Hyponyms: A new word can be defined by mentioning some other words that serve as specific examples of a general concept, such as dog, lion, mouse, cow, goat are hyponyms of 'animal'.

Co-hyponyms or coordinates: While dog, lion, cow and goat are hyponyms of animal, these animals are co-hyponyms/subordinates of each other.

Definition: A new word or item can be defined as in the dictionary to make its meaning clear. Such as the word 'bright' can be defined as a thing which emits or reflects much light, such as a bright room is a room which is reflected with much light and a bright student is one who is endowed with much light of knowledge.

Illustration: By showing pictures, white board drawing and diagram a teacher can help the student understand the meaning of a new word, such as in order to present the word 'volcano' the teacher can show a picture of volcano or can draw one on the board.

Realia: New words can also be presented by showing real things, such words/phrases like 'modem, pen drive, and 'digital camera, can be presented by showing these things in the class.

Demonstration: A new word can be presented through acting out or miming, such as the meanings of the words like 'snore' 'drag' and 'wrestle, can be shown through acting out and miming.

2.6 Analyzing the words: teaching spelling, pronunciation and word roots

It is extremely necessary to teach the spoken and written forms, i.e., pronunciation and spelling of the word. Spelling knowledge applies not only to the ability to encode words during writing; importantly, it also underlies individuals' ability to decode words during the process of reading (Templeton, 2003a, 2003b). Students' spelling knowledge is, therefore, a powerful foundation for their reading and their vocabulary development. The majority of English words have been created through the combination of morphemic elements, that is, prefixes and suffixes with base words and word roots. If learners understand how this combination process works, they possess one of the most powerful understandings necessary for vocabulary growth (Anderson and Freebody, 1981). This understanding of how meaningful elements combine is defined as morphological knowledge because it is based on an understanding of morphemes, the smallest units of meaning in a language.

2.7 Teaching grammatical aspects of the words

Teaching grammatical behavior of the words is an excellent way of enriching students' vocabulary. While focusing on a word teachers should indicate its grammatical label. If the word is a noun, its singular and plural forms should be indicated. Its derivatives also should be taught showing the difference through examples. For example while teaching the word ‘breath’ teachers should say that it’s a noun and the verb form from it is ‘breathe’. Then with two examples, such as, if a person takes breath, he is alive and If a person breathes, he is alive the difference should be made clearer.

2.8 Indirect vocabulary teaching: encouraging to wide reading

Teachers can encourage the students for wide reading saying to them ‘The more you read, the more vocabulary you learn’. Increasing the opportunities for such encounters improves students' vocabulary knowledge, which in turn improves their ability to read more complex text. “In short, the single most important thing a teacher can do to improve students' vocabulary is to get them to read more.” (Texas Reading Initiative, 2002). Students should read different types of text at different levels, including text that is simple and enjoyable, and some that is challenging.

3. Teaching the use of dictionary

Teachers should teach the use of dictionaries, thesauruses, and other reference works. Exploring dictionary entries can be one important and effective component of understanding a word deeply. The entries can also help students determine the precise meaning of a word. Dictionaries can also provide helpful information about the history of a word and reinforce the interrelationships among words in the same meaning “families.” For example, a discussion of run-on entries illustrates how one word’s entry can include information about related words—the entry for entrap also includes entrap and entrapment. The usage notes in dictionaries often explain subtle but important differences among words—usually the appropriateness of one word over another in a particular context. Words for which the dictionary is essential may be entered in a student's vocabulary notebook. Dictionaries can also contribute to an interest in and attitudes toward words
that teachers and the students explore. The usage notes in dictionaries reflect a powerful and consistent research finding: every word/concept we know, and the degree to which we really know it, depends on the relationship of that word/concept to other words/concepts.

3.1 Multiple exposures to words

The growth of word knowledge is slow and incremental, requiring multiple exposures to words (Hirsch, 2003; Stahl, 2004). This means seeing the word in different contexts. Every time we encounter a word in context, we remember something about the word. As we encounter a word repeatedly, more and more information accumulates about that word until we have a vague notion of what it means. As we get more information we are able to define that word. “Vocabulary knowledge seems to grow gradually moving from the first meaningful exposure to a word to a full and flexible knowledge” (Stahl, 1999). Teachers should encourage students to actively construct links between new information and previously known information about a word.

3.2 Use of technology for teaching and learning vocabulary

For teaching vocabulary teachers traditionally use prescribed and non prescribed texts. Students can only be benefited from this teaching if they have those texts in front of them. Unless the students have texts in front of them it is very difficult to keep up the concentration which is extremely necessary for learning. From the practical experience it has been seen that, many students, specially in large classes, don’t carry text books. Moreover it is not possible to carry dictionaries in the class room. So while the teachers discuss vocabulary or want to show use of words in the dictionary, only those students are benefited who have texts or dictionaries. Others pass idle time having had nothing to concentrate on. Technology can play a vital role in solving this problem. Now many educational institutions are making the campuses Wi-Fi equipped. In these campuses the students have internet access within the campus. Some digital educational institutions are being introduced as well now. By using a small notebook or laptop students can have access to unlimited sources of knowledge. Teachers also can use laptops and multimedia projectors to carry the students to the world of internet. By using internet through multimedia projectors the teachers can show multiple uses of words in the online dictionary. Teachers can show the corpus to show the words in different contexts, browse internet through multimedia projectors to take the students to various websites which provide students knowledge of vocabulary. Moreover using internet through multimedia projector is the only way to show the student the latest words which are always being introduced in the language. As these new words may only be available in the latest editions of the dictionaries it is really difficult to show them to the students without using internet.

3.3 Using corpus through multimedia projector

A corpus is basically a collection of texts which is stored in a computer. The texts can be written or spoken language. Written texts, like newspapers and magazines, can be entered into the computer from a scanner, a CD, or the Internet. Spoken texts, like conversations, are recorded and then the recordings are transcribed; that is, they are written down word for word, so that the texts of these conversations can be fed into the computer database. It is then possible to analyze the language in the corpus with corpus software tools to see how people really speak or write. Corpus tools help us analyze the huge amount of data in the Corpus. It can consist of millions of words. But in addition to providing the more statistical kinds of information the Corpus also gives us access to hundreds of texts which we can read in order to observe how people use vocabulary in context – a qualitative analysis. For example, it is possible to see what kinds of vocabulary people use to talk about a topic like music or celebrities, or how they repeat words, or avoid repeating words by using synonyms. Using corpus is an extraordinary way of knowing about collocation, the way in which two or more words are typically used together. For example, we talk about heavy rain but not heavy sun, or we say that we make or come to a decision, but we don’t do a decision. So, heavy rain and make a decision are often referred to as collocations and we say that heavy collocates with rain, or that heavy and rain are collocates of each other. With collocation software we can search for all collocates of a particular word, that is, all the words that are used most frequently with that word and especially those with a higher than anticipated frequency. The Corpus can show us the grammatical patterns that vocabulary forms – or the grammar of vocabulary. This is very helpful with verb complements, i.e., items and structures that must follow or that usually follow any particular verb, such as objects or infinitive verbs.
3.4 Using online dictionary through multimedia projector

It’s a known fact that dictionary is the best source of knowing the pros and cons of a word. But probably it will not be advisable to ask the students to carry dictionaries to the class room. In this regard technology has given us an unparalleled opportunity. By using projector and laptop in a non WiFi equipped campus the teachers can show the meaning, pronunciation, uses in examples and origin of some words in the online dictionaries, many of which are available in the internet and in the Wi-Fi equipped campus the students also can browse for the word as per the direction of the teachers. For example, If any student wants to know the meaning of the word ‘genocide’, the teacher at first can explain it in his own way, then he can show it in the online dictionary by typing the word in the search bar of search engines like Google, MSN etc. A result of this type has been shown below.

A search of the said word has shown the author lots of sources to know about this word. When a site, http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/genocide, has been browsed the following information about the word has been received from different online dictionaries.

- **Gen.o.cide** [jen-uh-sahyd] noun: The deliberate and systematic extermination of a national, racial, political, or cultural group. Gen.o.cide [Origin: 1940-45; < Greek géno (s) race + -cide, Related forms: gen·o·cid·al, adjective


**Example Sentences**

* No other country can intervene to stop this violence since it is not considered genocide.
* They have since deleted a link to genocide campaign from the presidential genocide.
* It is only important because you labeled it genocide. [Source: World English Dictionary]

**genocide** — *n* : The policy of deliberately killing a nationality or ethnic group

[C20: from geno-, from Greek genos race + -cide ]

geno'cidal—*adj*


Word Origin & History

**genocide** 1944 apparently coined by Polish-bom U.S. jurist Raphael Lemkin in his work “Axis Rule in Occupied Europe” [p.19], in reference to Nazi extermination of Jews, lit. “killing a tribe,” from Greek genos” race, kind” (see genus)+-cide. The proper formation would be *genticide. [Cultural Dictionary]

**genocide** [(jen-uh-seyed)] : The deliberate destruction of an entire race or nation. The Holocaust conducted by the Nazis in Germany and the Rwandan genocide are examples of attempts at genocide. [The American Heritage® New Dictionary of Cultural Literacy, Third Edition Copyright © 2005 by Houghton Mifflin Company. Published by Houghton Mifflin Company]

3.5 Projecting the vocabulary teaching and testing sites in the class and encouraging the students to browse and work with those sites personally

Use of vocabulary teaching and testing sites can be a very enjoyable activity both in the class room and in personal study. There are so many sites which test learners’ strength of vocabulary. If the teachers spend a little time at every class in working with any of these sites it can contribute a great deal in students’ vocabulary growth. Teachers can also arrange competition among the groups of students. One of such valuable sites is www.vocabulary.com. This site tests learners’ vocabulary by arranging questions in sets of ten questions and allocating scores for the sets. Each question has four options. If the browser chooses right answer, it congratulates and encourages the browser excellently. If wrong answers are chosen, the site not only shows the correct answer, but also shows the meaning and use of the word in the context. At the end of the set, it shows the result and score obtained. The vocabulary questions are of several styles. In some questions a context is given and the browser is asked to fill up the gap with correct vocabulary taken from the four options. In some other questions directly the meanings are asked. Some specimen questions are as follows:

“We could have gone further in reducing America’s debt with a sensible compromise that both cut discretionary spending and raised revenues,” she said.

In this sentence, a sensible means:
To a vegetarian, the idea of eating a 52-ounce T-bone steak would seem preposterous—absolutely absurd. When the word preposterous was first used, it meant reversing the normal order of things—putting what was last first, and vice versa. Imagine putting on your underwear over your pants and you’ll see that there is a kind of absurdity in something that’s backwards, which is why preposterous came to mean “ridiculous”. The word is often used as a part of an exclamation: a chef who is to cook with nothing but jelly beans might exclaim, “That’s preposterous!”

4. Conclusion

To sum up, there is no alternative to enriching the stock of vocabulary if we really want to develop our reading skill. Without grammar we can understand a little, but without vocabulary we can’t understand anything. Teachers’ adopting right approach, using interesting materials, learners’ interest and diligence and use of technology based activities and approaches will undoubtedly play an important role in enhancing students’ strength of vocabulary. Technology has facilitated the learning of vocabulary to a great extent. By using laptop and projector teachers can provide more than enough information about the pros and cons of the words, phrases and idioms. The use of technology will also enhance students’ interest and enjoyment. Just spending a few minute in the class and assigning different web based assignments to the group of students and arranging competition will undoubtedly show tremendous success. This web based activities can be started from the secondary level and can be extended to tertiary level. Marks can be allocated in the examination. A well devised plan in this respect will create lots of skilled reader who will be invaluable wealth for any country.

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An Investigation of Iranian EFL Teachers` Beliefs about Grammar

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Abstract: Teachers` beliefs about teaching and learning influence classroom actions and students` performance. Recently, teacher cognition has received attention in the field of language pedagogy. Social and institutional factors can affect teachers` cognition. This study tries to investigate how variables such as teachers` experience, gender, and work environment can affect beliefs about grammar and its teaching. 40 Iranian English as Foreign Language teachers (20 form public setting, and 20 from private setting) with different gender and work experience were chosen. A questionnaire designed by the researcher and an open-ended question consisting of three parts were distributed amongst the participants. Our analyses indicate that teachers` experience, gender, and work environment can significantly affect their beliefs about grammar. The pedagogical implications are discussed.

Key words: teacher cognition, social and institutional factors, public setting, private setting

1. Introduction

Newly, instruction of grammar has retrieved its prominence in language pedagogy (Nassaji & Fotos, 2004). Scholars in the field of language teaching have identified grammar as an essential issue without the knowledge of which the efforts of language learners and teachers are in vain (Batstone & Ellis, 2009). It goes without saying that grammar is no more considered as a meaningless, context-independent set of rules prescribed about language forms but it is regarded with respect to communication (Ellis, 2006).

Grammar has a tricky essence and its teaching and learning has brought about inconsistencies and complicated issues in education (Dekeyser, 1995). Inceptions of new psychological theories or methods have put grammar in the limelight while rejection or break down of theories has lead to its abandonment (Borg, 1999). There have been times grammar is seen as pivotal to language instruction and times when it has been disregarded. With this in mind, it seems that language teachers have established distinctive views on grammar.

The importance of investigating teachers` beliefs is highlighted when we see teachers as effective decision makers responsible for what goes on in the classroom (Woods, 1996). Teachers` views have been acquired through their experiences and interactions which in turn can go along with the methods and techniques they use in the classroom (Smith, 1996). It is beyond denial that the instructional decisions made by teachers are to a large extent dependent on the assumptions, attitudes, and theories that teachers possess (Johnson, 1994; Burns, 1996).

There have been different conceptualizations for teacher cognition. Kagan (1992) believes that teacher cognition is an amalgamation of teachers` assumptions about instruction, students, learning, and interactions in the classrooms. Borg (2003, p. 41) describes teacher cognition as ‘beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, images, assumptions, learning, students, subject matter, curricula, materials, instructional activities, and self’. Also Borg (1999, p. 22) defines teacher cognitions as ‘consisting of a set of personally-defined practically oriented understanding of teaching and learning which exert significant influence on instructional decisions’. Borg (2003) characterizes the importance of social and instructional contexts in the study of teacher cognition. Borg (2003, p. 14) recommends further that ‘the impact of contextual factors on the instructional decisions teachers make in teaching grammar’. Terms such as teachers` knowledge, beliefs, and theories have been used for the idea of teacher cognition (Borg, 2007). Issues such as the thought processes of teachers, what they know, how they come to know this, and how they use their knowledge in the classroom have been amongst the priorities of researchers in this area (Borg, 2007).

A particular facet in teacher cognition is teachers` beliefs about grammar and its teaching. Considering the key position of grammar in second language acquisition and teaching methodology, teachers` view about grammar cannot be ignored. Some of the questions raised in this regard are what grammatical points should be addressed? How much time should be devoted to teaching grammar? What class procedures are appropriate for a specific context? and in what sequences should these points be presented? (Yim, 1993).

Some studies have investigated teacher`s beliefs about grammar and its teaching. Richards et al., (2001) explored
the beliefs of a group of English teachers about grammar. Communicative approach and direct grammar teaching were both favored by these teachers. It was also indicated that students knew the value of grammar and asked for its teaching. Farrell (2006) examined the extent to which the beliefs of teachers determine their classroom actions. It was found that beliefs affect what teachers do in the classroom. Farrell (1999) investigated the beliefs of pre-service teachers. It was found that while they were in service their beliefs did not change.

Investigations in the issue of grammar has revealed substantial areas such as relationship between L2 learning and grammar (Johnson, 1994), specification of the importance of grammar terminology (Garret, 1986), feedback and error correction in teaching grammar (Dekeyser, 1995) and inductive versus deductive approach (Dekeyser, 1993). However, Borg (1999) mentions that results of research in this area are indeterminate and our conception on how grammar is dealt with is incomplete.

It has to be underlined that teachers’ views must be taken into account since these beliefs influence how teachers teach (Ellis, 1997). Shavelson and Stern (1981, p. 546) have mentioned that teachers are ‘rational professionals who make judgments and decisions in an uncertain and complex environment’. It has been suggested that the context in which teachers work is a determining factor in shaping their beliefs towards teaching (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000). In the same vein, teacher’s gender, experience, and work environment are among the important criteria that can affect teacher’s beliefs about grammar. It is important to investigate how these factors influence teacher’s beliefs of grammar. Based on what has been discussed so far the following questions were posed to be answered in this study:

1- How different are school EFL teachers’ beliefs and institute EFL teachers’ beliefs about grammar and its teaching?
2- How different are more experienced and less experienced EFL teachers’ beliefs about grammar and its teaching?
3- How different are male and female EFL teachers’ beliefs about grammar and its teaching?

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

The sample of this study consisted of forty EFL teachers in Iran. They were chosen from a public high school (twenty) and a private language institute (twenty). These participants were chosen because the researcher had access to them. Institute language teachers taught courses at elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels. Public school teachers taught the textbooks assigned by the ministry of education; while the private school teachers taught Interchange Courses. The teachers were consisted of twenty male and twenty female teachers. Their teaching experience ranged from 2 to 20 years. Following Chan (2008) I chose five years of teaching as the cut-off point between experienced and inexperienced teachers. Again twenty of the sample had teaching experience of five years and above, twenty other had teaching experience of less than five years.

For answering to the open ended question four volunteer teachers were chosen; two from public school and the other two from the institute. These teachers were different in work experience (two experienced, two inexperienced) and gender (two males, two females).

2.2 Instruments

The researcher devised the questionnaire to assess teachers’ beliefs about grammar and its teaching. This questionnaire consists of 25 questions answered on a 5 likert scale ranging from 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree. An open-ended question consisting of three parts also was distributed among volunteer teachers to further investigate their beliefs about grammar.

2.3 Procedure

The questionnaire was distributed among the institute and public school teachers. Teachers took the questionnaire either before or after class time and marked the response that best described their beliefs. As for the open-ended question, the four volunteer teachers took the sheet home and returned it on their next appearance.

2.4 Data analysis

SPSS software was used in analyzing the data. T-test was used to determine if the differences between the groups were significant. The groups were male and female teachers, more experienced and less experienced teachers, and school
teachers and institute teachers. To compare the means independent T-test was used for each group. For the open ended question qualitative analysis was used.

3. Results

3.1 Gender and beliefs of grammar

The first comparison was on male and female English language teachers to see if they have different views. Table 1 shows that the difference between the means of these two group was significant (p = .009).

Table 1. Mean, Standard deviation, and P value for male and female teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>69.530</td>
<td>7.365</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>62.373</td>
<td>4.235</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A female teacher stated ‘I think using games is helpful in teaching grammar because it makes language teaching fun’ another female said ‘In teaching grammar it is better if we state some examples first and then describe the rule’. Our female teachers believed that a variety of tasks and activities should be used in teaching grammar to keep students interested. Male teachers stated that they mostly correct students on the spot to prevent fossilization. Their approach seemed to be deductive; they believed ‘students became distracted if the rule was not explained first’. A male teacher believed ‘students must be corrected by the teacher; I do not think students can learn from each other’. A female teacher commented ‘role play and problem solving are helpful strategies in teaching grammar.

3.2 Experience and beliefs of grammar

The second comparison was on experienced and inexperienced language teachers to see if their beliefs were different. Table 2 shows that the difference between the means of the two groups was significant (p = .002)

Table 2. Mean, Standard deviation, and P value for experienced and inexperienced teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experienced</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>72.530</td>
<td>7.912</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inexperienced</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>69.830</td>
<td>7.653</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An experienced teacher believed that ‘Practice of structures must always be within a full, communicative context’. Another contended ‘separate treatment on grammar fails to produce language knowledge’. He said ‘students learn grammar best if it is presented within a text. An inexperienced teacher believed ‘in teaching grammar focus should be on forms and structures’ another naive teacher stated ‘games are a distraction in teaching grammar’; she believed that in teaching grammar form is more important than meaning. The same teacher believed that grammar is more important in speaking.

3.3 Work environment and beliefs of grammar

The third comparison was between teachers who taught at public schools and those at institutes. Table 3 shows that the difference between the means of these two groups was significant (p = .000).

Table 3. Mean, standard deviation, and P value for public school and private institutes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School teacher</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>63.535</td>
<td>4.500</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institute teacher</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>72.300</td>
<td>7.653</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An institute teacher believed that ‘I think other teaching materials should also be used besides textbooks as they can give exercises for further practice and they give variety to the teaching of grammar’. Our two institute teachers believed that teaching aids such as objects and pictures must be used in the teaching of grammar. They also welcomed using games and tasks such as role play and jigsaw tasks. Also they believed ‘teamwork and group work are helpful in teaching grammar’. On the other hand, a public school teacher believed ‘I mostly use written language in teaching grammar and I do not believe in using oral language in grammar teaching’; ‘games are not more than a distraction in language teaching’ ‘using materials other than the school textbooks are not practical’.

4. Discussion

4.1 Gender differences and beliefs in teaching grammar

As it was shown in the previous chapter the difference between male and female language teachers when it comes to their beliefs about grammar and its teaching was significant. In EFL context in Iran there are obvious differences between male and female teachers. In Iran usually males do not like to be teachers and they become teachers when they cannot find any other profession. There are times that they regard teaching as a temporary job until they find a better profession. The reasons are low payment and social degradation of teachers. Teaching is not seen as a prestigious job. This happens for males as they are considered the breadwinners of their family. For females this is not the case since they are not responsible for the monetary aspects of the family. Because of the above reasons males are not that interested in teaching, they have negative beliefs towards teaching, and these beliefs affect their attitudes and as a result their behavior in the classroom.

The fact is that female teachers use a variety of teaching strategies and techniques to teach a grammatical topic. Not only they are aware of the fact that not all students learn the same way, in practice they consider this by using multiple methods. Female teachers seem to be doing their job wholeheartedly. It seems that female teachers are better informed and are more concerned with teaching skills. They are more interested in teaching as a profession and they try to keep up with new techniques in teaching and learning.

Males on the other hand, are more careless and not motivated to teach. They look for easiest way to teach the language and grammar without doing much effort. It is said that variety is the spice of life and in teaching grammar teachers should use multiple strategies but it does not happen for male teachers and they stick to one strategy for teaching grammar which we all know is not sufficient. When male teachers are not interested in teaching there is no reason for them to be interested in using games. They also correct students on the spot as they are not patient with grammatical mistakes. And even it explains their deductive approach in teaching grammatical points.

4.2 Experience and different beliefs in teaching grammar

Inexperienced teachers believe that teaching grammar has the highest priority in language teaching. Their major concern is to keep the class disciplined and controlled, so they always use the board in explaining the rules and giving examples for the sake of achieving class control. They do believe that grammar is the most important building block upon which learning of other language aspects is based. As a result they proceed with implanting rootless knowledge in their students’ minds.

In contrast, experienced teachers are more aware of how grammar is taught and it is not the core component of learning a language. They are also aware of the fact that grammar classes are usually boring, so they use a variety of teaching styles and use extra activities (adapted or adopted) to keep the students interested and motivated through working out tasks and grammar games.

Inexperienced teachers rarely give feedback and mostly correct errors immediately thinking they are facilitating students’ learning. They are not aware of what psychological damage they cause when they correct errors directly and do not give feedback. These effects could be related to motivation, interest, and the hopelessness in learning the language. Experienced teachers know when and how to give feedback bearing in mind what positive or negative psychological effect they cause.

Inexperienced teachers usually have boring classes as they are the main speaker, explaining rules without varying teaching techniques or using extra activities which can enrich learning and make it more interesting. Experienced teachers give much emphasis to learning process rather than on classroom management and control. Although some of the experienced teachers believe that learning a language means learning its grammar, the way they run their classes is different and more enjoyable than inexperienced teachers.
4.3 Work environment and different beliefs in teaching grammar

Public schools in Iran are a place where a language teacher does everything she wishes in terms of knowledge delivery as a result of the lack in mentoring, supervising, and guiding. Believing that grammar is the main component of language learning, they proceed in teaching as part of knowledge transmission process without taking into consideration quality teaching. Indeed lack of resources such as library, teaching aids, and computers causes them to avoid using other sources except the textbook. Even the textbooks do not contain genuine material and are imposed on the schools by the authorities.

The situation in private institutions is different. Each institute has some teaching standards to stick to in order to provide satisfactory education services to the public. Classes are less crowded in private institutes and students seem to be more interested there. These reasons affect the approach of teachers to the issues including grammar. Even in terms of payment it is more appropriate in private institutes which causes more qualified teachers to be working there. These teachers are more interested as teaching is their lifelong profession. They use varying techniques and supplementary materials that allow students to produce and use the language without solely focusing on form and neglecting meaning.

Sometimes public school teachers are not to blame as they lack training. They do not usually give feedback or use extra activities as they are teaching. This is the culture that exists in the public sector. In teaching grammar they do not give feedback or use extra activities as they are not motivated. On the contrary, Private school teachers are eager to give feedback and praise their students and they consider how suitable this feedback is.

5. Conclusion

The study examined whether variables such as teachers’ gender, experience, and work environment affect English teachers’ beliefs about teaching grammar. The findings revealed that the three mentioned variables make a difference in affecting teachers’ beliefs. Considering the first variable; gender, the study showed that female teachers had different beliefs about grammar and its teaching. This is attributed to males not being interested in this profession due to socioeconomic factors.

When it comes to second variable which is experience, the findings showed that it makes a significant difference in teachers’ beliefs. The reason can be the fact that for experienced teachers what is important is knowledge and mental preparation not a pre-determined lesson plan. Experienced teachers focus on students’ learning styles and techniques that suit their students while inexperienced teachers are more concerned about knowledge delivery, classroom management, and classroom control.

The third variable also played a significant role in teachers’ beliefs about grammar. Teachers contended that students in private institutes are more interested in the lesson. Also the air of private institutes is different to that of public schools. There teachers are more cooperative. Another important factor is different textbooks. While in public schools textbooks are prepared by the science ministry, in private institutes courses like Interchange are taught that have a stronger regard for communicative skills which make students much more interested. Another factor that affects private institutes’ beliefs about grammar is availability of resources by which teachers can reinforce the subjects taught and provide students with supplementary material.

Demographic factors (in this study gender and experience) and contextual factors (work environment in this study) affect beliefs about grammar and its teaching. For the context variable the results of the study are in parallel with previous research; context has a huge effect on teachers’ beliefs of grammar (Borg, 1999). Role of collegial support and school climate are crucial in teachers’ beliefs.

Also for the experience factor which is a demographic factor we see that the findings of the study are in line with previous research. Experience has a significant effect on teacher’s beliefs about grammar (Borg 1999). But when it comes to the gender variable we see that the results of this study are different to previous ones. While in previous research gender had no effect on teachers’ beliefs (Borg, 1998), in this study its impact was significant. The reasons might be the low income of Iranian teachers and the fact that sadly males are not oriented to getting a job in the teaching profession. Maybe this is something that happens only in Iran and this can be why the results are in contradiction to previous studies.

The findings also suggest the necessity of continuous pre-service and in-service training of teachers. Teacher education must be seen as a continuous process that allows teachers get acquainted with new trends and reflect on their beliefs and practices. Teachers are advised to discuss their views and ideas and receive feedback on their teaching. This helps teachers improve their apprehension about their profession. In the present study teachers were not observed in the
classroom. The actual observation of teachers can enhance the results of this study in order to come to further qualitative evidence on how these factors affect teachers’ belief about grammar.

References

International Organizations and their Contribution to the School Development and Contemporary Education in Albania

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Abstract: This theme is related to the enriched activity of pedagogical education in Albania during the 1990’s of the 20th century till present. The heading organization on the field is UNESCO but there are still others in the game like OECD, UNICEF, International Bureau of Education, Council of Europe or other organizations and educational institutions. International organizations have influenced upon international cooperation in educational area. Projects, studies and other means have been employed on planning stages of educational reforms on educational HR, improvement of teaching program, teaching methods issues and perfecting adult education foundations. Such organizations proposed and prepared concrete programs for dissemination of illiteracy. These are just some of the main issues tackled by such organizations in joint forces with educational institutions of Albania during these two last decades. Beside other, a considerable number of documents of these organizations show how much is studied and implemented regarding forms and educational levels for all nations and minorities and simultaneously advance in cultural development.

Key words: Education, school, cooperation, international organization, Albania.

1. Introduction

By International Organizations we mean a group of countries based on common goals, dealing with politics, development, programming and reform of education. Thus, within the United Nations operates UNESCO, while on continental level countries unite and establish special organizations, such as the region of Europe: Council of Europe (Council of Europe), EU (European Union) and Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE). On the European continent, one of the best known and very important in order of importance is the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). For Asian countries the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and for countries from North to South America operates Organization of American States (OAS) and the Organization of African Union (OAU).

Also, despite these organizations, there operate some international non-governmental organizations such as World Association for School as Instrument of Peace (SIP), the International Consortium for Civic Education (CIVITAS), International Organization for Development of the Freedom in Education and many other organizations and associations.

In this study we will stick to the organizations or foreign associations, which during the last 20 years given their contributions and impact on education and school development in our country.

2. Albania’s Cooperation with the International Organizations in projects of reform and democratization of education, after 1990’s.

Transformations in the educational system in the last 20 years, we can consider the future design of European education in Albania. After 1992, more than ever, experts of education were faced with the need to make decisions that will fundamentally affect the future of education in Albanian. Albania's openness and participation in many international organizations and forums, the signing of memorandums of understanding and the need of approximation Albanian school and the wider European brought to the attention of the Ministry of Education and Science (MES) and a variety of institutions the need to change the way of making decisions in this area.

In this context, decentralization and school autonomy would constitute the most controversial issues in the field of education. This refers to the fact that these processes are considered as two basic pillars of democratic reform in Albanian schools. Looking once again at the first transition, we would note that we inherited an extreme centralization in education, as in many other areas of the economy. The transition from dictatorship to democracy would necessarily be
accompanied not only by modification of the power ash, mentalities and attitudes, but also a fruitful cooperation with international organizations.

A special value in the history of education in Albania had the project "Excellence and Equity in Education" (CBA), financially supported by the state budget (30 million USD) and World Bank loans, the European Investment Bank and the Bank of European Council for Development (45 million USD) a 75 million USD in total) With the help of World Bank experts it was possible that this process could achieve the final objective, "Policy development and decision making at all levels based on search-based and data-oriented approach" (Taks Force Tirana 2002). The "Excellence and Equity in Education" was envisioned to be implemented in the period 2006 - 2010, the Albanian Government adopted the Council of Ministers Decision (CMD) 234 on April 26th, 2006 compiled with the technical assistance and financial support of the World Bank, which marks a major objective related to reform of the education system in our country (Memushi 2004)

In Albania, the coordination of other International Organizations in the past five years, has been on decentralization and increased autonomy of schools supported by other strategic documents, which are: The "Millennium Development Goals" of the United Nations (UN), which aimed "the achievements of objectives for Development Goals adopted at the international level", and "towards the implementation of the program" Education for All " (EFA / FTI); "National Strategy for Development and Integration 2007 - 2013", which crystallizes the medium and long term vision of national development based on an open and transparent process and aimed at returning our country to a country with high living standards, integrated into European and Euro-Atlantic integration, democratic freedoms and guarantees fundamental human rights and "Stabilization and Association Pact" and "National Plan for Implementation of the Stabilization and Association Pact", which aimed to integrate Albania into EU are other important documents for international cooperation.

All round changes and especially social and economic situation in the Albanian society had made school curricula implemented by the year 1991 to be old and worn out. In particular, given the legacy of Soviet-type school, the curriculum lines were overloaded with a broad academic sense, which hindered the formation of technical and practical skills of students oriented to everyday life. In essence, the development of this curriculum framework would be guided by the idea "society changes, schools need to change" to review and improve the school curriculum, to prepare them better for future citizens, to understand and solve increasingly complex problems that they have to face in their lives.

Discussions initiated by education specialists at the National Conference on "Pre-university Education Strategy", developed in January 2004 and later attempts to draft Curriculum Framework that would serve as a basis for analyzing the state of secondary education. This was carried out working closely with 144 teachers and lecturers from the best in the respective areas. Also, during a month in 2007 at the Institute of Curriculum and Training (ICT) subject groups exchanged ideas and experiences with foreign specialists in the area of curriculum development. Specialists contracted were representatives of a British Company "European International Partners". Training was also conducted at the National Council of Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) in Ireland and "Trinity College" University. What played a positive role in this process were the establishment of 17 local networks with representatives from 37 RED (Regional Education Department) / EO (Education Offices), which enabled the preparation of 680 local trainers on various issues of curriculum, who carried out further training to all educational staff of high schools in the respective regions, under the monitoring of ICT specialists. Given the short time of implementation of the high school curriculum and results still not fully revealed, we believe that comprehensive reform of school curricula will remain part of an ongoing process. It should be noted that school curricula approved by the Ministry of Education and Science (MES) finds itself "in ratio of 81% basic curricula and 19% elective curricula". This has provided "that only about 20% of it is to be managed autonomously, remaining again in the monopoly of (MES)".

Regarding the evaluation of education, there exist many forms which, though different from each other, have a common characteristic, that of collecting information. They may be quantitative or qualitative, reserved for administrative use or to distribute to the public. In any case, information is more helpful to judge and types of methods of analysis and presentation affect decision. In OECD member countries the use of indicators for assessment is widespread through national control mechanisms or regional opinion polls, surveys by inspectors and the usual collection of statistics, etc.

One of the documents relating to school and institutional activity towards scientific research activity and education is the "Normative Provisions for Public Schools" which entered into force in the academic year 1996 -1997, based on Law no. 7952, dated 21.06.1995. In the 25th article special attention is given to assessment of student knowledge and behavior, quote: "Assessing the level of knowledge, skills and practical skills to students is an important and fundamental issue of the whole teaching and educational work in school. Assessment is made by note or phrase. Such assessment is made by the teacher."

On institutional framework regarding evaluation, after 1992, there were some positive developments with the support of international organizations in the field of education. Thus, initially it was established the Design Centre Examinations and Assessment (QHVP), at ISP in 1994, with a personnel up to two or three specialists. This was a project
funded by World Bank on equipment and training of its expert staff. Key staff of the Centre was trained abroad, in ETS (USA), CITO (the Netherlands), UCLES (United Kingdom) and the National Service for Evaluation and Examination (NAES) in Romania. There were also some workshop and training seminars within the country which enabled the Centre staff, specialists and teachers to be trained on issues of evaluation, thus building capacity for the future.

At the end of first decade, supported by the European education policy, MES had the task of establishing a National Education Evaluation. The creation of this center is estimated at the National Education Strategy 2004-2015, as one of the two important institutional reforms of the second decade of Albanian education transformations. Its establishment will mark the beginning of the institutionalization of evaluative institutions.

Albania's participation in "PISA 2000" study was another international assessment of the project OECD, aimed at generating international indicators on knowledge and skills that students possess at 15 years of age, highlighting the extent to which students who complete the cycle of compulsory education have acquired some knowledge and skills that are important for an active participation in society. In Albania, this project was implemented in partnership with "Soros" Foundation with MES. 1012 students participated in the pilot phase of the 30 selected schools and nearly 5300 students participated in the main phase of the 174 high and 8-year schools gathering information according to geographical distribution, rural and urban areas and type of school and curriculum. Testing PISA, or Program for International Assessment of Students, done once in three years, by mutual agreement of the Ministry of Education and Science with the OECD, signed by former Minister of Education, Et'hem Ruka, in August 2000. Testing of the year 2000 marked the first time in the history of Albanian education that Albania was participating in an international study in the field of educational assessment. After the agreement with our state, testing was financed by local education offices, "Soros" Foundation and UNESCO. Despite the results achieved, what it can be said is that the project served as a positive experience for our country, because it introduced the concept of standardized assessment.

**Training teachers on the job.** In Albania, the structures of teacher training on the job have been and remain subject to ongoing multilateral dilemmas and conflicts. Generally these structures are set up with difficulty and are easily suppressed. So remember that the system of teacher training on the job rose in the early 1950's, when Pedagogical Cabinets were founded according to districts and the "House Master" in Tirana. In 1988, the IPS (Institute of Pedagogical Studies) structures established the Teacher Training Department and Directors, who covered the training of teachers on the job until the establishment of the Center for Training and Qualification in Education (QTKA).

Officially, QTKA began to function as a separate institution, on 01.02.2005. The idea of creating a center for teacher training has been early thought. Since December 1993, the Ministry of Education approved the establishment of this center, but the draft failed to go to the Council of Ministers and be approved for causes that have remained unexplained.

Since 1992 under the proposals made in the project “RIEDEA” was launched the idea of establishing the system of national coaches, who must be selected and sent abroad for training, a proposal that was not implemented. A new experience would born Albania in 1995, through the Project-pilot “Teacher Training in Distance” (“KUALIDA”). This project was originally named “TV for teachers”. The object was the training of school teachers of 8 - year system (grades 5-8) in four districts of Albania, Elbasan, Shkodra, Gjirokastra and Tepelen. In implementing this project, it was decided to fit a distance training program with the expertise of the Open University in Britain, but to develop it entirely in Albania. The project involved 815 teachers who were divided into groups of 25 subjects in each group under the direction of formators* of the subject taught.

The "KUALIDA" underwent an external evaluation in its first phase, which was conducted by two independent groups of foreign experts. It was quite positive, so this project was extended to the case of "Citizens Education." Also, the activities of "KUALIDA", associated with real examples of the class television program that provided successful models for teacher's to acquire new practice methods.

Teachers training on the job suffered many changes in the decade 1990-2000. The Ministry of Education launched a new program to train teachers on the job in 1998. This program was supported by Program "Albanian Education Development" (AEDP), funded by "Soros" Foundation assessing the effectiveness of this new program approaches related to teaching quality issues, training needs and content training.

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* Formator. Person that used to be a teacher based in DN, had half of teaching hours and qualified teachers in different districts of Albania.
3. Role of International Organizations for the training of children with special educational needs, social problems and those at risk

Legally, the Albanian legislation guarantees the right to education for children and youth with disabilities, the Constitution of the Republic of Albania, Law no. 7952 dated 06/21/1995 (amended) "For Pre-University Education System", "Normative Disposition for the education of children in need (For public schools) ", Law no. 8872 dated 29.03.2002 (as amended) "On the education and training in the Republic of Albania", as well as political and strategic documents that act in this area. But according to the thematic report on "National Education Policy" in July 2002, no children with special educational needs seem to be integrated into mainstream public schools. Those who follow any kind of educations are in special schools. These schools are specialized for caring for those blind or visually impaired, deaf or those with hearing impairments and children with mental disabilities. Under the "Annual Report 1998" of the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, in 1997 seven centers operated for children in mental and physical development. They serve to children aged 6-14 years but some may remain in the center until the age of 18.

The first project entitled "Helping the Mentally Disabled" was another project that was implemented by Education Directory of the District of Tirana, during the 1994-1995 school year. Partner and major supporter of this project, was the British organization "Feed the Children", which aimed at integration of several children with disabilities in some schools and kindergartens of the capital. The project was expanded to Librazhd district, where eight children with mental disabilities were integrated into a mainstream school. Following this initiative, funded by UNICEF, starting in 2000, 33 schools in the country were engaged in a number of initiatives for integrating children with disabilities in mainstream schools.

Another category of children who have shown a significant needs for education are children with social problems. For this category, in Albania there has been created over the years a number of residential institutions, which up to July 2002, were approximately 595. In fact, for the education of this category there have been contributions of foreign NGOs by establishing some smaller institutions for these children. The concept of "children with problems" has recently changed. Previously it meant orphans or children born outside marriages and socio-economic problems that have emerged in Albania after 1990s - this category includes poor children with two living parents.

International organizations observers repeatedly report to the Albanian government, after 1990s that a number of children and youth of school age live in the streets of cities without parental care and control. After the 1997 crisis, in Albania, where hundreds of thousands of weapons were looted from warehouses, such children were at risk to engage in serious criminal activities, including armed robberies, drug trafficking and prostitution. Especially in the south and near borders with neighboring countries, boys who had left school considered smuggling as an easy way to make money and drug use is on the increase. Parents often expressed their fear for safety of their children not just on the street but even in schools.

Besides AEDP ( "Soros" Foundation) and UNICEF, according to the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs in 1998, a number of international donors operate in institutions for children with social problems. Among them are the Danish Red Barnet (Save the Children) and Mission "Mother Teresa" and bilateral projects in cooperation with Swiss funding, Austrian, and British. National NGOs are concentrated not only in Tirana but have lifted their distribution in major cities. Their main purpose is to help to create better opportunities for children, especially in more vulnerable sectors of society, like children with disabilities, homeless children, Roma children, and other minorities. These organizations also work for children's rights. Other organizations and individuals are organized in the Children Alliance Forum, which is an open forum for all children of Albania.

4. Financing of Education in Post-communist era

Forced by the pressing needs and lack of financial resources to create conditions that will ensure the continuity of the education process, the Albanian Ministry of Education and Sports will direct to aiding donors. Thus, in 1994, it would begin the implementation of the project "Schools Rehabilitation and Reform" financed by IDA credit. Within 4 years, it was planned to build 38 schools with 200 classes or 10% of needs in the country, as well as rehabilitating 237 schools with 1630 classes as planned by the loan of 960 million lek. In the same year, it would start its activity in Albania the philanthropist George Soros through his foundation. With this foundation funds were available, reconstruction and equipment with necessary teaching tools of 51 schools and 7 kindergartens were possible.

With the Albania's commitment to Council of Europe, the latter would interfere in the field of education through PROGRAM "PHARE with a Grand" of 10.3 million ECU. PHARE program project, "Emergency Rehabilitation of Schools" marked until 1996 the building 13 new schools with 140 classrooms and renovation of 12 schools, 173 classes.
There is no doubt that the lack of financial resources in basic education in Albania (primary and secondary), led to demand for education. However, private benefits (the benefit of the individual) of basic education are much higher than the benefit from pre and post- basic. For Albania, the benefit levels are calculated to be 13 to 16% for basic education and 2 to 4% for secondary education. Thus, external financing of vocational education within the PROGRAM "CARDS" released investment costs provided by the public education budget. In addition, the government planned to reduce costs in secondary education by introducing models of users for a fee. Costs for secondary education in this period are 4.07 times higher than the OECD average, which are 2.52. The government also planned to encourage more private investment in secondary education. To help the government to improve educational quality and opportunity for all its citizens, repeatedly withdrew from the project "Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). Many bilateral and multilateral agencies would contribute to various aspects of educational reform process in the country. Much of this investment was assigned to the equipment and building of schools.

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School- Intrinsic Impediments in the Provision of Primary Education for Nomadic Pastoralist Afar Children in Ethiopia

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Abstract: This study examines the participation of nomadic pastoralist Afar children in the primary schools of Afar regional state of Ethiopia, and identifies major school intrinsic impediments. Descriptive survey research method was employed in order to attain this purpose. The subject of the study are students, teachers, educational officials, Parent-Teacher Association members, Afar tribal chiefs and ethnically Afar school dropout children. Diversified sampling techniques drew these participants. Basic information was solicited from the sample respondents through questionnaires, interview, and FG D. The quantitative data were analyzed using statistical tools of percentage, mean, SD, ANOVA, and correlations. A mixed method procedure of Sequential Explanatory Strategy was used to analyze and interpret both the quantitative and qualitative data. The findings of the study indicated that the magnitude of nomadic pastoralist Afar children participation in the primary education of the region is low as compared to other regions in the nation. Whereas, the dropout rate of nomadic pastoralist children from primary schools in the region is high above the national average. School intrinsic factors like, school distance, inflexible school calendar of formal schools, lack of school facilities and teachers, low motivation of teachers, irrelevance of curriculum, inappropriate medium of instruction were found to be the major barriers. Feasible and appropriate recommendations were forwarded so as to minimize the school intrinsic barriers and promote the participation of nomadic pastoralist Afar children in primary education.

Key Words: Nomadic Pastoralist, Participation, primary education, School intrinsic

1. Background of the Study

Provision of Primary Education for all school-aged children has been the major concern of all nations since it is the foundations of the entire superstructure of education. It is also the time in which the child is being prepared for the challenges of adulthood. It is seen as an essential for the full accomplishment of individuals as human beings, their survival and lifelong development (Mohanty, 2002). This position is re-affirmed in the first article of the World Declaration of Education for All (1990), as such; primary education is represented as a fundamental human right. However, its universalizing has been taken as an international commitment, a national challenge and being constitutional directives of many developing countries, has remained unrealized over the last decades (Ibid).

The World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) in 1990 also focused attention on education disparities with in countries and on specific minority groups. The World Education Forum (Dakar, 2000) renewed the commitment to the declaration of EFA, and emphasis was placed on the low participation of minority groups like children of nomadic pastoral communities.

Nomadic pastoralists are people who live and derive most of their food source and income from raising domestic livestock, with no recognized place of residence, and move from place to place in search of pasture and water (Carhill, 2005). They are estimated around thirty six million in the world and the majority of them inhabited in seventeen African Countries (Ezeomah, 1998). As minority groups, they represented 6 percent of African population categorized under disadvantaged and hard to reach population in terms of social service provision (Carhill, 2005).

Most of the statistics and research findings available reveal that, among other educationally disadvantaged groups, nomadic pastoralists form the majority of the poorest and most vulnerable of African population, whose millions of children have been denied to access and record low participation rate in primary education. In spite of much African country’s commitment to the universalizing of access to primary education and heightened interest in the provision of relevant education to nomadic pastoralists, these segments of population have serious limitations to equitable participation in education, because of diverse hindering factors (ADEA, 2003).

Nowadays, the education of nomadic pastoralists has been well thought-out by many governments in which they live and by concerned agencies and organizations as a major economic, ethical and political problem deserving special
attention (Ezeomah, 1995). These endeavours are linked to the conceptions of education as fundamental human rights of citizen of a country and an essential for the full accomplishment of individuals as human beings, their survival and lifelong development (Kratli, 2000). Education serves them, as a springboard for social and economic changes.

Moreover, education regarded as an indispensable part of nation building. As a parcel of the modernization approach, it has to do with altering pastoralists’ conservative ways of life and acquaint them with knowledge and skills, which can transform them socially, economically and politically. It equips pastoral nomads against impoverishment and ultimately to eradicate poverty by opening access to alternative livelihood options. It is an appropriate media for changing pastoral nomads’ perception and value system to integrate them in to a broader socio-economic and political context and to take advantage of technology and information in this era of globalization (Godia, 2006).

Ethiopia is an ancient nation, formerly called ‘Abyssinia. It is a country of earliest civilization, located in the North-Eastern Part of Africa, popularly known as the Horn of Africa. Modern formal education, in the sense of an education directed to contemporary life, was introduced in Ethiopian around the end of 19thC and beginning of 20thC. Western missionaries introduced it in Ethiopia mainly from Britain, France, Italy, US, and Egypt.

Today, the country is signatory of both the Education for All (EFA) and millennium declaration called, Millennium Development Goal (MDG), in which achieving universal primary education or “ensuring that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling”, is the second of its goals. In the same vein, the first objective of the education sector strategy of Ethiopia, is “to provide good quality primary education with an ultimate aim of achieving universal primary education over a period of 20 years” as a means to attain Education for All and MDG.

In Ethiopia, the pastoral nomads’ people are found nearly all low lands on the periphery of the country. They are about 12 million in number covering about 65 percent of the total area of the nation. Documentary analysis in Ethiopia holds that parts of the nation inhabited by population groups, whose main economic activity is livestock husbandry, are economically, politically and socially marginal. At the same time, however, it is believed that the area occupied by pastoralists are said to be rich, endowed in natural resources yet to be exploited and to be put at the service of the pastoral communities and the country as a whole (Ayalew, 1998, Yacob, 1995).

Contemporarily, it is well recognized by educational planners in Ethiopia that primary education is the most substantive and critical input for incultication of a problem solver citizen. The country made a commitment to the goal of Education for All and MDG by striving to meet the basic learning needs of her population through the provision of primary education for all school-aged children.

The country has also respected to the values of equality, particularly equality of educational opportunity to all, irrespective of distinctions of sex, race, tribe and nationalities. In order to translate this lofty principle in to reality, the government has introduced a national education and training policy in 1994.

The policy provided for a new structure, decentralized management, localized curriculum and the use of local languages as a medium of instruction at primary education. An Education Sector Development Program with the ultimate goal of achieving universal primary education by the year 2015 was also adapted.

Despite the remarkable expansion of primary education and tremendous gain in enrolment in the last two decades, a very large number of school-aged children in Ethiopia continue to be out of school. The gross enrolment of primary level of education increased as compared to the base years of the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP). However, with respect to the pastoral groups, the educational participation is very much agonizing, even from those enrolled children from the indigenous pastoralist ethnic background are only a minority. Moreover, most of those who enrolled do not complete the eight years of education (UNESCO, 2002; MOE, 2011).

In general, education is not expanding in the pastoralist regions; on the other hand, the schools that have already erected are not being properly utilized. In this regard, the Christian Relief and Development Association in Ethiopia reported that most government formal schools are often empty or abandoned as the education system is not appropriate and pastoralist oriented (CRDA in Carhill, 2005; MOE, 2011). These all clearly indicates that there remains a chasm between the educational development of nomadic pastoral community and the general population of the nation (MOE, 2001).

Ethiopian pastoralists in general and each pastoral nomadic group in particular, have not yet received the attention of educational researchers. Their peculiar educational needs and challenges are not systematically examined; perhaps no regressive study is available so far, which reveal the major constraints that hinder the educational participation of children of each pastoral group in the nation.

In the case of nomadic pastoral Afars, though a number of anthropological studies have been carried out our understanding of the status of nomadic pastoral Afar children participation in education and many of the hindering factors remains incomplete. There is also a lack of awareness on general hindering factors of pastoralist Afar children participation in primary education and the specific school intrinsic barriers. Hence, to commit to investigate the constraints
and develop some insight into the alternative mode of delivery of primary education for nomadic pastoral Afars children is a serious undertaking to attain Education for All in general and Universalizing of Primary Education in particular. Hence, in the course of the study, the following basic questions were addressed as a guide for treating the problem.

- What is the status of nomadic pastoralist Afar children participation in the primary education of the area?
- What school-intrinsic constraints hinder their educational participation?
- To what extent school-intrinsic factors affect their educational participation?
- What strategies should be designed to minimise school intrinsic constraints so as to promote their participation in primary education?

2. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are:

- To assess the present status of nomadic pastoral Afar children participation in the primary schools of the region.
- To examine the major school intrinsic constraints which hinders pastoral Afar children participation in primary education?
- To investigate the extent of influence of school intrinsic constraints in the participation of pastoral Afar children in primary education.
- To review and analyse the intervention strategies to minimise school intrinsic constraints

3. Research Design and Methodology

3.1. Research Design

In this study, descriptive survey method was employed with the assumption that it could help to identify the major school intrinsic challenges and alternative intervention approaches. It was also mainly quantitative and substantiated with qualitative data from focus group discussion with PTA (Parent Teachers Association) members, and interview with dropouts, and Afar tribal chiefs.

3.2. Instruments

Different instruments of data collection were used to maximize the worth of the data used in the study. The quantitative data were gathered through questionnaires. The content validity of the questionnaire is measured by the three point scale measurement procedures developed by C.H.Lawshe (1975). The reliability of the questionnaire was also piloted and yielded a coefficient of Crobbach alpha 0.843.

A semi-structured Interview guide was also employed to obtain additional information from Afar tribal chiefs, educated Afars and ethnically Afar school dropouts. As Silverman (1994) observed, the semi-structured interview offer a rich source of data, which provides access to how the respondents account for both their troubles and good fortunes. Focus Group Discussion (FGD) guides were used to triangulate and enrich the information by gathering data from PTA (Parent Teacher Association) members. A variety of documentary sources was also reviewed in order to secure relevant data for analysis and to substantiate the validity of the primary data through triangulation.

3.3. Sample and Sampling

Afar national regional state recently has an administrative structure, which divided into five zones. Among the five zones, two zones are selected purposefully because of that, nomadic pastoralist Afars predominantly inhabits there (ILCA, 1981). The two zones have five districts each, from which two districts from each zone were taken randomly.

With respect to primary schools, sixteen of them were taken out of 37 schools in the sampled two zones of four districts using simple random sampling. This comprised of 43 percent of the total schools operating in the two sampled zones. Regarding student respondents, 413 were randomly taken from the total population of 1068 indigenous Afar students. This has also comprised of 38.5 percent of the total native Afar students in the sampled schools. Moreover, 213 (51.9%) of teacher from the population of 410 in the sample schools, and 36 (75%) out of 48 of educational officials were taken randomly.

Moreover, two tribal chiefs, who are the chiefs of the majority of the people in the two zones, and dropout students
from the pastoralist backgrounds, were purposefully selected and involved in the interview session. Moreover, all Parent Teacher Association (PTA) members working in twelve primary schools were purposefully involved in Focus Group Discussions (FGD). As Patton states “the logic and power of purposeful sampling is used to select information rich cases for in depth study”. The purposeful sampling enables the researcher to identify information rich sources among the pastoral communities and those working with pastoral communities that are knowledgeable and with vast experiences on nomadic pastoralism (Patton, 1990).

3.4 Methods of Data Analysis

To analyze the quantitative data various statistical techniques were employed as deemed appropriate in view of the objectives of the study. Statistical tools like percentage, mean, one-way ANOVA, were used to analyze the data using SPSS. For each factor, the significance of the F-test result is indicated by the symbol (*). The qualitative data were gathered through interview, FGD, and documentary analysis. The data were analyzed qualitatively using reflective interpretations and quotations, which cross validate with the quantitatively analyzed data results. Thus, Mixed Methods of Sequential Explanatory Strategy were used to analyze and interpret both the quantitative and qualitative data, to arrive at some findings, crystallize into conclusions and recommendations.

4. Literature Review

4.1 Pastoral Nomads in the Context of EFA: Theoretical Framework

The concept of Education For All (EFA), is a direct political and a human right response to pressures arising from civil society organizations, international humanitarian organization among others who understood the role of education in promoting the establishments of good governance, democracy as well as the respect of human rights and dignity.

Education is also contemporarily, considered as the major source of upward mobility, especially in developing countries. Moreover, it is well recognized by international community that education is one of the means of social change and a major instrument in fostering democracy, equality, and justice in poor nations (Tahir, 2006).

Therefore, equal and equitable educational access is essential as a means to escape from socio-economic and political marginalization of different minority groups in developing nations. Otherwise, the suppression and marginalization of the disadvantaged groups of the society will continue unresolved. The recognition of education as an indispensable weapon for human and national development, therefore, pressed both national and international community to consider it as a human right. It is based on this reason that the need to make education accessible for every individual citizen has been recognized (Tahir, 2006).

Pastoral nomads, as one of the marginalized groups constituted large portion of the population in Africa. In many of these countries, statistics indicate that education provision has failed to reach these parts of the communities. Despite high concern, heavy investments and rapidly rising national enrolment ratios at the national level, pastoral nomads are still underserved and disparities within countries are still persist. Thus, providing education to nomadic communities becomes one of the most challenging and urgent issues currently facing educational policy makers and practitioners in the education system of the African nations (Basiamang, 2006).

The hindering factors in the educational participation of pastoral nomad’s children are not only socio-economic and socio-cultural features of the society. Not surprisingly, the school environment also creates a significant number of constraints. The curriculum in developing countries lacks suitable connection with situations familiar to students. Several researchers in education question the implementation of standard curriculum designed for urban children might not have relevance for rural and other disadvantaged societies (Lockheld and Levin, 1993). The irrelevance of curriculum resulted in low interest in education and high dropout rate among the pastoral areas. As research findings indicate, the school curriculum developed for sedentary people has no relevance for nomadic pastoral people (UNESCO, 2002).

Language as a medium of instruction has greater impact on the overall educational process and practices (UNESCO, 1985). Children who speak a language other than the language of instruction confront a substantial barrier to learning. Particularly in the crucial early grades, when the children are trying to acquire basic literacy as well as adjust to the demands of the school setting, not speaking the language of instruction can make a difference between succeeding and failing in school, between remaining in school and dropping out (Lockheld and Verspoor, 1991).

Different studies show that there is a pandemic of sexual violence and harassment in educational institutions in Africa. It was also found that male pupils are identified as major offenders (Hallam, 1994 in Odaga and Heneveld, 1995). A study made in Guinea indicates that boys are very aggressive towards girls and that they
use physical force and threaten girls in schools (Anderson and Levitt, 1994 as quoted in Odaga and Henved, 1995). This indicates that girls are in an extremely hostile and uncomfortable learning environment in school. This has devastating effects on their educational attainment and performance (Odaga and Henved, 1995).

As girls become adolescents, pregnancy becomes a major factor in school dropouts. A research finding in Cameroon indicates that fear of early pregnancy of girls is a reason why parents remove their daughter from school as they approach to puberty. Teachers, pupils or others who did not follow the customary rules of marriage impregnate them. A study done in pastoral Samburu area of Kenya reveals that fear of abduction and pregnancy is the major reason for parents not to send their daughters to school (ibid).

- One of the most common constraints of participation of children at school is shortage of school facilities like, inadequate buildings, latrines, pipe water, learning materials etc. Improved facilities are systematically beneficial to student learning. As research findings indicate, quality of the physical plant is positively related to student performance (Lockheld and Verspoor, 1991). Lack of appropriate teaching and learning materials affects their performance. Especially in the areas where there is a shortage of furniture in the classroom and where students are required to sit on the floor, parents are reluctant to send their children to school (World Bank, 1996).

According to Lockheld and Verspoor (1991), shortage of teachers is more common in remote rural areas. Lack of rewards and economic incentives are among the causes for not to work in rural areas. This has a significant impact on students’ learning and success in education. Particularly schools in nomadic pastoral areas have a very high rate of staff turnover and the highest requests for moving to other locations. Teachers are dissatisfied by erratically paid low salary, isolation, lack of teaching resources and harsh life conditions. They are de-motivated and characterized by frequent absenteeism. The quality of education imparted is dependent on the training and dedication of teachers. However, teachers in the nomadic areas, in addition to low salaries and lack of incentives, they have no special trainings to teach the children of pastoral nomads (Tahir, 2008).

5. Results

The education and training policy of the Ethiopian government stated that a special focus would be given to those who have been deprived of educational opportunities and steps will be taken to raise the educational participation of deprived regions (TGE, 1994). Based on the education and training policy of 1994, the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP) was launched, with an ultimate goal of increasing access to primary education, equity by expanding schools; improve efficiency by reducing dropout rates and repetition rates. It was also targeted to increase the primary enrolment ratios in the two most underserved pastoralist regions of the country; namely, Afar and Somalia regional states. The educational annual abstract of 2010/11, however indicated that 96.4% at the national level, where as the GER for Afar and Somalia pastoralist region is only 40.1% and 61.3% respectively.

**Chart 1** Gross Enrolment Rate by Region and Gender - 2003 E.C. (2010/11GC)

The regional comparison of NER also shows that Gambella, Tigray, Beneshangule, and Amhara have the highest NER, while the NER of Afar region (31.9 %) and Somale region (50.9 %) have the lowest respectively while the national NER average is 85.3%. Recent report of ESDP-IV also indicated that the regional disparities continue being large and the two emerging regions (Somalia and Afar) are lagging behind far behind the others with both GER and NER is below 52 % (MoE, 2010).
Table 1 Net Enrollment Rate (GER) at Primary (1-8) Level by Region and Sex (2010/11)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Bs* (%)</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>BS (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tigray</td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td>94.8</td>
<td>93.3</td>
<td>SNNP</td>
<td>97.2</td>
<td>87.1</td>
<td>92.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>Gambella</td>
<td>102.6</td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td>97.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amhara</td>
<td>91.5</td>
<td>95.5</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td>Harari</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>75.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oromia</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>84.5</td>
<td>Addis Ababa</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>72.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>Dire Dawa</td>
<td>73.9</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>71.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beni-sha</td>
<td>103.7</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>95.2</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>85.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Chart-2 NER by Region and Gender for Grade 1-8, 2003 E.C. (2010/11)


Enrolment figures alone may not provide sufficient information on access and participation rates of children in the primary education system. Attrition rates, which include dropouts, provide a much clearer picture of the state of participation of school aged children in education. According to the Ministry of Education, the national average dropout rates are estimated at around 13.1% in 2010/11. Whereas the dropout rate is high above the national average in the pastoralist Afar region.

Chart-3. Dropout Rate in Afar Region (2010/11)

Source: Educational Statistics Annual Abstract-Afar Region
As per the data (2010/11) of Afar Education Bureau, among students enrolled in primary schools of the region, 11.78 % of boys and 19.2 % of girls, totally 13.74 % of them could not complete their primary education. Dropout rate was high in grade one, that was 33.4 %. It is high in grade one for both sexes and most of the children leave the school before even completing grade one. The dropout rate of girls are also very high in grade six, which might be the age, in which girls are highly involved in the labor division of pastoralist economic way of life.

School-Intrinsic Factors As Perceived by Respondents

The impeding challenges in the educational participation of nomadic pastoral children is not limited only to their socio-cultural and socio-economic activities, but also related to school intrinsic factor that they will face in the school environment, which force them to dropout of schools. In this research, an attempt is made to identify which school intrinsic factor seriously affects the educational participation of nomadic pastoral Afar children in education.

Table 2. Factors Related to Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Response in percentage ratings</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F-Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers strangeness</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>16.8</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ. Off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low motivation of Teachers</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>7.88</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ. Off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 5=Extremely Serious 4=Serious 3=Moderately Serious 2=Not serious 1=Not observed
* Significant at alpha level (<0.05)

With regards to the degree of influence of teachers’ strangeness on the educational participation of Afar children, the mean computational values of students, (\(\bar{X} = 2.62\)), teachers (\(\bar{X} = 2.29\)) and educational officials (\(\bar{X} = 1.82\)) revealed that strangeness of teachers in terms of culture and religion is not a serious factor. However, the result of the analysis of variance for the item depicts statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the respondents. This shows the inconsistency of the mean score values. Student and teachers respondents rated the problem slightly higher than the response of educational officials. The mean scores of group of respondents further revealed that all of the groups rated the item below average. This verifies that strangeness of teachers’ in terms of culture and religion is not a serious impeding factor.

Respondents were also asked to rate the degree of influence of low motivation of teachers on the educational participation of nomadic pastoralist Afar children in education. In this respect, the mean computational result indicated that, teachers (\(\bar{X} = 2.31\)) and educational officials (\(\bar{X} = 2.28\)) rated below average. This implies that the degree of influence is very low. This result seems to imply that, teachers and their immediate supervisors from educational officers who are assumed to provide fringe benefits for teachers want to hide that the problem is not from them, but to project the problem to pastoral Afar children and the pastoral Afar community. On the contrary, student respondents (\(\bar{X} = 3.34\)) rated above average to show its significant influential role in the educational participation of nomadic pastoral Afar children.

The one-way ANOVA computational result also shows that there is a statistically significant means score difference at an alpha level (<0.05) among respondents. The students who are the customers or recipients claim that teachers’ lack of motivation is a hindering factor in their educational participation. In this regard, PTA members confirmed that teachers are dissatisfied by the absence of fringe benefits, which compensate for inconvenience of their living in the remote desert, the hot climatic conditions and insecurity in the pastoralist areas, become a barrier to effective teaching, which demotivate learners, consequently leads to withdrawal from the school.

However, teachers in the Afar pastoralist region are not allowed to transfer to other districts or highlands after specific years of services. Teachers’ motivation in the region appears to be low because of harsh living condition, erratically paid salaries, social isolation, and lack of teaching materials in which all present barriers to effective teaching. Ineffective teachings de-motivate learners, which consequently lead to withdrawal from schools.
Table 3. Issues Related to Teachers supply and Trainings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Response in percentage ratings</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F-Ratio</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In appropriate</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers Training</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ed. Off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortage of</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ. Off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 5=Extremely Serious  4=Serious  3=Moderately Serious 2=Not serious 1=Not observed
* Significant at alpha level (<0.05)

Concerning the influence of lack of training of teachers on the methods of teaching pastoral children, the mean computational results of students (\(\bar{X}=3.48\)), teachers (\(\bar{X}=3.97\)) and educational officials (\(\bar{X}=3.47\)) rated high above average. It revealed that lack of special training of teachers in teaching nomadic pastoral children impinged on the educational participation of pastoral Afar children in primary education. This implies that teachers who are assigned to teach nomadic pastoral Afar children should have a special training to make the learning environment conducive and attractive for pastoralist children since inappropriate learning environment has its own contribution for the dropout of the pastoralist children.

With regard to the shortage of teachers, the mean computed result illustrates that students and teacher respondents rated the item above average considering as one major school intrinsic factors in the educational participation of pastoral nomad Afar children, whereas educational officials reflect that its influence is minimal.

Table 4. School Distance and Calendar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Response in percentage ratings</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F-Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Distance</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>23.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ. Off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflexible School Calendar</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ. Off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 5=Extremely Serious  4=Serious  3=Moderately Serious 2=Not serious 1=Not observed
* Significant at alpha level (<0.05)

According to the data in the above table, the mean computational results of teachers (\(\bar{X}=3.67\)) and students (\(\bar{X}=3.53\)) indicates that, school distance highly affects the educational participation of pastoral Afar children. The data in this item also indicates that the differences among the mean scores of the study groups are statistically significant at an alpha level (<0.05). Since the data do not clearly show, which groups of respondents contributed more to this difference, pair wise comparison was used. The comparisons indicated a significant mean score differences between teachers (\(\bar{X}=3.67\)) and educational officials (\(\bar{X}=2.47\)). As this shows, the teachers who have immediate relation with students and easily observe the problem considered school distance, as an obstacle to Afar children educational participation above the average.

As indicated in the above table, the mean computational result of all respondents rated above average, which indicates inflexible calendar significantly affects the educational participation of Afar children. Supporting the position of all group of respondents, interviewees revealed that the school calendar is inflexible and does not consider the migration patterns of the pastoralist Afar people.
Table 5. Problems Related to School Facilities and Curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Response in percentage ratings</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F-Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of school Facilities</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ.Off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Irrelevance</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>9.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ.Off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>6.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 5=Extremely Serious 4=Serious 3=Moderately Serious 2=Not serious 1=Not observed

As it can be seen from the above table, the mean score of the student and teachers respondent groups shows that lack of school facilities and services is rated high above average as a factor to the educational participation of pastoral Afar children. However, educational officials consider this item as a moderate problem. The data in this item also indicates that the differences among the mean scores of the study groups are statistically significant at an alpha level (<0.05). The pair wise comparison result indicated significant mean score differences between teachers (\( \bar{X} =3.69 \)) and educational officials (\( \bar{X} =3.09 \)). As the result shows, teachers as major implementer of the educational programme in the school, rated lack of school facilities as an obstacle to children educational participation more above average than educational officials, who might be responsible in supplying educational facilities for the schools.

Concerning the influence of curriculum irrelevance, the mean computed results of students (\( \bar{X} =3.27 \)) teachers (\( \bar{X} =3.71 \)) shows that the two group of respondents rated above average to indicate its significant influence. While the mean computed result for educational officials indicates that its influence for the educational participation of nomadic pastoral Afar children is minimal. The multiple comparisons for the item also shows a significant mean variation at an alpha level (<0.05) between teachers (\( \bar{X} =3.71 \)), educational officials (\( \bar{X} =2.13 \)). This indicates that teachers as the major implementer of the curriculum rated the item higher than educational officials and considered curriculum irrelevance to the socio-economic and socio-cultural life of the Afar people as hindering factor that thwarts their children’s educational participation. Similarly, the interview held with some tribal chiefs confirmed that the curriculum offered to nomadic pastoral Afar children does not respond to their daily needs and aspirations.

Table 6. Problems Related to Medium of Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Response in percentage ratings</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F-Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inappropriate medium of instruction</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ.Off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 5=Extremely Serious 4=Serious 3=Moderately Serious 2=Not serious 1=Not observed

* Significant at alpha level (<0.05)

With regards to the influence of medium of instruction, the mean computed result of students (\( \bar{X} =3.60 \)), teachers, (\( \bar{X} =3.78 \)) and educational officials (\( \bar{X} =3.74 \)) also indicated that inappropriate medium of instruction has significantly affected the educational participation of pastoral Afar children. In the mean comparisons, significant statistical mean score difference was not observed at an alpha level (<0.05), and most of the group of respondents rated the items above average to show the influence of inappropriate medium of instruction (other than their mother tongue) on the educational participation of pastoral Afar children.

As per to tribal chief’s interviewee:

* It is difficult for most of pastoral Afar children to study using a language that is not their mother tongue. Their problem is worsened by the nature of Amharic language, which has around 270 characters compared to the Latin,
which has only 26. A child’s learning is also further constrained by an effort to interpret Amharic terms to his/her own language.

Table 7. Fear of Attack and Low Interest in Formal Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Response in percentage ratings</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F-Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students low interest</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ.Off.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of Sexual attack</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educ.Off.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 5=Extremely Serious  4=Serious  3=Moderately Serious 2=Not serious 1=Not observed
* Significant at alpha level (<0.05)

With regard to the pastoral nomads’ Afar children interest in formal education, the mean computational result of teachers and educational officials also reveals that the item is rated above average to indicate its significant influential role in the educational participation of nomadic pastoralist Afar children in primary education. However, student respondents rate the same item slightly above average.

Moreover, the mean score differences of the study groups for this variable were statistically significant at an alpha level (<0.05). The result of multiple comparison indicates that the mean score differences are between students (X̄ =3.16) and teachers (X̄ =3.58) and educational officials (X̄ =3.41). This shows that, educational officials and teachers have rated the low interest of pastoralist Afar children in formal education as a factor in the educational participation of Afar children. Despite this variation in the mean scores, all rated the variable above average to indicate its influential role.

As it is indicated in the table, respondents were also requested to rate fear of sexual attack as a factor to the educational participation of Afar girls, the mean computed result indicates that all respondents rate sexual attack in and on the way to school, is rated below average. This indicates that this variable is not considered as hindering factor in their educational participation. As per interviewees, such acts are social evils that cannot be tolerated by the Afar society. Doing sexual attack in the Afar society will lead to a strong punishment and social out-casting following the evil deeds.

Table 8. Pearsons Rank Order Correlation of Differences on School Intrinsic Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Rank by Students</th>
<th>Rank by Teachers</th>
<th>Rank by Educ.off</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rank by students</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.000**</td>
<td>.638**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank by Teachers</td>
<td>1.000**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.638**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank by educ.off</td>
<td>.638**</td>
<td>638**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is Significant at Alpha Level (<0.01).

As one can observe in the above table, the correlation co-efficient of students and teachers, students and educational officials (1.000**) and (0.638**) respectively. This implies that, there is a perfect positive correlation between the responses of students and teachers on school intrinsic factors in hindering the educational participation of pastoral Afar children. On the other hand, there is a slightly positive correlation between the response of educational officials with teachers and students. This indicates that educational officials who are a bit far from the schools and the pastoral society, and who are assumed to be the providers of educational inputs have a slight difference in perception on factors affecting the educational participation of pastoral Afar ethnic groups.

According to the aggregated rank order calculation results, the top ranked school intrinsic factors, which are assumed to be the factors in hindering the educational participation of pastoral Afar children are: inappropriate medium of instruction, lack of school facilities, lack of special training of teachers how to teach the nomadic children, school distance, inflexible educational calendar and the irrelevance of curriculum to pastoralist way of life.
Table 9. Summary Table of School Intrinsic Variable as Perceived by respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>ANOVA Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>Source of Variation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>B/n groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ.off</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>Within groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>644</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we can see from the above table, the computational result of the analysis of variance shows no statistically significant variation in the mean score value of respondents. Moreover, all respondents rated the variable above average implying that school intrinsic factors are hindering constraints in the educational participation of pastoral nomad Afar children in primary schools in Afar region.

6. Summary and Conclusion

- The study revealed that the Gross Enrollment and Net Enrolment Ratio of pastoral Afar region have the lowest as compared to other regions. Even though the region is predominantly inhabited by Afars, which constitute (91.8%) of the total population, of which rural nomadic pastoral population constitute (97%), the majority of the enrolled children in primary schools of the region are mainly from non pastoral Afars. Moreover, the dropout rate of the region is found to high above the national average.
- The study found out that strangeness of teachers in terms of culture and religion is not a serious impeding factor in the educational participation of pastoral nomad Afar children in education. However, teachers’ low motivation due to harsh living condition, erratically paid salaries, and absence of fringe benefits, not well acquainted with on especial trainings on the special methods of teaching nomadic pastoral children are resulted in high turnover which de-motivate learners and lead to withdrawal of schools.
- Because of the mobile way of life of pastoral Afars, and due to the reason that schools are inappropriately erected without considering their pattern of settlement, school distance becomes a problem for the educational involvement of Afar children.
- The research result further indicated that one of the impediments to the nomadic pastoral Afar children full participation in primary education is the rigid formal school calendar and time schedules. This calendar is established to suit to the mainstream settled population in the country, but not consider the seasonal migrations and work rhythms of pastoral nomadic Afar population, which could not enable them to attend schooling.
- The study found out that the lack of school facilities and service (like, ventilation, drinking water, latrine etc) in the existed schools have discouraged pastoral Afar pupils learning and aggravated the rate of dropouts.
- Fear of sexual attack is not a challenge in the educational participation of pastoral nomad Afar girls. Whereas, low interest of Afar children in formal education because of its inappropriateness in terms of their conceived aims, objectives, curriculum content and methodology, inflexibility and unsuitability to their natural setting, pastoral routines and livelihood, found to be impeding factor in their formal schooling. Based on the above findings, it is safe to conclude that school intrinsic factors are one of the supply side barriers for the educational participation of nomadic pastoralist Afar children, which call for supply side intervention strategies by the government and all concerned stake holders.

7. Recommendations

- It is advisable for Afar education bureau to reform the existing curriculum and design relevant curriculum for formal education in their local language. Detailed and sound understandings of the pastoral nomad Afars way of life, their social, cultural, indigenous knowledge, archaeological assets, economic reality and kinship should be a basis for preparation of the curriculum. The teacher trainings should also include courses in multi-grade teaching, health, and animal husbandry, guidance and counseling, communication skills. Additional trainings should be given to familiarize these teachers with the culture and life style of the nomadic pastoral Afars.
- This study further suggested that the regional government should provide incentives for teachers’ deployed to nomadic areas, like housing, mosquito nets, solar lamps, bicycles, motor-bicycles, medical allowances, hardship allowances, and in-service training opportunities and different salary scales. It is also advisable to
design its own flexible day and annual education calendar in consultation with tribal and clan leaders. The education calendar should take into account the seasonal mobility, high demand of child labour in the homestead and the time needed for household chores. It should also consider rainy seasons, when nomadic children are available in one place, movement patterns and climatic conditions.

References


Environmental Conservation: Espousing Indigenous Knowledge System as a Model for Caring for the Earth

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Abstract The earth is presently experiencing dramatic changes in both social and physical environments; consequent upon this, the human race is faced with grave environmental problems and challenges. Towards the resolution of these grave environmental problems, indigenous knowledge has been cited as an important approach for shaping value, orientations, social action and in mobilizing people (including indigenous peoples), to be interested in our environment, to learn about it as well as taking action to protect and preserve it. This is because indigenous people and their communities have an historical relationship with their lands and are generally descendants of the original inhabitants of such lands. As a result, they have developed over many generations a broad knowledge of how to live sustainably. In this paper, efforts are made to establish the potentials of indigenous ways of knowledge as a coherent and potent approach towards promoting sustainable living and environmental sustainability. The article also points out that traditional ecological knowledge or local indigenous environmental knowledge is capable of bringing forth a rich legacy of intergenerational and contextual knowing which have proved invaluable in the management of environment for many centuries before colonial period, as well as learning about not only the earth but also of the cosmos. On the other hand, this paper argues that the difficulty in adequately addressing environmental degradation, unsustainable means of production and living stems from the anthropocentric nature of sustainable development and preference for modernist, ethnocentric (Euro-centric) paradigms for acceptable knowledge and practice (Coates, Gray, & Hetherington, 2006). This article disagrees with the notion that adaptation to the rapid environmental challenges like climate change, specie and biodiversity loss, desertification and their adaptation will evolve through trial error.

Keywords: indigenous knowledge, indigenous environmental knowledge, sustainable living, anthropocentric, sustainable development, environmental wisdom.

1. Introduction

The earth is presently experiencing dramatic changes in both social and physical environments; consequent upon this, the human race is faced with grave environmental problems and challenges. The depletion of the world’s ozone layer is continuing and many medical researchers believe that the incidence of potentially lethal skin cancer is likely to increase, with many species of plants and animals containing substances with medicinal values disappearing at alarming rate. As noted by Cullen, Pretty, Smith, and Pilgrim (2007) and UNEP (2006) all humanity depends on the earth’s ecosystem and the goods and services they provide. Sadly, this dependence over 50 years has brought about swift and comprehensive change in the ecosystem than witnessed in any other comparable period. In a devastating manner, these changes have resulted in the biodiversity loss, the maintenance of which is crucial to the continued well being and survival of all humanity (MEA, 2005; Norse, 1993; Sala & Knowlton, 2006).

Towards the resolution of these grave environmental problems, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) has called for the inclusion of indigenous knowledge of “traditional” people and communities as a significant variable and critical factor in achieving environmental protection and sustainable development. Descriptively, indigenous knowledge system refers to the local knowledge that is unique to a culture or society. According to Dei (2002) indigenous knowledge have moral and cognitive conceptions about the nature and society that may be compatible with western scientific knowledge. Historically, indigenous people are known to have developed a broad knowledge of how to live sustainably, over many generations a holistic traditional scientific knowledge of their lands, natural resources, and environment (Agenda21, 1992: chapter 26).

Sustainable development has unarguably played a prominent role in the motive guiding thinking about earth and its general environment. Within this context, humanity is expected to make ongoing, flexible adjustments to the vicissitudes of this changing world. The context of these adjustments includes the use of indigenous knowledge as a way to bridge the complex interactions between the rich and varied contributions of indigenous forms of knowledge and the forms and content of western knowledge. In this paper, efforts will be made to establish the potentials of indigenous knowledge
system as a coherent and potent approach towards sustainability and improving the capacity of the people to address environment and development issues in Africa.

2. Sustainability, Development and Environmental Protection

This section offers a theoretical overview of sustainable development (environmental sustainability) as a tool for social change. An understanding of environmental sustainability requires its consideration in relation to global environmental management. The complex and manifold connections of the global environmental crises that characterize our world today have resulted in human apprehension, worries and palpable fear. Consequently, there is a general recognition that the profligate, extravagant and inequitable nature of current patterns of development, when projected into the not too distant future, lead to biophysical impossibilities. In order to address this issue the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) produced a report, entitled Our Common Future, better known as the Brundtland Commission Report (World Commission on Environment and Development 1987). The Brundtland Commission Report contains the most commonly employed definition of sustainable development.

Sustainable development is defined as “development which meets the need of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs” (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, p. 8). It is a term that grew out of environmental / conservation movement of the 1970s and it offers a general objective and a foundation for a materially reasonable and ethically justifiable use of nature by humankind. It focuses attention on the urgency of managing natural resources by attempting to maximise benefits from using these resources without endangering their existence, reproduction and use by all people present and in the future (Ahmed, 1994). Despite the clarity of the Commission’s definition, in terms of the purpose and goals of sustainable development, it is still a subject of challenge and contestations (Disinger, 1990; IDRC, 1992; Orr, 1992; Plant, 1995; Sauve, 1996). Some authors argue that sustainable development means total development. As Blackburn (2000), explains the concept of sustainable development consists of many elements. These include, at the very least, a consideration for the future generations, a fusion of economic, ecologic and community issues and the development of cooperative structures for dispute resolution and for daily living.

Conversely other scholars have argued that sustainable development / sustainability is anthropocentric, that is, it seeks to elevate human values and experiences, privileging human self-interest above ecological systems (Jickling, 2001). To some, the term sustainable development is an oxymoron – a self contained non sequitur between noun and modifier (see Disinger, 1990, p. 3). Slocombe and Van Bers (1991) on their part reminded us that this term is only a concept and that it is characterized by a paucity of precision. Furthermore as Daly (2006) argues, while future generations should be at least as well off as the present in terms of the flow of nature’s resources through the economy and back to nature in a non-declining manner, this flow-back process which guarantees sustainability or the endless continuity of resources is lacking in the current definition of sustainable development.

Goodland (1997), on the other hand, argues that focusing on the future diverts attention from today’s lack of sustainability. In Goodland’s view, “rather than focusing on the intergenerational equity concerns of environmental sustainability, the stewardship approach of safeguarding life support systems is preferable for intra-generational sustainability” (p. 69). In the same vein, according to Bartlett (2006), it is impossible to maintain sustainable economic growth without an increase in the consumption rates of non-renewable resources. Theorists, such as Beckerman (1992) and Dasgupta and Maier (1995), also challenge the concept of sustainable development and view it as morally indefensible and devoid of operational value, because no clear criteria exists to distinguish between “sustainable” and “unsustainable” economic activities, or for balancing the interests of present and future generations. Others scholars view this concept as utopian; they point to inherent and irreconcilable contradictions between “development” and “sustainability” (Blewitt, 2006; Langehelle, 1999; Robinson, 2004).

Given this critical contradictions, Robinson (2004: 370) redefines sustainability as a process that focuses on the ability of the humans to continue to live within environmental constraints. According to Goldie, Douglas and Furnass (2005), sustainability refers to the capacity of the biosphere to provide for the full range of human concerns in the long term. To Schreuder, Reddy & le Grange, (2000), the word sustainability refers to an activity, which can endure or persist. Rauch citing Fien (1996), Brundtland Report (1987) and the Agenda 21 (UNCED, 1992) explained that the notion of sustainability implies the use of resources in a manner which does not jeopardise the environment, the well being of humans, and does not destroy the capacity of future generations to satisfy their needs adequately (Rauch, 1998). A key aspect of sustainability is the focus on future human needs or intergenerational equity. Sustainability, therefore suggests a strong bias towards the moral and ethical responsibility of the present generation for the sustenance of the global environment and its resources so that current development will not “deprive the future generation of the ability to attain a...
level of well being equivalent or superior to that achieved today” (Drummond & Marsden, 1999: p. 8). Implicit in this notion of sustainability is the realization that we are “a part” of the planet, rather than “apart” from it. Based on this, sustainability could be the destination, the end-goal, while sustainable development is a means of getting there.

3. Understanding Indigenous knowledge Systems (IKS)

According to Havekort (1991), indigenous knowledge is the actual knowledge of a given population that reflects the experiences based on traditions and includes more recent experiences with modern technologies (cited in Bray & Els, 2007). It embodies the philosophy that being one’s own is a result of the place or circumstances of one’s birth, which encompasses being a member of the original inhabitants or lifelong resident of a particular place (Bray & Els, 2007). Indigenousness according to Dei (2002), “may be defined as knowledge consciousness arising locally and in association with the long-term occupancy of a place”. The notion of ‘indigenousness’ he adds “highlights the power of dynamics embedded in the production, interrogation, validation and dissemination of global knowledge about international development”. It recognises the multiple and collective origins and the collaborative dimensions of knowledge, and underscores that the interpretation or analysis of social reality is subject to different and sometimes oppositional perspectives. He argues further that ‘Indigenousness’ emerges from an indigenous knowledge system that is based on cognitive understandings and interpretations of the social and physical/spiritual world (Dei, 2002).

Knowledge may be defined as ‘the state or fact of knowing something with familiarity, awareness, or understanding gained through experience or association’ (Merriam-Webster, 2006). The word knowledge refers to a universal heritage and a universal resource, which is diverse and varied. ‘Indigenous’ on the other hand refers to the root, something natural or innate and also an integral part of culture (Hoppers, 2005). Knowledge, as defined above, may be interpreted as an indigenous ‘science’, seeking to understand, explain and organize aspects of reality. As pointed out by Bray and Els (2007) knowledge systems are systems through which people make sense of and attach meaning to the world in which they live. These are views and perceptions originating within a specific community or culture and are handed down from generation to generation (Kok, 2005), resulting in personal experiences and wisdom being transferred to younger people. These knowledge systems reflect the dynamic way in which the residents of a community come to understand themselves in relation to their natural environment and how they organize that knowledge of flora, fauna, cultural beliefs and history to enhance their lives. These personal experiences, wisdom and order of knowledge represent the mechanisms that ensure the minimal livelihoods of people (Dei, 1999).

Broadly speaking, indigenous knowledge systems refer to the complex set of knowledge and technologies existing and developed around specific conditions of populations and communities indigenous to a particular area (Bray & Els, 2007). These indigenous knowledge systems provide ‘an everyday realization that rewards individuals who live in a given locality’. From another perspective, a study by Loubser (2004) on indigenous knowledge systems describes ‘indigenous’ as being ‘communities that inhabit the country at the time of conquest or colonization’. This knowledge is passed from generation to generation, usually by word of mouth and cultural rituals, and has been the basis for agriculture, food preparation, health care, education, conservation and the wide range of other activities that sustain societies in many parts of the world.

For the purpose of this paper however, the working term shall be indigenous knowledge systems, it refers to a combination of knowledge system encompassing technology, social, economic, philosophical learning/educational, legal, and governance systems. Indigenous knowledge systems involve transmission of traditional information, and all forms of knowledge or knowing is transmitted through several mediums such as stories, wise - saying, idioms, poems, praise singing and fables. This knowledge according to Ahmed (1994) is composed of people’s “do-how”, know-how and accumulated experiences over economical, social, cultural, ideological, and belief systems in which it is found. An indigenous knowledge system is characterised by its being embedded in the cultural web and history of a people including their civilisation, and forms the backbone of the social, economic, scientific and technological identity of such a people.

4. Indigenous Knowledge and Sustainability: The Nexus

Renewed interest in indigenous knowledge and practices is widespread and global (Nakata, 2002, 2007). This interest has emerged in times of “new configuration in global relations where the centrality of knowledge is the emerging currency in that relationship” (Hoppers, 2000, pg. 283). The global discourse on IK has run into and across a range of interest such as sustainable development, biodiversity and conservation interests (Nakata, 2007). For instance, in 1987, attention of the world was drawn to potency and viability of harnessing indigenous knowledge system for sustainable development in
a Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). The Report observed that most people base their understandings of environmental process and development on information provided by conventional education, and a consequence, many have remained ignorant about the ways in which they could improve traditional production practices and better protect the natural resource base (WCED, 1987: 111 and 113). On the strength of this observation, WCED (1987) called for the inclusion of indigenous knowledge of “traditional” people and communities as a significant variable and critical factor in achieving sustainable development.

The importance of this call is based on the fact that the indigenous communities and its peoples have over centuries through their traditional skills protected our complex ecological subsystems (WCED, 1987) and contemporary variable and critical factor in achieving sustainable development. WCED (1987) called for the inclusion of indigenous knowledge of “traditional” people and communities as a significant practices and better protect the natural resource base (WCED, 1987: 111 and 113). On the strength of this observation, and a consequence, many have remained ignorant about the ways in which they could improve traditional production as well as harnessing indigenous knowledge of the people towards sustainability. As noted by Mwaura (2008) indigenous knowledge can be summed up as the wisdom of a people for survival in their own environment. It is a broad concept that covers all forms of knowledge of a particular community living in a particular area. It is dynamic and continually evolving. Traditional communities rely on traditional knowledge and it is necessary to integrate their knowledge systems with scientific knowledge and emerging technologies (Mwaura, 2008).

As Cajete, (2000: 281) rightly points out the accumulated knowledge of the remaining indigenous groups around the world represents an ancient body of thought, experience and action that, if honoured and preserved as a vital storehouse of environmental wisdom, can form the basis for evolving the kind of cosmological reorientation that is so desperately needed. For Nakashima, Prott and Bridgewater (2000) sophisticated knowledge of the natural world is not confined to science, human societies all across the globe has developed rich sets of experiences and explanations relating to the environments they live in. These 'other knowledge systems' are today often referred to as traditional ecological knowledge or indigenous or local knowledge. They encompass the sophisticated arrays of information, understandings and interpretations that guide human societies around the globe in their innumerable interactions with the natural milieu: in agriculture and animal husbandry; hunting, fishing and gathering; struggles against disease and injury; naming and explanation of natural phenomena; and strategies to cope with fluctuating environments (Nakashima et al., 2000: 12).

The realisation and recognition of the potency of indigenous knowledge as a tool to mobilise indigenous peoples for environmental sustainability is set forth in the Principles of for Environmental Education for Equitable and Sustainable Societies adopted at the International Government forum at the Earth Summit. For instance, Principle 7, of Agenda 21 maintains that "environmental education must recover, recognise, respect, reflect, and utilise indigenous history and local cultures, as well as promote cultural, linguistic, and ecological diversity. This implies acknowledging the historical perspective of native peoples as a way to change ethnocentric approaches, as well as the encouragement of bilingual education". Likewise Principle 22 of the Rio declaration states: "Indigenous people and their communities and other local communities have a vital role in environmental management and development because of their knowledge and traditional practices" (Agenda 21, 1992).

Furthermore, the use of indigenous knowledge is linked to the strategies which the culture has devised for coping with risks. These micro-level practices protect against vicissitudes in climate, attack from pests and genetic erosion, through maintaining diversity, in the ecological system, in crops and genetic materials. The components of these strategies allow a sustainable system to be reproduced in which biological nutrients are conserved, and food consumption meets different nutritional needs. Another feature of indigenous knowledge that proves useful for sustainability is its principle of ecological integrity and health which is founded on the belief that, the health of the planet is the primary context for the health of all life on it; the support systems of the Earth are severely threatened; what we do to the planet, we do to ourselves (Colorado, 1988; La Duke, 1995; Rosenberg, 2002).

In relation to environmental protection, IK is viewed as a means to an end, involving social responsibility, environmental ethics, plant biology, scientific knowledge, agricultural, technical and ecological knowledge, including cultigens, medicinas, and rational use of flora and fauna (Battiste, 2005; Daes, 1993). Furthermore, the need to protect the earth’s biological diversity, ecosystem, and the inherent value of IK as a medium, the United Nations Convention on Biological Diversity has recognized the importance of IK to the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity. The Convention also acknowledges the contributions of IK for its valuable and innovative approaches to environmental and conservation studies, sustainable development as well as the validity of indigenous science (Battiste, 2005). In closing, it is worth mentioning that it has been postulated that the indigenous peoples and communities are bound to experience severe challenges in their attempt at coping with the evolving rapid changes in their environment given their close relationship with the land and the processes that shape it (Löf & Carriere, 2010). For example, the
connection between climate change and livelihood and survival is far more than statistics and trends, however, uncertainties and major knowledge gaps may constraints local level application of projected climatic and environmental impacts (Löf & Carriere, 2010; McBean et al., 2005). This article disagrees with the notion that adaptation to these rapid environmental challenges like climate change, specie and biodiversity loss, desertification and their adaptation will evolve through trial error. On the contrary, this article maintain that since, the comprehension and communicating of these environmental challenges will be transmitted and translated in indigenous language, it could be located in an already established local ecological practices and mores or norms. Further, environmental sustainability includes new configuration such as ecological, economic, cultural and social components. These are perceived as strong indices towards ensuring an environmentally sound and economically prosperous future. This implies that environmental sustainability like indigenous knowledge is a lifelong process, strongly embedded in the values of an individual and the culture he/she is living in (Hynninen & Ilmavirta, 1998: 288). Located in this process is the understanding of the values and ethics needed to develop informed attitudes and experiences for fostering environmental sensitivity/concern aimed at a sustainable planet. Accordingly, it should prepare the individual for life through an understanding of the major problems of the contemporary world, and the provision of skills and attributes needed to play a productive role towards improving life and protecting the environment with due regard given to ethical issues (UNESCO, 1977).

5. Notion of Care and Stewardship and its place in indigenous environmental Conservation

According to Merriam Webster Dictionary define care as “to feel interest or concern” while stewardship is described as the act of “conducting, supervising, or managing of something; especially: the careful and responsible management of something entrusted to one's care (stewardship of natural resources). The term ‘care’ and ‘stewardship’ as used in this paper in the holistic sense as the totality of concerns, values, and the quantum of feelings towards the maintenance and protection of the commons. The commons in this sense will mean the overall environment and the resources available for everyone in the society. In this respect, it speaks to how we relate within our society and surroundings as well as the roles, expectations and responsibilities bequeathed to all within a cultural setting by encouraging harmonious living with the earth. In relation to caring for the earth, the term “natural resources conservation” is a western management term not reflective of the relationship of indigenous cultures to their environment. Its anthropogenetic concept of care and stewardship is derived from the need to preserve the natural resource for its use and ultimately exploitation.

Indigenous stewardship and care on the other hand, suggest living and being part of the natural environment. According to the United States Department of Agriculture Guidebook, published in 2010, traditionally, indigenous cultures express and reinforce their relationship with the nature through ceremonies and prayer. Thus as mark of respect for the land and its resources, since according to the indigenous elders, everything is first created spiritually (inside), then secondly it is made manifest in the temporal realm (outside) (United States Department of Agriculture, 2010).

Meanwhile, indigenous stewardship methods (ISM) explain the purpose and methodology of creating this guidance and describe key concepts and items of consideration for how to work with, and learn from, Tribes and indigenous peoples (USDA, 2010). ISMs are the ecologically sustainable use of natural resources within their capacity to sustain natural processes, while honouring the wisdom of past generations, and ensuring that the use does not diminish the potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future generations. ISM is perhaps a subset of Traditional Ecological Knowledge (TEK), in which indigenous peoples acquired the knowledge base over hundreds of years through direct experience and contact with the environment (USDA, 2010). The guidebook pointed out further that ISM is the physical, spiritual, mental, emotional, and intuitive relationship of indigenous peoples with all aspects and elements of their environment. Its use is encapsulated in the following quotation from Our Common Future, the report of the World Commission on Environment and Development

Tribal and indigenous peoples’...lifestyle can offer modern societies many lessons in the management of resources in complex forest, mountain and dryland ecosystems... These communities are the repositories of vast accumulations of traditional knowledge and experience that link humanity with its ancient origins. Their disappearance is a loss for the larger society, which could learn a great deal from their traditional skills in sustainably managing very complex ecological systems (World Commission on Environment and Development 1987).

6. Lessons from Indigenous Approaches to Sustainability and Ecological Care in Africa

Like other indigenous cultures across the world, the African indigenous people have their peculiar approaches, traditions, mores and norms, which have over centuries played a huge role in their management of the environment and sustainability practices. The uniqueness of their indigenousness is coded such that it is passed from one generation to
another in a manner referred to as unwritten curriculum (see Sitthiraksa, 1993). This knowledge therefore forms the basis of their science, agriculture, technology culture, tradition and livelihood and it reflects many generations of experience and problem-solving by ethnic groups at the local level, and no experience of one country can exactly replicate another.

The importance of indigenous knowledge system in ecosystem management is echoed in Berkes, Colding, and Folke's (2000) case studies which revealed that there exists a diversity of local or traditional practices for ecosystem management. These include multiple species management, resources rotation, succession management, landscape patchiness management and other ways of responding to and managing pulses and ecological surprises. Social mechanisms behind these traditional practices include a number of adaptations for the generation, accumulation, and transmission of knowledge; the use of institutions to provide leaders/stewards and rules for social regulation, mechanisms for cultural internalization of traditional practices; and the development of appropriate world views and cultural values. These traditional systems had certain similarities to adaptive management with its emphasis on feedback learning, and its treatment of uncertainty and unpredictability intrinsic to all ecosystems.

Building on Berkes et al (2000) and Fagbohun's (2011) discourse on cultural legitimacy and social behaviour among African traditional communities and how traditional knowledge system have been tapped for ecosystem and sustainability management. This section of the paper discusses indigenous practices among selected African communities with respects to ethics and logic of care, within the traditional Yoruba community in Nigeria and traditional Ngoro system of environmental conservation common to indigenous farmers in Kenya, Swaziland, Tanzania and South Africa. Through poems and idioms many indigenous groups in Nigeria engage in caring for the earth. For example, Yorubas, a cosmopolitan indigenous group located in the south western part of Nigeria acts as steward through poems which dwell on environmental protection, humane and environmental ethics as well care for other creatures and the diversity of species around them.

Yi ese re si apa kan
Ma se pa kokoro ni
Kokoro ti iwo ko le da
Olorun lo le daa
Ma se da ‘gi l’oro
Ma se gbo iyepe di odo
Gbogbo won l’oni ise ti won

Transliterated to English from Yoruba:

Turn your feet to one side
Thou shall not kill that insect
An insect which thou cannot create/make
Only God can create/make
Don’t be wicked to plants
Do not block the rivers and streams
They all have their functions/purposes.

The lesson of this poem suggests that the indigenous ethics of care and stewardship espoused above can form the basis of efforts towards sustaining the planet and protecting its biodiversity if promoted alongside western scientific knowledge such that the interplay of local knowledge, of cultural, social and ecological systems are taken into consideration (Fagbohun, 2011).

Another example can be found in a study by UNEP of four countries namely, Kenya, Swaziland, Tanzania and South Africa in the Southern Africa region. The study examined the repertoire of indigenous knowledge that communities in the study areas draw on to promote a variety of innovative, effective, and in some cases unique indigenous knowledge approaches known as Ngoro system to environmental conservation. According to the report, the Ngoro system illustrates the multipurpose function of many of the indigenous knowledge approaches to environmental conservation. The Ngoro system of environmental conservation included such technologies and practices as shifting cultivation, mixed cropping or intercropping, minimum tillage and agro-forestry, as well as transhumance. These technologies and practices were commonplace and were used with various other methods of land use and management to promote higher yields while at the same time conserving the environment. For instance, mixing or intercropping maize with other crops such as beans
promoted not only efficient labour utilization but also lessened the risk of total crop failure since chances were that if one of the crops succumbed to environmental stress others would survive. Mixed cropping or intercropping stabilized yields, preserved the soil and made it possible to harvest different crops at the same time. Other advantages were a reduction in susceptibility of the crops to pests and diseases and a better use of the environment where the combination of species grown had different light requirements or explored different depths of soil. The system also tended to provide a complete vegetation canopy at different heights and thus broke up heavy rainfall and protected the soil.

Furthermore, the effects of indigenous knowledge conservation measures and technologies also tend to pervade the entire environment. For instance, in many of the communities certain forests were protected as shrines to be used for worship and other rituals. Such protected areas in fact ended up having multirole functions as they also influenced other elements of the environment, like biodiversity, forest conservation, land use and management, and so on. Because of this interconnectedness and “cross-cutting” nature of indigenous knowledge, it is convenient to describe the different indigenous knowledge measures for environmental conservation regardless of their intended or perceived purpose and examine how they relate to all areas of conservation including land management and use, forest, wetlands and biodiversity conservation (Mwaura, 2008). Summarizing the importance and viability of indigenous practices Dirwai (2007) pointed out that the traditional methodologies were cleaner and less harmful to the environment in that they assured a harmonized use of the environment and hence were quite sustainable. He also argued that learning should become ethno based such that assessment could become relevant to the communities. The successful application of this knowledge is based on good prognosis, close observation and a thorough understanding of the local environment (Fagbohun, 2011; Mwaura, 2008).

7. Conclusion

Crispen Dirwai (2007) observed that indigenous groups all over the world have developed cultural belief systems that demonstrate knowledge and appreciation of the Earth. According to him, these cultural belief systems embody cultural rules about how the various components of the environment should be treated for the good of the present and future generations (Fagbohun, 2011). The tendency to fall back on traditional knowledge and cultural practices has in several instances yielded positive dividends over the years. Traditional ecological knowledge has further been made popular through the work of the International Conservation Union (IUCN). In this article, I reviewed critically the concept and development of environment and sustainability and indigenous knowledge in particular. In the context of this article, a wide and broader attempt was made to define sustainability/sustainable development and indigenous knowledge, taking into consideration the conceptual debate on sustainable development and indigenous knowledge as well as the interconnectedness of the goals and outcomes of these two issues. In order words, the lessons learned from indigenous environmental conservation practices and care offers valuable insight for developing the broader notion of sustainability. The article also points out that sustainability includes new configuration such as ecological, economic, cultural and social components. These are perceived as strong indices towards ensuring an environmentally sound and economically prosperous future.

Indigenous knowledge systems on the other hand involve the transmission of traditional information, and all forms of knowledge or knowing is transmitted through several media such as stories, wise-saying, idioms, poems, praise-singing and fables. Indigenous knowledge has been passed down from generation to generation through traditional education, with adults teaching practical knowledge of culture, the environment and survival through demonstrations and through a wide range of ceremonies, stories, songs, village meetings and taboos. Therefore, they possess a deep appreciation of the environment and its underlying processes, which forms the foundation for decision making in most day-to-day activities. Maurice Strong (1990) in a foreword to the book, *The Gaia Atlas of First Peoples* shows that indigenous knowledge is not only important in its own right, but is also important for the benefits it brings to; the indigenous people who own and live it; all the other people around the world who can learn lessons for living sustainably from it; and the Earth which would be treated more carefully if indigenous knowledge and values were followed more widely (Burger, 1990).

The acceptance of these alternative knowledge systems has created a ‘welcoming and inclusive context enabling the celebration of diversity, and the sharing of knowledge’ (Coates et al., 2006; Gray, Coates, & Hetherington, 2007). Person-in-environment expands to assume an interdependence and relatedness of all life, connectedness with nature, and the importance of place. These values are not only consistent with more traditional Indigenous knowledge systems, but also provide an accepting environment for Indigenous forms of healing and helping. Conclusively, in this article I have been able to point out that it would be inaccurate to assume that sustainability and environmental conservation is the sole prerogative of western knowledge system, anchored on Eurocentric values and norms. Therefore it should be
remembered that, if real sustainability is to become increasingly meaningful and mainstream, rather than devalued and marginalized as acknowledged by Sterling (1996), we need to embrace the epistemologies of indigenous people, including their ways of organizing their knowledge of their environment (Redclift, 1987).

References


Attitude of Adolescents for Smoking

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Abstract: “Death from smoking is increasing alarmingly in developed Countries as the cigarette companies’ shift their marketing to the poorer parts of the world. In a report prepared by the World Health Organization back in 1990, it was revealed that as compared to the anticipated ratio of life-losses resulting from smoking in 1990s i.e. one million a year, the losses may increase up to seven million within two to three decades”. In perspective of the above, it was noticed with a great deal of concern that unfortunately the trends of smoking, specifically among adolescents are notably increasing. To find out the reasons, and to determine the awareness level of the harms of smoking, a study was initiated in the southern districts of KPK Pakistan. It was presumed that easy access to smoking materials, lack of proper education, prevailing environment and some socio-cultural as well as psychological factors are responsible of smoking among adolescents. 12-19 years of age group was selected for the study. It was concluded that peer group pressures and friends play all important roles in the initiation of smoking whereas home environment and smoking habits of parents and siblings were also found to be important determinants in this respect. Free access of adolescents to smoking & allied material was also found to be a significant cause of smoking initiations while the status and living standards and other factors are playing very vital role in this regard. The study revealed that considerable chunk of the adolescents start smoking for the sake of fun as well. The study on the other hand revealed that adolescents are not adequately aware of the harms of smoking. A very meager collocate of the sampled population recognized few harms of smoking but on the whole the level of awareness was found as dissatisfactory by any means.

Keywords: Attitude, Adolescents, Smoking, Awareness, Initiation

Introduction

Harmfulness of smoking is quite obvious which includes adverse effects on respiratory system, breathing problems, chance of nicotine addiction, risk of addiction to drugs associated with smoking, lessened functions and reduced growth of lungs, lung cancer, heart problems (Kamholz, 2004), decreased endurance and lower performance, higher rate of resting heart beats, social adjustment problems, unpleasant smell from mouth and emotional and psychological problems (WHO). Smoking harms almost every organ of the body, causes many diseases and reduces the quality of life and life expectancy. Deaths caused by smoking are five times higher than deaths that come from traffic accidents, alcoholics liver diseases, poisoning and overdose and other accidental diseases. Smoking is the major cause of mouth cancer (CCV 2007) and it can cause serious damages to teeth and gums (ACSH, 2003). Quitting smoking however, reduce the risk of cancer and other disease that are usually spread through smoking (DHHS US, 2004). It is important to know that secondhand smoke, also called environmental tobacco smoke (ETS) and exposure to it as involuntary smoking, or passive smoking is equally injurious to human health; rather in some cases it proves to be more dangerous (Jaleel et al, 2001). It is unfortunately not easy to avoid secondhand smoke because about one in four people smoke. Secondhand smoke causes lung cancer in people who don't smoke, in addition to irritation of the eyes, nose, and throat. Secondhand smoke especially hurts children who are more likely to suffer from pneumonia, bronchitis, and other lung diseases and
ear infections. Researchers at Osaka City University Medical School in Osaka, Japan found that passive smoking for half an hour dramatically affected the circulation of blood within the hearts of non-smokers. Other studies have shown the risk of death from coronary heart disease is increased among non-smokers who are exposed to environmental smoke, by as much as 23%.

In Pakistan use of tobacco is very common as majority of men with a considerable number of women use tobacco in any of the available form (PMRC, 2003). Pakistan is among those few countries in the world where use of tobacco is alarmingly increasing (Ahmed et al, 2008) as the number of tobacco users in Pakistan amounts to 25 million with a sizeable number of female exposed to smoking (Maqbool, 2008). Tobacco, in this part of the world is used in different forms and through many methods including shisha\(^1\), huqqa\(^2\), pan\(^3\), qiwam\(^4\), niswar\(^5\) etc, in addition to cigarette which is the most popular form of tobacco use among the habitual (Ansari et al, 1998). Recent surveys in many of the cities of Pakistan reveal that the ratio of smoking among youth is at rise. Unfortunately most of the effected adolescents are below eighteen years of age (Samia, 2008). In this context daily ‘the Nation’ (Nation 26/102008), referring president of a local NGO reported that young people, a major part of Pakistani population, are very unfortunately feared to have an exposure to smoking and ultimately to the drug abuse.

It has been noted that shisha smoking is more popular and prevalent among the adolescents belonging to comparatively high socio-economic class (Maqbool, 2008) and is gaining great popularity among the adolescents. Shisha or huqqa is openly and easily accessible to them on different picnic spots in particularly big cities of Pakistan. For making shisha smoking more attractive, it is available in different flavours that deceitfully conceal the natural smell of tobacco. It is horrifying to note that large number of school boys and girls go to shisha houses to enjoy shisha smoking openly (Pakistan Observer, 2009). A report submitted to the WHO stated that shisha smoking is equally, rather more dangerous (Shihadeh and Saleh, 2005) than the cigarettes and it should also be treated at par with smoking as far as its harms are concerned (Ash, 2007).

In an effort to create awareness among youth, IMDC Islamabad organized a seminar where it was revealed that smoking among students of school and college is on the rise and daily about 1600 young people initiate smoking in Pakistan. (M. Qsim, 2008). It was noted that the level of awareness was improved consequent upon a study relating to the effects of shisha smoking, and the youth addict of shisha smoking, were found more aware of the harms of this menace, resultant to the information provided to them (Qudsia et al, 2008).

**Shisha**: gaining rapid popularity among the youth in Pakistan, shisha (improved form of Hookah) is a water pipe used for smoking purposes, originating about 500 years ago

**Huqqa** (Hookah): also known as a water-pipe is a single or multi-stemmed instrument for smoking in which the smoke is cooled and filtered by passing through water.

**Pan**: a Pakistani/Indian tradition of chewing betel leaf with tobacco.

**Qiwam**: Tobacco leaves processed by removing their stalks and stems, then boiled and soaked in water flavored with spices and additives. The resulting pulp is mashed, strained, and dried into a paste.

**Niswar**: a type of dipping tobacco made from fresh tobacco leaves, calcium oxide (chuna), and wood ash.

Not only in Pakistan but elsewhere in the world, use of tobacco among adolescents is considered as a major health problem. According to Pollay (Pollay, 2007) It is feared that everyday some “Eighty to One hundred thousand adolescents become addict of tobacco in different parts of the world. Quite alarmingly most of the smokers are exposed to smoking before reaching 18 years of age (WHO, 2002). If the trends of tobacco use among the youth continues in the same mode, the death toll caused by tobacco can rise to ‘250 million addicted children’ (Bates, 2004). Research reveals that the smoking proves to be more injurious to adolescents in comparison to adults (JMHW, 2002). Extended use of tobacco for a considerable time makes it difficult for the adolescents to quit, as the habit of tobacco causes more dependence upon nicotine among them than the adults (Mio, 2008). Research establishes that majority of adolescents; habitual of smoking regularly can die prematurely due to the tobacco related chronic diseases (Peto et al., 1994). Spending some money on purchase of tobacco makes the youth more prone to regular smoking (Leatherdale, 2005). Habit of smoking can open the doors of drugs addiction among the adolescents (Mio, 2008). Results of a study conducted in Japan concludes that exposure to smoking during adolescence most probably adds to the chances of drug addiction (Oura et al., 2003). A study carried in America indicated that ratio of becoming dependent upon smoking is more likely among the adolescents than those of the adults who start smoking at comparatively older stages of age (Breslau et al., 1993). A research study conducted in Egypt reveals that a sizeable number of young boys and girls have used water pipe as a source of smoking (Gadalla, 2003). Strict implementation of laws concerning tobacco control play significant role in reducing tobacco use among adolescents (Wakefield, 2000). Studies reveal that smoking habits of parents play significant role in initiation of
smoking among their children (Leatherdale and Manske, 2005; Leatherdale et al., 2006; Milton et al., 2004). According to WHO (2008) majority of smoker initiates smoking before reaching the age of 18. It has been found that most of the adult smokers had experienced smoking for the first time at the age of 18 or below (Nelson et al, 1995). Research study ascertains that a considerable number of youth aging “13-15” have been found addict of smoking (Warren et al, 2006). Initiation of smoking at early stages of age proves to be more harmful as it continues for a longer period (UOM, 1997). Initiation of smoking can also cause habit of the use of other addictive drugs and substances. Exposure to tobacco at early stages of age usually results in heavy use of smoking and consequent increase in the mortality rate among smokers (DHHS, 2004).

Among numerous causes of smoking, aggressive and attractive tobacco advertising on media and tobacco outlets sponsored by tobacco producers, causes main damage of exposing the children to tobacco use (Vaidya et al, 1999) which has though gradually been barred but the direct ban of tobacco advertisement is being counteracted by indirect advertisement through film, drama and other programmes on TV that needs to be banished completely (Daily Dawn, 2009). In this perspect it is important to note that a study conducted by AKU stated that alarmingly increasing number of young smokers, estimated as 1500 (almost similar to that of the findings of M. Qasim) a day in Pakistan, is mostly due to “aggressive marketing” of tobacco producers (Daily News, 2008). Research studies reveal that advertisement very effectively targets the youth not used-to of smoking (Brown, 1979). It is a matter of fact that mass media can play very effective role in ending or reducing the tobacco use among youth through a full-blooded campaign against this threat (Lloyd et al, 2005). Attractive tobacco advertisement and sponsorships pull the youth towards tobacco (Slater, 2007) and incites them to smoke (DiFranza et al, 2006). It is important that effective counter campaign is launched to strengthen the efforts for the eradication of smoking among youth (CDC, 2007). Research indicates that State supported anti-smoking campaign can play an effective role in reducing and ending smoking habits among youth (Hyland et al, 2006). It is considered that effective education and proper counseling can help reduce smoking habits (SK Org, 2010). The mass media can play very effective role in ending or reducing the tobacco use among youth through a full-blooded campaign against this threat (Lloyd et al, 2005).

Methods and Materials

This study was conducted in the southern districts of Khyber Pakhtoonkwa province in Pakistan, which included Dera Ismail Khan, Tank, Bannu, Lakki Marwat and Karak. Population of the study comprised of adolescents aging 12 to 19 years, habitual of smoking, whereas sample of the study consisted of 734 adolescents. A structured questionnaire constructed on three point Likert scale Pattern was employed for data collection. The questionnaire consisted of thirty items including eighteen for the measurement of awareness among the subject respondents regarding harms of smoking, and twelve for measuring the causes of initiation of smoking. The researchers personally executed and completed the measuring scale to avoid errors and every possible chance of predetermined and undue cautious responses. This practice proved helpful in removing difficulties of the respondents in answering certain questions. Gathered data were analyzed using SPSS version 12 (statistical package for social sciences). Reliability of the measuring scale was tested, which was found as .847 on Cronbach’s alpha, whereas Pearson correlation coefficient, Independent sample t-test and linear regression model were applied for the logical analyses of the data.

Research questions

1. What are the main generative drives that attract adolescents to start smoking
2. Which of the age group is most critical in perspective of smoking initiation
3. What is the degree of awareness among adolescents regarding harms of smoking

Results and Discussions

This study searched to explore different smoking stimulates that cause initiation of smoking among adolescents. Attempt was also made to determine the age group which is most prone to smoking whereas it was also tried to ascertain degree of awareness among the target population regarding diverse dangers related to tobacco intake. The data revealed that friends and peers prove to be major cause of smoking initiation among adolescents as 22.48% of the respondents acknowledged a major role of friends and peers in developing and promoting this habit among them. 18.09 percent of the respondents considered fun as a source of inspiration and initiation whereas 14.45% held their parents and siblings
responsible for the same. The diagram given below concisely depicts the sources that inspire adolescents initiate smoking.

![Smoking Generative drives](image)

**Smoking Generative drives** Parents & Siblings 14.45, Friends & peers 22.48, Environment 10, Circumstances 12, Fun 18.09, Stress & Anxiety 7.10, Attractive adds 8.01, Impress & Attract others 7.87

The collected data revealed age group 16-17 years the most critical as 23% of the adolescents admitted they started smoking when they were 16 while 20% started smoking at the age of 17 years. The matter of concern nonetheless was the age group 12-13 where 3 and 5% were respective found to be exposed to smoking. Following graph divulges the age-wise initiation of smoking among adolescents which gradually mounts and reaches to its peak at the age of 16-17 years.

![Age-wise Smoking Initiation](image)

**Adolescents Starting Smoking at the age of** 12years-3%, 13 years-5%, 14years-9%, 15years-11%, 16years-23%, 17years-20%, 18years-15%, 19years-14%

The harms of smoking were divided in two groups i.e. the **fatal diseases** caused by smoking and **social disadvantages** of smoking. Heart problems, probably being the most common, projected and well known resultant of smoking were acknowledged by 15% of the respondents whereas rest of the harms were recognized by the adolescents comparatively to a lesser extent. With reference to social harms of smoking, the adolescents (18%) did know that smoking is injuries to fitness, 14% said they know that smoking shakes self confidence by making dependent of it if caught in some sort of a situation, almost similar number of respondents (14%) said they know smoking spoils the environment and becomes a hindrance in the social contacts at times as they failed to gain attention and response of those who do not smoke.
Smoking Causes
Heart Problems 15%, Cancer 9%, Respiratory Disorders 9%, Coughing 4%, TB 3%
Smoking Effects
Fitness 18%, Self-Confidence 14%, Environment 14%, Social contacts 14%

Though on the whole the degree of awareness among respondents regarding different adverse effects of smoking (11.11% on average) was found to be considerably low, yet it was presumed that no significant difference of awareness prevails among different age groups regarding harms of smoking. Contrary to the presumptions the data analysis revealed that degree of awareness within the groups of subject population was nonintersecting, though not to a greater extent. For the purpose ANOVA was employed where difference in the mean scores (see below table) and F-value i.e. 9.470 being greater then t-value i.e. 2.60 affirmed variance of the level of awareness among different age groups.

<table>
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<th>df</th>
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<th>Table value</th>
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<td>.21820</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

It was considered significant to empathize whether awareness of the harms of smoking help prevent indulgence in the nuisance of smoking. Linear regression model was applied to determine the association of the two variables, the results of which revealed no significant influence of awareness on initiation of smoking.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R^2</th>
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<th>F-value</th>
<th>P-value</th>
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<td>.152(a)</td>
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Linear Regression showing association between awareness and initiation of smoking
Findings

Peer group and friends were found as the prime instigating and converting factor in initiation of smoking among adolescents. The detailed responses revealed that peer group picnic parties and gatherings, going to the restaurants and sitting there for hours, dominating environment of the restaurants and facilities of smoking aids therein also added to the habit of smoking. Similarly adrift wondering with groups of friends and visiting riverside for the sake of enjoyment lead most of the youngster to indulge in smoking. In addition, attending music parties’ particularly pop music in-groups and favourite food parties also promoted the habit of smoking. The role of siblings and parents was also found as considerably ‘contributive’ in this regard, because a prominent chunk of the adolescents said they started smoking because they found it as a routine practice of their parents and siblings which drew them to this menace. Most of the respective respondents revealed that their parents and siblings did freely smoke at home sitting along with family in the TV lounge or in the dining room, after meals. Many of the adolescents while responding to a question said they were usually asked by their parents to bring cigarettes for them which indirectly encouraged them doing the same what their parents do. Other factors i.e. environment, circumstances and tobacco producers attractive campaign through media were though found to be having a role in the initiation of smoking among adolescents, but sense of making fun was also found as among the important elements that drove many of the respondents towards smoking. In response to a question about giving up this habit which began for making fun, 36% of the adolescents said it was not possible for them to abstain from smoking once started, while the remaining said quitting is quite possible if they desired to do so.

It was observed that excessive freedom to the adolescents in the name of culture and so-called civilizedness, no proper check by the parents on the movements and habits of children and easy accessibility to lots of resources and money lead most of the adolescents to the places where smoking and its allied material was facilitated to them in different attractive ways.

The study ascertained that though to a comparatively smaller scale, the initiation of smoking yet prevailed among the adolescents aging 12-13, which was quite worrying. It was detected that majority among this age group, exposed to smoking were the adolescents, victim of forced or intentional child labour, perhaps due to poverty, illness or demise of parents, or some other socio-economical reasons. The most critical age group found to be most endangered and inclined towards smoking was 16-17 years which is factually the most incisive span of age as well. Quite unfortunately when asked, 85% of the mentioned said, they are aware of the fact that tobacco is injurious to human health, while rest of the 15% said it has no bad effects. The reason among the reasons of indulgence in smoking at this very age group might be change of environment and a gradual shift from finitude/strictness of parents and elders to freedom, or a shift from school to colleges, where the environment is altogether contrasting.

The awareness regarding critical health problems occurring from smoking was almost missing among the adolescents. Heart problem being the most commonly a known and discussed phenomenon was recognized as a threat of smoking, yet only by the 15% of the entire sampled population, whereas, other critical health related effects of smoking were known to less than 10% of them. Nonetheless, almost 20% of the population recognized the negative effects of smoking on physical fitness, yet continued smoking without any hesitation or check.

Half hearted measures by the authorities for prevention of smoking, but a simultaneous slack and unemphatic attitude for implementation, results in the increase in smoking. In this regard it is important to note that apparent prohibition of smoking and ban on smoking related advertisements through the media, smoking in public places and public transport, prohibition of smoking in Educational Institutions etc is not working properly and non-serious rather Laissez-faire attitude of the government is not supporting the cause. A strong political plus administrative will is required to stop this happening. It is also a point of concern that the elite and eminent of the locality are not taking any sincere responsibility for prohibiting the smoking, likewise, proper help and cooperation by them is never extended to the authorities in this respect. Further, the parents are not showing real concerns. They are not coming up strongly with their responsibilities and asking the relevant quarters to do something positive.

Conclusion

Peer group pressures and friends’ abetment act as a very strong motivational drive for the adolescent from different age groups to indulge in smoking. Home environment and smoking wonts of parents and siblings also prove to be a major cause of the initiation of smoking among the adolescents. Unmarked accessibility of adolescents to cigarette and other smoking substances also prove to be a significant cause of smoking initiations whereas the adolescents also start smoking for the sake of fun as well. 16-17 years of age prove to be more critical as according to results most of the adolescents start smoking when they reach the age 16-17. The study unveiled that adolescents are not
reasonably aware of the harms of smoking as comparatively a smaller number of the sampled population recognized quite few harms of smoking but by and large the level of awareness was found as quite disappointing.

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The Interface Of Tradition And Modernity: Ideological Manipulation Of Translators

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Abstract Recent progress, being currently made in sociology of translation, has focused on people behind the text i.e. the translator. During the process of translation, translators as intercultural mediators between two different socio-cultural systems of thought are inevitably influenced by target texts, which are the ideological product of the "other" thought. These ideological interactions between source and target what? become more pronounced in the clash between tradition and modernity. Using the Tradition-Modernity questionnaire, which is designed and validated for the purpose of this study, we examined 150 English translation students who voluntarily completed the questionnaire. Their scores on the questionnaire were then correlated with their scores on literary and political translation to find out whether there is any meaningful relation between the level of modernity, which is closely related to translator's proper presupposing and their success in practical translation. It is worth mentioning that literary and political texts are selected on the grounds that the translator's ideological decisions are better manifested. Furthermore, students with appropriate level of local cultural competency are more successful than target-oriented students.

Keywords: Sociology of translation, Tradition-Modernity questionnaire, literary translation, political translation, translator's ideology

1. INTRODUCTION

In the light of the 'sociological turn' in Translation Studies heralded by Wolf (2006), the recent research tendencies have moved towards the development of a new subfield called Translator Studies. In Chesterman's (2009) view, Translator Studies consists of three big branches: cultural, cognitive and sociological. Broadly speaking, all these three branches are interacting worlds (Popper, 1972 cited in Chesterman, 2009). Cultural branch associated with translator's ideologies affects cognitive process of translator's decision-making; ultimately the outcome of these interdependencies is manifested in translator's observable behavior (sociological branch). Broadly speaking, linguistic and extra-linguistic presuppositions (Fawcett, 1997) of the source text or Language are the rudimentary precondition for translators. In the process of translation the translator is involved with cultures and ideologies. In Bakhtin's (1981) words, translation is a "dialogic" event in which translator's cognitive orientation is to some extent shaped.

The status of translations draws attention towards the status of translators. The status of translated literature is not the same all over the world. In Scandals of Translation: towards an ethics of difference, Venuti (1998) argued the marginal status of translation in hegemonic countries. However, in literary system of developing countries such as Iran, the translated literature has the primary position and translators play decisive role in literary as well as sociopolitical system on national scene. In traditional settings, translators are recognized as "ambassadors of modernity".

Generally, due to the constant exposure to modern Western culture, some third world translators are affected by modern fundamental issues such as secularism, religious tolerance, individualism and pluralism while these tenets are not generally accepted by common people and even the traditional educated people. It is perhaps true to say that the translator's ideology shapes the final translation product. In the face of rarity of experimental research to investigate the role of modern thought in translation practice success. This study seeks to find out whether there is any meaningful relationship between modernization and success in literary and political translation.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 What is Modernity?
"Modernism" as the dominant worldview of the post-medieval West (Oldmeadow, 2007) was the outcome of the cluster of interconnected ideas, which were influential in the ways people thought about the social world and human relationships. Most of these ideas are rooted in "philosophes" of Enlightenment era (Hamilton, 1992). Lord Northbourne (1963 cited in Oldmeadow, 2007) typifies modernism as ‘anti-traditional, progressive, humanist, rationalist, materialist, experimental, individualist, egalitarian, free-thinking and intensely sentimental’. Superiority of science over other forms of knowledge, critical rationality striving to gain intellectual mastery over nature and society, positivism, along with empirical science, individualism, liberalism and universalism are among the underlying assumptions of "modernity project".

Considering the fact that there is no consensus on defining "modernity", Mirsepassi (2000) postulated two major perspectives toward the nature of modernity called liberal and radical modernists. While liberal modernists consider Western world as an indispensable part of modernization, to radicals, modernity is a shared property by all men and women all over the world cutting across all boundaries of geography and ethnicity, of class and nationality, of religion and ideology (Berman, 1988). In this sense, modernity transcends the Traditional East /West boundaries. It is a truism that the West is the leading figure of this project but in the age of globalization and telecommunication, it starts the cross-cultural journey. As Hall (1992, p.13) maintains "cultural processes deal with less tangible things- meanings, values, symbols, ideas, language and ideology what cultural theorists call the symbolic dimension of social life".

The term "modernity", as Inkeles (1999) puts it, has "many associations and carries a heavy weight of connotations"(Waters 1999: 94). Modernity can be conceived of as style or form of thinking and behavior so it can be found everywhere but "it varies in accord with local conditions, the history of a given culture, and the time at which it was introduced" (Inkeles,1999).

Modernity as a multidimensional model (Giddens, 1990) encompasses several areas from economics to religion and military strategies. Two main strands of thought can be conceived from modernity, one stresses the institutional aspect of modernity while the other emphasizes the cultural and ideological pattern, which assigns primacy to the ways of thinking and feeling (Inkeles, 1999). This second approach that characterizes the "socio-psychological" dimension of modernity, "considers modernization mainly as a process of change in ways of perceiving, expressing and valuing" (Inkeles,1999).

In traditional developing countries in general and in Iran in particular, for mass of the people and actually not for the elite class, modernity is conceived as Westernization, what Al-e Ahmad (1962) called Gharbzadegi (Plauged by the West) i.e. detachment from national local identity. When intellectuals find traditional perceptions and attitudes comparatively static, they try to replace it by dynamicity of modernity. For Jonathon Friedman, modernism is "an identity without fixed content other than the capacity to develop itself, movement and growth as a principle of selfhood"(Friedman, 1988 p.448). Traditional thinking is associated with acceptance and blind imitation whereas modern critical rationality puts more emphasis on critical look to plurality of views. In his lecture entitled What is Enlightment? Foucault (1986) was at pains to stress that for Kant and for himself, modernity is an attitude rather than a historical period; it is the critical attitude towards present (McGuigan, 1999, p.41).

2.2 Translation competence

We start this section with a simple definition of translation competence (TC) provided by PACTE Group (2005):

"TC is considered to be the underlying knowledge system needed to translate and has four distinctive characteristics: (1) it is expert knowledge and not possessed by all bilinguals; (2) it is basically procedural knowledge (and not declarative); (3) it is made up of various interrelated sub-competencies; (4) the strategic component is very important, as it is in all procedural knowledge" (p.610)

According to Bell (1991, p.35-36), "[t]he translator must, as a communicator, possess the knowledge and skills that are common to all communicators but, in two languages". Regarding this definitions, translation competence is not static rather it is a dynamic developmental process. Among various factors influencing translation competence, bilingualism is considered the rudimentary ability in translation competence (Harris & Sherwood 1978; Toury 1986). The significant role of language in shaping individual's thought is asserted by different scholars (Vygotsky, Sapir Whorf hypothesis). Speaking with more than one language enables the translators to communicate with other people in other parts of the world. It is a truism that bilingualism is the necessary but not sufficient precondition for becoming a translator. Since a language is an indispensable part of a culture, bicultural competency plays a pivotal role. Translator's bicultural competence may be described as:
"the ability to become aware of and check what is unconsciously known the ability of consciously learning something which is not yet known in both one's own and the other (foreign) culture, and the ability to relate both cultures to each other, to compare them with the aim of purposeful and situation-adequate reception and production of behavior for the needs of at least two interacting partners from two different cultures in order to achieve communication between these interacting partners" (Witte, 2000 p.163 cited in Schäffner, 2003).

During intercultural interactions, beliefs and ideologies are transmitted and sometimes become internalized in one's thought. This is one of the likely reasons, which would be accounted for the prestigious role of translators in developing countries.

PACTE group presented their first model of translation competence in 1998 but it is remodeled in 2003. One of the main characteristics of their model is that translation competence is an expert knowledge not possessed by all bilinguals (PACTE, 2005). According to this model, translation competence is "procedural knowledge" that changes through time. The TC model proposed is made up of five sub-competencies and psycho-physiological components (PACTE, 2003). These five sub-competences are bilingual, extra-linguistic, strategic, instrumental and knowledge about translation. As PACTE group (2005) maintains strategic competence is the most important element in translation competence. The strategic sub-competence is associated with solving problems and the efficiency of the process.

Many scholars supported the role of cognitive knowledge in the process of translation. Levy (1967), inspired by game theory, introduced decision-making process as a subset of the problem-solving procedure. To his cognitive viewpoint, translation decisions are not straightforward and sequential but they are so complex and unpredictable. Among various factors, there are four major factors which impact the translator's decisions during the process of translating; Aesthetics, commission, textual pragmatics and cognition and knowledge (Hatim & Munday, 2004).

Regarding the scope of this study, the discussion on translational competence is limited to translator's cultural competence.

For functionalist theorists, cultural competence is one of the components of translation competence, which consists of translator's worldview, experiences and schemata (Nord, 1991). As Nord (1997) maintains, the development of textual meta-cognitive competence as an analytical tool, is in accordance with the actual nature of translation as a purposeful culture-bound activity (Holz-Mänttäri, 1984; Reiss and Vermeer, 1991). Furthermore, cultivating students' cultural knowledge in translator training courses is a perquisite necessity for their competency enhancement.

Taking up a functional approach, Chen (2008) examined the role of cultural presupposition in the process of translation. He maintains that the translator well acquainted with the concept of cultural presupposition has an advantage to apply it freely to successfully achieve goals based on the translation purposes. In this article the researchers explores this hypothesis: Is there any significant relation between translation students' modern thoughts, i.e. the level of orientation towards target ideology for the case of Iranian students, and their academic achievements in translating (literary and political texts)?

3. Method

3.1 Participants and setting

A community sample of 145 people participated in this study, aged between 19 and 25. All of the participants were undergraduate students attending four universities in the city of Mashhad, Iran. Majoring in English translation studies, they were in their last year of undergraduate program. The participants were both males and females.

3.2 procedures

In February 2011, the participants were asked to complete the "modernity-traditionalism" questionnaire which was designed to assess the degree of modernity espoused by individual students of translation studies in Iran. Immediately after taking the questionnaire, they were given two literary and political texts to translate from TL to SL.

3.4 Instrument

The main instrument of this study is a "Modernity questionnaire" which was developed and validated for the purpose of this study. The test was supposed to measure the degree of modernity-traditionalism espoused by individuals. This questionnaire consisted of 21 items designed based on the seven most important basics of modernity. Appropriate
statistical methods were used to evaluate the validity, reliability, and responsiveness of the questionnaire presented. In the following section, we have discussed the development and validation of the questionnaire.

3.4.1 Modernity-traditionalism questionnaire (MTQ)

As mentioned earlier, Modernity-Traditionalism scale designed based on seven basic philosophies underlying the modernity project. Considering the fact that there is no consensus on the nature of modernity, the researchers selected most of these qualities, which are mainly rooted in Enlightenment era. The questionnaire consists of 21 items using five-point Likert scale: Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree and Strongly Disagree.

To determine whether all the questions cover the same construct, internal consistency of the questionnaire was assessed. The internal consistency which confirmed the homogeneity of the questions included in the questionnaire was assessed by Cronbach's alpha. The reliability of the scales was very good (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.70$).

The construct validity of the MTQ was determined by examining its internal consistency and content validity. To investigate the internal structure, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was run and yielded a seven-factor, 21-items questionnaire. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) (See appendix 1) measure of .77 indicated a high sampling adequacy for the factor analysis. Bartlett's test of sphericity, which tests whether the correlation matrix is an identity matrix, is significant ($p<.000$). This indicates that the factor model is appropriate. A principal-components factor analysis using varimax rotation was performed. The analysis yielded seven factors having eigen values greater than 1.00 and accounting for 69.56% of the common variance. Using a scree test (See Figure 1) to identify only the major-common factors, seven factors were extracted. A summary of the items that contribute to each of the seven factors is presented in Table 1.

Scree Plot

![Figure 1. Scree plots with results from factor analyses of Modernity questionnaire](image_url)
Rotated Component Matrixa

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Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

TABLE 1. FACTOR LOADINGS FROM EXPOLATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA)

Regarding this scale, seven themes -or factors- were found to categorize the basic perceptions of modernity: 1) individualism, 2) cultural critical thinking, 3) anti-dogmatism, 4) pluralism and religious tolerance, 5) scientism, 6) critical thinking and 7) Universalism in values.

The first factor was labeled by the experimenters "individualism" and as Table 1 indicates it includes items that seem to assess adherence to individual rights and stress personal achievements where individual is a paramount value. Due to importance of critical thinking in shaping modern thought, on the one hand, and the discouragement of critical reasoning in most of the third world countries including Iran, on the other; in this questionnaire, the researchers devoted two main themes to the subject of critical thinking. One of them is mainly concerned with the cultural dimension of critical reasoning and the other assesses the overall quality of it. Regarding this fact, the second factor was labeled "cultural critical thinking" while the sixth factor mainly deals with critical thinking as a rational reasoning. For cultural critical thinking, central theme among most of the items involved human's reasoning about cultural affairs. Nowadays, with the diversity of cultures and cultural issues the ability to think critically is expected from university students. Students of Translation as
the future cultural mediators are expected to be more qualified in terms of cross-cultural matters. In the third world countries, some translators aim at improving their culture so cross-cultural knowledge becomes indispensable part of translator's competency.

The third factor, which is considered to be a crucial theme in the project of modernity, is anti-dogmatism. A modern man does not insist on his belief whether it is a religious one or not. One of the key characteristics of a modern man is "awareness of the diversity of attitude and opinion around him", rather than closing himself off in the belief that everyone thinks alike and indeed just as he does" (Inkeles, 1999, p.98, emphasis in the original). The typical modern man shows less interest in approaching different opinions in a autocratic or hierarchical way (Inkeles, 1999). Anti-dogmatism is closely associated with the fourth factor i.e. pluralism. In the modern era, people respect for dignity of others despite their difference in race or religion. As Berger and Luckmann (1995, p.38) put it:

"Modern pluralism leads to a thorough relativization of systems of values and schemes of interpretation. Put differently; the old value systems and schemes of interpretations are decanonized. The resulting disorientation of the individual and of whole groups has for years been the main theme of social and cultural criticism"(emphasis added).

The notion that all human beings are the same and respecting everyone's dignity is the underlying theme of the most sociocultural aspects of modernity i.e. bright side of modernity. The items, which characterize the fifth factor, concerned with the superiority of science in modern societies. Great scientific achievements in modern era have led many scholars to believe in unlimited boundary of science, which Stenmark calls "scientific expansionism" (Stenmark, 2003, p.783). Scientism -or taking up Stenmark's term, scientific expansion- points out the idea that the boundaries of science can be expanded to many other subjects that has not previously considered as a scientific issue.

The sixth factor includes items, which is involved with critical thinking. The Western origin of critical thought traced back to the Socratic Method; the dialectical method of questioning and reasoning in a dialogue in a classroom setting. A critical thinker puts everything into question, evaluate and criticize the established assumptions and attempts to find proper solution for them. Today, fostering critical thinking skills becomes an ultimate goal of education especially for university students. Most of the developing countries in general and Iran in particular, do not welcome the academic legitimization of critical thinking. This different point of view may be related to the different value system closely associated with cultural discrepancies in modern and other countries. Due to constant exposure to the modern dominant worldview, EFL students especially in third world countries are in a constant struggle between cultural and ideological discrepancies they usually encounter. For students of Translation Studies, this becomes more challenging. They are responsible for importing or exporting ideologies across the world so they should be a professional critical thinker.

The last factor is actually concerned with one of the philosophes rooted in Enlightenment era i.e. believe in uniformity of human nature (Hamilton 1992). There are universal values independent of any religion, culture and ideology. Honesty, integrity, justice, grace and kindness are among the universal values rooted in human nature without the geographical considerations. In terms of universality of values, what is at stake in the modern arena is the different interpretations of concepts such as democracy, human rights, anti-racism policies, freedom and equality. Some scholars believe that modernity is associated with optimism appeared as a harmony of people interests (Zafirovski, 2007, p. 127).

Authors provided the above explanations to clarify the scale main components. In the following section, you can find the results of the survey, which was carried out in four universities.

4. Findings

After computing the results of Modernity-Traditionalism scale filled by 150 Translation Studies students, researchers set out to identify the likely relationship between students' modern orientation with their academic success. For doing so, the results of MTS - for 43 of participants- correlated with their scores on literary and political translation. Pearson's correlation analysis was used to define the degree of modernity to which affects the academic performance in translation classes.

Pearson correlation analysis (See Table 2 and Table 3) shows that there is a negative relationship between modernity oriented attitude and academic achievement in both literary and political translation.

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TABLE 2. CORRELATION MATRIX BETWEEN MODERNITY AND TRANSLATING POLITICAL TEXTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Modernity</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Modernity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Translation of political texts │ Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1 │ .001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-.538** │ Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 │ -.538** │ Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.001 │ Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

As seen in the Table 2, a negative fair correlation coefficient (r= -0.53) was found at p< .01(2-tailed). In other words, there is a negative relationship between the degree of modernity and academic success in translating political texts.

TABLE 3. CORRELATION MATRIX BETWEEN MODERNITY AND TRANSLATING LITERARY TEXTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Modernity</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Modernity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Translation of literary texts │ Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1 │ .009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-.397** │ Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 │ -.397** │ Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.009 │ Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).</td>
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</table>

The results in Table 3 shows a negative weak correlation coefficient (r= -0.39) was found at p< .01(2-tailed). Put it in another way, there is a negative relationship between the degree of modernity and academic success in translating literary texts.

The following chart (See Chart.1) provides a graphical representation of the correlation of students' translations' scores with the aforementioned modernity components.
As the findings show, there is a strong significant relationship between students' scores in both literary and political texts with the concept of modernity, but in opposite direction. As the results of our survey suggest, modern-oriented students who are ideologically closer to Target system of thought and values, obtained lower scores in translating literary and political texts.

In the next section of this paper we attempt to shed light on the likely causes of these interesting results and its consequences on the academic discourse of Translation Studies as a academic discipline and ultimately on the policy of translation as a cross cultural communicative event.

5. Discussion

As the results show in this survey the students' orientations towards the target ideology did not help them to get better scores. To discuss the obtained results in detail, we divide the argument into two parts: Students' Metacognitive competence and translation evaluation in academic environments.

As far as translational competency is concerned, cultural awareness as an analytical tool supposed to be a necessary part of students' competency. It is worth mentioning that the most significant aspect of this study lies in the great discrepancy between two different socio-cultural systems of Source and Target language. The recently designed Scale (See 3.4.1) comprises major strands of thought prevalent in Western modern world.

Communication between Iranian community and modern communities is not a tradeoff between equals. In the age of globalization and telecommunication, the geographical boundaries blurred but in the religious Eastern countries like Iran, to some extent, cultural specificity is still remains. Iran's culture is intertwined with religious considerations. Some modernity components such as pluralism and individualism are not accepted issues in this community. In translating
political texts, characterized with the transmission of ideologies, the translator who looks at religious issues through the
lens of pluralism or individualism is condemned (See Chart 1).

In this study, we used literary and political texts as touchstone of students’ cultural competency in both source and
target sociocultural system of thought. Since literary texts are embedded in the source culture, translator “must be at
home in two cultures” (Fenyő, 2005). Transferring literary texts, as a treasury of local realia requires sufficient level of
cultural competency. Fenyő (2005, p.62) defines realia as “cultural terms, names of culture-specific items and historic
events, characteristic of the source culture but often unknown in the target culture”. Most of the well-known translators in
Iran are not the academic educated students in this major, Translation Studies, but they are the ones who study and learn
the second language in the target socio-cultural context.

The term “culture” is a complex word without the stable identity. Its evolving nature brought fresh insights in
intercultural communication including Translation Studies. In cultural formations of modern society, Bocock (1992, p. 231-
234) presented five main definitions of the term "culture":

1. Culture as a word addressing the cultivation of lands, crops and animals
2. Culture as a cultivation of the mind, the arts and civilization
3. Enlightenment conception of culture as a general process of social development
4. Culture as a shared meanings, values, and ways of life among nations, groups or classes

Moreover, last but not least is “Culture” as a collection of practices, which produce meaning. Regarding the current
definitions in this paper, the two latter definitions give the true sense of the word "culture". Iran and UK
(or USA) does not have common meanings, values or ways of life (except universal values in some cases), so they have
different cultures. In translating literary texts, the translator should be culturally competent enough in both. Most of the
EFL university students in Iran, due to constant exposure to the foreign dominant worldview (English), tend towards less
rigid view of East/West division. Translators are in contact zone between at least two sociocultural system of values, they
attempt to open the global gates for their local readers but this is somehow reminds us the utopian dream of "Dialogue
among Civilization".

On the other side of the coin, there is the gap between theo
ry and practice in the realm of translation assessment
and scoring criteria in academic environment. As Lauscher (2000) has pointedly argued, the use and application of
evaluation parameters is determined by situational and individual factors. We see this conflict in the academic and
professional translators. While, academic approaches in evaluating the quality of translations are more concerned with
linguistic aspects of translations, the professional translators are more attentive to the market requirements, reader
expectations and publisher’s ideas.

This survey is performed in four different universities with the participation of future translators. In accordance with
the current theoretical debate on the biculturalism of translators, the students more acquainted with the target culture and
ideological strands of thought expected to be more successful than those who are limited themselves to their own culture
and local ideology. Despite the theoretical part, in actual situation, the evaluator specifies the evaluation parameters of
the translations.

Considering the academic discourse of governmental universities, all the professors are required to be ideologically
in line with dominant standpoints of the mainstream ideology. Accordingly, the great discrepancy between Iran’s anti-
West today policy praise those students not bicultural but faithfully local and national.

6. Conclusion

The present study uses statistical procedures to take a more objective look at the ideological aspect of translating and
evaluating the translations.

The Modernity-Traditionalism Scale is designed and validated for assessing translation students’ ideologically
orientations towards the English worldview (as a target sociocultural system of values). Regarding the concept of cultural
competence as a part of translational competence, this paper supported the claim that although translation studies
experienced the huge achievements on the theoretical aspect but the gap between theory and practice remains. Beside
the huge differences between source and target culture, the lack of applicable objective tool for evaluating students’
translation in academic environments, and the gap between academic and professional translations are among the
involving factors impacts the results of this survey.
7. Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

It is important to note the methodological and procedural limitations of this study. As previously discussed, one of the important limitations of this research is the limited number of participants. Another limitation of this survey is its reliance on the correlation data. The lack of objective reliable parameters in evaluating students' translations is one of the major limitations of this research. Devising an appropriate assessing tool can bring more reliable and stronger causal relationships between the variables.

Finally, although the questionnaire in this study showed adequate reliability but we assume that for assessing modernity as an attitude designing a scale based on the characteristics of a modern man as well as using open questions provides better tool for measuring such constructs.

References

Chesterman, Andrew (2009). The name and nature of translator studies, Hermes (42): 13-22
Touy, Gideon. (1986). Natural translation and the making of a native translator, TEXTcontEXT 1: 11-29

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO and Bartlett's Test</th>
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<tr>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</td>
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Appendix 2

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<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
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<th>Component</th>
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<td>Cumulative %</td>
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<td>5.533</td>
<td>1.162</td>
<td>69.562</td>
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<td>85.679</td>
<td>3.462</td>
<td>.727</td>
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### Appendix 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Universalism in values</th>
<th>General critical thinking</th>
<th>Scientism</th>
<th>Pluralism</th>
<th>Anti-dogmatism</th>
<th>Cultural critical thinking</th>
<th>individualism</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.259</td>
<td>.181</td>
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<td>.328*</td>
<td>.125</td>
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<td>.356*</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Translation of political texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.250</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.562**</td>
<td>.412*</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>.360*</td>
<td>.474**</td>
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<td>Level of significance</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>تعداد</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Appendix 4

A sample of Modernity-Traditionalism Scale

4. Every phenomenon has scientific justification.

A) Strongly Agree
B) Agree
C) Neither agree nor disagree
D) Disagree
E) Strongly Disagree

11. I believe that, there are universal values, which are common among all the people in all over the nations.

A) Strongly Agree
B) Agree
C) Neither agree nor disagree
D) Disagree
E) Strongly Disagree

15. I prefer my individual tendencies to collective ones.

A) Strongly Agree
B) Agree
C) Neither agree nor disagree
18. The followers of all the religions, who are steadfast in doing good deeds, will get eternal salvation.

A) Strongly Agree
B) Agree
C) Neither agree nor disagree
D) Disagree
E) Strongly Disagree

19. I become angry and stressful, In facing with people with opposing viewpoints, values and even contrary beliefs.

A) Strongly Agree
B) Agree
C) Neither agree nor disagree
D) Disagree
E) Strongly Disagree
The State of Music Education in Nigerian Secondary School Programme

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Abstract: Music is generally regarded as an exquisite art form, a refined product of human culture. Throughout the ages, man has found music to be essential in voicing his own innate sense of beauty. Music is not a thing apart from man: it is the spiritualized expression of his finest and best inner self, thus involvement in music powerfully encourages self-esteem, self-expression, creativity, and self-discipline. Every life can find in music some answer to its fundamental need for aesthetic and emotional outlet. The cultural objective of education is yet to be attained unless it brings to every child the consciousness that his own spirit may find satisfying expression through the arts. It is imperative, therefore, when planning music curriculum for any society to ensure that such a plan reflects the cultural heritage of the society. This paper attempts to assess the state of music education and its curriculum implementation in selected junior secondary schools in Oyo and Ondo States of Nigeria. It draws on the perception of three hundred (300) students in relation to music Planning and design, installation (dissemination and diffusion), process and the cost. It probes into problems of teaching and learning of music and the workable strategies with which the teaching of the subject could be advanced to an enviable height in Nigerian schools.

Introduction

Music education in Nigeria deserves critical approach to prepare the products of the system for effective practice. Even though the subject has existed as a school subject since 1842, which marked the introduction of mission schools, that created an atmosphere for teaching and practice of European music in Nigeria. (Adegbite, 2001: 77, Omojola, 1994:534). Despite the fact that it is expressively used to mark various occasions, music is still trying to find its feet among other school subjects and this is manifested by the decline enrolment for the subjects in Junior Secondary School level. In a research carried out by Faseun (2001:90) it was observed that:

The general populace has negative attitude to music as a subject in schools today. 23.9% of the population is of the view that the attitude of Nigerians is positive to the school subject, 61.9% viewed that the general public has negative impression of the subject and would always choose other subjects for their wards if given the opportunity.

It is also noted that, since the inclusion of the subject (Music) in Nigerian curriculum, student’s lack of interest in music as a school subject has been of great concern to music educators. (Faseun 2001:90) Therefore the failure of music to
compete favourably well with other school subjects need to be examined vividly with a view to rectifying the defects of teaching and learning of music in Nigerian secondary schools.

On the other hand, Music cannot be separated from culture, therefore Nigerian music education should be designed in such a way that our musical culture can be enhanced and fully incorporated into the curriculum of schools while the aspect of western culture should be used to complement that of Nigerian culture. Okafor (2005:155) asserted that:

Music has a cultural definition and so should music education be. Nevertheless, by accident of history, music education has been defined for Nigerians from the western or Euro-American perspective. It was the University of Nigeria, Nsukka (UNN), which has the first music college in Africa, that gave the Nigerian input to Music education in Nigeria. Since then, African scholars have been stressing that since music is culture-bound, then Africanity should have the major input in Music education while allowing the University of Music to exist and operate within that context.

Indeed, there is serious need to develop African musical culture and make it the core of our music education to make it more meaningful and attractive to the society. This paper attempts to appraise the state of music teaching and music curriculum in selected junior secondary schools in Oyo and Ondo State of Nigerian. The study utilises survey and interview approaches. Questionnaires were directly administered to three hundred (300) students to collect data on their perception on the state of music as a school subject with special focus on facilities, music syllabus, musical instruments, teaching materials and equipments available for instruction. Selected students across JSS II and III in each of the fifteen schools were used as target population as well as West African Examination Council report.

Relevance of Music Education to Formal Educational Setting

Music is the arrangement of organized sound made by voices or instruments in a way that is pleasant or exciting to the organ of hearing. Music as a perfect medium of expressing the experience and activities of man in relation to his environment is a universal phenomenon. It best reflects man’s experience and represents various states of man’s mind like joy, fear, melancholy grief etc. Omojola (1994:117) explains the serious relationship between life and music thus:

As an integral part of life, music is used in such day to day activities as disseminating information of societal interest and arousing emotion; and for important occasional events like initiation, rituals and coronation ceremonies. In its various forms, traditional music is rich in historical and philosophical issues, validating communally binding social value, warning erring member of society, praising people to whom honour is due, reminiscing on the achievement of the past leader as well as reinforcing the legitimacy of present ones.

Music education can however be defined as a process by which musical knowledge and skills are developed through learning at school, colleges and University and the informal traditional setting.

Education, which is known to be an instrument of change and development, is described by Oxford Dictionary (2006) as “a process of teaching, training and learning, especially in schools and colleges, to improve knowledge and develop skills”.

Jowitt (1995:54) described education as “the effective organization of man’s experience so that his tendencies and power may be developed in a manner satisfactory to himself and to the community in which he lives by developing and exhibiting socially desirable knowledge, attitudes and skills”.

Music is therefore relevant in all ramifications to human existence, and there is no doubt that the important contribution of music to the life of people in the society cannot be overemphasized. Furthermore, musical development is part and parcel of the total mental and material growth of human society. The importance of music has been recognized in various settings in Nigeria such as in the home, schools and various cultures, each ethnic group has its own music, which is peculiar to its belief, custom culture, and ways of life and style of living of such ethnic group. In corroborating this assertion, Adeogun (2009:72) observed that
...a society’s continued expression of her socio-musical being, doing, spirit, feeling, beliefs and values is perceptible in both the content (e.g. material, traditions, practice) as well as the process (e.g. daily living, spirit, communication).

In another perspective, music education is regarded as aesthetic education and aesthetic education is related to the general education of the students in secondary schools. Music plays multifarious roles and functions in the teaching and learning processes among the different categories in all human endeavors where the art is used. Omojola (1994:200) noted that:

> Music provides one of the important acculturation processes through which young members of traditional society were educated and initiated to the society. As an educational forum, music represented an important means through which members of traditional society acquired necessary skills and abilities to make them function effectively within the society.

Music should be an integral part of the basic education of every young person. Although, some people view music not as a subject for serious study but merely as a form of entertainment, others believe that it can be learned well enough outside school. Still, others see value in music but simply don’t regard it as a high priority. Generally, educators agree that there are five basic fields of study—mathematics, languages and literature, physical sciences, social studies, and the arts. No one can claim to be educated without having a reasonable acquaintance with all five. Every person should have the ability to perform, to create, and to listen to music with understanding. To achieve that end, every student should have access to a comprehensive, balanced, and sequential programme of music study in school.

Furthermore, the basic reason for studying music is that music is intrinsically and essentially worthwhile, valuable in itself. One of the most fundamental and generally accepted purposes of education has always been to transmit the cultural heritage of a group to succeeding generations. To buttress this point, Walter (1996:123) asserted that

> music, with and without words has shown itself to be capable of providing specific and direct comment on the people and culture from which it came and it is this aspect of music and its history that it most enlightening to succeeding generations.

Again, music is one of the most powerful, the most compelling, and the most glorious manifestations of every cultural heritage. The fundamental and pervasive role that music plays in the entertainment business sometimes blinds people to the even more fundamental and pervasive role that it plays throughout human culture. Because of the central position that music occupies among the core behaviour of human beings, any student who is allowed to leave school without studying music has been cheated just as surely as if he or she had been allowed to leave school without studying Mathematics or Science. The creative humanizing enrichment of life through music literacy has eluded such student.

**PROBLEM MILITATING AGAINST MUSIC EDUCATION**

The problems of music as a school subject in Nigeria started with the curriculum. Curriculum which, is a formal system of learning experience and organised for the purpose of integrating the growing child into adult society is not properly prepared. Before independence, people became critical of the type of curriculum at that time, they stressed that the curriculum was foreign oriented. They wanted the local history and geography to replace foreign one. It was after the independence that curriculum was geared towards the need of the society.

The setting up of the Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) is a major contribution towards curriculum development by the Federal Government in order that the curriculum in all primary and secondary schools could be improved, although the Federal and State Ministries of Education, the advisory committees on education and West African Examination Council (WAEC) are directly involved in developing curriculum in Nigeria. However, several amendments have taken place in other to fine-tune and tweak our school curriculum to suit the need of Nigerian society.

The music curriculum for all levels of education after the independence continued to be western oriented. Vidal (1996:5), affirmed that University of Nigeria, Nsukka was established in 1960 as the first university to offer music at the Baccalaureate level and that the Nsukka programme was patterned after the American system with bi-cultural focus. In 1969, attempts were again made through the national curriculum conference to emphasis Nigerian culture that of course included Nigerian folk music and literature.
The above statement is true in view of the fact that most of the African components were not implemented in schools and colleges because of lack of fund and expertise. The objectives of music inclusion as a subject in the school curriculum are to provide opportunity for each child to participate and grow in all aspects of music singing, instrumental rhythm, listening and creative, to provide experiences which are truly musical and maintain integrity of the music. Additionally, to develop in a child the skill and understanding necessary for satisfying and rewarding experience both as a performer and as a listener, to stimulate interest in music as part of life and culture, instilling into children a genuine love of music, imparting the knowledge and appreciation of Nigerian traditional musical culture into the children, to develop musical literacy and to appreciate the music of other countries. All these can only be realised if the content of our curriculum is changed to reflect our true culture and ways of life.

African music exists in over forty countries that make up the present continent of Africa. Each country adapting to accept practices in the continent to suit its regional characteristics. Some of these general practices are call and response pattern of vocal music, the predominant use of the pentatonic scale, the speech rhythm growing out of the tonal inflection of African words, musical instruments used as symbols and the use of polyrhythms and polymeters. However, the issue of syllabus, a broad outline of the planned work to be done in the course of a year with each class in each subject, a comprehensive outline of a particular area of a subject to be covered within a specific period of time and a framework of future activities or operation to engage the attention of both staff and students in a school (Oxford Dictionary 2006) that narrates to the teacher exactly what to teach in every subject at every level of the school system has not properly reflected above mentioned characteristic of African Music. It is therefore a serious problem militating against the teaching and learning of music in Nigerian schools. In spite of this, the music syllabus needs to be reviewed for junior secondary school in a manner that will reflect the true culture of our country, Nigeria. The present syllabus has not properly suited the kind of music that is peculiar to our custom, norms and ways of life. Faseun (1994:80) explicates that most of the learning programmes contained in the document do not face the reality of Nigerian situation in which western musical tradition outshine and outstrip that of Nigerian.

Again Nzewi (1999:24) pointed at some factors that have been identified as determining the trends in the modern teaching and learning of music in African countries include foreign missionary activities, imported state school systems and curricular content, urbanization, modern economic pursuits, and the media. These factors have also generated preference for foreign cultural tastes and values among African people. In fact, these factors have also created problems for African scholars and educators, trying to ensure that Western tastes and values do not supersede African values in the modern African school systems. The foundations of the problems confronting Nigerian schools are discussed below in relation to the factors mentioned.

**Foreign Missionary Activities**

The history of Western education in Nigeria is bound up with the history of missionary activities in the continent. Colonial policies, which defined the conditions under which the missionaries carried on their religious activities, shaped the ecologies of Nigerian education” (Uchendu, 1979 : 45).

Formal education instituted by the missionaries was a direct opposite to traditional African music. Its primary objectives were to convert Africans to Christianity and inculcate European culture. The missionaries, therefore, discouraged the performance of traditional African music, which they regarded as primitive. Instead, they taught Christian hymns and anthems in the schools they established. The missionaries looked down on everything about indigenous Nigerian music, dancing, systems of marriage and even naming, and their converts had to renounce all traditional activities, which were regarded as uncivilized and abominable. Their activities therefore created division in Nigerian society and retarded the development of indigenous culture. However, many schools in Africa, not only in Nigeria are still following the nineteenth century colonial tradition of preparing children to perform at worship services and on speech days. Also, the Christian missionary legacy of singing has continued to influence music education in Nigerian schools.

**Imported State School Systems and Curricular Content**

The school systems in post-colonial Africa continue to be based on Western ideology and models. Nzewi (1999: 24) observed that the content and pedagogical approaches of music curricula in Africa are parodies of foreign models. In fact, the music curricula of former British colonies in Africa, four of which have been mentioned earlier, are based on the
requirements for examinations conducted by British Examining Boards, especially the Associated Board of the Royal Schools of Music based in London. Akrofi, (1998:55) stated that “The teaching of western music and the organization of musical activities based on western concepts of music education has had a stronghold on school music education in Africa”

The western domination of Africa’s educational system, “...tends to impose on arts education a somewhat exclusive and specialized connotation in which music is perceived as being reserved for the ‘talented few’” Muller, (1998:43). This does not augur well for the indigenous African practice of communal music making which emphasizes the acquisition of musical knowledge as part of the process by which the individual is integrated into his culture and society. Besides, the western domination of education in Africa means that African music and arts will continue to be given a low position in the curricula of the schools on the continent.

Another problem created in Nigeria by the imposition of foreign educational systems and curricular content is the production of music and arts teachers of western music who have little or no knowledge of African arts to impart to their pupils.

Urbanisation

Although, majority of Africans lives in rural communities, rural dwellers are moving in droves to urban centres in search of jobs and better social services. Many indigenous music groups in rural areas break up when some of their members relocate to urban areas. Some new urban dwellers have managed to form indigenous performing arts groups with people from their former rural abode but this is not common and, as a result, very little indigenous music making happens in African cities and towns, the hub of the contemporary arts.

Modern Economic Pursuits

Modern life in Africa has caused many rural dwellers to abandon their traditional professions for new opportunities offered by western technology. Until the early part of the 20th century, hunting and drumming were noble professions whose practitioners formed associations known for their performances of indigenous music and dance. Today, these two professions are virtually dead and the rich musical traditions associated with them are sinking into oblivion.

Media

The impact of the Western institutionalized approach to education in general has been considered by many traditionalists as being responsible for the breakdown of traditional values and learning processes. The evening fireside story-telling sessions, the full-moon hide-and-seek and other group activities, and most of the things that children would do as a reinforcement of their social development and responsibility have now been replaced by television programmes, a majority of which are totally foreign. The above statement aptly sums up the problems caused by the media with regard to indigenous African arts education. It is not only the television that has been responsible for the breakdown of traditional African values and learning processes, the radio and the availability of films and video recordings of foreign arts have equally undermined musical arts education in Africa.

The aim of music education is to equip individual to perform music in the society and to contribute to the economy of the society. Most of the Nigerian students had poor or zero background in western music, which serves as the foundation of Nigerian musical study. Also, insignificant priority is given to the study of African music in the school curriculum. Little time is allocated to the subject on the timetable with few facilities (both western and indigenous musical instruments) for its practical teaching. Music in the secondary school system is alternate to Fine and Applied Arts, meaning that students are denied the opportunity of studying the two together. The two subjects that complement and fulfill each other in the world of entertainment were optional. Furthermore, music curriculum of secondary schools pays more attention to examination requirements rather than developing the musical talents of the students. A look into the syllabus used in Nigerian primary, secondary and tertiary institution shows a very powerful dominance of Western musical history, literature, and theory and harmonic concepts. Meanwhile, the purpose of education is to help students to achieve their potential musically. Talent is one of the basic abilities that exist in every person. It can best be developed if study is begun at an early age and continued through adolescence.

Nevertheless, anyone whose musical potential remains undeveloped, which happens too often, is deprived of some of the most satisfying and rewarding experiences that life has to offer. Opportunities should be given to the
students to test the limits of their potential in as many domains of human endeavour as possible. The more such opportunities are available, the more likely the students’ lives will be full of good fortune and affluent.

Music Education in Nigerian Secondary Schools

Even though, music is generally accepted as integral part of African culture, widely accepted for various purposes and has long been on the school syllabus, hitherto, it is not a preference school subject to the students at junior secondary school level and the turn out of students enrolling for it at that level has been declining every year. Research findings by various music education experts which include Ekwueme, (2000), Okafor, (2005), Faseun, (2005) observably unveiled that music as a school subject has not enjoyed the support, given to other school subjects over the years of their co-existence in Nigerian School curricula. In the year 2000, according to West African Examination Council report, out of thirty six (36) states we have in Nigeria; only nine of them presented students for music examination and just thirty one students were presented out of nine thousand nine hundred and eighty four thousand candidates that sat for the examination (see the table below).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Abia</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Abuja</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Adamawa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Akwa Ibom</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Anambra</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Bauchi</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Borno</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8. CrossRiver</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Delta</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Edo</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Enugu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Imo</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Jigawa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Kaduna</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Kano</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Kastina</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17. Kogi</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Kebbi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Kwara</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Lagos</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Niger</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Ogun</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Ondo</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Osun</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Oyo</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Plateau</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. River</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Sokoto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Taraba</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Yobe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Additionally, this problem continues to show the position of the subject when compared with other school subjects. Coherent study of the position of music compared with other fifteen best patronized and accepted secondary school subjects showed a depressive disproportion between their enrolment for music and other school subjects. Out of the sixteen subjects below, Music was seen to be the least in its entirety.

**West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examination May/ June 2002**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>TOTAL ENTRY</th>
<th>TOTAL SAT</th>
<th>% OBTAINING GRADE TOTAL CREDIT</th>
<th>% OBTAINING GRADE TOTAL PASS</th>
<th>% FAILURE GRADE FAIL</th>
<th>% ABSENT AS%OF ENTRY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ENG. LANG.</td>
<td>925289</td>
<td>909888</td>
<td>98.33</td>
<td>23568</td>
<td>24.57</td>
<td>387758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>GEN. MATHS</td>
<td>925288</td>
<td>908235</td>
<td>98.15</td>
<td>309409</td>
<td>34.06</td>
<td>308369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>BIOLOGY</td>
<td>917041</td>
<td>882119</td>
<td>96.19</td>
<td>278122</td>
<td>31.52</td>
<td>270301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>ECONOMICS</td>
<td>888697</td>
<td>868532</td>
<td>97.73</td>
<td>193291</td>
<td>22.25</td>
<td>394693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>AGRIC SCIENCE</td>
<td>742939</td>
<td>708298</td>
<td>95.33</td>
<td>236641</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>216072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>GOVT.</td>
<td>579087</td>
<td>552289</td>
<td>95.37</td>
<td>340200</td>
<td>61.59</td>
<td>112826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>GEOG.</td>
<td>531599</td>
<td>475649</td>
<td>88.78</td>
<td>102272</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>164209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>COMM.</td>
<td>415079</td>
<td>393746</td>
<td>94.86</td>
<td>180987</td>
<td>45.96</td>
<td>96796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>C.R.K.</td>
<td>382829</td>
<td>354581</td>
<td>92.62</td>
<td>144037</td>
<td>40.62</td>
<td>103418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>LIT-IN-ENG</td>
<td>322374</td>
<td>287626</td>
<td>89.22</td>
<td>19263</td>
<td>6.69</td>
<td>81209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>YORUBA LANG.</td>
<td>313509</td>
<td>277488</td>
<td>88.51</td>
<td>110933</td>
<td>39.97</td>
<td>101277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>PHYSICS</td>
<td>261687</td>
<td>254188</td>
<td>97.13</td>
<td>120768</td>
<td>47.51</td>
<td>81814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>IGBO LANG.</td>
<td>137369</td>
<td>126245</td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td>81084</td>
<td>64.22</td>
<td>16578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>HAUSA LANG.</td>
<td>128816</td>
<td>114375</td>
<td>88.78</td>
<td>58438</td>
<td>51.09</td>
<td>28331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>VISUAL ARTS</td>
<td>5658</td>
<td>4269</td>
<td>75.45</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>12.22</td>
<td>1329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>MUSIC</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>53.33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 71 50 38 34 31
The table above presents entry and performances in the sixteen subjects on one hand and that of music and Visual Arts which are Creative Arts Subject on the other hand. It was revealed clearly that even though music was introduced into the school system at the same time as English language which recorded the highest number of candidates, a total number of nine hundred and twenty-five thousand two hundred and eighty – nine students (925,289) registered for English Language. Out of the same two hundred and twenty three thousand five hundred and sixty eight representing 24.57% candidates passed the examination at credit level. The status of English language was followed by that of General Mathematics, Biology, Economics, Agric Science and others. (See the table above)

The status of music as a West African School Certificate Examination subject cannot in any way compare with the significant increase in the number of students enjoyed by other subjects discussed above. But it is rather sad to see that while other subjects are recording entry of several hundreds of thousands, Music had only fifteen entrants (15) throughout Nigerian, only eight out of the candidates sat for the examination in which only one candidate passed at credit level. The situation does not even compare with or get closer to that of Visual arts which was able to record five thousand, six hundred and fifty eight thousand (5,658) candidate. The situation is worrisome to the music educators and professional music teachers, as to what could be done to enhance appropriate motivation to arouse and stimulate student’s interest in music and how effective teaching of the subject contents could be achieved, sustained and eventually maintained at all levels.

Additionally, the fact that Nigerians students have demonstrated a negative attitude towards formal music education in the country is evident from the table above. This, however, does not imply that the students are not musical; however, it is a demonstration of the non-relatedness of what they are taught in academic music to the life practices and situation in the country.

Music as a school subject to certain ethnic group in Nigerian (Hausa) is meant for Christian students and learners. There was a personal experience of one of Nigerian graduates in music who was mobilized for the 2007 service year. The man was deployed to Kastina State for the year. After the orientation exercise, he was posted to a secondary school for his primary assignment. He was rejected at the school because they had nothing to do with a music graduate. After so much pushing around, he was finally sent to the church since the state did not need him. This thought is opposing to the purpose the subject is supposed to serve as a major vehicle of cultural transmission for all in a country such as Nigeria with diverse religious affiliations. Music is a communal thing in Nigerian. It belongs to all. The performer could compose, improvise and build his musical instruments while the audience participates in the music making. Kabalevsky in Faseun (2005:53) noted that:

"The only way open was to suggest a fundamentally new approach, one that, like the whole of the new concept of music teaching, would arise from and be based on the music that would naturally relate music as a school subject and school work to real life."

Academic music in Nigeria has not taken it rightful position in the present day Nigeria. The only interest shown in our traditional music by the policy makers and other functionaries of the post independent Nigeria has been its use as exotic entertainment extra that gives festive atmosphere to government receptions. It serves as a major source of satisfaction derivation for most people in any culture; it however, commands very low priority when judged by what is most important, in education. In the University of Nigeria, Nsukka for example, no University function is complete without music Matriculation, convocation, opening ceremony for conferences, burial etc, in spite of the demand above, by all faculties of the University, the Department of Music has the least quota for admission into the faculty of Arts. (Faseun 2005:54)

Methodology

The state of music education was examined in the selected schools based on the understanding of the students about situation of music teaching in Nigerian schools, opinion on the quality of effectiveness of the teaching –learning situation of music education in selected secondary schools. A structured questionnaire containing (34) items was given to the students that were randomly picked for the exercise. Fifteen secondary schools — eight (8) from Oyo State and seven from Ondo state that teach music as a subject were involved, the only four Federal Government Colleges, unity schools present in the two states, four (4) public and seven (7) private secondary schools in Oyo and Ondo States were purposively selected for the study since most of the public school do not offer music as a subject. Structured questionnaires were given to (300) students with ten questionnaire to each arm of J S S II and III classes only, making twenty questionnaire to each of the fifteen schools while JSS I were conspicuously exempted for they were considered to
have little knowledge of the system. Questionnaires were directly administered to the students with focus on the implementation assessment scale in relation to music Planning and design, installation, process and product and cost.

Students were asked to react to the statement by choosing the option that best represents their level of agreement and writing the correct letter in front of each statement. The chosen letters were A (Strongly Agree) B (Agree) C. (Strongly Disagree) and D. (Disagree). Frequencies of response of the subjects that participated in the study were analysed according to the objectives of the study. The frequencies were thereafter converted to percentages. Below are the response of the students and the findings.

**Students Surveillance on Music Curriculum Implementation in Selected Secondary Schools of Oyo and Ondo State.**

Table I Planning and Design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Nigerian folk music, songs and musical instruments were made available for music instruction in my school.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>60 (20%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>240 (80%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Provision of adequate instructional materials is available for music lesson.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. There are varieties of Musical instruments in my schools.</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>60 (20%)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Excursion to major site like Music studio, Music department at higher institutions, Museum, Military Band is available in my school.</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Music teacher use to play musical instruments such as recorder, Guitar, Piano and so on for explanation during music lesson.</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Music teacher always engages us in a wide variety of practical music class activities.</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. There are purely traditional music lesson and the teaching on how to play Nigerian musical instruments in my school.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Music teachers always engage us in a wide- variety of class activities in traditional music of Nigerian.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Little time is allotted to practical aspect of music in my school</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Adequate period of time is given to both practical and theory on my school timetable.</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FREQUENCY AND THEIR PERCENTAGES**

Research Question: What is the surveillance of students in Oyo and Ondo states Junior Secondary Schools on the state of Music Education?

Table I presents the perception of music students on the Planning and Design of Music Curriculum

There are altogether ten items to which the students responded as follows (Please see the above Table 1)

Item 1. Large number of the students strongly disagreed with the statement that Nigerian folk music, songs and musical instruments were made available for music instruction in their schools. From the table, a total of 60 students (20%) agreed with the declaration, 0 (0%) strongly agreed, 0 (0%) disagreed while 240 (80%) of the respondents strongly disagreed.

Item 2. It is popularly perceived by the students that provision of adequate instructional materials is available for music lesson. 0 respondents (0%) strongly agreed, 0 (0%) agreed, 60 (20%) disagreed and greater number of respondents 240 (80%) strongly disagreed.

Item 3. We have a variety of Musical instruments in my schools. 150 respondents who form 50% of all respondents agreed, 60(20%) strongly agreed, 60 (20%) and 30 (10%) respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed with the item in that order.
Item 4: 180 respondents who form 60% of all respondents disagreed, 120 (40%) strongly disagreed and none of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed respectively with this item.

Item 5: 120 (40%) out of the 300 respondents agreed with the item, 60 (20%) strongly agreed, 60 (20%) disagreed, and 60 (20%) strongly disagreed with the statement.

Item 6: A total of 120 respondents (40%) agreed with this item, 120 (40) strongly agree, 60 (20%) disagreed and none strongly disagreed. This shows that the popular opinion of the respondents to the items is positive.

Item 7: 30 respondents (10%) agreed with the item, 11 (3.7%) strongly agreed, 137 (45.7) disagreed and 122 (40.7%) strongly disagreed with the statement. This shows that purely traditional music lesson and the teaching on how to play Nigerian musical instruments in Nigerian schools were not obtainable.

Item 8: The responses show that 30 (10%) agreed, 30(10%) strongly agreed, 180(60%) disagreed and 60(20%) strongly disagreed.

Item 9: 41 respondents (13.7%) agreed, 100 (33.3%) strongly agreed, 30(10%) disagreed, and 29 (9.7%) strongly disagreed with the item.

Item 10: 41 respondents (13.7%) strongly agreed, 59 (19.7%) agreed, 80 (26.7%) disagreed, and 120 (40%) strongly disagreed with the item.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B INSTALLATION (DISSEMINATION &amp; DIFFUSION)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 We have sufficient music teachers to handle the population of students</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. There are enough text books on music in the school library</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. My school has a separate music classroom for music teaching.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. My school always organize exhibition of project on music as a subject.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Nigerian popular music and musician are used as a medium of instruction during music lesson..</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The music we learn in school enhance my skill acquisition</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. The topics learnt in music are relevant to my daily life.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Teachers come to class regularly to teach their subject.</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Our music teachers often make use of simple improvised objects of traditional music to explain difficult topics in music.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Relationship between teachers and students during teaching learning process has been very cordial.</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are ten items (number 11 -20) under this area. The responses of the students are as presented below.

Item 11: 50 respondents (16.7%) agreed, 30 (10%) strongly agreed, 110 (36.7%) disagreed, and 110 (4.36.7%) strongly disagreed with the item.

Item 12: Out of 300 respondents, 45(15%) agreed; 25(8.3%) strongly agreed, 85(28.3%) strongly disagreed 145(48.3%) disagreed with the item.

Item 13: None of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed respectively, while 240 (80%) disagreed and 60 (20%) strongly disagreed with the item.

Item 14: 5 (1.7%) of the respondents agreed, 5(1.7%) strongly agree, 155(51.7%) disagreed and 135(45%) strongly disagreed with the item.

Item 15: 100 respondents (33.3%) agreed, 20 (6.7%) strongly agreed, 160(53.3%) disagreed, and 20 (6.7%) strongly disagreed with the item.
Item 16: 200 (66.7%) of the respondents agreed; 60 (20%) strongly agreed, 20 (6.7%) disagreed and 20(6.7%) strongly disagreed with the item.

Item 17: Out of 300 respondents, 40(13.3%) agreed; 20(6.7%) strongly agreed, 140(46.7%) strongly disagreed 100 (33.3%) disagreed with the item

Item 18: 100 (33.3%) and 90 (30%) of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed respectively while 59 (49.7%) disagreed and 51 (17%) strongly disagreed with the item.

Item 19: 30(10%) of the respondents agreed, 30(10%) strongly agree, 160 (53.3%) disagreed and 180 (60%)strongly disagreed with the item.

Item 20: 150 respondents (50%) agreed, 60 (20%) strongly agreed, 30(10%) disagreed, and 60 (20%) strongly disagreed with the item.

Table III (C) PROCESS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21. Most students prefer to leave the learning of music as a subject at the end of junior secondary school.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>50 %</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Our music teachers teach without the use of instructional materials.</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The content of the music curriculum are taught from simple to complex.</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
<td>17.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Assessment in music is more on practical than theory.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 21: Large number of the respondents 30 (10%), 150 (50) agreed and strongly agreed in the same way, while 66(22%) disagreed, 54(18%) strongly disagreed with the item

Item 22: 200 (66.7%) of the respondents agreed, 90(30%) strongly agree, 30(10%) disagreed and 60(20%) strongly disagreed with the item. This shows that the popular opinion of the respondents to the items is positive.

Item 23: 100 respondents (33.3%) agreed, 30 (10%) strongly agreed, 157(52.3%) disagreed, and 53 (17.7%) strongly disagreed with the item.

Item 24: 20 (6.7%) and 30 (10%) of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed respectively while 105 (35%) disagreed and 75 (25%) strongly disagreed with the item that assessment in music is more on practical than theory.

Table VI (D) COST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25. Students often contribute to the cost of materials used during music practical.</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>45.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. The government do neglects replacements of damaged and expired music facilities.</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Items 25 and 26: Their responses to items 25 and 26 clearly show that the majority of the respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the idea that students often contribute to the cost of materials used during music practical. The similarly responded positively that the government do neglects replacements of damaged and expired music facilities.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The result of the study showed that the teaching and learning of music as a subject in selected schools is confronted with various problems. The reality of the refusal of the subject in which it could not compete with other art subjects started with the way in which it was introduced to Africa which eventually led to other problems. Furthermore, African musical
instruments that are peculiar to Nigerians are not given the right preference and proper placement in the teaching of music as a subject in schools. Therefore little emphasis was placed on the purchase of such instruments that were not western oriented despite the fact that they were available and at a cheaper rate. Lack of appropriate musical instruments to facilitate the teaching and learning of music as a subject is said to be the greatest problem confronting the teaching and learning of the subject in Nigerian secondary schools.

Also, it is quite evident that there are not enough music teachers in the public secondary schools due to governments’ attitude towards the teaching of the subject. Students who have interest in studying the subject have lost interest because of lack of qualified and professional teachers. This also poses a problem to the incoming generation and it would be difficult to achieve much progress in teaching without personnel. The role of textbooks in the teaching and learning could not be over-emphasized. This is because it allows better understanding to a given topic as well as producing more facts on the topic. Conversely, the result of the interview conducted on students in the sampled schools shows that little value is placed on music textbooks. None of the selected schools’ libraries were equipped with relevant music textbooks, while the available textbooks belonging to the teachers are not enough. The students depend solely on teacher's note for they have no music textbooks of their own, which could encourage slothfulness on the part of the students. Consequently, the interview conducted to the students, it was observed that students have positive impression for the subject and if properly taught it will compete with other subject. Classes only met for maximum of two periods of forty-minute (40) per week and the ratio between the teacher and students in state public schools was extremely displeasing, a music teacher to 45 students, incredible! This indeed too large which eventually makes thorough and methodical teaching, class control, assessment and evaluation more difficult with ineffective class management, while that of Federal Government colleges and private schools was commendable - a teacher to 25 students.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study revealed several problems militating against the process of teaching and learning of music as a school subject. Conspicuously, the foundational factors responsible for the problems confronting the teaching and learning of the said subject were foreign missionary activities, imported state and school system, curricular content, urbanization, modern economic pursuit and the media. (Nzewi 1999:76) These had led to other problems as lack of required musical instruments for the practical aspect of the subject, insufficient provision of instructional materials and its uses, few numbers of music teachers, insufficient music text books in schools library and poor attitude of the Nigerian society towards music as a school subject. The implication of the afore-mentioned factors is that the situation of teaching music in junior secondary schools needs to be redeemed.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following solutions are suggested to solve problems confronting the teaching of music as a subject in Nigerian schools.

There should be

* Provision of uniform syllabus to schools reflecting the true African culture and be converted to behavioural aspect of learning.
* Adequate facilities like musical instruments and teaching materials should be provided for the music teachers by the school authority and the government.
* Teachers who are well trained to handle the items in the syllabus should be employed.
* More periods should be given on the time table to give room for the students to gain knowledge of the practical aspect of the subject.
* Assessing and dissemination of relevant literature and learning materials to both the teachers and students.
* Advancing and increasing the use of methods of indigenous music knowledge and musical instruments in all level of Nigerian Education.
* Effective use of indigenous musical materials available within a community setting for Musical illustrations.
* Dialoguing with Ministries of Education as well as curriculum planners on emphasizing African music content in music education at all levels.
References


