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The 3^o ICHSS 2013 is organized by MCSER-Mediterranean Center of Social and Educational Research. The conference addressed all studies across the social and human sciences. In the spirit of interdisciplinary interchange, there was no specific topic but the Conference has involved scholars, teachers and researchers working in a broad range of areas including: Education, Anthropology, Applied Sciences, Behavioral Sciences, Cognitive Science, Literature, Language, Communications, History, Economics, Environmental Sciences, Health Sciences, Humanities, Interdisciplinary Studies, Law, Management, Media, Politics, Public Policy, Psychology, Qualitative Methods, Quantitative Methods, Social Welfare, Sociology, Technology, Geography and many other areas related to the social and human sciences. The conference provides an opportunity for academicians and professionals from various social and human fields all over the world to come together and learn from each other. An additional goal of the conference is to provide a place for academicians and professionals with cross-disciplinary interests to meet and interact with members inside and outside their own particular disciplines. The third edition of the ICHSS is held in Rome on September 20-22, 2013, in the Congress Center of Gregorian Pontifical University of Rome.

Vision of the conference

The 3^o ICHSS is a global annual event with the mission of furthering the advancement and innovation in human and social sciences. The Conference serves as a means to connect and engage professors, researchers, consultants, innovators, managers, students, policy makers and others to offers an opportunity to meet and share ideas. It also inspire a new generation of global scientists and leaders in countries around the world.

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Barriers to Parental Involvement for Diverse Families in Early Childhood Education

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Abstract

Recently, parental involvement in early childhood education has become increasingly interested by researchers. The study of parental involvement for families that are culturally diverse has become an important aspect of education. The review's purpose is to deepen understanding of barriers that inhibit parental involvement for parents who come from diverse culture and race. There are two basic barriers that the majority of immigrant parents face, which are limited English proficiency and cultural differences. These barriers show that early childhood teachers have significant responsibilities to overcome these barriers by working collaboratively with families.

Keywords: Parent involvement, immigrant, diverse culture, race;

1. Introduction

A large amount of research indicates that parental involvement generally has a significant effect on children's academic success (Jeynes, 2011). The study of parental involvement for families that are culturally diverse has become an important aspect of education. According to the U.S. Census Bureau data (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009), 38 million of the U.S. population is foreign born with 22 million being foreign born and non-U.S. citizens. This means that approximately 12% of the United States population is immigrant. These large immigrant populations have necessitated research studies about parental involvement for culturally and racially diverse families. These studies have examined fundamental needs of these families, rate of parental involvement, and barriers that prevent parental involvement. The goal of this study is to examine what are the most common barriers that prevent parental involvement for families that come from a different culture, race, and ethnicity.

2. Parental Involvement

A wide range of research in the United States and other countries supports the view that parental involvement generally has a positive effect on children's academic achievement (Holloway, Yamamoto, Suzuki, & Mindnich, 2008). Children's experiences in kindergarten and first grade lay a foundation, and parents have a key role to determine their children's experiences (Turney & Kao, 2009). Parental involvement helps students succeed in school and build strong parent-school partnerships. Research indicates parent's involvement in their children's education is beneficial to students and parents as well as to the educator (Sohn & Wang, 2006). Students can increase motivation and achievement in education and improve self confidence. Parents can understand school curriculum and activities more profoundly and also can get opportunities to work closely with educators. Teachers can take advantage from parental involvement by learning family perspectives (Sohn & Wang, 2006). Many experimental studies show strong relationships between higher student achievement and parental involvement (Wong & Hughes, 2006).

There is a positive link between parental involvement and student competence, grades and achievement scores (Shah, 2009). According to a recent national survey, 95% of public school parents indicated that it is very important to encourage families to take a more active role in educating their children (Bridgemohan, Van Wyk, & Van Staden, 2005). In addition, parental involvement keeps parents socially active, such as knowing other parents, teachers, and administrators (Turney & Kao, 2009). Moreover, where parental involvement programs are established in early childhood programs, the benefits are apparent throughout the child's school career (Bridgemohan et al., 2005). Looking from policy perspective, parental involvement is important because one of the goals of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 is to increase parental involvement in elementary school (Turney & Kao, 2009).

3. Parental involvement for culturally diverse families

It is not an easy task to arrange programs and project parental involvement, especially when parents come from a different culture, race and language (Chen, Kyle, & McIntyre, 2008). Joshi Eberly and Konzal, (2005) indicates that it is very difficult building strong and respectful relationships between families and teachers who share similar cultural backgrounds and language. Such communication and relations between parents and teachers who come from different backgrounds is even more difficult (Joshi et al., 2005). When parents do not share a common culture with teachers, it is more difficult to establish shared understanding and to build trust (Wong & Hughes, 2006).

According to Wong and Hughes (2006) that much educational research has investigated why some parents get involved in their children's education and others do not. Much of this research has investigated the role of race and ethnicity in parental involvement, with varying findings.

One of the greatest misconceptions is that parents of immigrant students have no interest in their children's education (Varela, 2008). For numerous reasons, researchers have found that parents of racially, ethnically, and linguistically diverse students often fail to participate in school activities (Shah, 2009). Immigrant parental involvement has been investigated profoundly by researchers; the reasons why they do not get involved in their child's education and school activity are diverse. To examine them, Turney and Kao (2009) studied early childhood education by examining immigrant barriers to parental involvement and parents' involvement in their children's education. They used data from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study- Kindergarten Cohort, a nationally representative sample of children in kindergarten from 1998- 1999. In this study, they presented multivariate analyses that showcase barriers that prevent parents from getting in touch with their children's teachers and schools. They focused on the barriers faced by immigrant groups and found significant barriers related to involvement in their children's kindergarten classrooms. According to their study, all minority immigrant groups reported facing more barriers related to involvement including lack of English language ability, not feeling welcome at the school, and cultural differences.

4. Barriers

When parents and teachers come from different backgrounds, there are a few barriers that prevent parent-school relationships (Joshi et al., 2005). Joshi et al. (2005) argue that the following additional barriers that prevent parents and teachers from communicating openly and honestly are a "lack of understanding of the home school partnerships, lack of understanding of the school system; lack of confidence, work interference, negative past experiences with schools, and insensitivity or hostility on the part of the school personnel" (p.3). According to Denessen, Bakker, and Gierveld's (2007) study that was carried out in four Dutch elementary schools, some specific problems regarding ethnic minority parents are the lacking of language skills to communicate with the school; holding the school fully responsible for their child's education; and not being interested in school matters. Ethnic minority parents thus seemed to be less involved at their child's school than native Dutch parents. In this sense, Shartrand, Weiss, Kreider, and Lopez (1997) state that the first reason for lower levels of parental involvement of minority parents is that these parents lack the required cultural resources to become involved. The second reason lies in the cultural incongruence between schools and minority families (Denessen et al., 2007).

4.1 Language

The increasing number of immigrant students from non-English speaking countries makes school in the United States linguistically diverse. According to U.S Census report (U.S Census Bureau, 2009), 12.54% of the population in 2009 was foreign-born; 19.7% of the population spoke language other than English at home, and 8.6% of the population spoke English less than *very well* (Chen, Kyle, & McIntyre, 2008). Many parents do not have the ability to speak English and they try to help their child with homework, but their limited English skills often prevent them (Colombo, 2006). This information also shows that there is a large amount of students and parents who speak English as a second language. One of the most common barriers that prevents effective partnerships between teachers and parents is language. Language problems as the most important reason for low levels of ethnic minority parental involvement (Denessen et al., 2007). According to a study by Sohn and Wang (2006) regarding six Korean speaking immigrant families, the language barrier has a significant effect on immigrant's parental involvement. All parents emphasized difficulties communicating with teachers in English (Sohn & Wang, 2006). Limited knowledge about educational notions is another difficulty for communication for parents. Although they really want to communicate with teachers and school administrators, they felt

frustrated when the teacher and another school staff often did not understand their English (Sohn & Wang, 2006). For these reasons, those Korean parents do not prefer to contact the teacher directly, they prefer other routes such as e-mail and school letters because they are able to understand written English better than spoken English. Additionally, parents who do not speak English at home may be less comfortable at their children's school. If a parent's primary language is not English, they generally report problems such as meeting times are unsuitable, they do not feel welcome in the school, and the teacher or school administrator speaks only English (Turney & Kao, 2009).

4.2 Culture

The second barrier to parental involvement is cultural barriers that include different lifestyles, values, culture, and experiences between teacher and parents (Morris & Taylor, 1998). Cultural differences make parental involvement more difficult for teachers and school administrators (Denessen et al., 2007). Morris and Taylor (1998) argue that parents sometimes reveal barriers to effective teacher-parent communication. For example, some parents may hesitate to ask teachers about some issues because they fear that they might negatively affect teachers' behaviors toward their children. According to Ariza (2002), facing different cultural groups at the school makes parents uncomfortable. One of the important reasons why teachers avoid communication with parents from different culture is that they do not have any idea about cultural differences in nonverbal communications. For example, looking each other in the eyes while conversating could be considered disrespectful for other cultures (Denessen et al., 2007). Thus, not having any idea about other's cultures, lifestyles, and values prevent relationships between people who come from different cultures. All these reasons affect direct parental involvement and indirect student achievement negatively.

5. Role of Teacher

Research studies show that there are many ways for immigrants to get involved in their children's education. An important way to help immigrant parents and their children succeed is to first develop a community of teachers who understand the value of multiculturalism and are trained to face the challenges and rewards inherent in teaching immigrant students (Varela, 2008). A lot of teachers have not received enough training to engage different groups of parents. Varela (2008) states that immigrant parents need two elements in order to become a vital part of the school setting. First, a community of "Teachers as Learners" was created to challenge misconceptions about immigrant groups. Second, the school community had to openly embrace the needs of immigrant parents by involving them in their child's educational process without consideration of any sociocultural, socioeconomic, and sociolinguistic differences. A teacher training program might be needed for the improvement of teachers' competence to communicate with immigrant parents (Denessen et al., 2007).

Teachers and administrators can improve their skills and knowledge by taking professional development programs for parental involvement from school psychologists. (Wong & Hughes, 2006). Thus, it is important for school psychologists to work at the school system level to implement broadbased, empirically supported parental involvement practices (Wong & Hughes, 2006). Shartrand et al. (1997) provide a framework of content areas for teacher preparation. These content areas contain basic family involvement and knowledge, home-school contact, parental involvement in the learning process, how families assist schools and how schools can assist families. For communication between parents and teachers to be meaningful and responsive, it is necessary to have knowledge about differing cultural frameworks (Wong & Hughes, 2006).

All studies emphasize that school administrators and supervisors must work closely with teachers to arrange a variety of school activities that address the needs of the community and families, including literacy workshops, ESL classes, open houses that adapt to immigrant parents' work schedules, and classes to teach parents how to help their children with homework. Finally, if a school takes precautions to make immigrant parents feel welcome at the school or to reduce the language, or other barriers, that parents face, children could take a significant advantage (Turney & Kao, 2009).

Graham-Clay (2005) argues that before the communication, there are three important steps that teachers have to consider. First, communication between teachers and parents starts with a welcome sign when parents first come to school. The second step may be a smile, because meeting parents with smile is influential. The third step is a clean school as this affects parents thoughts about a school. Additionally, Al-Hassan and Gardner (2002) suggest some tactics for educators to get immigrant parents more actively involved are sending welcome notes to the immigrant parents in their language, inviting them to the school, being aware of special cultural and religious holidays, including them on the

school calendar as classroom celebrations, and making home visits.

6. Conclusion

There are two main barriers that the majority of immigrant parents face, which are limited English proficiency and cultural differences. These barriers show that teachers have significant responsibilities to overcome these barriers by working collaboratively with families. Teachers and school administrators should find appropriate ways to contact families that are culturally and linguistically diverse to get them involved. McWilliam, Maxwell, and Sloper (1999) explain advocacy as guiding families to advocate for themselves. In this respect, all barriers, which prevent parental involvement for families that are culturally and linguistically diverse, show that this community needs greater advocacy than other families. For family advocacy, educators and school administrators should arrange activities and the school environment towards the goal of family advocacy for families that are culturally and linguistically diverse. If teachers get in touch with parents who are not from the majority culture and race, educators and school staff will create a school environment that is nonthreatening, a place that nurtures parents and allows all parents to feel comfortable (Ariza, 2002). All parents need support, advocacy, and guidance, no matter their culture or race because all families want their children to be successful at school and they are enthusiastic to participate in their children's school activity.

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Study Skills among High School Students: An Exploratory Study of Private High Schools in Albania

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Abstract

A good education can be provided through the commitment and action of students, teachers and administrators. Students' effective learning can be encouraged and enhanced through the development of the students' organization skills. Evidence shows that many high school students fail to do well academically because of a lack of their study skills. This work is conducted to report on an exploratory study of six schools in Albania where their key characteristics are found to be important to these schools' success. The data are obtained from a close-ended survey in a Likert type scale with adequate validity and reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha=.88$). The sample consisted of $N=255$, 11th and 12th grade students ($N=116$ male, 45.5% and $N=138$ female, 54.1%) from eight high schools in Albania. Results showed that, female students were significantly different from male students on: I take notes as I read textbook assignments ($p<.01$); When I don't understand something, I get help from my classmates, tutors and instructors ($p = .025$); and I can easily identify what I have learned and what I have not yet learned before I take a test ($p = .018$). We found no correlation between parental education level, number of children in the family and students' study skills. At the end implications and recommendations of these findings are discussed for further research on the study skills of high school students.

Keywords: study skills, high school, students, Albania.

1. Introduction

The search for unknown throughout history brought us to the interrelation between school, teacher, and students; as it has always been a need for human beings to quench their thirst for learning more and more. However, environmental issues, different talents, variety of the goals, methodologies used in teaching or learning, and most importantly technology are some of the factors that determine the level of teaching and learning on each individual.

A good education can be provided through the commitment and action of students, teachers and administrators. Obtaining a good education and being successful at school is very important in our life. Being successful at school is related to a high level of study skills which should be practiced and developed by the students.

Learning or studying is an ability or a skill. Everyone is different from the others and every student approaches the learning process differently. Every student has a unique learning style or learning method through which the student tries to study hard and succeed academically. Students' effective learning can be encouraged and enhanced through the development of the students' organization skills. Evidence shows that many high school students fail to do well academically because of a lack of their study skills.

This work is conducted to report on an exploratory study focused on the 11th and 12 grade high school students found in eight private schools in Albania whose key characteristics are found to be integral to these schools' success. The research questions of this study are: 1) Are there any gender differences in terms of the study skills among high school students? 2) Is there any relationship between the students' study skills and parental education level and, 3) Is there any relationship between the number of children in the family and the students' study skills?

2. Learning approaches, school bonding and the students' academic success

One of the cornerstones of successful students' learning is their ability to use appropriate learning approaches. Awareness and orchestration of learning approaches are central to self-regulation of learning - a key concept in explaining effective learning (Malie & Oriah, 2012). There are volumes of research investigating the relationship between best practices in teaching by teachers and best practices in learning by students. It is important to consider how the

observed teacher behaviors and student – teacher interactions can be generalized to foster positive learning environments in traditional high school classrooms (Ratcliff et al., 2012). The role of the school is one of the key components in providing a better setting for learning and teaching; a sense of attachment to the school on the student side would bring fruitful results and when students feel connected to or have strong bonds to their schools, they are more likely to experience academic success. Evidence shows that, school bonding is multidimensional and it includes four specific components: (a) attachment to school, (b) attachment to teachers and school personnel, (c) school commitment (comprising both beliefs and behaviors), and (d) school involvement (Bryan et al., 2011). The findings of this study demonstrated that all four components of school bonding affect students' academic achievement at some point during high school, whether the effects are proximal or distal. Yet only about 50% of the youth in schools report feeling connected to or engaged in school (Blum, 2005 and Bryan et al., 2011).

On the other hand, students with different needs may require special approaches and care. Especially, if the students are gifted, extra effort is needed to provide appropriate school setting, and qualified teachers to approach their possibly hidden talents. Developing an appropriate learning environment is a critical factor in the successful instruction of the gifted students. Hennessey (2004), noted that close attention must be paid to creating appropriate learning environments if student motivation, creativity, and special talents are to be augmented. Another study shows that, high-ability students respond to classroom environments that are active and engaging, despite the use of whole-class grouping, direct instruction, and low-level questions. These students performed well in quickly paced, stimulating environments where the teachers mentally engaged (interacted) with students through direct instructional methods (Ratcliff et al., 2012). However, students' learning approaches and strategies are not merely enough to achieve academic success or a satisfactory learning (Malie & Oriah, 2012). A holistic approach and strategies are needed to gain a better performance: Studies have also revealed that students use different learning approaches and strategies and these in turn influence their academic achievement. This is reflected also in with the following words - Talents would bloom in the bosom of fertile fields where needed receives his/her needs, and the addresser finds fertile grounds to sow his/her seeds.

3. Learning methods

Knowledge acquisition can be accomplished through a successful use of the learning methods. Learning methods is an educational process that leads the students to the way how to explore, understand and practice the knowledge of a specific field. There are three types of learning methods including: visual (by sight), auditory (by hearing), or hands on (by doing) (SOAR Program, 2002). Depending on how we learned the activity, we will have a fair idea of what learning method we have. During the comprehension of such activities, we use all the learning methods. In fact, we use all our senses to learn and to observe the world around us, but each of us has a tendency to learn more heavily on one of the three learning methods – visual, auditory, or hands on. Visual learning style includes using colorful pens or highlighters, looking at the pictures or graphs, using flashcards and getting notes. Auditory learners process and remember information best when they hear it and repeat it. Kinesthetic or hands on learners need hands on activities by frequently using the sense of touch. Study strategies can be better improved once we develop and integrate all the learning methods.

There are several factors that influence students' learning. One of the most important key factors is motivation. Motivation is considered as a useful tool for the teachers and parents to encourage the students to work hard. If the teacher manages to motivate the students (i.e this chapter is very easy, or this is the easiest topic in this lesson), they will start studying and succeed in at least half of it or more. Some findings indicate that students have different levels of motivation, different attitudes about teaching and learning and different responses to specific classroom environments and instructional practice (Felder & Brent, 2005 and Malie & Oriah, 2012).

Loranger (1994), examined the study strategies of successful and unsuccessful high school students of grade 11, to determine if successful students would differ from unsuccessful students, in the quality of their information processing. It was expected that good learners would use different study skills requiring greater cognitive effort, such as note-taking, summarizing, and outlining. She found that successful students were more active, purposeful, and flexible in their strategy use. Although the unsuccessful students were generally less efficient in their use of learning strategies, they were satisfied with their academic performance. The successful students were motivated to succeed and did use strategies to accomplish this goal. The less successful students were not only less apt to access strategies on their own, but also lacked self-knowledge of inefficient strategy use.

4. Study skills

Students' effective learning can be encouraged and enhanced through the development of their study skills. Study skills include several abilities such as: 1) understanding visual representations of information; 2) previewing a text before reading; 3) locating information; 4) taking notes; 5) taking tests; 6) listening and reading with attention; 7) and intention to learn.

1. Visual sense is one of the most powerful ones and understanding visual representations of information allows the student to see, explore, and understand large amounts of information in a different way.
2. Previewing a text before reading is an important part of the pre-reading process because, it activates the reader's schema or background knowledge on a topic and helps the reader make connections to the material before they read it.
3. Locating information is an important skill practiced especially when we need to navigate, analyze and draw conclusions based on information from a variety of sources.
4. Note taking strategies help the students draw a clear picture of what they have heard and capture all the information needed for later study. They also encourage the students to concentrate and actively listen and learn during the class time. Note taking strategies include coming prepared to the class, starting a new page for each class, writing down the major ideas, leaving enough space between notes, using graphic organizers or pictures, reviewing notes before the lesson and after the lesson and getting notes from missed classes. (Middleborough High School Guidance Department, MA).
5. Taking tests is an important method of measuring the comprehension of the material. In order to succeed in the tests, students should learn test-taking skills, develop their strategic thinking and comprehend on the course content.
6. Listening and reading with attention is related to the encoding and retrieval functions of the memory. They are also an important part of the learning process. Improved attending skills can stimulate the students' class participation, reading carefully, completion on time of individual and group assignments and effective exam preparation.
7. Intention to learn is the aim or the learning objective that makes the students understand what they want to learn and helps them become more engaged with the class activities. Learning intentions should have a focus on the knowledge, skills and understanding and, they should serve the demands of the students. During the learning process, it is important to distinguish between knowing and understanding. In her comments following a conversation hosted by Derek Young at TED, Annette White (2012), claims that:

"Knowledge can be applied but only understanding creates new ideas which present new problems which require new solutions. To do that, we need brains which can learn to acquire knowledge and minds that can understand what that knowledge means and its significance, validity and relevance. Knowing how we learn and what 'content' helps us to practice different kinds of learning is the metacognitive aspect of learning which is just beginning to make an impact."

Having the desire to succeed and knowing how to effectively learn, is the first step in developing effective study habits and perform better at school. According to the S.O.A.R program developed by Mayland Community College (2002), good study habits include many different skills: time management, selfdiscipline, concentration, memorization, and organization. Time management tips shortly include setting goals, recording assignments, making to do list daily, using spare time wisely, finding right time and place to study well and, getting plenty of sleep when it is needed (Middleborough High School Guidance Department, Massachusetts). Selfdiscipline includes: willpower, hard work and persistence. It is the product of persisted willpower or the structured thought used automatically that leads to success. Concentration depends on how much control do we have in our mind. It is focused on getting the mind on a task or several tasks while trying to stay away from distractions. Improving concentration skills can result in a successful learning process. Memory is a complicated process whereby images, sounds, ideas, words, phrases, and even times and places are encoded, so we can recall them later (Armstrong, 2010). Memorization is a skill that can be learned and the more you train yourself, the more confident, prepared and less anxious you are. A successful student can manage to have a good organization of his/her work and effectively use basic study skills. They can create their own systems for organizing, processing, and comprehending what they read or hear in the class; planning homework and long term assignments; studying for tests; and determining effective test-taking strategies (Sedita, 1999).

5. Methods

Participants. This study was conducted to investigate the students' study skills and strategies that lead them to academic success. The students, who participated in this study, come from eight private high schools found in different cities of Albania. These schools are considered to be the most successful ones across the country. Evidence shows that, the graduates from these schools continue their academic success even during their further studies and later in their professional career. The aim of this study was to reveal these students' study skills and beyond these, what makes them become successful and a role model for the other students studying in the other schools in Albania. As shown in Table 1., the sample consists of N=255 including 116 males (45.5 %) and 138 females (54.1 %).

Table 1. Distribution Categories by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	116	45.5
Female	138	54.1
Total	255	100.0

Measurement tools. The data was collected by using the "Study Skills Survey", a close-ended survey which aims at helping the students assess their academic skills and it provides a general idea of how to view their abilities. This survey was obtained electronically from "Freshmen Learning Center", which is an adapted version from a model at University of Central Florida. The items (n=51) of this survey were forced choice and a five-point (1 = *Almost always* to 5 = *Almost never*) Likert type scale was used to measure the respondent's level of study skills. The questionnaire consisted of six parts: 1) "Textbook Reading Skills" (8 questions), 2) "Notebook Skills" (5 questions), 3) "Memory Skills" (9 questions), 4) "Test Preparation Skills" (13 questions), 5) "Concentration Skills" (10 questions) and 6) "Time Management Skills" (6 questions). In the first page, brief information is provided for the respondents about the reason of using this questionnaire and then, demographic information related items are included in the first page of the questionnaire.

Validity and reliability. For the internal consistency and reliability we measured the Cronbach's alpha, which is a method of estimating internal reliability. As shown in Table 2., we received a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.88 for 51 items included in the questionnaire. Considering that Cronbach's alpha should be greater than 0.6, this questionnaire is reliable.

Table 2. Cronbach's Alpha

Reliability statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.88	51

Data collection. In this study, 255 questionnaires were filled out by 11th and 12th grade high school students from eight private high schools in different cities of Albania. The students were provided brief information about the aim of the study, they were assured confidentiality and they were thanked about their willingness to participate in this study. The survey took about 7-10 minutes to be completed before the lecture time or during the break. Completed questionnaires were collected by the instructor of a certain discipline in each high school and they were returned to our department. Totally, 255 surveys were completed and returned to the department.

Data analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample. The responses received from this study were coded as 5, 4, 3, 2, 1. The data was analyzed using the independent samples T-test of IBM SPSS Statistics 20. for windows to compare the study skills between male and female students, and check if the difference between the mean values of the test variable for one group differs significantly from the mean value of that variable for the second group of the respondents. Bivariate Pearson correlation analysis was computed to find out if there is an association between the respondent's parental education level and number of children in the family and their study skills. In Table 3., it is shown that more than half of the respondents (60.0 %) were at 11th grade.

Table 3. Distribution Categories by Grade

Grade	Frequency	Percentage (%)
11th Grade	153	60.0
12th Grade	100	39.2
Missing	2	0.8
Total	255	100.0

As we can see from Table 4., the majority of 11th grade students (n=85), come from families with two children. The majority of the high school students in total (n=119), have one sibling.

Table 4. Distribution Categories by Grade * Number of children in the family

Grade	One child	Two children	Three children	More than three	Missing	Total
11th grade	15	85	46	7	0	153
12th grade	11	34	35	19	2	102
Total	26	119	83	26	2	255

From Table 5., we can see that the highest level of education of the majority of the parents (74.5%) is the high school diploma. Only 16.9% of the respondents had both parents with a doctoral degree.

Table 5. Crosstabulation of Mother's education level * Farther's education level

		Farther's education level						Total
		Elementary/Middle School Diploma	High School Diploma	Bachelor Degree	Master Degree	Doctoral Degree	Missing	
Mother's education level	Elementary/Middle School Diploma	23	19	4	0	0	0	46
	High School Diploma	12	52	21	13	5	0	103
	Bachelor Degree	2	6	29	12	3	1	53
	Master	1	9	4	15	5	0	34
	Doctoral Degree	0	1	2	5	11	0	19
Total		38	87	60	45	24	1	255

6. Results

Results showed that, there were no significant differences between male and female high school students in their study skills. However, as shown in Table 6., we found that female students were significantly different from male students on: *I take notes as I read textbook assignments* ($p < .01$); *When I don't understand something, I get help from my classmates, tutors and instructors* ($p = .025$); and *I can easily identify what I have learned and what I have not yet learned before I take a test* ($p = .018$).

Table 6. Comparison of Female and Male High School Students on Study Skills

(n=138 females and n=116 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	P
Taking notes on textbook assignments			-3.66	214.2	$p < .01$
Female	4.00	1.02			
Male	3.46	1.32			
Getting help from classmates, tutors and instructors			-2.23	252	.025
Female	4.38	3.63			
Male	3.59	1.30			
Easily identifying what you have learned before a test			-2.39	207.23	.018
Female	4.12	0.95			
Male	3.78	1.30			

There were no significant differences between 11th and 12th grade high school students in their study skills. However, as shown in Table 7., we found that 11th grade students were significantly different from 12th grade students on: *I compare notes with one or more other students to check completeness and accuracy* ($p = .023$); *I use mnemonics, a formula or rhyme to help me remember ideas* ($p = .001$); *I exercise daily* ($p = .040$); *I write out short-term and long-term academics goals each semester* ($p = .046$).

Table 7. Comparison of 11th Grade and 12th Grade High School Students on Study Skills

(*n=153 11th Grade and n=100 12th Grade Students*)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	P
Compare notes to check completeness and accuracy			2.29	236.84	.023
11th Grade	2.94	1.47			
12th Grade	2.55	1.23			
Using mnemonics to remember ideas			-3.25	238.54	.001
11th Grade	3.09	1.46			
12th Grade	3.63	1.19			
I exercise daily			2.06	233.2	.040
11th Grade	3.29	1.38			
12th Grade	2.96	1.18			
Writing short and long-term goals			2.01	152.03	.046
11th Grade	29.01	159.46			
12th Grade	3.11	1.27			

Bivariate Pearson correlation analyses showed that, there was no association between maternal education level and the students' study skills. On the other side, a strong positive correlation was found between maternal education level and the students' study skill in: "I write out short-term and long-term academics goals each semester", $r(255) = .135, p < .05$ and "I think about material that could be on exams and quizzes when I am not studying", $r(255) = -.213, p = .001$. We found no correlation between paternal education level and students' study skills. However, a strong positive correlation was found between paternal education level and the students' study skill only in: "I take notes in lectures", $r(255) = -.127, p = .042$. Next, the correlation analyses showed that there is no correlation between the number of children in the family and the students' study skills except in one study skill such as: "I take notes in lectures", $r(255) = -.187, p = .003$.

7. Recommendations and Conclusions

This study investigated possible associations between some demographic data obtained from the students and their study skills. No relationship was found between Parental Education Level and Number of Children in the Family and Study Skills. No differences were found also between male and female students in their study skills. The results showed that the students scored high on most of the items of the study skills. With respect to this, these students' academic success can be attributed to their personal efforts and their teachers' persistence on motivating the students to discover the most efficient and effective study techniques and strategies. These results are in line with other findings which suggest that learning different study techniques and improving the study skills can help the students become more successful and in tune with the most efficient methods of learning. Through this insight, the students understand the learning style and which technique works best and which one is the least effective. By maximizing the most effective learning methods, the students will be able to learn as much as they can in the classroom and through their studying to become more successful at school.

There are limitations in this study in many respects - because of the small sample and using only one questionnaire. No interview with both the students and the teachers and academic records were received from each student. Regarding these limitations, more research is needed to be conducted with larger samples by using not only student reported data but also teachers' and parents' reported data, to better understand the students' study skills.

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Comparison Experienced and Less Experienced Academic Staffs' Beliefs on Post Graduate Students' Educational Quality (PEQ): Case Study University of Guilan and Islamic Azad University, Rasht Unit, Iran

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Abstract

The present paper investigated the relationship among the level of experience of academic staffs, the beliefs they hold and the outcome of their successfulness in teaching quality. Two research questions have been raised which are concluded: whether teaching experiences affect the efficiency of teaching and whether the beliefs of academic staffs about teaching affect how well their students' satisfaction. The investigation is based on a study of the approach to PEQ, by 15 experienced and 15 less experienced academic staffs in two different Universities. All the academic staffs were involved in the postgraduate programs in the University of Guilan and Islamic Azad University in the Rasht Unit. All 15 experienced had at least 10 years of experience in teaching and the less experienced staffs had less than 5 years of experience and most of them had no formal practice. The research procedure involved semi-structured interviews with the academic staffs and questionnaire with post graduate students. Academic staffs' interviews included questions about how they planned their conceptions of PEQ the results showed that the experienced academic staffs employed an interactive and discovery approach to their teaching. Some of the questions asked in lessons were quite demanding cognitively. This should communicate two important messages to the post graduate students. The first was that they were responsible for their own teaching process and the second one was that teaching was about making sense out of interactions.

Keywords: *Academic staff, education, quality, post graduate student*

1. Introduction

Some important questions have commonly been raised about higher education quality. One of them is whether educational experiences affect the efficiency of higher education. Another is whether the beliefs of academic staffs about higher education affect how well their post graduate students' satisfaction. In this paper these two questions are discussed in related to the post graduate students the light of some recent research findings According to Jafari M, Osuly H (2000) the concept of quality consisted of the total characteristics of a specific product or an opportunity which cover abilities of meeting of special needs. Also, Hoveida. Sadat, A (2003) believes that educational quality related to the educational elements attitudes and abilities which help us to meet the students and educational manager specific needs and expectations and satisfactions.

The society's development depends to the education and higher education institutions performances particularly in the post graduate section. Iranmanesh and Kamerani (2005) emphasize that Higher education is a Human resource capital which can promote knowledge, skills and attitudes. Also, Akhavan Kazemi (2005) believes that if higher education systems in private and governmental part can affect on the society deeply, it can have most affection on the society.

Then as Neve Ebrahim & Karimi (2006) emphasized, it is necessary to think and consider the higher education quality in order to save human capital, financial resources and coordinate between educational development and effectiveness. There are different definitions for the word of quality. But there are not agreements about the specific definition.

Clark and Peterson (1986) suggested that individual's cognitive and other behaviors were guided by and made sense in relation to a personally held system of beliefs. Thus, the beliefs about the process of quality of higher education and the nature of post graduate and academics' performances are all important aspects that would affect the efficiency of them. Conversely, experienced academic staffs with considerable experiences of education would be likely to hold different beliefs from less experienced academics.

2. Higher Education Planning

Analysis of the interview protocols revealed marked differences in the focus and method of planning activities between experienced and less experienced academic staffs. When asked about planning in general, the focus of the novice academic staffs planning activities was apparently time and appointments. Thus, time and appointments was the object to search out from patients and to put down in notebooks or computers. This focus on time and appointments was also true for the less experienced academic staffs who did not mention the notebook or computer. He was familiar with the content so there was no need to plan. On the other hand, the focus of experienced planning was higher education process. Immediately, talked about how they would introduce and sequence a higher education process. One of the experienced academic staffs actually described the transition of the focus of planning:

"In previous years I concentrated on quantity of education and in these few years I paid more attention to quality of teaching. I think that the way of education is more important as this affects whether post graduate students, but I have so many problems about quantity of education process".
(An experienced academic staff)

Possibly, after years of involvement on quantity aspects of education the experienced academic staffs knew by heart the subject content knowledge and had extensive schemata of their time and appointments. Consequently they could free their mind from content to focus on the best way to teaching. On the other hand, the less experienced academic staffs besides being overwhelmingly occupied with finding out about time and appointment might not have the cognitive structure for contemplating education.

The difference in focus was also apparent when discussing planning for education. The concern of the experienced when planning immediately before the teaching was again quality of education.

"I thought about the objectives of the experiment and planned some guiding questions to lead the post graduate students towards my objectives."
(An experienced academic staff)

Since experienced academic staffs used an interactive approach to education, they were more flexible in their planning of education. On the other hand, none of the less experienced academic staffs reported planning about education. Immediately before the education they still seemed preoccupied with the planning of quality of education.

A possible explanation of this difference in the focus of planning is that the two groups of dentists had different conceptions of quality of education. Consequently, the two groups of academic staffs may have different foci in their planning activities. The following sections are intended to establish a relationship between academic staffs planning of education as well as conception of quality of learning.

3. Conceptions of higher education

The academic staffs were asked directly about their concept of higher education and the effect of their concept on their planning. The following is based on the analysis of their interview protocols.

The less experienced academic staffs apparently viewed higher education as a collection of knowledge or facts that could be used to explain phenomena or solve post graduate students' problems. Compared to the different conceptions of higher education identified in a study of preserves academic staffs in the conception of the less experienced in the current study was similar to the less experienced academic staffs' conception stated as Aguirre Haggerty & Linder (1990) emphasized that in viewpoints of Less experienced academics staffs' conception of science,

science as a body of knowledge consisting of a collection of observation and explanations of how and why certain phenomena function in the universe.

This conception of higher education compared to others listed in Aguirre et al's paper lacks reference to the experimental base and the tentative nature of scientific knowledge. Less experienced academic staffs believed that higher education was a process to acquire knowledge useful for explaining phenomena and solving problems. The following quotations illustrate such a conception:

(What do you mean by "higher education?)

Higher education has a reason behind it. The education in higher part must take the student in the higher knowledge, higher skill and higher behavior. So, we should try to explain it more and more. (A less experienced academic staff)

It means that education must not stop to some knowledge for examination, but the knowledge for the life.

(A less experienced academic staff)

Less experienced academic staffs had similar referential aspects when they were talking about higher education. 5 of the less experienced academic staffs suggested that their concept of higher education did not affect how they planned their higher education yet the author believes that its influence on planning is quite obvious. It is only that these less experienced academic staffs have not recognized the influence.

None of the experienced academic staffs in the current study held such a "less experienced concept" of higher education. Rather two central components were identified among the conception of the less experienced which were absent in the conception of the less experienced academic staffs. The first was that higher education was related to society. Higher education could help post graduate students to understand the modern technological society and to adapt to the life within such society. The experienced academic staffs directly talked about this. Such as:

"Higher education should also let post graduate students think about application of higher education. Post graduate students should be aware of the application and appreciate the implication. Higher education should bring out the relationship of academic staffs with science and technology."

(An experienced academic staff)

In recent years, there has been much discussion among educators locally (Holbrook, 1990) and globally (UNESCO, 1986) about education and higher education and approach of learning. It seemed that the experienced academic staffs were generally more aware about this trend than the less experienced.

The second common component in the conception of the experienced academic staffs was that higher education as a way of thinking was described as logical analytical and empirical.

"Analytical power is essential. To achieve these, they have to possess certain degree of observation power and analytical power in learning which can develop in the higher education institution. In the postgraduate part these analytical activities are deeper."

(An experienced academic staff)

It is not easy to make explicit the implicit concepts involved in higher post graduate processes the proposed conception of higher education as logical analytical and empirical way of thinking seems to be a reasonably accurate summary of the conception expressed by the experienced academic staffs

Thus, the experienced and less experienced academic staffs treated the nature of higher education differently. The less experienced academic staffs considered it as a collection of memorizable fact while the experienced academic staffs treated it as a way of acquiring knowledge through empirical observation and critical thinking. Secondly the two groups of academic staffs held different views of the function of higher post graduate education process. The less experienced presumed the purpose of the higher education was to solve post graduate students' problems; whereas the experienced academic staffs conceived the function as a quality of higher education process.

4. Placement quality in Higher Education

Conceptions of quality are actually two sides of the same coin. A concept of quantity should evoke a corresponding concept of higher education. The academic staffs were asked in the interviews about their concepts of quantity and quality. From the analysis of the interview protocol on quantity and quality were clearly evident. The less experienced

academic staffs had a quantitative view of teaching. Quantity is the intake of knowledge:

*"For this level of post graduate students rely on the academic staff to provide them with knowledge. (What do you mean by that a post graduate student has satisfied about something?). It depends on the results of teaching."
(A less experienced academic staff)*

*"If I understood the academic staffs could solve the post graduates' problems in the exercise without resorting to copying from others colleagues or asking for help that meant I had learnt the knowledge."
(A Less experienced academic staff)*

*"That is the post graduate student understands and can solve their problems in education."
(A less experienced academic staff)*

"Understanding means an ability to solve the more difficult educational problems" (A Less experienced academic staff)

Although six of the fifteen less experienced academic staffs use the words understand or understanding all of them considered understanding as an ability to solve students' problem mostly in learning rather than education. In response to the question about their conception of good education, the less experienced academic staff suggested the following:

"It means the fulfillment of the duties. The skills that are required should be covered in the educational process. The resistant students should be overseen." (Less experienced academic staff)

"Unlike that students just listen to a academic staff or even forget about what the academic staff says. If students forget what the academic staff says, the higher education is a failure." (Less experienced academic staff)

Most of the less experienced academic staffs considered higher education as the provisional duty. The experienced academic staff appeared to have deeper conception of education than the less experienced academic staffs although there was some variation. Their views of teaching were exemplified:

"Firstly if students have satisfied about something in their learning, it is reflected in their results for both in and out of the class. Secondly students' satisfaction may not be immediately noticeable. The second aspect is very difficult to measure. It relates to how well the students accept the educational process and the specific academic staff. It depends on how much satisfaction they get and what attitude they have." (Experienced academic staff)

"I do not believe provisional education can measure students' satisfaction. The important issue at least for education process is that students can say something about their continues education." (Experienced academic staff)

From the analysis of the protocols, the less experienced academic staffs were found to have a qualitative view of education. They stressed the importance of education as interpreting and applying the skill gained. One the other hand, some experienced academic staffs accepted that teaching had to be validated by scientific standards but immediately commented on the inadequacy of limiting such standards:

"There must be some interaction in the process. The academic staffs should not be too dominant. The academic staff should not direct the students but guide them. The academic staff should develop post graduate students' attitude and interest towards education. These are elements of good education. Furthermore, scientific standards are also important attribute of good teaching. But the medical organization must be sensitive about the standards inside the class." (Experienced academic staff)

"Basically the academic staff should be able to cover the standards by him/her. At a higher level, the academic staffs can help students to acquire scientific minds. At an even higher level education should involve the moral aspect." (Experienced academic staff)

The entire experienced academic staff in the current study delineated more than one level or aspect of concepts about good academic staff. Their conceptions compared with the vague concept of keeping students interested were richer and deeper. Less experienced academic staff was clearest about it. He expressed the concept of academic as a guide without being too dominant and the importance of academic staff and student interaction as an aspect of education. Other experienced academic staff referred to teaching as helping students to acquire scientific minds or accentuated discovering experiments and questioning in education. Most experienced academic staff also embodied the

view of education as a means to bring about attitude change. All these were consistent with the qualitative or constructivist view.

While the experienced academic staff might also have a quantitative or institutional view mentioned ideas like covering the standards, they had predominantly the qualitative / constructivist view of education.

5. Post graduate students' learning

The following hypothesis is put forward to explain how the experienced academic staff has become more qualitatively oriented than the less experienced. Gradually, through years of experience, the academic staffs become more and more aware of the strength and difficulties students' learning (Borko & Livingston 1989) finding the quantitative view of teaching and learning to be inadequate to account for why students understand or not. One experienced academic staff discovered that providing information and having skills were not adequate to ensure teaching. At the same time, academic staffs feel progressively more confident to have interaction with students and find that the interactive approach to teaching is more effective.

6. Relationship between learning and education

The quantitatively orientated academic staffs held the view of education as provisional education and thus the selection and the presentation of the process were of great importance. Consequently, they equated planning and selection of skill. Furthermore, they would find the actual skill for delivery an important source of their education. They would also find the list of objectives which delineated the skills in terms of education activities or target post graduate students' behaviors were of little use to formulate what to treat the students in the class. Since, their main purpose was to provisional learning just as someone deposited money in to a short term bank account (Freire 1972) direct education and would be most appropriate. Within such an approach experiments were of little use, if of any use at all. Finally, once the provisional learning was carried out the quantitatively orientated academic staffs considered they had done their job; they have no need to reflect on how to improve their education for the next time.

On the other hand, the qualitatively- orientated academic staff perceived their role as supporting student learning through interaction and their students were the ones who really constructed their own knowledge (Wheatley, 1991). Only the interactive approach was consistent with such a qualitatively orientated viewpoint. In order for the students to have something to base the construction of knowledge on experiments were needed and formed an integral part of the education activities. In order to be functional in such an interactive class environment, the academic staffs should be able to improvise and class environment the academics should be able to improvise and be flexible (Yinger, 1989). To cope with this, the academic staffs required a clear image about the direction of the education and the type of activities that would scaffold learning. The former image required references to the list of objectives while the latter references to the skill guide. In order to provide the best assistance for students in their learning, the qualitative orientated academic staffs could reflect on the previous experiences to determine how the current education should go.

Thus, there was a definite distinction between the conception of education and learning of the experienced and less experienced academic staffs. When the dentists were classified as quantitatively orientated or qualitatively orientated all four experienced were considered as qualitatively orientated while all four novices were quantitatively orientated.

7. Students Perceptions on quality of Education

In order to compare the effect of academic staffs on post graduate students, a questionnaire was designed to measure some aspects of post graduate student learning. The first part of the questionnaire was aimed to measure the level of processing these students used in learning. The second was a measure of the perceived class environment in modified from Hattie and Watkins (1988). The final part was a short test about the education and learning. Two questions were set in this final part. One of the questions concerned the importance of the "motivation" concept while the other one was a problem on constraint with more data given than required. Post graduate students' answers for this final part were graded according to the Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome (SOLO) taxonomy.

7.1 Perception of class environment

The difference between post graduate students in the perceived class environment was clear. The scores for the second part of the questionnaire indicated that class environment was perceived as better in the views of the post graduate students of the experienced academic staffs than those of the less experienced (ANOVA, $P < 0.05$). The post graduate students of the experienced academic staffs generally felt happier about their class environment about their like hood of success in that environment about their impression of fair education t by the academic staffs as well as about the usefulness of the class arrangement.

7.2 Learning Approaches

The post graduate students of the experienced academic staffs scored higher (ANOVA, $P < 0.05$) on the questionnaire items concerning deep learning than the post graduate students of the less experienced academic staffs. In other words there was some evidence that the students of the experienced academic staffs utilized a deep learning. This indicated a tendency for the post graduate students of the experienced academic staffs towards a combination of more intrinsic motivation and more concern about understanding when education.

7.3 Learning outcome

The data also indicated that the post graduate students of the education by experienced academic staffs were significantly (ANOVA $P < 0.05$) higher than the other groups. These post graduate students of the experienced academic staffs were better in suggesting the importance of the concepts as well as in understanding.

8. Discussion and Conclusion

The current research found that the experienced academic staffs employed an interactive and discovery approach to the post graduate education. Some of the questions asked in lessons were quite demanding cognitively. This should communicate two important messages to the post graduate students. The first was that they were responsible for their own learning process. The second was that teaching was about making sense out of interactions. From this point of view the experienced academic staffs with a qualitative orientation to post graduate education imparted a more qualitative view of post graduate education to their students. This qualitative perspective then influenced the students to use a deep approach in learning. Firstly a meaning of "finding orientation" was likely to elicit a deep approach of learning (Matron 1988). Secondly the post graduate student acceptance of their responsibility for learning would also encourage a deep approach to it (Biggs 1990).

Moreover, the qualitative orientation of learning also influenced the post graduate students' perception of their class environment (Entwistle, Kozeki, & Tait, 1989). The stress on discovery and interaction would likely increase the positive attitudes towards the class environment including their feeling while learning and their sentiment towards the academic staffs. The tendency toward accepting responsibility for their learning i. e emphasizing one's own effort would likely increases optimism about success in education (Ames & Ames 1984).

Last but not least, a qualitative orientation to post graduate education would likely bring about better quality of learning outcomes (Matron & Saljo, 1984; Watkins 1983). Thus noting the more qualitative orientation of learning and deeper approach with students of the experienced academic staffs it should not be astonishing to find that the achievement of these post graduate students according to the SOLO taxonomy was higher.

In conclusion, the current study suggests that the differences between the experienced and less experienced academic staffs as manifested in their learning planning conceptions, cognitive structure and conduct of class have an effect on the learning of the post graduate students. Such influence is appropriately interpreted through a framework of differences in the quantitative / qualitative orientation of post graduate education among post graduate students. If such a situation is true for academic staffs in general the importance of academic staffs carefully evaluating their own beliefs cannot be overemphasized.

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The Functional Analyze of the System for the Human Resource Management and Leadership Roles in the Albanian University Auditorium

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Abstract

This paper aims to succeed in mutual relationship of pedagogues as leadership and students. Speaking about the teacher as a pedagogical figure is such delicate and vast issue. Further more it brings into everybody's mind the first-teacher at elementary or someone else who is really different from the traditional teacher. The reason why I am focusing my article on the teacher (pedagogues) in University auditorium and their appraisals in relationship with the student is that, I frankly think that the traditional process of the teaching methods should change, during time, space and people themselves. Obviously radical – changes need time and the causes are evident. Having a suggestive and psychological opinion on some of the problem during lessons and the relationship with the students is evident. Surely I don't pretend to give a solution to the problems risen up, but to be focused on such important point that should change. According to such ideas and my personal belief and experience I have followed an expression of Robert Rutherford, in the process of teaching "If the child (student) is not learning the way you are teaching, then you must teach in the way the child (student) learns!" In this article we intend to emphasize the role of leadership (teacher) based on our experience and the re-dimensioning of the world's knowledge in order to show the necessity of creating new models, aimed at preparing young specialist able to meet real world challenges.

Keywords: Leadership, Management relationship, Functional Analyze, Communication, University Auditorium

"Leadership is the art of accomplishing. More than science of managements says is possible" (Colin Powell)

1. Introduction

In many countries of Europe the public sector is going through a deep reformation. The most important element of this reform in the public sector is the incentive related to the reformation of the public administration. This process is necessary to face the challenges and to have better services with few sources possible.

The public services are oriented by the input. The structures and the organizational procedures are created in order to involve the employees and need efforts and contribution from them. In the public service department the results are considered as a product of the efforts and staff's capacities. The requirement of these results is lead by an inspirational vision, which is a clear mission and has some strategic aims, and these aims are transformed in objectives which aim to improve the performance. (*Selznick, Philip. 1957*)

Methodical culture is an art, skilful communication that is conditioned by the Leader (teacher) individuality, students or member of the group ability giving instruction, reviving interest in them for scientific knowledge and the ability to tolerate and understand the age and even the teenage actions. This culture requires from the teacher to organize the classes in such creative ways to attract students, because during the process of learning in school is not easy, but the elimination of such difficulties and achievements of the goals expressed in taking possession of the knowledge brings positivity and emotional state. (*De Bruijn, H. 2002*) We often hear the term Human Resource Management, Employee Relations and Personnel Management used in the popular press as well as by Industry experts.

1.1 The general concept of HRM

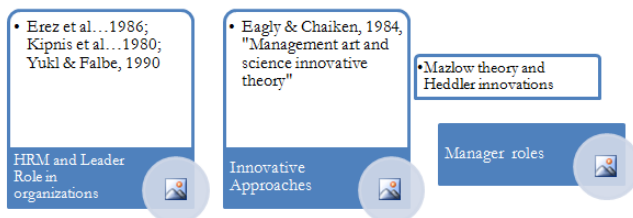
Whenever we hear these terms, we conjure images of efficient managers busily going about their work in glitzy offices. In this article, we look at the question “what is HRM?” by giving a broad overview of the topic and introducing the readers to the practice of HRM in contemporary organizations. (Robbins, S.P. 1998)

Though as with all popular perceptions, the above imagery has some validity, the fact remains that there is much more to the field of HRM and despite popular depictions of the same, the “art and science” of HRM is indeed complex. (Selznick, Philip. 1957)

We have chosen the term “art and science” as HRM is both the art of managing people by recourse to creative and innovative approaches; it is a science as well because of the precision and rigorous application of theory that is required.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

Rational persuasion involves the use of logical arguments and factual information to convince a target that the agent’s request or proposal is feasible and consistent with shared objectives (Eagly & Chaiken, 1984). This is a flexible tactic that can be used for influence attempts in any direction. Nevertheless, rational persuasion is likely to be used more in an upward direction than in other directions, because in an upward direction a manager is limited by a weaker power base and role expectations that discourage the use of some tactics (see discussion of other hypotheses). Directional differences for the use of rational persuasion were not consistent in three prior studies conducted with questionnaire (Erez et al...1986; Kipnis et al...1980; Yukl & Falbe, 1990).



Tab 1: The indicators of HRM.Innovative and Approaches Source: HRM Theory Adlder 2005

Agents reported greater use of this tactic in upward influence attempts, but directional differences were not found for targets. Results for the consequences of using rational persuasion have been inconsistent also. In the questionnaire study by Kipnis and Sshmidt (1988) managers who received the highest performance ratings had a profile in which rational persuasion was the dominant tactic for upward influence attempts. However rational persuasion was not related to successful upward influence in the questionnaire study by Mowday (1978). Likewise tactics involving aspects of rational persuasion were not related to outcome success in the four critical incident studies described earlier

2.1 Research Goal and data collected

The whole process involves all the working students in University auditorium, learning, express innovative ideas, conducting their project in their classes, in order to show up their achievement during the teaching process. Acknowledged development strategies given by the teacher and the evaluation of student scientific projects. During this process of implementing this strategy, the leadership role is based on rules and extreme strict responsibilities toward the students, in order to handle the unexpected difficulties and obstacles the work of all the students to achieve their goals and purposes. (De Bruijn, H. 2002)

H 2: The second definition of HRM encompasses the management of people in organizations from a macro perspective i.e. managing people in the form of a collective relationship between management and employees. This approach focuses on the objectives and outcomes of the HRM function. What this means is that the HR function in contemporary organizations is concerned with the notions of people enabling, people development and a focus on making the “employment relationship” ful-filling for both the management and employees. (Selznick, Philip. 1957) These

definitions emphasize the difference between Personnel Management as defined in the second paragraph and human resource management as described in the third paragraph. (Robbins, S.P. 1998)

To put it in one sentence, personnel management is essentially “work-force” centered whereas human resource management is “resource” centered. The key difference is HRM in recent times is about fulfilling management objectives of providing and deploying people and a greater emphasis on planning, monitoring and control. (De Bruijn, H. 2002)

The hypothesis coming next:

2.1.1 H1.Learning process is difficult ,but if someone(students themselves) is not given what is meant hard to resolve, human being never knows how far reaches.



Tab1.3. The tolerance and the experience of daily relationship. (Selznick, Philip. 1957)

Often in everyday life student-teacher relationship is mutual and the leadership responsibility is high Regardless to the specifics that takes the position of teacher relations, fundamental is to be perceived as work relationship which are characterized by tolerant communications that runs through good will of understanding and bon-sense. *Tolerantia=Patience* (a Latin word)

2.1.2 H 2:An important aspect of our daily work and educational learning, where there should be tolerance and to show the full comprehension, the superlative degree is that of controlling student knowledge possession.

An active job situation, full of faith opportunities to students and an optimal concentration of teacher and students in learning process.Whatever the definition we use the answer to the question as to “what is HRM?” is that it is all about people in organizations. No wonder that some MNC’s (Multinationals) call the HR managers as People Managers, People Enablers and the practice as people management. In the 21st century organizations, the HR manager or the people manager is no longer seen as someone who takes care of the activities described in the traditional way.

The performance evaluation of the employees has two objectives: Administrative objectives.It gives information in setting the salary, promotions, firing, and assures the necessary documentation to verify decisions in juridical processes.

The main objective is the objective of the development. The information can be used to diagnose the needs for trainings, career planning etc. the feedback and the training based on the information of the evaluation assures the fundaments for constant performance improvement. (Robins & Couter, 1999) The performance evaluation is determined as an evaluation of the past and actual performance of an employee that works in accordance with the performance standards of the organization. In fact, most organizations have different departments dealing with Staffing, Payroll, and Retention etc. Instead, the HR manager is responsible for managing employee expectations vis-à-vis the management objectives and reconciling both to ensure employee fulfillment and realization of management objectives.

Tab 1: Traditional concept, Staffing, Payroll, Retention

Consistency Of The Leader Objectives (Instructor)	Traditional Concept	Contemporary Concept	Expectations
Teaching	Acquisition of knowledge	Coordination of knowledge	60-70%
Knowledge	Are they absolute..?	Knowledge built on consciously	60%
Students	We all learn the same way and not all are able to learn better.	Different students learn in different ways but not all are	60%

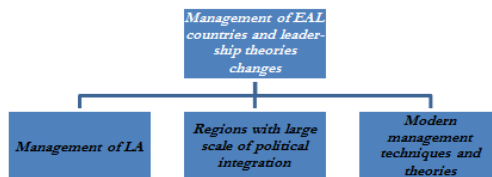
		able to learn.	
Pedagogue(instructor)	provides insight(knowledge)	Assists in the process of transmitting knowledge	70%
University	Equip students with Diploma for job roles in society.	a) Develop intelligent opinion. b) does independent work for the improvement of personal and social life of the student	70%
Scientific Establishment and Leadership management	a) Citizens who know science. Leader roles b) Use science in everyday life. Leader indifferent c) use professional training in decision-making leadership and promoting roles	a) Individuals form using the method of scientific research to solve problems. b) Interest and the extraction method highlighting critical defects to achieve success.	80% 22% 60%
Social formation and multi-cultural influence	-Position held in the protection of identities and multi cultures.	a) Influential in developing and integrating it successfully in the European elite leadership b) suitability for employment abroad	60% 67% 24%

3. Methodology and Research Goal

But in requiring such strategy is always meant to be achievement of the mission. The other reason is that of ‘all inclusion’ in which elementary student can surely take advantages on behalf of good student. Hence, this results and concludes strategies and techniques that build on students’ expectation for success while giving the right space, including security and real opportunity to learn right.

3.1 Analyzing data and questionnaires

The performance evaluation is mainly characterized by qualitative indicators and there are only a few quantitative indicators. According to the data collected from the questionnaires the employees asses the importance of the performance evaluation in 100%, they concretize it with the objectivity in the evaluation. To the question “Is the performance evaluation objective in your institution?”- 20% answered positively, 54% avoided the answer and 26% of them think that it is dictated from the subjectivity of the leaders. According to the questionnaire the major part of the questioned employees think that the performance evaluation takes to conflicts between the subordinate and the superiors. This is also another factor that contests rewarding according to the performance.



Tab 2. Management transfer to poor countries, Source: Jon Stuart Mill, 1989

3.1.1 The Role of the Manager and “walk to walk” theory (Hence &Blunner 2009)

The manager has a duty to ensure that his or her management of the employees is free of biases and prejudices. It's been the case across industries and verticals where the employees feel discriminated against leading to attrition, lower employee morale and in the extreme cases, lawsuits against the company. Hence, the manager has to “walk the talk” and not simply pay lip service to the company’s policies on employee performance. (De Bruijn, H. 2002) During the course of working together as a team, there are bound to be instances where friction between the manager and the team and within the team manifests itself. It is incumbent upon the manager to ensure that this does not morph into a corrosive

effect that threatens the very existence of the team.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \text{ in a1choise to an frictions}$$

$$R_{10} = (6+7+8+9)^n + (1+2+3+N)^{n+1}$$

$$M_R = \frac{n1(n1+n2+1)}{2} = \frac{4(4+5+1)}{2} = 20$$

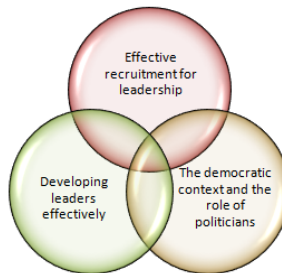
We calculate the quadratic average derivation of the Man Whitney and Roddler criteria

$$S_{R1} = \sqrt{\frac{n1n2(n1+n2+1)}{12}} = \sqrt{\frac{4.5(4+5+1)}{12}} = 4.8$$

A similar picture emerges in relation to leadership development activities. Lack of clarity about what makes leaders effective is reflected in lack of clarity about what makes leadership development programmes effective. The two key challenges facing the public sector in creating a strong supply of effective leaders are:

- Effective recruitment for leadership, whether recruiting people to take on major leadership roles, or at lower levels as future leaders;
- Developing leaders effectively, to bring out the potential of those who will take key leadership roles in future.

Tab 3: The indicators of developing leaders effectively.



Source: PSEF and HR Strategic research 2012

Tackling these two challenges is the subject of this paper research. The hypothesis of this paper should expand and strengthen the Public Service Employer’s Forum (PSEF) as an HR strategic forum to take forward recommendations of this report and to improve recruitment, retention and strengthening leadership in the public sector development for leaders across the public service over 2001-2003. Further work is required on the funding of this work programme. Relationships between politicians and officials can promote leadership. The democratic context and the role of politicians is one of the distinguishing characteristics of the public sector. Politicians do not just set the current framework of control within which public services are delivered.

3.2 Sample and Data Collection

They are also leaders in their own right. Government ministers are accountable for public service delivery to parliament and to the wider electorate. Local political leaders are accountable to their local electorates. Both local and national leaders have a mandate to deliver the policies in their manifestos. (Robbins, S.P. 1998)

The relationship between political and executive leadership is critical to the quality of public service delivery, and there are concerns at all levels about the quality of these relationships. Many leaders at the project workshops saw their relationship with politicians as one-way: one described it as a “master–servant” relationship. Greater clarity in the respective roles of politicians and managers was recognised as one of the keys to better service delivery in the recent Public Service Productivity Panel report, Meeting the Challenge.

3.2.1 Methodology and Analyze of Models of Leadership

Methodology and Analyze of Models of Leadership cross the range of factors that motivate people, it is increasingly clear that the public sector needs to rethink the offer it makes to its employees. Implicitly, the “old deal” for public service employment:

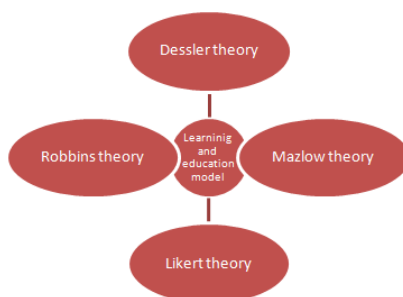
- Relied on people wanting to work in jobs and for organisations concerned with serving the public good;
- Required and valued significant amounts of professional skill, particularly in human services (medicine, social work, etc);
- Set public service pay at adequate but never trend-setting levels; gave high protection through unionisation; (Dessler, G. 2000) Offered generally good pensions, benefits and job security, but limited prospects for promotion, which was generally slow; and provided limited flexibility in compensation and no direct link between pay and performance.

3.3 The Role of the Employee

The above section looked at the role of the manager. The manager has a duty to manage the team effectively and so does the employee have corresponding responsibilities as well. Absenteeism, Shirking Work, A negative attitude and a blasé approach to work are some things that the employee must avoid. It is helpful to the employee to know that once he or she is categorized as having an attitude problem, then it would be difficult for the employee to break the perception and perform effectively. (De Bruijn, H. 2002) This does not mean that the employee has to take whatever comes his or her way. The point here is that the employee must use the channels available for redressal instead of sulking at work if he or she has grievances about the manager. (Robbins, S.P. 1998)

3.4 Organizational Focus and other countries experiences.

Though the role of the HR manager and the organization seems to be relatively small, it is a fact that organizational goals and culture play a very important part in ensuring that employee performance is managed to the benefit of the organization. Most of us have read about or heard the benefits of working for MNC’s (Multinational Companies) in India. The reason why they are highly talked about is the perception among potential and aspiring employees that these companies treat their people well. (Dessler, G. 2000) Though the point here is not to belittle Indian companies, the objective of this section is to highlight the ways in which organizations can shape the treatment of people in theory and practice. For anyone who is part of school education is clear that the task of teachers is a complex task, which has to do with her professional partnership as teachers, educators, civic and parent. (Robbins, S.P. 1998)



Graph 4: The process of daily educational- teaching to varied forms of pedagogy

The main possession is occupied by learning and education. In the process of daily educational- teaching the significance goes to varied forms of pedagogy, which are reflected in the ways of communication with (students). Dominance in the class of one emotional tone and respect over students personality in different classes, the close attitudes, kind and warm up to the level of parental attitudes, manifest of beliefs and respect toward their abilities to achieve better results ,can be expressed very well with the words "Understanding and tolerance." M Bardhyl (Tirane

2003 219-220). In teacher's daily work and should prevail as possible a diverse culture with someone who is an integral part of pedagogical culture. Methodical culture is art, skilful communication that is conditioned by individuality of every teacher, ability to give student lessons, to revive interest in them for scientific knowledge, and ability to tolerate and understood and that their teenage acts. (Dessler, G. 2000)

This culture requires teacher's class organization in a creative and attractive way. During the process of learning in school, the process is not easy and simple, but the elimination of difficulties, the achievement of the goals expressed in possession of knowledge brings a positive emotional state. We have devoted a separate section on gender sensitization because when compared to other issues in managing diversity, this is the most pressing issue because of the preponderance of women in the workforce as well as recent trends that point to the emergence of this single issue as the dominant issue that is taking the mind space of managers. (Robbins, S.P. 1998)

The worrying aspect about this issue is that despite policies and rules governing gender specific issues in most organizations, there is little evidence to show that they are being followed. Hence, what is needed is a mindset change rather than more policies and this can only be done if the workforce is sensitized to the needs of women. (Dessler, G. 2000)

4. Conclusions and recommendations

The results from this article show that the performance evaluation is a very important element in the Public Administration, and it effects the improvement of the work in the state and central bodies.

- The performance evaluation conditions the emplacement and the implementation of the standards as referential points. Emplacing standards would increase the responsibility for each post in the Public Administration and will help in monitoring the performance of the institution.

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Catch Them Young in Basic Science and Technology Education through Child-to-Child Approach

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Abstract

If science and technology hold the key to sustainable development in the world and in Africa, this revelation should constitute a beacon to Nigeria as a nation. The corollary is that prominence must be given to science education in Nigerian schools at the early stage. Many researchers in science education have investigated challenges facing advancement in science and technology education in Nigeria and poor enrolment but found out that one of the major reasons is, that the interest of the learners are not sustained at the early stage. Teaching science at basic level could be a challenge. Science and technology teachers teaching young children need to develop a teaching strategy that will facilitate powerful learning experiences which will inspire deeper investigations that will validate and empower children to learn. This paper focuses on Hands-on science activities through child to child approach as essential components of an early childhood setting in basic science and technology education which may help in laying an early foundation for life-long learning and acquisition of science process skills.

Keywords: Catch them young, Basic science and technology, Child-to-Child approach, Action learning strategy, Conventional method, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Teachers are the most influential agent in the teaching and learning process in the classroom; both teaching and learning depend on the teacher. Any inadequacies in the teacher classroom practices are likely to influence the achievement and attitude of the learner since students are produced after them (Olakulehin, 2007). Often times underachievement recorded in students' performance are always linked to inability on the part of the students to comprehend what has been taught neglecting the fact that the totality of what takes place around the learner amount to what influences the learners' performances most especially the teacher and his classroom practices. This is evident in students' achievement in sciences subjects in Nigeria and most developing nations.

Science and technology have been identified as instruments for solving socio-economic problems and myriads of problems affecting developing nations of the world. Science and its application (technology) have brought great gains to most developed countries which have been nurtured to an enviable position. For any nation to develop, the corollary is that prominence must be given to science and technology education in schools at the early stage which laid the basic foundation for its growth. Momoh (2001) stated that primary education is the foundation of formal education on which the subsequent levels of the nation's education system rest. In the same vein, Maduabum (1991) affirmed that primary education is the bedrock of our educational continuum and it requires a solid foundation in science. The crisis of underachievement and enrolment in science courses could be linked to lack of solid foundation in sciences at the basic levels (Yoloye, 1994).

In response to this, various attempts have been made to improve the delivery and relevance of science, technology and mathematics education in Nigeria. To pursue this, the Nigerian government formulated its policy on science and technology called the Nigerian National Policy on Science and Technology which was prepared for a frame work of twenty-five years and to be reviewed in every five years. More so, basic science and technology subject has been made compulsory subject to be taught at all basic levels. With these efforts, less than 40 per cent achievements have been realised (Ajiboye and Afolabi, 2012). This is an indication that there is need for effective instruction where knowledge will be created through transformation of experience to improve learning (Kolb, 1984). A major problem identified is the teacher and his/her methods of instruction. It has been reported that the methods of instruction in the classroom cannot effectively teach the contents of the curriculum therefore, no significant improvement recorded over the years. This study intends to make use of instructional approaches to teach the concept of energy in the curriculum

probably there might be a notable improvement in achievement and attitude.

Child-to-child approach refers to a style of child empowerment where children are active participants in their own development and the development of other children (Pridmore & Stephens, 2000). This approach is based on the belief that children from whatever circumstances are capable of helping themselves. This is on the premise that children will gain more from their development if they are active participants in the development process rather than passive recipients. According to Mwebi (2012) child-to-child approach is built on ideas inherent in Freiran empowerment theory (Freire, 1970), that advocated for a problem-posing education. Child-to-child approach has been used in Uganda and Nepal successfully to improve the environmental health of schools and enhanced leadership roles regarding children's right (Pridmore & Stephens, 2000), in Botswana the child-to-child approach has helped school children prepare pre-school children for entry into primary schooling (Pridmore & Stephens, 2000). It is believed that if this approach is used effectively it might improve the attitude and achievement of basic level pupils in the concept of energy.

Action-learning strategy is an instructional strategy that has been recognized as an important strategy that enhances science learning in students (Sawchuk, 2003). Action learning is an educational process whereby the participants study their own actions and experience in order to improve performance (Marquardt, 2004; Chambers and Hale, 2007; Kramer, 2007). This is done in conjunction with others, in small groups called action learning sets. It is proposed as particularly suitable for all learners, as it enables each person to reflect on and review the action they have taken and the learning points arrived at, so as to guide future action and improve performance. The strategy stands in contrast with the traditional teaching methods that focus on the presentation of knowledge and skills. Action learning focuses on research into action taken, and the knowledge that emerges as a result, would lead to the improvement of skills and achievement. This is in agreement with constructivist theory that viewed knowledge as being constructed by individuals through their own experience within the world. This approach to learning emphasizes the use of authentic, challenging problems where learners make meaning through active participation (Jonassen, 1991). The author further stated that thinking is grounded in perception of physical and social experiences and that learning is a function of how the individual creates meaning from his or her experiences. In a constructivist learning environment, the role of the teacher, learner, content/ context and assessment vary significantly from the traditional class setting.

Young children, particularly those between three to eight years of age, learn best through doing (Edwards, Gandwin & Forman, 1998). Abstract thoughts and concepts are difficult for them to grasp because they primarily learn about the world around them by experiencing it through their senses. For this reason, it is important to focus science lessons around things that they can see, hear, touch, taste, and smell so that they are continually immersed in science as they discover all sorts of new and different things about the world around them, how things work, and about themselves and others (Edwrds, Gandwin & Forman, 1998).

Literatures have revealed that students' attitudes toward science and technology and its choice are affected by teaching methods, perceived difficulty and gender (Simon, 2000). Ebenezer and Zoller (1993) reported that the most important variable affecting students' attitude towards school science was the kind of science instruction they experienced. This is supported by the findings of Alao (1990), Sunberg and Dini (1994); Ogunleye (1999) and Akinbobola (2008). Akinbobola (2008) showed that 64% of the total variance in the attitude of students towards the concept of heat energy in Physics is attributable to the influence of instructional materials used in teaching the students. Also, Akinbobola (2009) stated that 61% of the variance in the attitude of students in Physics is attributable to the influence of the instructional strategies. These studies seem to indicate that learners' interest/ attitude could be influenced negatively or positively by the teachers' choice of instructional approaches.

Gender has also been one of the prominent factors that influence achievement of students in science (Furner and Duffy, 2002). There have been conflicting findings by researchers (Baird, 1997; Colley, 1997; Iroegbu, 1998, Quiaiser-Pouland and Lehman, 2002; Donnellan, 2003; Hazari and Potvin, 2005; Laura, 2006) on the influence of gender on students' achievement in science subjects particularly in Physics. Iroegbu (2008) discovered that gender effect is significant on achievement in physics. He went further that male students performed significantly better than female students on achievement in physics. Quiaiser-Poul and Lehman (2002) opined similarly that male students performed significantly better than their female counterparts in science. Erinosh (2005) stated that science is a male enterprise.

In contrast, Colley (1997) found that females achieve higher gains in science process in physics in the middle school than their fellow male students. Also, Birch and Sheila (1994) concluded that women have become more prominent in chemistry, biology and physics. Similarly, an anonymous 1996 report for American Physics Society (APS) member stated that women have made modest gains in science. They also discovered that girls performed brilliantly in science classrooms than males students in most of the schools visited. Keeves (1991) and Stephens (1991) also documented that disparity existed between male and female student's performance in science subjects. David and

Stanley (2000), Arigbabu and Mji (2004) in their findings stated that there are no longer distinguishing differences in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills achievements of students in respect of gender.

However, with the conflicting findings on gender related research, it appears that the influence of gender on achievement of students has not been established. Since it has been found that gender factor has positive, negative or no contribution to academic achievement, it is therefore necessary in this study to find out if gender has any effect in this experiment.

2. Statement of the Problem

There are many factors that influence enrolment and achievement of students in science and technology subjects. Some of the factors are associated with the nature of the subject matter, students' attitude to the subject and individual characteristics among others. Recently, it has been discovered that instructional methods failure and its ineffectiveness, inability to sustain learner's interest at the early age had been the major causes of the poor achievement recorded in recent times. Teaching science at the early age could pose a challenge, therefore, science and technology teachers teaching young children need to develop a teaching strategy that will facilitate powerful learning experiences which will inspire deeper investigations that will validate and empower children to learn. This study therefore, seeks to investigate the effect of using child-to-child approach, action learning and conventional method in teaching basic science and technology curriculum using the concept of energy on students' learning outcomes. It will also determine the effects of gender on cognitive achievement in basic science and technology curriculum using instructional approaches approach.

3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the effect of instructional approaches on pupils' cognitive achievement and attitude in concept of energy. Specifically, the study is designed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To compare the achievement of pupils taught with child-to-child approach, action learning strategy and those taught with conventional strategy
2. To ascertain the effects of instructional strategies on pupils' attitude in the concept of energy.
3. To investigate the influence of gender on pupils achievement in concept of energy when taught using different instructional approaches.

4. Research Hypotheses

Based on the purpose of this study, three hypotheses were formulated and tested at the 0.05 level significance.

H₀1: Instructional approaches do not significantly influence pupils' achievement in concept of energy.

H₀2: Instructional approaches do not significantly influence pupils' attitude in concept of energy.

H₀3: Gender has no significant influence on pupils' achievement in concept of energy when taught using different instructional approaches

5. Research Method

The study adopted the pretest-posttest, control group, quasi-experimental design. The participant of the study comprised of all basic level II(primary) pupils in Ifelodun local government area of Kwara State, Nigeria. Random sampling technique was used to select twelve schools that were used for the study.

Twelve schools were randomly selected from the target population. Eight schools were assigned to experimental and four schools to control groups by balloting out of the twelve selected schools respectively.

The instrument used for the collection of data was Basic Science Achievement Test (BSAT) which comprised of 50 multiple-choice item test questions drawn from the approved curriculum. Each item had five options (A – E) with only one correct answer and four distractors. The instrument (BSAT) was validated by two seasoned science educator. 89 questions were initially drawn from the curriculum which was later reduced to 50 items after validation. To further strengthen the suitability of the instrument, the BSAT was administered to a group of 20 pupils who did not participate in the main study, but who were found equivalent in all respect to the pupils used for the main study. The data obtained was analysed using Kuder Richardson formula 21 and a coefficient of internal consistency of 0.78 was obtained. The average difficulty and discrimination indices of BSAT items were 0.57 and 0.54 respectively. Based on this, the instrument was

found suitable for the study.

In order to ensure teachers quality variables, the research assistants (science teachers used in the selected schools) were trained for two weeks on how to use child-to-child approach, action learning strategy and expository learning strategy (traditional strategy and control) to teach the concept of energy for the study. The research assistants were given detailed instructions with well-organized lesson plans on the concept to be treated in the curriculum. After the training of the research assistants, the BSAT was administered to the three groups as pretest. After the administration of the pretest treatments were given to the experimental group. In all 194 basic two pupils participated in the study.

The three groups were taught the concept of energy in the curriculum using the same content outline for 8 weeks. The posttest was administered to the two groups after the treatment. The researchers scored the instrument immediately after its administration. Each correct answer was scored 2 marks. The maximum mark for all the fifty item questions was 100 marks. The data collected were analysed using Analysis of Covariance. All hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

6. Results

Hypothesis One: Instructional approaches do not significantly influence pupils' achievement in concept of energy. The analysis is as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of ANCOVA of Posttest Achievement Scores of Pupils using the concept of energy

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Covariates	3991.78	1	3991.78	29.86	.00*	Sig.
Main effects	85008.05	2	42504.03	318.00	.00*	Sig.
Treatment	85008.05	2	42504.03	318.00	.00*	Sig.
Explained	88999.834	3	29666.61	221.917	.000*	
Residual	25399.836	190	133.68			
Total	114399.67	193	592.74			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

The result in Table 1 shows that there was significant main effect of treatment on students' achievement in the concept of energy ($F(3,190) = 221.917, P < .05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that instructional approaches do not significantly influence pupils' achievement in concept of energy is rejected. This implies that the posttest scores of pupils' taught differ significantly across the two experimental groups and control. Therefore, hypothesis 1a is rejected. Consequent upon the observed difference in the effect of teaching strategies, Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) was considered to determine the index of relationship and also to determine the variance of the dependent variable (achievement) in basic science technology curriculum and that is attributable to the influence of the independent variable (teaching strategies) as shown in Table 2.

The Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) in Table 2 shows the magnitude of the post-test, mean achievement scores of subjects exposed to the different treatment conditions.

Grand Mean = 53.96

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted variation	Eta	Adjusted for independent + covariates deviation	Beta
Treatment groups					
Child-to-child approach	59	25.63		25.72	
Action Learning	74	2.20		2.13	
Control	61	-27.47		-27.46	
			.86		.86
Multiple R-squared					.778
Multiple R					.882

In the table 2, the mean scores of the different treatment groups are: child-to-child approach (79.68), action learning strategy (56.09) and control (26.49) respectively. Hence, it was observed that child-to-child approach had the highest mean score, followed by action learning and lastly control. This shows that the child-to-child group had the highest adjusted mean score ($53.96 + 25.72$) or $\bar{x} = 79.68$, followed by the action Learning group ($53.96 + 2.13$) or $\bar{x} = 56.09$ and the

Control group (53.96 +-27.46) or \bar{x} = 26.50. The teaching strategies have an index of relationship of 0.78 (0.88²), hence the observed relationship in favour of teaching methods, shows that the teaching strategies have a significant relationship of 0.78 (Beta value of 0.86²) with achievement of pupils in the concept of energy. Table 2 also shows a Correlation Coefficient (R) of 0.88 with square coefficient of determination (R²) of 0.78. This implies that 88% of the total variance in the achievement of pupils in concept of energy is attributable to the influence of teaching methods. This implies that the treatment given has significant effect, hence H₀₁ is rejected.

Hypothesis Two: Instructional approaches do not significantly influence pupils' attitude in concept of energy. The analysis is as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Summary of ANCOVA of Posttest Attitude Scores of Pupils using the concept of energy

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Covariates	4180.14	1	4180.14	32.45	.00*	Sig.
Main effects	21876.94	2	10938.47	84.92	.00*	Sig.
Treatment	21876.94	2	10938.47	84.92	.00*	Sig.
Explained	26057.08	3	8685.69	67.43	.000*	
Residual	24474.41	190	128.81			
Total	50531.49	193	261.82			

* Significant at p< 0.05

Table 3 shows that there is a significant main effect of treatment on students' attitude in the concept of energy (F_(3,190) = 67.43; p< 0.05). The result implies that the posttest attitude scores of the students exposed to the different conditions were significantly different. Thus, the null hypothesis (H₀₂) was rejected.

To find the magnitude of the posttest mean attitude scores of subjects exposed to the different treatment conditions, the Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) presented in Table 4 was computed.

Grand Mean = 73.43

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted variation	Eta	Adjusted for independent + covariates deviation	Beta
Treatment groups					
Child-to-child	59	9.72		12.07	
approach	74	5.87		6.20	
Action Learning	61	-16.53		-19.20	
Control			.70		.82
Multiple R-squared					.52
Multiple R					.72

In the table 4, the mean scores of the different treatment groups are: child –to-child approach (85.50), action learning strategy (79.63) and control (54.23) respectively. Hence, it was observed that child-to-child approach had the highest mean score, followed by action learning and lastly control. This shows that the child-to-child group had the highest adjusted mean score (73.43+12.07) or \bar{x} =85.50, followed by the action Learning group (73.43+6.20) or \bar{x} =79.63 and the Control group (54.23 +-19.20) or \bar{x} = 54.23. The teaching strategies have an index of relationship of 0.72 (0.52²), hence the observed relationship in favour of teaching methods, shows that the teaching strategies have a significant relationship of 0.72 (Beta value of 0.82²) with achievement of pupils in the concept of energy. Table 4 also shows a Correlation Coefficient (R) of 0.72 with square coefficient of determination (R²) of 0.52. This implies that 82% of the total variance in the achievement of pupils in concept of energy is attributable to the influence of teaching methods. This implies that the treatment given has significant effect, hence H₀₂ is rejected.

Hypothesis three: Gender has no significant influence on pupils' achievement in concept of energy using different approaches. The analysis is as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Summary of ANCOVA of Posttest gender Scores of Pupils using the concept of energy

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Covariates	3991.78	1	3991.78	6.10	.009	Sig.
Main effects	1433.68	1	1433.68	2.51	.115	n.s.
Gender	1433.68	1	1433.68	2.51	.115	n.s.
Explained	5425.46	2	2712.73	4.76	.010	Sig
Residual	108974.21	191	570.55			
Total	114399.670	193	592.74			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$
n.s.= not significant

The above table showed that there was no significant main effect of gender on pupils' achievement in concept of energy ($F(2, 191) = 1433.68, P > .05$). The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Table 6:

Grand Mean = 53.96

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted variation	Eta	Adjusted for independent + covariates deviation	Beta
Treatment groups					
Gender				-2.56	
1. Male	103	-2.64		2.89	
2. Female	91	2.99			
			.12		.11
Multiple R-squared					.047
Multiple R					.218

In table 6, the mean scores of the males is 51.32 while that of females is 56.95. This shows that in the females had a higher mean score than the males respondents.

7. Discussion

The data revealed that child-to-child approach is a potential tool that can be used to improve pupils' achievement in primary school (basic level) science. Child-to-child approach was found to be more effective as a teaching strategy than action learning strategy. This might be due to the fact that in child-to-child approach, children are active participants in their own development and the development of others and they are capable of helping themselves and which is more likely that children will gain more from their development if they are active participants. It also focuses on knowledge emerges which lead to the improvement of skills, achievement, self-understanding, self-development and systematic learning occurs which becomes self-sustaining in the long term. The approach was able to reduce the abstract nature of the concept by presenting it real to the pupils.

This study is in agreement with the findings of Hawes (1998), Primore and Stephens, (2000) that child-to-child approach is a viable approach that improves performance, promotes learning It is also a way to develop the capabilities of individuals, good personal behavior and critical thinking. Although, pupils achieved higher in child-to-child approach (79.68) than action learning strategy (56.09) and lastly the conventional strategy (26.49), action learning strategy can equally be used to teach difficult concepts in basic science in a situation where child-to-child approach is not realistic due to certain constraints. Action learning strategy exposes the pupils to more realities of life and tends to work as scientist and acquire knowledge by themselves in which the teacher serves as a guide and correct their misconceptions (Afolabi and Akinbobola, 2009).

From the findings, child-to-child approach can also be used effectively to improve pupils' attitude towards science. This can be attributed to the fact that pupils did all the learning exercise together throughout the treatment period and learners constructed their knowledge at their individual pace. A good number of research works have shown that the information that is self – discovered is best retained (Adesoji, 2003; Ikitde, 2008; Afolabi, 2009). This probably may be responsible for the pupils showing more positive attitude than pupils in other groups.

Data analysis showed that gender has a significant effect on pupils' achievement in basic science curriculum. Female pupils had the higher achievement mean score than their male counterparts. The significant gender related difference in achievement could be explained. Applying appropriate teaching approaches helped female students learn

and remember facts, apply skill, comprehend concepts, analyses and synthesis principles which are cognitive objective for basic science and technology education. Also, the enthusiasm exhibited by female students who showed zeal when they were taught using child-to-child approach may have led to higher performance at given tasks. This might be due to the fact that female pupils interact better with group member freely and have led to increasing the depth of understanding, enhancing motivation, developing positive attitude toward later use of material presented in the course, develop problem solving skills and generating greater involvement of female pupils than the male with the concept.

The result is contrary with the findings of Akinbobola (2006), Akinbobola (2008) and Afolabi and Akinbobola (2009) that showed no significant difference in the mean performance between boys and girls in the manipulation of the same instructional materials as well as in their rate of contribution and class participation. He noted that every child, both male and female must be given the opportunity to display his/her ability as fully as possible, be they quick or slow, deep or superficial in thinking, once they are taught with the same teaching approach. This is because the good performance of a pupil depends on his interest as well as the techniques used by the teacher and the types of instructional materials involved. The result is consistent with the findings of Dagoli (2000), Ukwungwu and Ezeike (2000) that gender difference really exist in science classroom and that females displayed higher mean scores than their male counterparts when appropriate instructional strategy is used. Jones (1990) concluded that ability correlated significantly with science achievement while gender was not identified as predictor of science improvement.

8. Conclusion

From the findings, that has clearly shown that child-to-child approach is a good instructional strategy for enhancing the cognitive achievement in science education. It is also a good strategy at enhancing achievement of young people. There is a significant achievement in the performance of female than male taught with the approach. Entertainment education does not only entertain but pass educative messages across to the participants.

Child-to-child approach and action learning strategy is a form of instruction that intensely learners centred, providing personalized learning opportunity oriented to meaningful issues in teaching and learning of science.

9. Recommendations

In view of the implications of the findings from this study, the following recommendations are made:

Child-to-child approach should be incorporated in the curriculum as one of the instructional strategies for teaching science education and other subjects at all level of education.

Government should made science more relevant to peoples' lives by providing basic amenities for them and infrastructures.

Science should be made compulsory and taught at all levels of education.

Strategies which will allow participants interaction should be encouraged in schools this will reduce the passive nature of expository strategy which is often used in places of learning.

With the availability of technological software and packages, this will enable learners to have a good learning materials, effective networks and proper support to work at home and according to their pace.

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Students' Role in Making Feedback Motivating

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Abstract

This study discusses students' role in making feedback motivating, areas of concern embody students' expectations of themselves, their perceptions of their own skills, effort expenditure, their responsibilities within the learning process and the roles they play within the feedback-giving episodes. It includes participation in peer feedback-giving practice; increase the habit of self-evaluation, learning collaboratively with their peers, communication with parents and making open dialogue with teachers. As active learners, students ought to take responsibility for and manage their own learning. Findings in this study implied that self and peer-assessment are effective tools in motivating students to learn. The advantages are three-fold. First, self and peer-assessment acquaint students with the success criteria in order that they understand better how they fill the gap between their current performance and the expected outcome. Second, they facilitate students taking over a pro-active role in the learning, teaching and assessment process. It helps the transition towards a more student-centered approach of teaching and learning. Self and peer-assessment therefore help students develop a stronger sense of themselves as learners. Third, peers as important others can bring very positive impact on students' motivation to learn.

Keywords: feedback, motivation, role, student

1. Introduction

The improvement of student motivation is a problem of major concern to teachers and education researchers. This study arises from my own experience in operating with students of various backgrounds, which indicated that they faced issues of low level of motivation in feedback-giving episodes and as a result, they are passive. The research questions of this study are:

- What are the students' expectations of themselves, their perceptions of their own skills, effort expenditure, and their responsibilities within the learning process?
- What are the roles they play within the feedback-giving episodes?
- How should students take responsibility and manage their own learning in order to foster their level of motivation?

2. Literature review

Students have to change from behaving as passive recipients of the knowledge offered by the teacher to becoming active learners who can take responsibility for and manage their own learning' (Black, 2004, p.17). Examples are their involvement in self and peer-assessment wherever they will evaluate their own and their peers' performance and identify the strengths and weaknesses consequently. Students ought to take a proactive instead of a reactive role in generating and using feedback. In doing so, student centered learning will be promoted and there is an active engagement in learning and learner responsibility for the management of learning.

In preparing students to become capable in regulating and monitoring their own work, Black (2004) suggests, 'students can achieve a learning goal only if they understand that goal and can assess what they need to do to reach it, so self-assessment is essential to learning' (p.12).

The capability to evaluate one's own work does not merely begin with the practice of self-assessment itself because there are numerous strategies to equip students for the evaluation. As Brindley (1989) argues, self-assessment is a skill, which needs to be learned. This process involves both '*technical training*' (equipping learners with the skills to be able to judge their own performance) and '*psychological training*' (preparing learners to take on more responsibility for

their own learning) (p.78).

Many teachers who have tried to develop their students' self-assessment skills have discovered that the primary and most tough task is to get students to think about their work in terms of a set of goals: 'Insofar as they do so, they begin to develop an overview of that work that allows them to manage and control it for themselves. In other words, students are developing the capacity to work at a metacognitive level' (Black, 2004, p.12). More importantly, motivation can be enhanced: 'self-evaluation is a major mechanism for building intrinsic motivation. If learners exercise control over when to move on to the next challenge, it helps to build confidence and avert failure' (Jalongo, 2007, p.405).

Students can notice the different levels of competence and be aware of what they are expected. In addition, due to abstract criteria, concrete examples can be samples to develop understanding. Since objectivity is one of the keys to evaluate one's work fairly, students ought to be instructed the habits and skills of collaboration in peer-assessment because this could train objectivity, and therefore in turn facilitate effective self-assessment. However, in addition to stimulate the learners' own initiative and capability, teacher feedback also has a crucial role in assisting students' self-regulation. Feedback should serve the aim of feeding forward and the students themselves can always take the next step, with the help of teachers. Learners therefore need some guidance in self-regulating, through feedback, which gives directions to them about what, and how to improve.

Students play also the role of audience to their peers' oral performance, they can offer peer feedback to the students and they should have a better understanding. Despite the limited teacher capacity due to the large class sizes, measures such as self and peer-assessment are indeed effective means to help students take responsibility for and manage their own learning (Black, 2004).

Leachy (2005) has explained how peer-assessment can benefit both the student assessor and the recipient in terms of making future improvement. It is asserted that 'students who get feedback are not the only beneficiaries. Students who give feedback also benefit, sometimes more than the recipients do. As they assess the work of a peer, they are forced to engage in understanding the rubric, but in the context of someone else's work, which is less emotionally charged.' (p.22).

This reinforces the findings of the literature that peer-assessment is a motivating tool in feedback giving practice. In this case, students can be more objective as it is not their own work and the peers will find it easier to communicate with fellow peers than teachers will. Not only future improvement can be made but also skills in self-regulating one's own work can be built.

Pintrich (2003) cited some research findings and stresses, 'the importance of peer groups and interactions, with other students as important contexts for the shaping and development of motivation' (p.675). Teachers ought to facilitate learners developing their capacity to be responsible for their own learning, and to care about the learning of their peers. With strong collaboration, teamwork and active learning, a learning community with mutual trust can be formed. With peer-assessment, feedback giving is not limited to teachers' as the sole source. Learners can be directly involved in assessing others' work. With a set of clear criteria and enhanced audience awareness, there can be quality feedback given by peers to each other. This reflects peer-assessment as a tool to encourage students to participate actively in the learning process.

As the literature reviews show, these studies have demonstrated that feedback and motivation are very important topics in education research worldwide

3. Methodological approach

The first part of this study laid the theoretical framework for understanding the importance of students' role in making feedback motivating.

The second part describes and justifies the methodological approach used in this study in order to establish:

- What are the students' expectations of themselves, their perceptions of their own skills, effort expenditure, and their responsibilities within the learning process?
- What are the roles they play within the feedback-giving episodes?
- How should students take responsibility for and manage their own learning in order to boost their level of motivation?

This study adopted a case study approach as the research methodology. A naturalistic case study was undertaken to gather data to answer the research questions. Data sources included teacher interviews, student interviews, students' drawing, questionnaires, teachers' reflections, record of students' performance, as well as record of teachers' feedback-giving episodes.

3.1 Setting and participants

This study was undertaken in two high public schools of Durres, Albania. There were 100 students and 10 English teachers as part of this study. The schools use Albanian as the medium of instruction and English as a second language.

3.2 Instruments for data collection

Instruments for data collection include interviews, questionnaires, observations and teachers and students reflections. Interviews were one of the major sources of data in this study. Data was extracted from the interviews conducted with students, observations and the feedback-giving episodes to explore how they perceived themselves and in particular, their roles in the learning process. It was hoped that insight could be drawn in areas such as students' expectations of themselves, their perceptions of their own ability and effort expenditure, their responsibility in the learning process and the roles they play in the feedback-giving episodes. This stage of data analysis provides useful linguistic data focusing on the genre of the feedback-giving sessions.

3.3 Data analysis

Data are first presented in relation to students' perceptions of the relationship between motivation and teacher feedback. Both qualitative and quantitative data collected from questionnaires and students' interviews are presented following this framework. To answer the research questions data was extracted from the interviews conducted with students, student's reflections to explore how they perceived their influence in the learning process. It was hoped that insight could be drawn in areas such as students' expectations of themselves, their perceptions of their own ability and effort expenditure, their responsibility in the learning process.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1 Student respondents' perceptions of the relationship between motivation and teacher feedback

The data analysis mainly focused on the interviews conducted with the students. Data are given in relation to the suggestions given by student respondents about what makes feedback motivating. These embody comments and suggestions given by students regarding the content of feedback, techniques of feedback giving and the use of language by teachers. These suggestions serve as perceptive insightful teachers when they reflect their feedback giving insightful. The trustworthiness of the approach to data analysis is discussed, including the triangulation of data, and therefore the recursive and iterative nature of data collection: firstly, the different sources of information collection helped substantially in triangulating the interpretations of findings. Having obtained the results from the questionnaire, interviews were conducted with student informants.

In addition, when they were asked to comment on their previous experience of receiving teacher feedback, they were invited to share a number of the findings drawn from the questionnaires. This helped substantially to answer the research questions because students provided insight into and explanations about a few of the findings from their perspective. Their points of view were taken as a means to triangulate the interpretation of data as well as findings from other sources.

Teachers' reflection was also an effective means to triangulate the interpretation of what they did in the feedback-giving practice. From their perspective as teachers, they explained in what areas they had done well and when improvement was required. Triangulated with the findings from student interviews and questionnaires, this information was useful in identifying the gap between teachers' perceptions of their own apply and students' expectations of their teachers' feedback-giving practice. Interviews also helped triangulate the findings drawn from other sources of data. For instance, the gap between students' expectations and teachers' views of the feedback giving apply could be bridged. When, informants were shown a feedback-giving episode, they informed the researcher whether their definitions of 'good' practices coincided with each other.

4.2 Students' perceptions of their own ability and effort

After the feedback-giving sessions, students were asked how they interpreted their own abilities in terms of their English

literacy, as well as how much effort they had invested. From the interviews, students commented that they perceived themselves as having a coffee level in English and they admitted that they were not confident in using English:

Well, we do not speak English much; and it is hard to organize and make sentences on the spot. (Student)
It is because we are...we really do not have much confidence... (Student)

Students also admitted that they had stopped studying and saw no point to continue studying after the public examination. They said that little effort was invested after the examinations:

The exam is over. How come studying! (Student)
Interviewer: Are all the things stopped as the exam is finished?
Student: Yes. I do not study English now, though I would like to take it up again.
Interviewer: Is it related to the exam? As it is over ...
Student: Yes, I work hard for the exam.
Student: Yes, as the exam is over, it is over.

Nevertheless, some students prioritized learning in general before preparing for the examinations. A student in an interview said that:

However, having learnt something is good because for an oral exam, you only remember things before the exam and will forget them all after the exam. Therefore, having learnt something is better. (Student)

Such priority demonstrated a strong correlation between students' goal orientation and effort expenditure. In other words, it is closely related to students' orientation of a task or performance goals, or whether they had a tendency to have a work avoidant goal, which implies that they wanted to get a task completed with the minimum amount of effort.

4.3 Student responsibility in the learning process

In the interviews conducted with students, the researcher also elicited information from students about how they perceived themselves in terms of the responsibility they had in the learning process. When asked about whose responsibility it was to take up learning, students said that the responsibility of learning did not lie with the teachers, but themselves. They commented that:

Actually, it is students' responsibility.... You need to do it yourself. Just that I do not know what happen to students nowadays. Partly because we are lazy... (Student)
Interviewer: Do you feel that she also has the responsibility? Do you think the teacher has to follow up with you the next day, asking you or...?
Student: No. I feel that her responsibility is done as she has told me.
Interviewer: You think that the responsibility lies with you yourself.
Student: On me.

Students in the two groups gave similar responses to the above questions. Students were consistent with the belief that they themselves should bear responsibility for learning, not the teachers. However, students were found to have taken rather few turns and short responses in the feedback-giving sessions.

4.4 The roles students played in feedback

As discussed in the literature review and asked in one of the research questions, students should have a role to play to make the feedback motivating. Therefore, it is crucial to consider what roles students perceived themselves had been playing in the feedback-giving sessions.

What possible roles students can take to make teacher feedback more motivating? The findings support the proposal given by Black (2004) that to ensure that the next step can be taken in order to enhance student learning, there needs to be a readiness to change the roles that both teachers and students play in supporting the learning process. Below are some of the extracts from the student interviews:

Interviewer: ... What role do you perceive yourself playing? For example, active, passive or you have the same status as friends, teacher-student... what role do you think you played?

Student: Passive
Student: passive
Interviewer: What else?
Student: Listener.
Interviewer: ... listener?.

Students in this interview commented that they saw themselves as passive, playing the role as a listener. Another group of students shared a similar view: Actually, it is feedback from the teacher.

We do not need to talk so much. During the discussion, we have spoken already. (Student)

This extract reveals that students had this perception of not needing to speak in the feedback-giving session. This affects their engagement and participation.

4.4.1 Roles played in the feedback-giving sessions

In the interviews conducted, student respondents commented that they saw themselves as passive participants, listeners and even outsiders in the feedback-giving sessions it was found that students took a rather passive role. This is consistent with the findings gathered in student interviews when students described the roles they took. In addition, some student respondents had the perceptions, or a misconception, that they had already played their part (by speaking) in the oral practice, so that there was no need for them to continue speaking in the feedback-giving sessions.

The fact that the students did not speak much in the feedback-giving sessions (as shown by the relatively smaller number of turns they had taken) explains why they commented that they thought the locus of control lay largely with their teachers, not with them.

There are several reasons to explain this phenomenon. First, the schools in this study use Albanian as medium of instruction, the students might not have felt competent using English in the feedback-giving sessions to communicate. As a result, they could not express themselves fluently and thus, only listened without responding or initiating a question. Second, as teachers of the study had commented that peer-evaluation was rarely done in class due to poor class discipline, and teacher feedback delivery in class mainly focused on disciplining students, students did not have enough opportunities to practice giving feedback to their peers. Third, as discussed above, this study revealed that teacher influence played a dominant role in motivating students to learn. Nevertheless, in this study, some students commented that they were not that close to their teacher, and the relationship with their teacher was distant. There was a low level of trust and therefore students might not have really wanted to participate in the feedback-giving process at all.

4.5 Roles played in the learning process

In this study, the feedback was examined as a means to motivate students to learn but using feedback to boost motivation should be extended to the larger learning environment.

From the data, students commented that the responsibility for learning lay with themselves (but not on the teachers). They did not blame teachers for their own failure to take follow-up actions after hearing the feedback, but bore the responsibility themselves. Despite taking up this responsibility, students commented that they lacked the ability to use English freely and they said that they invested less than enough effort in this respect. Such perceptions of low ability and little effort expenditure explain their low expectation in the public examination.

4.6 What roles students themselves play in making feedback motivating?

Implications are drawn regarding student learning and how students can play a more proactive role. It includes participation in peer feedback-giving practice, building up the habit of self-evaluation, learning collaboratively with their peers, communicating with parents and making open dialogue with teachers.

5. Conclusions

This study found, that students should play a more proactive role in the learning process by participating in peer feedback-giving practice, building up the habit of self-evaluation, learning collaboratively with their peers, communicating

with parents and making open dialogue with teachers. The student interviews revealed that teachers could also offer support to students in this respect to enhance their self-regulating skills.

When examining the role students can play to make feedback motivating, the findings strongly suggest that peer-assessment should be promoted. It is an effective motivating tool because peers are significant others to students in the learning process and students can retain a larger extent of locus of control in the conduct of peer-assessment. It can also facilitate a dialogue among learners during the feedback delivery process. This study also drew attention to the importance of the need to prepare and train students for them to carry out peer-assessment successfully.

6. Implications

This study explored the role students can play to make feedback motivating and it discovered that there is a strong correlation between self- and peer-assessment and student motivation. While self-assessment can enhance students' self-regulation skills and let students retain the locus of control, peer-assessment facilitates a peer dialogue and promote students' active role in learning (Black, 2004).

Peer-assessment is indeed an alternative to the conduct of dialogic feedback by teachers given the challenges faced by teachers. As active learners, students should take responsibility for and manage their own learning. Findings in this study implied that self- and peer-assessment are effective tools in motivating students to learn.

The benefits are three-fold. First, self- and peer-assessment familiarize students with the success criteria so that they know better how they can close the gap between their current performance and the expected outcome. Second, they facilitate students taking up a more active role in the learning, teaching and assessment process. It helps the transition towards a more student-centered approach of teaching and learning. Self- and peer-assessment thus help students develop a stronger sense of themselves as learners. Third, peers as significant others can bring very positive impact on students' motivation to learn.

Data from the interviews have shown that students see the fear of potential loss of face and peers' company a driving force. This study supports that to help students better understand the criteria used to assess their learning and align their understanding of the standards required with those of teachers and others through self- and peer-assessment.

Given the important role students themselves, play in making feedback motivating, more research needs to address how teachers can train students to conduct peer-assessment successfully, and what teachers can do to facilitate a dialogue among students when delivering and receiving feedback.

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Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Education University in a Knowledge-Based Economy

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Abstract

This article analyzes one of the basic elements in building a society based on knowledge - education. But we do the analysis only to a part of it - education, because for the knowledge society this compartment has a higher valence. Higher education is the driving force of society based on knowledge and has a big influence for Moldova in creation of a society in which the stock of knowledge must occupy an important place in the economy. This problem is strongly influenced by the migration process which, in this particular case, has a negative impact. In this research, we focus on the ability to assess the system of university education with basic statistical indicators. The system of indicators used will allow: the analysis of the human resources of the University Education system; financial resources as an investment in getting a quality education; participation and management education and the internal efficiency of the education system. Also we calculate performance indicators that will enable us to calculate the effectiveness of university education in the Republic of Moldova.

Keywords: *university education, society based on knowledge, evaluation education system, the effectiveness of university education, statistical indicators, management education.*

1. Introduction

The creation of a new society – society of knowledge is a process driven by the European Union's Lisbon strategy in 2000. As a goal it was proposed to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy, capable of sustainable growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion. This process was based on other acts including the Charter of the Bologna, adopted by the rectors of European universities in September 1998, which called for the creation of a common European space for higher education. All this generated in most of the continent an intense concern for the improvement of education and raising of its efficiency so that would become the European Union, the most competitive and dynamic society and economy-based-on-knowledge in the world. Based on century- old traditions and urged by the invocations from Bologna and Lisbon, the European universities have joined their forces, constituting themselves into a network of continental organizations aiming to develop a high quality educational system, which will contribute to the dramatic increase of specific parameters of such activity up to the requirements of the new society and of the European nations' desire and expectations.

The higher education, which includes education itself, research and innovation (the "knowledge triangle"), is a key sector in the economy and knowledge society. Thus, it must be competitive and promote the excellence.

To fulfill this aim, is not enough just to invest resources in education and training systems of the Member States. It is necessary to direct and manage them in the most efficient way. The new focus of attention at European level on issues of education and training policy gives a new context to mentioned problems, which refers to three vital elements for the development of a modernized higher education: it must be fair for everyone, financially viable and to play a more effective role.

2. Findings and discussion

2.1 University system ability

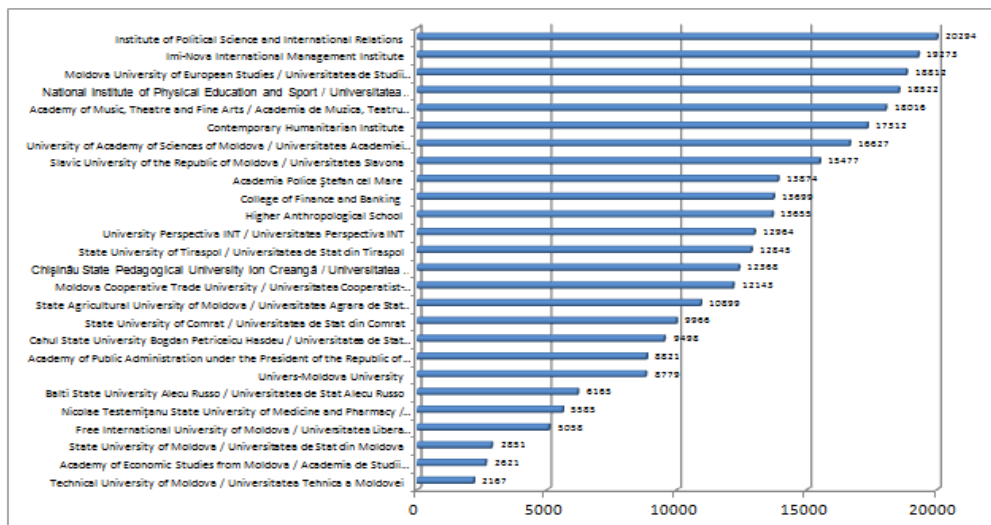
Including even educational system, any human activity is a row of resources consumption and effects production. Thus, from this point of view the assessment of human and financial resources is very important, because the efficiency of production involves the need to save the social work, as a condition of creating a competitive knowledge-based society.

According to the statements made by all developed countries at the end of XX eth centuries, the demand for higher education has increased significantly.

It has now reached one of the highest levels in the world, and as result all universities from around the world compete to attract students.

The question of Moldovan universities' ability to compete with the best universities in the world, requires from educational system some strict obligations to ensure a high level of constant excellence. But, our universities, in general, have less advantages and financial resources than their counterparts from developed countries. It is also necessary to mention that the dispersion of Moldovan universities is characterized by a remarkable heterogeneity, which is expressed by the ways of organizing, managing, and operating conditions, including the term of status, employment, conditions and selection of teachers and researchers. This dispersion is also confirmed by Webometrics World Ranking which is used for a worldwide evaluation of universities. (Figure 1.), which tents to analyze the quality of universities from our country in 2012 from the total number of higher education institutions (34) included in the top 26 universities from Moldova.

Figure 1. Clasamentul mondial Webometrics.



Source: <http://www.webometrics.info/en/Europe/Moldova>

This world ranking is a positive step towards the improvement of the quality of Moldovan higher education, because only the development of this sector can bring great profits in the future. The competition will increase due to the demand decrease for higher education caused by demographic decline in the country. The lowering of birth rate is an important factor for investments reduction in higher education. But a lot of educational investments are influenced by graduating students' wishes that rely on three main components: education in private or public institutions from the country, education in private or public institutions from abroad and obviously the priority fields of study. Besides, a great influence and popularity comes from the principles gender of study fields.

All these are just some of the issues that the national factors of political decisions have to face in their way of searching to expand and diversify the national tertiary education.

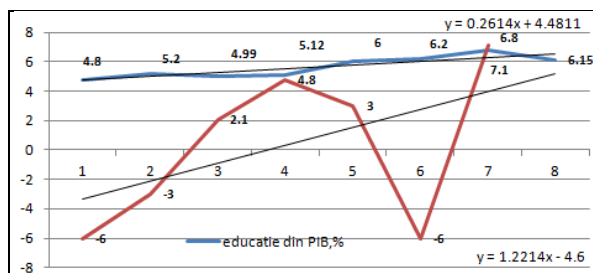
2.2 The higher education financing.

All higher education funding sources can be grouped into two major categories : public and private funding sources. According to UNESCO information “ The public and private investments in education has significantly increased in many OECD countries during 2009, even the recession has already begun. For example, between 2008 and 2009, the government spending and even the private one (of companies, students and their families) increased at all levels of education in 24 from 31 OECD countries (where statistical information were available). This was noticed even in other 26 countries where the GDP decreased. Similarly, between 2005 and 2009, the spending per pupil in elementary secondary and high schools has increased on average by 15 percent in OECD countries. In this area, the rise in some emerging economies was huge. For example, in Brazil and Russian Federation the spending per pupil and per student has increased by about 60 percent compared to the previous period, remaining, however, much smaller than those from other countries. The expenses per students in tertiary education, in their turn, have increased during the analyzed period with an average of 9 percent. On the other hand, it is less surprising that, while public expenses for education were at the level of 13 % of public spending in OECD countries in 2005 and 2009, today they fallen down in 19 of the 32 countries studied in this period of time.”¹

Despite to the fact of global crisis and the spreading of the global recession in recent years, the desire of developed countries to increase investments in education appears to be very interesting. The significant increase of investments in tertiary education is largely due to the efforts done not only at the State level, but also at the level of private investment. This can be explained only by the fact that the countries have seen the benefits that can be derived from long-term investments.

The share of the educational system ranks Moldova among countries with high spending in this sector.

Figure 2. Share of education in GDP dynamics in the Republic of Moldova, %



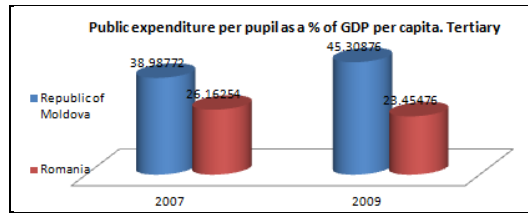
Source: elaborated by the authors according to NBS information.

The share of spending (in current prices) of GDP for education in Moldova for 2010 – 2011 is on average 5%, while the share of tertiary education over the same period is 1.4 and 1.7% respectively. Internationally the highest values for education are recorded in Iceland – 7.0%, Denmark – 6.9%, Sweden – 6%, U.S. – 5%, Russia – 4.6%, Germany – 4%, Japan – 3.3%. The top countries with the highest expenses for education that encounter between 1.0 – 1.6% are considered Denmark, Finland, Canada, Switzerland, France, USA, Russia. While, such developed countries as Germany and Japan spend only 0.9% and 0.5%.

Perhaps it is necessary to understand how these countries with such small expenses have a so great performance. In this context it should be noted that this area attracts large private investments that probably warrant the level of efficiency and performance. Thus, it is necessary to facilitate the attraction of private funds for the development of tertiary education services, by attracting major investors.

If to compare the share of public investments in higher education of two neighbouring countries as Republic of Moldova and Romania, it can be seen a significant decrease in the share of expenditure in Romania with 3 percent and their growth with 7 percent in the Republic of Moldova, fact that indicates the reduction of State expenditure in supporting the university education.

Figure 3. The comparative dynamics of the share of public expenditure on higher education as % of GDP

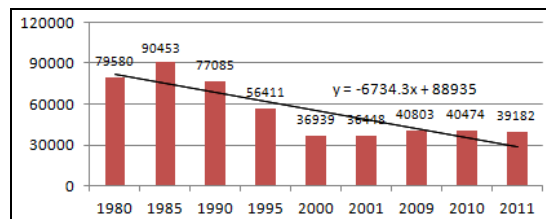


Source: elaborated by the authors according to UNECO

Being in an economic crises combined with prolonged political crises, the Republic of Moldova has big problems in the field of higher education, and the State conveys the burden on the citizens' shoulders. This is confirmed by the increased number of students, who attend classes by contract, amount that reached in the period of academic year 2012/13 - 72,3%. As result, due to the decrease of State investments for higher education, the quota of students in State institutions was reduced, fact that caused the reduction of students number in recent years.

One of the factors that causes the investments' diminution is the slump of birth rates which during the last 30 years (on average 1980-2011) diminished twice and recorded an annual fall of almost 7 thousand births.

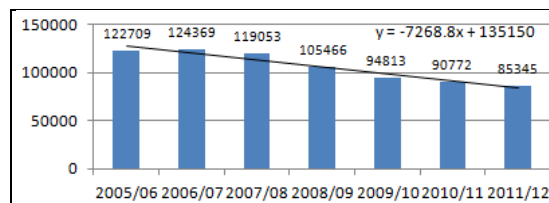
Figure 4. The dynamics of birth in the Republic of Moldova for the period of 1980 – 2011



Source: BNS <http://statbank.statistica.md/pxweb/Dialog/Saveshow.asp>

This situation strongly influences educational system in general, but in the same time it influences the higher education system in particular. Just for the last 7 years the number of students has decreased by over 40% and the linear adjustment of this process confirms an annual average decrease of over 7 thousand students annually.

Figure 4. The dynamics of Moldovan students between the period of 2005 – 2012.

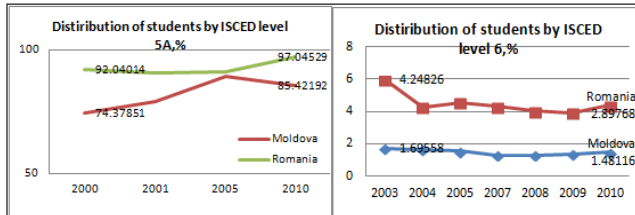


Source: elaborated by the authors according to NBS information.

The correlation between birth and quota of students is obvious.

Analyzing the distribution of students by tertiary education (according to ISCED classification: 5A, 5B, 6) we can conclude that both in Romania and the Republic of Moldova the level 5A has a growth in both countries, while the number of those who make their studies in the levels 5B AND 6 is in a constant decrease for each of the cases.

Figure 5. Comparative dynamics of the students classification by levels of tertiary education, %



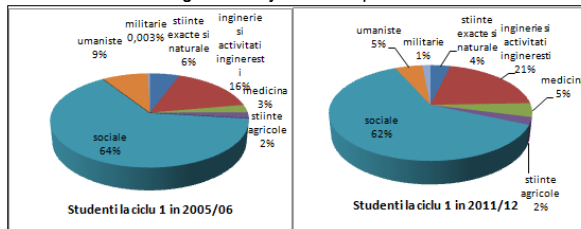
Source: elaborated by the authors according to UNESCO

Still, not only the reduction of students' number results the investments decrease in higher education. There is another consequence which is even more alarming. The significant preferences of social sciences whose numbers reached 70 % in the last years, still this recorded a decrease from 91 thousand to 57 thousand of students.

The studies done at these specialties are mostly by contract. More than 83% of students who study economy, law, social science, welfare, communication science, do their studies by contract. Another 60 % of students who study exact and natural sciences, engineering sciences, do it for a fee.

On average, the number of students who study by contract in State universities reaches nearly 70 %. Only for some specialties the State takes its responsibility in preparing the qualified labour force. These are medicine, agriculture, and military service. Only 38% of students who study agricultural sciences, and 28% who study medicine do it for a fee but the most supported by the government are those who are enrolled into military service and security (they are almost entirely supported by the public budget).

Figure 6. The students dynamics at the first stage of study in the Republic of Moldova.

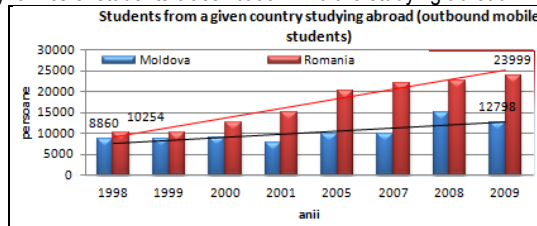


Source: elaborated by the authors according to NBS information.

Even the State's investments for education are explained, according to the increase of military and security students' number from Moldova in recent years is disturbing. The number of students at these specialties has increased during the past 5 years 3 times and reached from 470 students to 1343. In the same time, the studies in natural and exact sciences have decreased with 2%, but in absolute terms the decrease was manifested by a drop from 7105 students to 3306.

In these circumstances it should be reasonable to have an increasing number of students who tend to do their studies abroad, but at this chapter the growth is very moderate.

Figure 7. The comparative dynamics of students classification who are studying abroad.



Source: elaborated by the authors according to UNESCO information.

The following data can let us see the comparison between Romania and Republic of Moldova for the period between 1998 – 2009. In comparison with Romania, the number of students who have gone abroad to study in the last twenty years, was 66% lower than in the neighboring country. Since 1998 till 2009, the number of Romanian students who have gone to study abroad has doubled, while in Moldova this number increased much slower.

The process of studying of our citizens abroad has a larger scale than the attraction of foreign students in the universities of Moldova. The ratio is 7:1. According to NBS, “at the beginning of school year 2012/13, the number of foreign students accounted only two thousand people, that is 24.3 percent more students than in the previous year. The most of students are from Israel – 68.2%, Ukraine – 8.1%, Romania – 7.6%, Russia – 5.0%, Turkey – 3.0%.” These numbers represent an index that helps us to diagnosis the quality of our higher education.

3. Concluding remarks

In present, the Republic of Moldova faces a low level of investments in qualified human resources in qualified human resources. It cannot be identified a clearly oriented tendency regarding the public financing, but, there is an obvious shortfall in private key areas financing such as higher education and professional training.

For a good governance of university's educational system from Moldova it would be necessary to develop a strategy in which the main point would be reserved for attraction of private investments and to transparency of this process. However, according to the authors, our country should not focus itself on attracting private investments (in the form of fee payment which is made by students or their family members), but on attracting big investors. For example, the company that pays its employees contract in order to prepare highly qualified staff. In this case the investors will intend to invest only in a qualitative higher education, and from this point of view the universities will be required to improve the quality of their educational service.

Only such investors, who tend to prepare their own qualified staff and bring the profit to their own companies by implementing the received knowledge in practice, will develop to the maximum the sector of higher education.

Under the terms of an intense process of globalization and European integration combined with the background of a demographic disaster, the universities from the Republic of Moldova will undergo a process of an increased competition, which will generate the need to prepare and attract the greatest talents, to strengthen the entire system of the “knowledge triangle”.

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UNESCO Institute for Statistics: <http://data.un.org/Data.aspx?>
UNESCO Institute for Statistics: <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/TableViewer/tableView.aspx>
Indicatorii educației: <http://www.hse.ru/data/>
Strategia „Educație și Cercetare pentru Societatea Cunoașterii” : http://www.presidency.ro/static/ordine/Educatie_si_Cercetare_pentru_Societatea_Cunoasterii.pdf
Réforme des universités dans le cadre de la stratégie de Lisbonne : <http://europa.eu/>, http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training
Clasamentul mondial Webometrics: <http://www.webometrics.info/en/Europe/Moldova>

Teaching English Language In Elementary Education In The Albanian Context, Korça Region; The Syllabuses And Their Conformity To The Common European Framework Levels Of Linguistic Skills for Assessment

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Abstract

The overall aim of this study is designed to explore various possibilities how the Albanian syllabuses are in conformity to Common European reference levels of linguistic proficiency. This study relies on qualitative and quantitative data through surveys, questionnaires and data analysis, held with Albanian English teachers and learners in the Albanian context. It is outlined the scope of syllabus design and its relation to the broader field of curriculum development. The primary focus of the study is the reform of curricula in the country of Albania. It provides information about what actually goes on between teachers and learners in pedagogical and linguistic interactional terms and how the designed syllabuses can be adopted to their needs and to the learners' outcomes. This article reports on the use of a second language classroom observation instruments in the syllabuses of elementary education and in particular to the objectives of the language skills. It is an observation which has been developed for analyzing learners' common reference levels, based on the 4 skills. It provides data for learners' language competencies, as they provide objective, quantifiable data and are obtained insights on what is actually happening in English language classrooms in the Albanian context. This survey is held in different kinds of schools in the city and villages of Korça. The survey research investigates what should learners actually know and what is their actual situation, how these linguistic skills are applied during the English classes in Korça and whether the standards set by CEFR are met.

Keywords: *Common European reference levels, syllabuses, Albanian learners, linguistic skills, Albanian context, elementary and secondary schools.*

1. Teaching English language in the Albanian educational context

1.1 Educational process

In all subjects and in the foreign languages as well, the process of modernization of curricula and of the educational process in primary school started in 1993 and continued later on. Certain innovations were implemented in schools in 1997/98. These changes have been based upon a critical estimation of objectives, content and complexity of curricula concerning subjects, content correlation and functionality of optional subjects and extracurricular activities. The curriculum reform should consider the quality of learning rather than the quantity, allowing more time for student to experiment, research, reflect, and synthesize information. (World data on education 6th edition, 2006/2007)

It is of a high importance in the teaching process of the foreign language that teachers generally try to adapt all the things that actually happen in the teaching process in schools, to the aspects of the learning environment; having to do with the classroom atmosphere, organization, encouragement and support, promoting participation, presenting content information, the proposal of materials and tasks, monitoring, the offering of the objective information, that may help the learning process (Scrivener, 2007; 387). The teacher suggests what to study and how to organize the program of learning and the shape of individual lessons, raise awareness. (Harmer, 2007; 119).

Education in Korca region is implemented in public and private schools (native and foreign ones). The number of schools is 148, of which 129 are in village; 124 primary and lower secondary schools 23 secondary schools.

2. What is syllabus?

As it is assigned by CEFR, the Albanian curricula tend to be in line with the overall objective of promoting plurilinguism and linguistic diversity. This means that the teaching and learning of any language should also be examined in

conjunction with the provision for other languages in the education system and the paths which learners might choose to follow in the long term in their efforts to develop a variety of language skills (Common European Framework of references, 2001; 169).

Definition of syllabus

- I would like to draw attention to a distinction . . . between curriculum or syllabus, that is its content, structure, parts and organization, and, what in curriculum theory is often called curriculum processes, that is curriculum development, implementation, dissemination and evaluation. The former is concerned with the “what” of curriculum: what the curriculum is like or should be like; the latter is concerned with the “who” and “how” of establishing the curriculum. (Stern 1984: 10-11)
- The syllabus replaces the concept of 'method', and the syllabus is seen as an instrument by which the teacher, with the help of the syllabus designer, can achieve a degree of 'fit' between the needs and aims of the learner and the activities which will take place in the classroom. (Yalden 1984: 14)
- Any syllabus will express—however indirectly—certain assumptions about language, about the psychological process of learning, and about the pedagogic and social processes within a classroom. (Breen 1984: 49)
- According to Candlin syllabuses are localized and are based on accounts and records of what actually happens at classroom levels as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation. These accounts can be used to make subsequent modifications to the curriculum, so that the developmental process is ongoing and cyclical. (Candlin 1984; 29)
- An important step in the development of a language program is identifying learning goals. Nunan clearly presented goals, which are defined as general activities in which the learners will engage in real-world target language use (Nunan, 1996):
 - To contribute to the intellectual, personal, and vocational development of the individual.
 - To develop and maintain a sense of confidence and self-worth.
 - To acquire the competence to use English in real-life situations for the development and maintenance of interpersonal relationships and to take part in interpersonal encounters through sharing factual information.
 - To develop communicative skills in order to acquire, record, and use information from a variety of aural and written sources.
 - To develop mastery over the English language as a linguistic system and to have some knowledge of how it works at the levels of phonology, morphology, and syntax.

3. The syllabus designed for elementary educational system in Albania, Korça region, according to linguistic skills.

Education should offer to the learner the necessary resources that build the knowledge and also the opportunity to exploit its own potential, by finding there a motivation to subsequent overruns. To this extend, didactics aims to create situations that allow the learner to make learning meaningful in that way they achieve their objectives: knowing, understanding, applying, analyzing, criticizing and inventing. The role of teaching is to guide the learner to acquire that reliable information about the nature of things and invest this information in the broader dynamics of research and creation (Sabbath; 39, 1984)

Syllabuses and curricula are an essential part of education. They are established by the government and by the Institute of Curricula and Training, part of the Ministry of Education in Albania. They come in the form of a set of educational principles, guidelines for teachers to follow and implement and adapt in their practice. They are designed to help teachers build their syllabus. They incorporate the latest research in teaching foreign languages and proposals of the Common European Framework of reference.

All the syllabuses are built and based on the age groups' interests and characteristics, and it largely contributes in the independent, intellectual and socio-cultural development of the learners. They aim the linguistic, intellectual and cultural development of the learners, by developing critical thinking learners; independence, by eliciting different forms of individual and group work.

On the other side all the goals, ideas and topics presented in syllabuses, interact with and are more accommodated to each teacher's personality, experience and preconceptions, and result in a teaching style or a plan of action that the teacher seeks to implement in the classroom. (Richards & Nunan (ed.), 2002; 270)

4. The syllabuses designing principles

The syllabus is a specification of a teaching program or pedagogic agenda, which defines a particular subject for a particular group of learners. It is a formulation of pedagogic goals; it is an instrument of educational policy as well. The goals are formulated not only in reference to pedagogic effectiveness but also in accordance with ideological positions concerning the nature of education in general, what Clark refers to as "educational value systems" (Widdowson, 2008; 127)

Syllabuses inspire the teacher to introduce methodological innovations in the planning and execution of activities in the classroom, which are consistent in some way with the conception of content. The main purpose of syllabus, is to alter the perspectives of teachers, and provide them with a different set of guidelines. (Widdowson, 2008; 129).

The syllabuses, designed for the Albanian educational system, as the other syllabuses, are designed on a common national basis. This basis is filled in every teaching system, and in every school is based on and according to the social, cultural and economic characteristics of every region. The parameters of the national curricula are introduced in the intercommunity of didactics principles and the orientations that that teachers should follow for applying in their practice and adapting with the syllabus and in conformity with the selected textbooks.

These international curricular parameters integrate the research reality in the foreign languages didactics and the proposals of Common European framework for languages.

5. The structure of the syllabus. - Elementary education

Based on the law, the syllabus, of primary and secondary education, should be based on a common national basis. This basis is completed in each teaching system by a certain diversified party, according to the social, economical, cultural characteristics of each region. English curriculum for the elementary education is designed in accordance with the National Curriculum of Modern Languages for the Pre-University public Education, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages in order to respond to an open society according to the needs that lie ahead teaching and to the acquisition of the English language in Albania (IKT; 2007-2008).

The Common European Framework of References for languages (CEFR) shows major categories of language use at each of the six levels. It is intended to help learners to profile their main language skills, and decide at which level they might look at a checklist of more detailed descriptors in order to self-assess their level of proficiency.

3rd Grades of the elementary education in Albanian context, start with level A1 and it is concentrated on understanding the language mainly by listening, responding in different ways with gestures, miming, written or orally, repetition and use of structures, basic words and phrases of English.

This level continues in the 4th and 5th Grades. The knowledge acquired in the two previous years are gradually enriched by motivating students of this age group. This program prepares the learner to pass to a new and more advanced level in terms of intercultural language.

In the 6th and 7th Grade, language acquisition makes a step forward, by passing into level A2. The learner extends the knowledge about the culture of English-speaking countries, by further expanding his general knowledge.

The 8th Grade continues with level A2+ by preparing to pass to level B1 and the learners are able to talk about the world around him, by expanding his knowledge about the culture of English-speaking countries, as well as his general knowledge.

Language acquisition in the 9th grade continues with level B1. The syllabus presents linguistic knowledge, communication skills, and cultural values through which the learner reinforces and deepens the student's knowledge acquired in previous classes by increasing its expressive skills in English. It serves on the overall linguistic, socio-cultural and intellectual formation of learners (IKT, 2007-2008)

The syllabus for Grades 3-9 English language of the elementary education has as the object of study levels A1-B1 and the creation of sustainable communication skills and knowledge of students' socio cultural knowledge as initial user of the English language from the third to ninth grade elementary education, according to the Common European Framework of References.

English language syllabus in grades 3-9 enables learners of English in all four linguistic aspects (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and help students to acquire information and recognize the linguistic and cultural reality of English-speaking countries, understand the nature of a foreign language, and by relying on the knowledge of the native language to realize the relation of the foreign language with other subjects. (IKT Syllabus 2007- 2008)

English language in elementary school system (education) in Albania is held in classes 3 and 7 at 2 classes per

week and in the 8th and 9th grade at 3 classes per week. Respectively:

Class	Classes per week	Number of weeks	Total
3 rd	2	35	70
4 th	2	35	70
5 th	2	35	70
6 th	2	35	70
7 th	2	35	70
8 th	3	35	105
9 th	3	35	105

The syllabus of each grade is divided in: Communication and cultural education (32 classes), linguistic education (28) and free classes(10) ; for classes 3rd up to 7th. Communication and cultural education (57classes), linguistic education (38) and free classes (10) for 8th and 9th grade.

Total number of classes for elementary school is 560.

Common European framework of references provides guidance on the number of guided teaching hours needed to fulfill the aims of each CEF level. These teaching hours are 60 minutes:

A1 level- Approximately 90 - 100 hours

A2 level- Approximately 180 - 200 hours

B1 level- Approximately 350 - 400 hours

These guided teaching hours are the hours during which the learner is in a formal learning context such as the classroom. In total they are approximately 400 teaching hours 60 minutes, or converted in 45 minutes teaching hours are 533 hours. If we see the concordance of the syllabuses of the Institute of Curricula and Training of the Ministry of Education in Albania, it results that in the Elementary education that includes levels A1- B1, the total number of 45 minutes teaching hours is 560. If they are converted into 60 minutes teaching hours they are 420.

More or less the total number of hours is nearly the same.

Below there are presented some data analysis and are drawn some statistics on the actual situation in Albania elementary schools, taken randomly, in Korca region; 6th and 8th grades.

6. The study. Learners survey in elementary schools of Korca region; their linguistic achievements. How syllabuses meet the Albanian learners linguistic needs in English language. Observation and comparisons.

Language skills are often divided into 2 types; *Receptive skills* – a term used for reading and listening, skills where meaning is extracted from the discourse. *A productive skill* is a term for speaking and writing skills where students actually have to produce language themselves. (Harmer; 2007, 265)

It is made a comparison of syllabus of elementary education in the different schools levels of Korca city and villages; whether there is a concordance to the Common European Reference levels.

7. The aim of the survey

This survey is focused in comparing the actual objectives designed by the Institute of Curricula and Training in Albania and Common European Framework of References (CEFR) that help learners actualize linguistic elements which are in accordance with the proper levels for each grade in elementary education and what learners have actually reached in different grades. The objectives of the syllabus pay special attention to accuracy and fluency of these linguistic elements in certain situations discourse, so that students can increase the level of self awareness in the use of linguistic knowledge.(IKT; 2010)

8. Methodology

The research presented here is a part of my doctorate thesis in which multiple samples of learners of elementary and secondary education were compiled over the year 2013. This study is based on some data collection, questionnaires, and survey realized with Albanian learners of English language in Korca city and its villages. All the data analysis is presented in different graphs. Learners were required to complete a questionnaire that examines their actual achievements in linguistic skills. They demonstrate their understanding and the English language acquisition at the level

they belong to. This research derives its reliability from providing enough information to be able to make reasonable "comparisons" to situations in the Albanian contexts.

The classrooms survey data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively, by drawing assumptions, principles, and even values about truth and Albanian teaching reality.

The qualitative analysis, which involved an examination of linguistic skills, revealed that classes taken into question belonged to different levels, different schools, and they use different English textbooks, but was based in the same syllabus. The "can do" statements that learners are supposed to assess themselves are selected based on the self assessment grid of the Common European Framework of References and on the objectives designed by the syllabuses of the Institute of Curricula and training, part of the Ministry of Education.

This analysis is clear and transparent, by showing the actual and real level of the Albanian learners in English language.

The quantitative analyses was conducted with questionnaires hand out to learners for analyzing what should learners actually know and what is their actual situation, how these linguistic skills are applied during the English classes in Korça and whether the standards set by CEFR are met. The principal findings of the study are evidences of the differences in knowledge and attitude of the learners, after they have acquired the sufficient knowledge, by doing a self-assessment.

Learners' levels differ depending on schools - urban and rural areas, and on methods being used.

The survey is held for a period of 3 months in different schools of Korça region.

In this study are taken these schools groups; 6th and 8th grades:

- a. Elementary public schools- urban area
- b. Elementary public school- rural area
- c. Elementary private Albanian school- urban area
- d. Elementary private foreign (Greek) school- urban area.

Based on this are reported the overall results of the survey:

The questionnaire consists in 15 questions divided by 4 skills; because the questions are numerous it is not possible to report all of them here. Instead, the results reported here are collected and grouped according to the skills. The results are presented in percentages, explained and presented in chart bars.

The questionnaire and the survey is held with a total number of 622 learners, 300 of them belong to the 6th grades and 322 belong to 8th Grades, age groups of 12-14 Years old, with different backgrounds and belonging to different social levels.

	Nr. of learners 6 th Grades Elem. public schools- urban area	Nr. of learners 8 th Grades Elem. public schools- urban area
Elem. public school using foreign authors' textbook	45	67
Elem. public school using Albanian authors' textbook	60	50
	Nr. of learners 6 th Grades Elem. public schools –urban and rural	Nr. of learners 8 th Grades Elem. public schools –urban and rural area
Elem. public school rural area- using foreign authors	45	33
Elem. public school- urban area- using foreign authors	45	67
	Nr. of learners 6 th Grades Elem. private schools –urban area	Nr. of learners 8 th Grades Elementary private schools –urban area
Elementary Albanian private school – urban area	52	60
Elementary Foreign private school (Greek)- urban area	53	45
Total	300	322
	622	

9. Discussion of the findings

As it is presented above, there are taken into analysis the Elementary schools grouped in this way and the data will be compared based in these groupings. In each graph, in the vertical axis, are clearly presented the percentages of each level of the interviewed learners. The corresponding assessments are presented in colors and linguistic skills are presented in the horizontal axis.

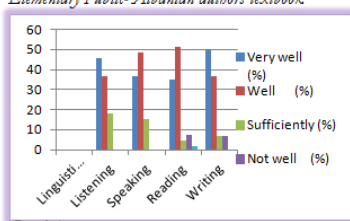
The comparison is held in this way:

9.1 6th Grades- Level A2.2

9.1.1 Elementary public schools- urban area

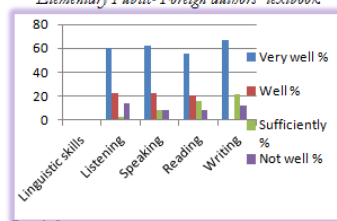
- Elementary public school "Pandeli Cale" - using Albanian authors' textbook. -"Off we go 6"- Arberia Press.
- Elementary public school "Mesonjetorja I Shqipe " - using foreign authors' textbook., "Access 2 - Express publishing Press.

Elementary Public- Albanian authors' textbook



Graph 1

Elementary Public- Foreign authors' textbook



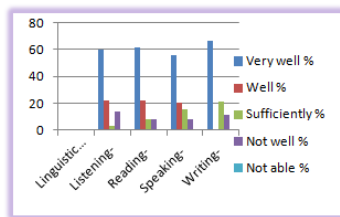
Graph 2

As it is clearly presented, from the total of 105 interviewed learners in these grades, the highest percentage in possessing very well the 4 linguistic skills is in Elementary Public-school, using foreign authors' textbook. The highest percentage of possessing well and sufficiently listening and reading linguistic skills is in Elementary Public-school, using Albanian authors' textbook, whereas Elementary Public-school, which use foreign authors' textbook has a higher percentage in possessing sufficiently speaking, reading and writing skills. It is also clearly seen that the higher percentage in possessing not well these skills is in Elementary Public-school, which use foreign authors' textbook. Maybe this latest fact show that using a foreign textbook at this level may be a little difficult to meet the learners' needs at A2.2 level.

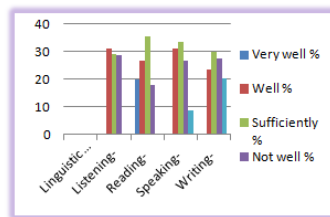
The highest percentage of possessing the English language linguistic skills are in writing skill (very well) in Elementary Public-school, using Albanian authors' textbook and in writing skill (very well) in Elementary Public-school, using Foreign authors' textbook as well. The lowest percentage is in speaking skill in both cases.

9.1.2 Elementary public schools –urban and rural area

- Elementary public school –rural area, "Barç village", "Mehemet Fejzoll"- using foreign authors' textbook. "Access 2", Express publishing Press.
- Elementary public school- urban area, "Mesonjetorja I Shqipe"-using foreign authors' textbook. "Access 2", Express publishing Press.



Graph 3



Graph 4

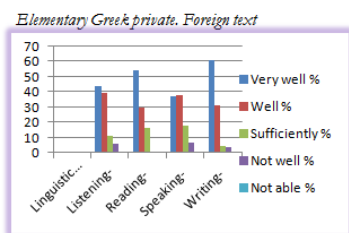
From 90 interviewed learners of these schools, belonging to 6th grades, the highest percentage in possessing very well the 4 linguistic skills, has Elementary Public-urban area school which uses a foreign text, whereas in Elementary Public-rural area school which uses foreign authors textbook, the percentage of possessing very well the 4 linguistic skills is very low compared to the previous school. From the data provided in the graphs above this percentage is higher in possessing well, sufficiently and not well these skills, so learners in this school are not able enough to possess very well English language, especially by using the foreign authors' textbook. Another fact which shows that the learners of the rural area, who use a foreign textbook, are not able in writing and speaking skills, is shown by a considerable percentage of 20% in writing skill.

Apparently learners, who belong to the rural area, have difficulties for being adapted to the foreign authors textbook.

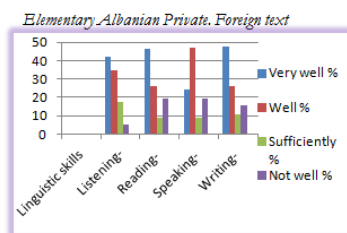
The highest percentage of possessing the English linguistic skills is very well in writing skill, and well in listening and reading skills in Elementary Public school -urban area using foreign texts. Regarding Elementary Public school -rural area using foreign authors' textbooks the highest percentage of possessing the English linguistic skills, is well in listening and speaking skill.

9.1.3 Elementary private schools –urban area

- Elementary Albanian private school – urban area- “Thimi Marko” using foreign authors’ textbook. “Access 2” textbook, Express publishing Press
- Elementary Foreign private school (Greek) - urban area-“Omiros” using foreign authors’ textbook. - “Access 2” textbook- Express publishing Press.



Graph 5



Graph 6

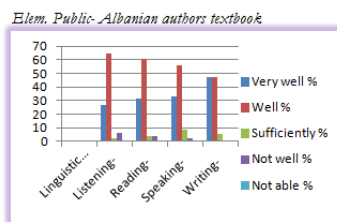
From the above data and results (graph 5 and 6) it is clearly seen that from 105 interviewed learners of these schools, the highest percentage of the Albanian learners who possess very well and well the 4 linguistic skills at this level (A2.2) is in Elementary Greek private school urban area , using foreign text. The lowest percentage in possessing the 4 skills is in Elementary Albanian Private school, urban area, using foreign text.

The skills in which the learners are more confident are writing and reading in Elementary Albanian Private school, urban area, using foreign text, very well in reading and writing and well in listening and speaking in Elementary Greek private school urban area, using foreign text.

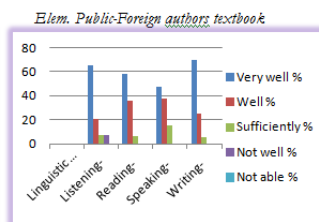
9.2 8th Grades- Level B1.1

9.2.1 Elementary public schools- urban area

- Elementary public school “Pandeli Cale”- urban area, using Albanian authors’ textbook. “Off we go 8” - Arberia Press
- Elementary public school “Mesonjetorja I Shqipe”- urban area using foreign authors’ textbook. “Access 4”- Express publishing Press.



Graph 7



Graph 8

From the results drawn from the statistics provided above (graph 7 and 8) from 117 interviewed learners, the highest percentage in possessing very well the 4 linguistic skills is in Elementary Public-school, using foreign authors’ textbook. The highest percentage of possessing well linguistic skills is in Elementary Public-school, using Albanian authors’ textbook. The highest percentage in possessing sufficiently listening, reading and speaking linguistic skills has Elementary Public-school, using foreign authors’ textbook, whereas in writing skill is Elementary Public-school, using Albanian authors’ textbook. This school that uses Albanian authors’ textbook has a higher percentage in possessing not well reading and speaking skills than the other school.

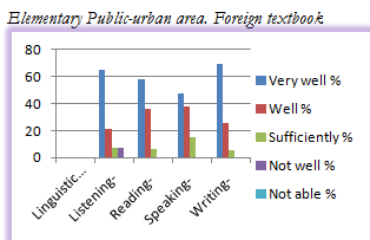
The highest percentage of possessing the English linguistic skills are very well in writing in Elementary Public-school, using Albanian authors’ textbook and well in reading. The lowest percentage in this school is in speaking and listening skill. This is shown in the fact that a small percentage of learners admit that are not well in listening and speaking.

Regarding Elementary Public-school, using foreign authors’ textbook, the highest percentage of possessing the English skills, are very well in listening and writing and well in speaking and reading.

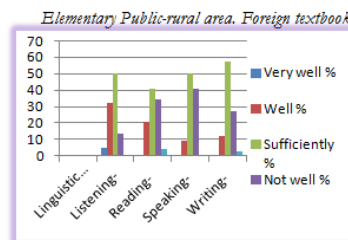
As it is obvious Albanian learners of this level feel better in writing skills, especially in Elementary Public-school, using Albanian authors’ textbook.

9.2.2 Elementary public schools –urban and rural area

- Elementary public school “Mehmet Ferrolli” Barc village, rural area- using foreign authors’ textbook. “Access 2”, Express publishing Press
- Elementary public school “Mesonjetorja I Shqipe”, urban area- using foreign authors’ textbook. “Access 2” - Express publishing Press.



Graph 9



Graph 10

From 100 interviewed learners, belonging to urban and rural schools, the highest percentage of a very good acquirement of the 4 linguistic skills is for Elementary public school- urban area- using foreign authors' textbook, compared to only 4,6% in Elementary public school –rural area- using foreign authors' textbook. The highest percentage in possessing well writing skills are the learners of Elementary public school- urban area- using foreign authors' textbook, and for reading well are the learners of Elementary public school –rural area- using foreign authors' textbook. Regarding writing skill the learners of Elementary public school –rural area- using foreign authors' textbook have a lot more difficulties compared to Elementary public school- urban area- using foreign authors' textbook. They take a high percentage in possessing sufficiently and not well speaking skills.

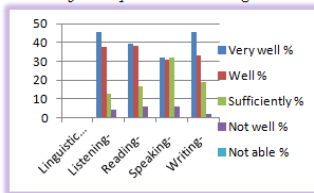
The highest percentage of possessing the English linguistic skills are very well in writing and in speaking in Elementary Public-school, using Albanian authors' textbook, and reading well for Elementary public school- urban area- using foreign authors' textbook.

It is observed that with the age growth there is a growth in the percentage of not possessing well or sufficiently the linguistic skills, and a decrease in very well and well level.

9.2.3 Elementary private schools –urban area

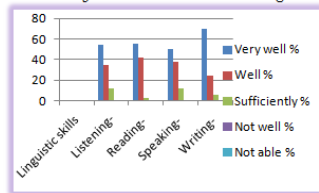
- Elementary Albanian private school “Thimi Marko”, urban area, using foreign authors' textbook. “Access 4”, Express publishing Press
- Elementary Foreign private school (Greek) “Omiros”, urban area using foreign authors' textbook, “Access 4”, Express publishing Press.

Elementary Greek private school. Foreign textbook



Graph 11

Elementary Albanian Private school. Foreign text



Graph 12

From the statistics taken from the 8th grades in these two private schools (graph 11, 12), (105 interviewed learners) there are drawn out these results: The highest percentage in possessing very well the 4 linguistic skills, are in Elementary Albanian Private School, urban area using foreign text. In this school learners possess well reading and speaking skills as well.

The highest percentage in possessing sufficiently and not well the 4 linguistic skills is the Elementary Greek private school urban area using foreign text. A good indicator for Elementary Albanian Private School, urban area using foreign text, is the fact that there is not any percentage of learners who possess not well any of the 4 linguistic skills. The learners belonging to this school possess better Writing and reading skill; the above percentages show this.

The learners belonging to Elementary Greek private school urban area using foreign text possess very well listening and writing skills and well reading skill.

Generally talking Albanian learners have deficiencies in the Speaking skills and feel better at writing skills.

10. Conclusions

This study aimed at observing and comparing the actual objectives designed by the Institute of Curricula and Training in Albania and Common European Framework of References (CEFR) that help learners actualize linguistic elements which are in accordance with the proper levels for each grade in elementary education and what learners have actually reached in different grades.

It should be noted that all the displaying data and results tend to provide evidence on the actual situation of English language acquisition in Elementary Albanian learners, by displaying differences in different social levels, different textbooks used, and different schools. It refocuses the purpose of this study on, revealing a synopsis of what was found and leads into the results of the findings. Each school is different and the conditions are never the same from one class to the next.

The statistical analysis revealed that the percentages in the acquisition of the linguistic skills vary based on the school, textbooks, and areas; urban or rural. The principal findings of the study are evidences of the differences in knowledge and attitude of the learners, after they have acquired the sufficient knowledge, by doing a self- assessment.

- In the 6th and 8th grades of elementary public school- urban area using foreign authors' textbook, in spite of the best language acquisition in the 4 linguistic skills, the users of this textbook, has a higher percentage in possessing sufficiently these skills, compared with elementary public schools- urban area using Albanian authors' textbook. This fact shows that in schools with a high level of the learners foreign authors' textbooks should be used whereas in schools with a low level of learners Albanian authors' textbooks should be used; the last ones are easier to be assimilated by a lower level of Albanian learners. The linguistic skills that are best possessed by users of Albanian textbooks is writing and reading skill, and have deficiency in communicative skills, whereas skills that are best possessed by users of foreign authors' textbooks are listening, writing and then speaking.
- From the percentages of Elementary public schools –urban and rural area; 6th and 8th grades, in both grades that use foreign authors' textbook, a considerable difference is observed between these 2 schools; The learners of the urban area have the best language acquisition in 4 linguistic skills. The skills that are best possessed are writing and listening. The results of the linguistic assessment in the rural area are too low compared with those of the urban area. These facts show that rural learners have difficulties in the acquisition of the foreign language by using foreign authors' textbook.
- From the findings of Elementary private schools –urban area; Albanian private school and Foreign (Greek) private school, using foreign authors' textbook, it results that: learners of Greek private school, using foreign textbook, belonging to the 6th grade has best assimilated the 4 linguistic skills compared with Albanian private school of this grade, but the result reverses for the 8th grade learners of Greek private school, who have more deficiencies compared with the 8th grade learners of Albanian private school. The skill which is better possessed in both schools is writing skill.

However, being based on these results, generally talking, Albanian learners, have a deficiency in the speaking skill.

All the objectives of the syllabus pay special attention to accuracy and fluency of the linguistic elements in certain situations discourse, so that Albanian learners can increase the level of self awareness in the use of linguistic knowledge.

The results of these findings generally indicate the actual situation of the Albanian elementary learners of Korca city, in the use of linguistic skills and there is an attempt in the compilation of the foreign language syllabuses, to be adapted and to follow more appropriately the standards set by the Common European Framework of References.

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Mathematical Education in the Opinion of the Students of Integrated Early-School Education - A Study Report

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Abstract

Mathematics is considered one of the most important school subjects. Despite that fact, assimilation of mathematical knowledge causes many students numerous problems. Studying mathematics does not only consist in acquiring skills that are essential in solving specific tasks. It is, above all, a process thanks to which the basic competences needed in everyday life are developed. The benefits gained from studying mathematics go far beyond classroom environment and cover fields that are unrelated to the realm of pure mathematics. The significant role of mathematical education is recognized by both teachers and parents. However, what do the students themselves think about that issue? This article attempts to find an answer to that question. It presents the results of the study conducted among the elementary school second- and third- grade students. The analysis of the obtained results enables us to get to know students' point of view on mathematical education, methods of teaching this subject as well as task-solving techniques. Additionally, the motivation to study maths that students present is another issue raised in the article. The results obtained in this study may help to facilitate the didactic process by means of making mathematics classes more engaging for the students. Teaching this subject in accordance with students' preferences will most likely increase the efficiency of teaching and will reduce their reluctance to explore this subject in depth.

Keywords: *mathematical education, motivation to study maths, students' opinions about mathematics*

1. Introduction

It is not possible to sum up all the areas of competence, which develop during the process of acquisition of mathematical knowledge. To a large extent, it is thanks to them that we are able to function properly in the contemporary world filled with mathematical content. There are two basic objectives that are commonly observed in learning mathematics: acquiring certain information, notions, theorems and algorithms by the learners as well as developing the skills of logical and abstract thinking, forming the abilities of critical thought formulation, reasoning and deduction (Siwek, 2005). The significant influence of "the queen of the sciences" on the comprehensive development of a human was noticed by the scholars ages ago and still constitutes an essential element of school curricula. The current curricular basis for general education in Poland defines mathematical thinking as one of the main skills which each student should acquire during general education in the elementary school (The curricular basis for general education in elementary schools, 2008).

Teaching mathematics should be learner-friendly but also effective from the point of view of a teacher. M. Skura (Swoboda, Gunčaga, 2009) claims that the child-friendly mathematical education is the one which: makes the children like mathematics lessons and encourages them to willingly participate in them; brings about the required effects such as: the child gains new skills and knowledge; respects developmental regularities of child's reasoning and the current level of child's development; provides the child with appropriately selected experiences.

Whilst deliberating on the process of teaching and learning mathematics one must bear in mind the principle that teaching is effective only when the methods applied by a teacher stimulate learners' activity, make their minds work and positively influence their reasoning, experiencing, remembering and discovering new notions (Siwek, 2005). In the current approach to teaching, the considerable emphasis is put on students' independence in the process of knowledge acquisition. While accepting children's natural passion for learning, the educators agree that children find it particularly enjoyable to be capable of making their own discoveries. It is the job of a teacher to create such didactic situations that learning mathematics might become a fascinating adventure for the students (Semadeni, 1981). This objective can be achieved by applying teaching through problems, which, while referring to divergent thinking, makes student's work more

vivid and stimulating to further quest for knowledge, which entails creative thinking (Zborowski, 1986). Teaching mathematics in school environment, has been largely reduced to students' mechanical revising the previously covered patterns of behaviour, whose meaning remains often incomprehensible and remote. Limiting students' activity merely to memorizing mathematical rules often blocks out their readiness for and ability of mathematical thinking (Klus-Stańska, Nowicka, 2005). The consequence of such a condition is the phenomenon of so-called mathematical mindlessness, understood as the lack of ability to reach out beyond the mechanical computational techniques and inability to form one's own strategies of conduct in new situations (Klus-Stańska, Kalinowska, 2004).

There is a certain relationship between students' approach to learning mathematics and the duration of school education. While the youngest learners declare that mathematics is their favourite school subject, as the time goes by, their enthusiasm fades and turns into discouragement and increasing fear of maths (Klus-Stańska, Kalinowska, 2004). The difficulties which appear in the process of learning cause that students start to avoid contacts with mathematics, which in turn makes them fall behind even further. Many students suffer numerous failures whilst studying mathematics, the result of which is the slowdown in their intellectual development.

The research shows that the main cause of failure in the process of learning mathematics is starting the school education by the children who are not mature enough to learn this subject in the classroom - lesson context (Gruszczyk-Kolczyńska, 1997). School teaching of that subject requires the learners to be able to think in terms of precise operations and operational logic (Gruszczyk-Kolczyńska, Zielińska, 1997).

When a student does not yet function on a suitable level of reasoning, teaching him mathematics is virtually impossible. Experiencing failure while learning, and sometimes even the very process of learning makes students suffer from stress, increasing frustration and lack of confidence when it comes to one's own abilities. Thus, the factor which largely determines a proper learning process of mathematics is the appropriate level of emotional resistance to the difficult situations that may occur. It is particularly important in the context of mathematics where a learner should demonstrate such a level of emotional resistance that would enable him to solve a task despite increasing tensions. (Gruszczyk-Kolczyńska, 1997). Learning mathematics involves problem solving. According to Zofia Cydzik (1990, p. 139) the ability to solve text exercises is integrally connected with the entirety of mathematical knowledge that students present. One of the main benefits coming from problem solving is the fact that these problems influence the development of intellectual conduct which is displayed in creative, critical and logical thinking (Gruszczyk-Kolczyńska, 1997). The students demonstrate significant difficulties in solving text exercises. To a large extent, they result from inappropriate teaching methods. The major obstacle that does not allow students to master the subject is the way in which mathematics is thought (Davis, Braun, 2006, p. 73). During school lessons, students solve the problems and do exercises but the methods of solving them are not taught (Nowik, 2009). Problem tasks play an especially significant role in mathematical education. Anna Kalinowska assumes that they are the assignments which a student cannot solve using merely the algorithmic knowledge that he has. It is necessary for him to be able to demonstrate the productive thinking skills, which leads to the enrichment of his subject knowledge. (Kalinowska, 2010, p. 26).

The motivation for studying is an essential issue since it largely conditions the school achievements. There are several activities which stimulate the positive motivation for studying: providing students with a fair reward system, rewarding learners' achievements as well as their curiosity, appreciating various skills, offering alternative motivations and suggesting tasks that involve the participants (Covington, Teel, 2004). The above mentioned actions may be effectively applied in the process of teaching mathematics. The school and home environment are the major sources of motivation for learning (Węglińska, 1999). Both of these environments should be equally involved in the process of learning mathematics by a child. M. Węglińska points out that it is necessary for a teacher to cooperate with a child's family in order to create suitable incentives needed to motivate a child to learn (1999, quoting Gerstman, 1962). It is also crucial that the persons that play a significant role in a child's life, such as parents, teachers, carers would not project their own prejudice or aversion towards mathematics onto the children. The belief in the necessity of modifications in the teaching methods from the earliest years of child's presence at school led to a deeper consideration of the current state of affairs. In the light of the previously mentioned deliberations, it seems justified to scrutinize what students themselves think of mathematics. Being aware of students' opinions about math classes, the recognition of their motivation for studying the subject and the knowledge about the most suitable classwork methods is a vital issue for teachers who desire to obtain the best possible results in their own work and their students'. This article is a review of students' opinions on mathematics in the integrated early-school education.

2. Mathematical education in the opinion of the students of integrated early-school education - a study report

The basis that was used to define students' opinions on mathematics in the integrated early-school education was the analysis of the data obtained in the diagnostic survey conducted among the second grade students of elementary school. The survey consisted of a questionnaire, interviews and a sentence completion test. The participants were 92 pupils from one of the Polish elementary schools, situated in Będzin, Silesia region. A variable taken into account while analyzing the results is gender.

Despite the common conviction concerning students' aversion towards mathematics, the empirical research results do not provide any evidence to support that view.

Out of all second grade students questioned, as many as 95% of them declare that they like mathematics lessons or even like them a lot (Table 1). The conducted survey only confirms the respondents' liking for this subject. A small percentage of students declare their dislike for mathematics or any form of activity related to mathematical tasks. Most of these pupils do not get satisfactory marks, which affects their negative attitude towards the subject itself.

Table 1. Response to the question: Do you like math classes? (N = 92)

Response	Girls (N = 49)		Boys (N = 43)		Total (N = 92)	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Like a lot	24	49	29	67	53	58
Like	22	45	12	28	34	37
Don't like	3	6	2	5	5	5

In the table, the responses of highest value are marked in bold.

Source: Author's own survey (Kawiak, unpubl. 2013)

The respondents demonstrated significant willingness to study mathematics and participate in mathematics classes (Table2).

Table 2. Response to the question: Do you want to learn mathematics? (N = 92)

Response	Girls (N = 49)		Boys (N = 43)		Total (N = 92)	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Yes	38	78	31	72	69	75
Rather yes	7	14	10	23	17	19
Rather no	3	6	0	0	3	3
No	1	2	2	5	3	3

In the table, the responses of highest value are marked in bold.

Source: Author's own survey (Kawiak, unpubl. 2013)

From among all the respondents, 94 % declare the they want to learn mathematics (responses 'yes' and 'rather yes'). This willingness is expressed by both sexes, however boys' responses slightly outnumber the girls'. Learners want to study mathematics because it is interesting, cool and useful in many respects¹. The dislike expressed by few respondents results largely from their poor school results and gaps in the knowledge they present. These students describe mathematics as a difficult and uninteresting subject².

A large percentage of students described mathematics as an area of knowledge that is useful for people (Table 3). According to them, its usefulness in everyday situations relates mostly to: financial calculations connected with purchase and sale, counting various objects, using the clock and calendar as well as forming three-dimensional block structures³.

¹ Most frequent responses when asked to complete the sentence: „ Learning mathematics is.....” . On the basis of the analysis of Incomplete Sentences Test. N = 92. Source: author's own research

² Most frequent responses when asked to complete the sentence: „ Learning mathematics is.....” . On the basis of the analysis of Incomplete Sentences Test. N = 92. Source: author's own research

³ Most frequent responses when asked to complete the sentence: „ Mathematics is useful in.....” . On the basis of the analysis of Incomplete Sentences Test. N = 92. Source: author's own research.

Table 3. Response to the question: Is mathematics useful in life? (N = 92)

Response	Girls (N = 49)		Boys (N = 43)		Total (N = 92)	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
It is useful in many respects	45	92	40	93	85	92
It is useful but only at school	3	6	3	7	6	7
It is not useful at all	1	2	0	0	1	1

In the table, the responses of highest value are marked in bold.

Source: author's own survey (Kawiak, unpubl. 2013)

Despite personal prejudice against the subject, students disliking mathematics, described it as useful. Out of all the pupils participating in the survey, only one person defined mathematics as a completely useless subject. Among all the responses there were also those saying that mathematics is useful only in the school context, only during classes (7%). Such students do not see any practical real-life application of the skills acquired at school.

The survey also enabled the author to recognize the activities preferred by students demonstrated during mathematic classes at school (Table 4).

Table 4. Response to the question: What do you most like doing during math classes? (N = 92)

Response	Girls (N = 49)		Boys (N = 43)		Total (N = 92)	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Solving tasks	15	31	3	7	18	20
Counting	5	10	18	42	23	25
Drawing	16	33	8	19	24	26
Using teaching aids (eg. abacus)	0	0	1	2	1	1
Coming up with my own strategies to solve particular tasks	1	2	1	2	2	2
Playing mathematical games	12	24	12	28	24	26

In the table, the responses of highest value are marked in bold.

Source: author's own survey (Kawiak, unpubl. 2013)

The research showed that the students' preferences in that respect are diversified by gender. The favourite activity mentioned by girls was solving mathematical tasks (31%) whereas majority of boys prefers doing calculations (42%). The activities preferred to a similar extent by representatives of both sexes are: making auxiliary drawings while solving tasks (26%) and playing mathematical games (26%). The need to refer to the graphic presentation of the contents while solving a task, may be explained by the fact that not all the second grade pupils are capable of operational thinking on the specific level (Gruszczyk-Kolczyńska, 1997). Making drawings helps students understand the abstract meaning of the mathematical tasks. A high percentage of students who readily play mathematical games, admits to their latent craving for adventure and competition. Introducing games while teaching mathematics is perfectly justified since 'games may be a good starting point for familiarizing students with new math notions, revising material and developing their skills; children are familiar with games and like them' (Czajkowska, 2005, p. 58).

Respondents attempted to define their motivation for studying mathematics. The research revealed three declared possibilities (Table 5).

Table 5. Response to the question: Who do you learn mathematics for? (N = 92)

Response	Girls (N = 49)		Boys (N = 43)		Total (N = 92)	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
For myself	27	55	26	61	53	58
For my parents	8	16	4	9	12	13
For my teacher	14	29	13	30	27	29

In the table, the responses of highest value are marked in bold.

Source: author's own survey (Kawiak, unpubl. 2013)

While learning mathematics, more than a half of respondents is driven by their willingness to acquire knowledge and skills necessary to be able to solve mathematical tasks. The inner drive that the learners declared indicates a large awareness of the significance of mathematical knowledge in everyday life. When asked 'Why do you learn mathematics?', the students most often replied: 'to know more, to be clever, to manage well in further education'⁴. Strong motivation for studying, so typical for early stages of education, is often connected with people who are significant characters in child's life. The will to satisfy the expectations of a class tutor is the most powerful motivation for one third of the respondents. Parents' expectations towards their children and their marks are also an essential incentive for kids to learn. 13 % of the students studies in order to make their parents proud.

Students' engagement in knowledge acquisition is closely related to a didactic process. The more attractive and interesting the classes are, the more willingly the students participate in them. The data analysis provided us with the responses concerning the respondents' preferences when it comes to the scope of their favourite mathematical exercises (Table 6) and the most suitable classwork methods at mathematics lessons (Table 7). Not all types of mathematical tasks are equally attractive to students. The least popular with the respondents are those with one or more unknowns, frequently called exercises with a 'gap' (Table 6).

Table 6. Response to the question: What kind of mathematical problems do you most like solving ? (N = 92)

Response	Girls (N = 49)		Boys (N = 43)		Total (N = 92)	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Text exercises	20	41	12	29	32	35
Arithemtical tasks	20	41	27	63	47	51
Geometrical tasks	6	12	2	4	8	9
Tasks with an unknown	3	6	2	4	5	5

In the table, the responses of highest value are marked in bold.

Source: author's own survey (Kawiak, unpubl. 2013)

The problems which are most willingly solved by the students are the arithemtical tasks which require calculations as well as the text tasks. It is interesting to observe that in comparison with the results obtained, the text tasks cause a great deal of difficulties for the lower grade elementary school pupils (Kalinowska, 2010).

Individual work is the favourite form of class work during mathematics lessons (Table 7). More than a half of all respondents declare that they find it most comfortable to work on their own. According to the research, individual task solving is also the dominant method of class work among the surveyed students.

Learners prefer to solve mathematical problems while working in pairs rather in small groups. Group work is considered the least attractive form of class work in the eyes of the respondents. Some of the students prefer to work out the solution to the problem jointly in the class while one pupil, indicated by the teacher or a volunteer, is solving the problem on the blackboard. However, this form of lesson work inherently involves a danger of poorer students copying an answer from the blackboard, being unable to work out the solution to the problem on their own.

Table 7. Response to the question: In what way do you most like to solve mathematical problems? (N = 92)

Response	Girls (N = 49)		Boys (N = 43)		Total (N = 92)	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
On my own	33	68	27	63	60	66
Pair work	7	14	8	19	15	16
Group work	0	0	2	4	2	2
Class work	9	18	6	14	15	16

In the table, the responses of highest value are marked in bold.

Source: author's own survey (Kawiak, unpubl. 2013)

Problem solving, similarly to studying mathematics, requires an appropriate level of emotional immunity. Faced with a

⁴ On the basis of the analysis of the interviews conducted with the learners N= 92. Source: author's own (Kawiak, unpubl. 2013).

particular problem they are not able to resolve, students produce certain defensive mechanisms which help them survive a stressful situation. Table 8 refers to the patterns of behavior indicated by the students in such situations. The respondents could tick more than one answer.

Table 8. Response to the question: What do you do when you cannot individually solve a particular problem in a math lesson?(N=92)

Response	Girls		Boys		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Copy a ready answer from the blackboard	37	58	30	52	67	55
Wait until someone else solves it	10	15	8	14	18	14
Copy a friend's answer	3	5	6	10	9	7
Guess the answer	10	15	9	16	19	15
Say you are unwell to avoid having to solve it	1	2	0	0	1	1
Occupy myself with other things	0	0	2	3	2	2
Do not work on the problem at all	0	0	3	5	3	3
Ask the teacher for assistance	3	5	0	0	3	3

In the table, the responses of highest value are marked in bold.

Source: author's own survey (Kawiak, unpubl. 2013)

The largest number of responses indicates that both girls and boys would resort to copying a ready answer from the board when they are unable to cope with the complexity of the mathematical problem. This pattern of behavior is facilitated in the situation when one student is doing the task on the blackboard, which is often the case in the surveyed groups. The least frequent situation is the one when students simulate somatic complaints in order to avoid solving the math task. Also, they rarely approach their teacher directly in case of such difficulties.

Having carried out a detailed analysis of the data obtained during the research, we got to know the opinions of the students of integrated early-school education concerning mathematics studies and the subject itself. Getting to know their opinions and preferences seems necessary and completely justified. These opinions constitute important indications for early-school education teachers with reference to how to organize the didactic process to make it interesting and inspiring for students.

3. Conclusions

The research results presented above indicate that the vast majority of students of early school integrated education have a positive opinion on mathematical education.

They want to study this subject and the learning process makes them happy. The students demonstrate high motivation for learning and they perceive mathematics as indispensable for humans to function properly in everyday life. This situation undoubtedly portends well for the educational future for the students. If their liking for mathematics does not change and their eagerness to learn does not lessen, they will not only be able to achieve very good scores in their studies but also, they will be able to further develop their intellectual potential.

The results obtained also constitute a challenge for the teachers. They should teach mathematics in such a way so as not to decrease their students' enthusiasm but to constantly stimulate their intellectual development and their motivation for learning. It is a pedagogue's job to spare no effort to make sure that in the eyes of the students, the didactic process is associated not with an unpleasant duty, but with intellectual challenge which they are eager to take and which brings about positive results. It is particularly important in case of studying mathematics, which determines our proper functioning in the contemporary world. Teachers of mathematics at every stage of school education should remember that, especially in the early school years.

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Teachers' Attitudes Regarding Inclusive Education: The Albanian Case

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Abstract

Teachers' attitudes have considerable influence on the process of school integration of pupils with disabilities. Some data from contemporary literature show that the attitudes that teachers have about the process of inclusive education affects the quality of this process and the teaching quality. The impact of teachers' attitudes regarding inclusive education has, also, impact on pupils' attitudes toward their disabled peers. The paper aims to measure the attitudes of teachers in primary and secondary public schools of Albania toward mainstreaming and the paper, aims, also, to analyze the influence of their demographic factors on their attitude. For the realization of this study it is used the technique of questionnaire. The measuring instrument is the Mainstreaming Opinionnaire (MO) (Schmelkin (1981). Teachers of some schools of Shkodër, Lezhë, Kukës, Peshkopia, Tiranë, Durrës, Elbasan, Korçë and Vlora cities of Albania have completed the MO test. It is employed, also, the technique of interviewing teachers of public schools in which there are pupils with disabilities integrated and it is employed, also, the method of focus-group with teachers. The purpose was to obtain their opinions related to the problems that are encountered by them in the impementation of this process. There are given the appropriate conclusions and suggestions. It is necessary to consider certain recommendations so that the process of inclusive education is carried out completely.

Keywords: teachers' attitudes, inclusive education, MO test.

1. Introduction

The scholastic integration of disabled pupils is part of inclusion process. The main actors in the teaching process are teachers and students. It is considered necessary to measure teachers' attitudes about inclusive education as well as the examination of the relationship between demographic factors (age, gender, job position, teaching cycle, work experience) and teachers' attitudes about inclusive education. Such factors may influence the opinions of teachers and the paper aims to reveal whether exist sany connection and, if so, the paer aims to discovery precisely what is the nature of this connection.

Several studies have been conducted in the world related to teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education, for example, the study conducted in Malaysia. In general, the teachers have a positive perception about the implementation of inclusive education, although should be made improvements in some aspects such as the cooperation between teachers in mainstream schools and special school teachers and the training of the teachers that teach students with special needs (Ali M.M., Mustapha R. Jelas Z.M., (2006) *An empirical study on teachers' perceptions towards inclusive education in Malaysia*, International Journal of Special Education, Vol 21 No3).

Another study was conducted in Canada. The teachers have positive attitudes about inclusive education and about the benefits that disabled students have in the proces of inclusive education. The teachers, on the other hand, think that have inadequate professional preparation to teach these students. Disabled students benefit both in terms of the social plan and in terms of academic level (Bunch G., Finnegan K. (2000), *Values Teachers Find In Inclusive Education*, ISEC).

Another study was conducted in Hong Kong. The results of this study show that teachers who teach in secondary school do not have favorable attitudes about the practice of integration. Though the most of the teachers (79,3%) support the basic principle of inclusive education that every child has the right to learn in a typical class, only 42,4% of them considered favorable the integration process and 37,9% think that this process can be successful. The results showed a small, but significant difference in the attitudes of teachers that had received training and teachers that had not received training. The teachers that had received training showed more postive attitudes toward inclusive education (Yuen M. & Westwood P. (2001), *Integrating students with special needs in Hong Kong secondary schools : teachers's attitudes and their possible relationship to guidance training*, International Journal of Special Education, Vol 16, No.2).

Another study was conducted in Chester city, in Pennsylvania. Results of the study showed that the teachers generally have a neutral attitude to integration. Female teachers have more positive attitudes than male teachers, but such a relationship is not significant. There is a difference in the attitudes of teachers of different ages. The teachers under 36 years of age have significant positive attitude towards inclusive education compared to the teachers of other ages involved in the study. The teachers that had experience in teaching children with special needs have more positive attitudes (Kern E. (2006), *Survey of Teacher Attitude Regarding Inclusive Education Within an Urban School District*, Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine).

According to the study conducted in Russia by Elena Iarskaia-Smirnova in 2001-2002, "the opinion of the stakeholders of the education systems, teachers, parents and children, is favorable in the relation of the idea of inclusion as a project. At the same time, when it comes to real life situations, some concerns arise that prevent integration of the child" (Iarskaia-Smirnova E. 2001/2002, *Creating Future Together: Problems and Perspectives of Inclusive Education in Russia*, CPSI International Policy Fellowship Program, pg.24).

2. Theoretical Treatment

The practice of including students with disabilities into regular schools has been gaining ground internationally for many years now, but is far from being fully accepted by the educational community (see Yellin et al., 2003). For over three decades, researchers have concluded that the degree to which inclusion is successful depends largely on the attitudes and willingness of educators at the school level to welcome and involve students with disabilities in their classrooms in a meaningful way (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Forlin, 2001; Harvey & Green, 1984; Sharma, Forlin, Loreman & Earle, 2006; Williams & Algozzine, 1979) (Loreman T., Forlin Ch, Sharma U (2007), *An International Comparison of Pre-service Teacher Attitudes towards Inclusive Education*, Disability Studies Quarterly, Volume 27, No.4).

The success of inclusion depends on the attitude of the people involved in its implementation. Teachers' and head teachers' attitudes are a determining factor in the success of disabled students' inclusion in the mainstream school (Norwich 1994; Padelidiu & Lamproboulou, 1997) (*Phtiaka H.(2005)*, Children with special needs in the ordinary classroom: teachers' and peers' views, Inclusive and Supportive Education Congress, Glasgow, Scotland).

Inclusion largely depends on teachers' attitudes towards pupils with special needs and on the resources available to them. In quite a number of studies, the attitude of teachers towards educating pupils with special needs has been put forward as a decisive factor in making schools more inclusive (Meijer C.J.W. (2001), *Inclusive Education and Effective Classroom Practices*, European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education, Martin Noble Editorial/AESOP, pg.10

It is now well established that teachers' beliefs and attitudes concerning students with special needs have a very powerful influence on their expectations for the progress of such children in mainstream schools (Deisinger, 2000; Minke, Bear, Deemer & Griffin, 1996; Odom, 2000; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). It is even argued that successful integration is only possible where teachers display reasonably positive and accepting attitudes towards students with special needs and to the basic principles of inclusion (Beattie, Anderson & Antonak, 1997; Freagon & Kachur, 1993; Giangreco, 1996) (Yuen M., Westwood P. (2001) Integrating students with special needs in Hong Kong secondary schools : teachers' attitudes and their possible relationship to guidance training, *International Journal of Special Education* 2001, Vol 16, No.2, pg.72)

Indeed, teachers' attitudes have been found to affect the process and the outcome of inclusion to a great extent (e.g., Avramidis et al., 2000; Richards, 1999) (Efrosini K., Gojkovic D., Tsakiris V. (2007) Serbian teachers's attitudes towards inclusion, *International Journal of Special Education*, Vol 22 No 3, pg.30).

Teachers' attitudes and beliefs are known to influence their teaching practices and management strategies in the classroom, and therefore to directly influence students' learning (Garvar-Pinhas & Schmelkin, 1989; Nader, 1984; Smith, 2000; Winter, 1995). In particular, a teacher's beliefs about the learning capacity of a student with disability may determine the extent to which the teacher is willing to make adjustments to teaching method, curriculum, or classroom organization, or indeed whether he or she even recognizes that some students in the class do have special needs (Fields, 1995; Salili, 1999; Westwood, 1995). It is now generally accepted that teachers who are required to integrate students with disabilities into their classes must feel confident in their own ability to cope with the situation, and must have some positive expectations about the students' learning potential (Forlin, 1998; Webster, 1999). (Yuen M., Westwood P. (2001) Integrating students with special needs in Hong Kong secondary schools : teachers' attitudes and their possible relationship to guidance training, *International Journal of Special Education* 2001, Vol 16, No.2, pg.72).

Teachers with positive attitudes toward inclusion have been found to not only employ instructional strategies that

benefit all students in a classroom (Bender, Vail & Scott, 1995; Brophy & Good, 1991), but have also been found to have a positive influence on the attitudes of peers without disabilities towards students with disabilities (Baker & Gottlieb, 1980; Norwicki & Sandieson, 2002). (Loreman T., Forlin Ch, Sharma U (2007), *An International Comparison of Pre-service Teacher Attitudes towards Inclusive Education*, Disability Studies Quarterly, Volume 27, No.4).

3. Methodology of preparation and development of this paper

3.1 Aims and objectives of the paper. The main aims and objectives are :

- Measuring the attitudes of teachers toward the mainstreaming process.
- Analyzing the influence of the presence of the demographic factors (such as gender, age, educational level (elementary school/secondary school), work experience, working position (teacher/teacher principal) on teachers' attitudes towards : a)the effects of mainstreaming on the academic progress of both disabled and non disabled pupils; b)the negative effects on social and emotional development of segregating disabled pupils in special classrooms.

The aims and the objectives of the paper are related to theoretical treatment and, are related also, to the studies about teachers's attitudes toward mainstreaming. For the realization of this study it is employed a combined methodology. It is used the survey technique. The measuring instrument is the Mainstreaming Opinionnaire (Schmelkin, 1981) to measure teachers'attitudes.towards inclusive education. It is also employed the technique of interviewing teachers of public schools in which there are integrated disabled pupils for the purpose of obtaining their opinions related to the existence of necessary conditions to teach them.

3.2 Sampling

The people group in this study consists of teachers from public elementary schools in the cities of Shkodër, Lezhë, Kukës, Peshkopia, Tiranë, Elbasan, Durrës, Korçë and Vlorë. There are used statistics from the General Regional Offices of Education to identify the schools which have pupils with disabilities and to identify the classes in which such pupils have been integrated. The inclusion of the subjects has been realized with respect to the ethical principles that should accompany this process, without forcing anyone into this process and having the permission of the respective authorities. The sample for the study consists of teachers who teach in these public schools. The inclusion criteria include: a)being a public school teacher, b)being involved teachers with different age, c)being involved both male teachers and female teachers, d)involving both teachers and principal teachers, e)involvement of teachers who teach in elementary school and teachers who teach in secondary school, f)the involvement of teachers who have 1-5 years of teaching experience, as well as teachers who have over 20 years of teaching experience. The exclusion criteria include: a) failing to meet at least one of the inclusion criteria, b)the refusal of permission for teachers'participation in the study from the General Regional Offices of Education, c) the refusal of permission for teachers'participation in the study from the respective schools, d)teachers'refusal to be part of the study.

3.3 General data related to the teachers who have completed the MO test

In the study, we had the participation of 408 teachers by completing the MO test. 50 teachers or 12,3% of the teachers participating in the study live in Shkodra city, 40 teachers (9,8%) live in Lezha city, 31 teachers (7,6%) live in Peshkopia city, 59 teachers or 14,5% of the teachers participating in the study live in Kukës city, 34 teachers (8,3%) live in Tirana city, 51 teachers (12,5%) live in Elbasan city, 48 teachers (11,8%) live in Korça city, 56 teachers (13,7%) live in Durrës city and 39 teachers (9,6%) live in Vloira city. The teachers are of different ages. 10 teachers (2,5%) are aged 21-25 years, 60 teachers (14,7%) are aged 26-30 years, 49 teachers (12%) are aged 31-35 years, 77 teachers (18,9%) are aged 36-40 years, 68 teachers (16,7%) are aged 41-45 years, 42 teachers (10,3%) are aged 46-50 years, 39 teachers (9,6%) are aged 51-55 years, 61 teachers (15%) are aged over 55 years, and 2 teachers (0,5%) haven't given their age. In the study participated 53 male teachers (or 13% of teachers participating in the study) and 352 female teachers (86,3%), while 3 teachers (0,7%) haven't given their gender. 167 teachers (40,9%) teach in elementary school and 228 teachers (55,9%) teach in secondary school, while 13 teachers (3,2%) haven't given their teaching cycle. 74 teachers (18,1%) have 1-5 years of teaching experience, 44 teachers (10,8%) have 6-10 years of teaching experience, 50 teachers (12,3%) have 11-15 years of teaching experience, 78 teachers (19,1%) have 16-20 years of teaching

experience, 161 teachers (39,5%) have over 20 years of teaching experience, and 1 teacher (0,2%) has not given his years of teaching experience. 26 teachers (6,4%) are teacher principals, 375 (91,9%) are teachers and 7 teachers (1,7%) haven't given their work position.

3.4 General data concerning the teachers and directors who were interviewed and have participated in the focus-group

There have been 69 interviews and one focus-group. There are interviewed teachers from the cities of Shkodër, Lezhë, Kukës, Peshkopia, Elbasan, Durrës, Korçë, Vlora cities. The focus group is organized in Shkodra city and in the focus-group have participated six teachers of Pashko Vasa primary school.

3.5 Apparatus / Materials

With the teachers it is employed the Mainstreaming Opinionnaire (MO) (Schmelkin, 1981) to measure their attitudes towards the inclusive education. It is found in the book Antonak R.F., Livneh H.(1988) "The Measurement of Attitudes toward People with Disabilities", USA, page 256-262).

3.6 Contents of the questionnaire

A total of 30 items were retained with 15 items scored on each of the two subscales. The first Subscale, Academic Cost of Mainstreaming (ACM), concerned the detrimental effects of mainstreaming on the academic progress on the academic progress of both handicapped and non-handicapped students. The second Subscale, Socio-Emotional Costs of Segregation (SECS), concerned the negative effects on social and emotional development of segregating handicapped children in special classrooms (Antonak R.F., Livneh H.(1988) "The Measurement of Attitudes toward People with Disabilities", USA, pg.256).

3.7 Method of completing the questionnaire

The questionnaires have been filled out by the teachers themselves. The questionnaires were distributed in the respective schools. The administration of the questionnaires (distribution and collection) was conducted during the months of September, October, November and December.

3.8 Method of analysis

The data collected from the questionnaires was analyzed by means of the SPSS program, variant 20. It is estimated the reliability of the test. The internal reliability of ACM Subscale Alpha Cronbach coefficient=0,834. The internal reliability of SECS Subscale Alpha Cronbach coefficient=0,822. It is carried out the coding of the variables according to the respective rules defined by the authors. There are created respective indexes according to the guidelines.

Each of the 30 items on the MO is responded to on a six-point scale, ranging from -3, to signify "Disagree very strongly", to +3, to signify "Agree very strongly". To score the MO, the value of four is added to each response. This transforms all values to a positive whole number from 1 to 7 (eg., -3=1, -2=2, -1=3, missing=4, +1=5, +2=6, and +3=7). The respondent's score on the ACM subscale is calculated by adding the responses to the items : 1, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 12, 16, 18, 19, 20, 26, 27, 28, and 30. The total is divided by 15 to yield a mean value ranging from 1 to 7, with a low value representing a positive attitude toward this aspect of mainstreaming. The respondent's score on the SECS subscale is calculated by adding the responses to the remaining 15 items : 2, 5, 6, 7, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, and 29). As with the first subscale, a mean value is calculated by dividing the total by 15, with the result ranging from 1 to 7. A positive attitude toward this aspect of mainstreaming, however, is reflected by a high score (Antonak R.F., Livneh H.(1988) "The Measurement of Attitudes toward People with Disabilities", USA, pg.257).

It is used the analysis of variance Anova table and eta to examine the impact of teachers' demographic factors (as teachers' gender, educational level, teachers' work position, teachers' work experience) on the ACM and SECS results. It is used the correlation method to examine the impact of teachers' age on the ACM and SECS results.

3.9 Content of the interviews and focus-group

The contents of the interviews and focus-groups was thought in a way as to collect the opinions of teachers concerning: 1) the indicators of the structure, 2) the indicators of the learning process. In relation to the structure indicators the paper aims to obtain the teachers' opinion about: a) the human resources, such as the number of student per class, the existence of the supportive teacher, teachers' involvement in qualification processes about disability, the existence of other support staff at the school, etc.; b) the structural resources, such as: the existence of laboratories for the disabled students in the school, the existence of the necessary space for them, the existence of didactic materials needed to teach disabled children. In relation to the indicators of learning process, the paper aims to obtain the teachers' opinion about: a) the existence of an individualized education plan for the disabled student, b) the relationship between schools and other support institutions, c) the relationship between the school and other schools.

3.10 Piloting stage

It is realised the piloting phase. In this phase the internal reliability of MO opinionnaire Alpha Cronbach coefficient=0,812. It is not evidenced any item of the opinionnaire that has low reliability. So, the realization of the study was possible. The dependent variables are the ACM and SECS scores. The independent variables are teachers' demographic factors.

4. Findings of the study

4.1 Data obtained from the first subscale, Academic Cost of Mainstreaming (ACM) and from the second subscale, Socio-Emotional Costs of Segregation (SECS)

The data obtained are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Data obtained for ACM and SECS subscales

	N	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
ACM	408	4,55	4,53	4,53	0,96646	1,40	6,87
SECS	408	4,61	4,63	5,13	0,91707	1,93	7
Valid	408						

Regarding the ACM subscale, the mean is 4,55. This fact indicates that, in general, teachers have not a good attitude concerned the effects of mainstreaming on the students' academic progress. The values range from 1,40 (0,2% of the teachers participating in the study), to 6,87 (0,2% of the teachers participating in the study). The most of the obtained results is ranked in the range of values from 4 to 6,87 (301 teachers or 73,8%), while a small fraction of the values obtained ranged in the range of values from 1,40 to 4 (107 teachers or 26,2%).

Regarding the SECS subscale, the mean is 4,61. The values range from 1,93 (0,2% of the teachers participating in the study) to 7 (0,2% of the teachers participating in the study). So, the teachers, in general, have positive attitude about socio-emotional costs of segregation. The most of the obtained results is ranked in the range of values from 4 to 6 (270 teachers or 66,1%), while a small part of the obtained values is ranked in the range of values from 6 to 7 (28 teachers or 6,9%).

4.2 The analysis of the impact of teachers' demographic factors on the ACM and SECS results

The relationship between the ACM results and teachers' gender is not statistically significant (Sig=0,778). The ACM mean for male teachers is 4,52, while for female teachers is 4,56. The relationship between the SECS results and teachers' gender is not statistically significant (Sig=0,484). The SECS mean for male teachers is 4,69, while for female teachers is 4,59. The relationship between the ACM results and educational level is not statistically significant (Sig=0,595). The ACM mean for the teachers who teach in elementary school is 4,52, while for teachers who teach in secondary school is 4,57. The relationship between the SECS results and educational level is not statistically significant (Sig=0,805). The SECS mean for for the teachers who teach in elementary school is 4,61, while for the teachers who

teach in secondary school is 4,59. The relationship between the ACM results and teachers'work position is not statistically significant (Sig=0,952). The ACM mean for the teachers is 4,55, while for principal-teachers is 4,54. The relationship between the SECS results and teachers'work position is not statistically significant (Sig=0,469). The SECS mean for the teachers is 4,60, while for principal-teachers is 4,73.

The relationship between the ACM results and teachers'work experience is not statistically significant (Sig=0,879). The ACM mean for the teachers with work experience 1-5 years is 4,57, the ACM mean for the teachers with work experience 6-10 years is 4,57, the ACM mean for the teachers with work experience 11-15 years is 4,59, the ACM mean for the teachers with work experience 16-20 years is 4,45, while for the teachers with work experience over 20 years is 4,58. The relationship between the SECS results and teachers'work experience is not statistically significant (Sig=0,142). The SECS mean for the teachers with work experience 1-5 years is 4,50, the SECS mean for the teachers with work experience 6-10 years is 4,40, the SECS mean for the teachers with work experience 11-15 years is 4,52, the SECS mean for the teachers with work experience 16-20 years is 4,62, while for the teachers with work experience over 20 years is 4,74.

The correlation between the ACM scores and teacher's age was estimated by calculating the Pearson coefficient and Spearman coefficient. The Pearson coefficient is 0,022 and the Spearman coefficient is 0,012. So, there is a very low correlation between ACM scores and teachers'age. The correlation between the SECS scores and teacher's age was estimated by calculating the Pearson coefficient and Spearman coefficient. The Pearson coefficient is 0,113 and the Spearman coefficient is 0,118. The correlation is significant at the 0,05 level. There is a very low correlation between SECS scores and teachers'age.

4.3 Data obtained from the interviews and the focus-group developed with teachers on the issue of inclusive education

The teachers have such opinions about the structure indicators : The number of students in the classes where are integrated disabled children is the same, in general, as the number of students in the classes where aren't integrated disabled children. Teachers, in general, think that the number of students in classes with disabled children integrated should be smaller than in other classes. In general, there is not the support teacher in the schools where are integrated disabled students. The teachers appreciate to much the role of the caretaker teacher in their teaching work with disabled children. The teachers appreciate, also, the interaction and the cooperation that exist between them and the caretaker teacher. The teachers, in general, claim they are not recently involved in the qualification processes about disability. They think that need to be trained about disability. There is a psychologist, in general, in the schools. There are schools where there is not a psychologist and the teachers want the presence of the school psychologist. The teachers appreciate the psychologist role in the schools where the psychologist are present. The psychologist helps the teachers in their process of teaching disabled students. There is, also, other auxiliary personnel in the schools, such a dentist and the nurse. The teachers claim that don't exist laboratories for these students. Most of the teachers think that there is no space needed for students with disabilities. Even those teachers who say that exists the needed space, think that this space is not appropriate for disabled students. There is not a resource center in relation to the disability at the schools. The schools libraries have a few books about disability. The teachers, also, think that there are no specific didactic materials to teach students with special needs. The teachers, in some cases, prepare themselves these materials.

The teachers have these opinions in relation to the indicators of teaching process : In general, doesn't exist the individualized education plan for the disabled students, but in some cases it exists. The schools relations with other institutions are good. The teachers appreciate especially the cooperation with the physicians about the various problems of their students. Teachers claim that they collaborate with their colleagues of the other schools. They collaborate with teachers who know each other, but there is not institutional relationship between the schools. The teachers consider as necessary the scholastic integration of disabled students, because their integration makes them feel equal with the rest of society. The teachers, however, argue that the process of inclusive education is accelerated, because there are many difficulties in his implementation and, as a result, a good portion of teachers think that would be better a special school for these students, with the appropriate conditions and with an academic specialized staff.

5. Conclusions

In general, the teachers have not a good attitude concerned the effects of mainstreaming on the students'academic progress. They have, in general, positive attitude about socio-emotional costs of segregation. There is not statistically relationship between the teachers'demographic factors and the ACM and SECS results. So, the opinion of teachers

about inclusive education is not influenced by these factors. The teachers consider necessary the improvement of the structure indicators and the improvement of the indicators of teaching process. The data obtained for our teachers coincide, in general, with the data obtained from some studies conducted in other countries. The common to all of the data obtained is that the teachers, in general, are expressed positively in principle for the inclusive education as a human right, but they are reluctant and they have different views about the implementation of this process. Another common phenomenon noticed is related to their professional training about disability. So, the teachers perceive themselves as not very prepared to teach children with special needs.

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study and on the conclusions drawn from it, it is necessary to consider the following recommendations so that the process of inclusive education be carried out completely :

- A further awareness of the teachers concerning the integration of the pupils with disabilities into schools as a necessary process.
- A greater involvement of teachers in qualifying processes about disability.
- The reducing of the number of students in the classrooms where are integrated students with special needs.
- The employment of supporting teachers in the schools where are integrated students with special needs.
- The equipment of the schools with laboratories and special didactic materials for teaching children with disabilities.
- The establishment of the necessary and appropriate space for disabled students in the schools.
- The equipment of the schools with a resource center and with theoretical books about disability.
- The development of the individualised education plan for students with special needs.
- The improvement of schools relations with each other and with the special schools and the improvement of the quality of this cooperation.

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Learner Autonomy in East Asian University Contexts

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Abstract

There is no doubt that learner autonomy plays a very important role in successful language acquisition. However, there has been an extensive discussion of whether or not learner autonomy is an exclusively Western cultural construct. Some researchers argue that the concept of learner autonomy is perceived differently in different cultures, and the influence of socio-cultural contexts cannot be ignored when trying to implement learner autonomy. Considering the importance of learner autonomy in language acquisition and how it varies according to the socio-cultural context, this paper looked into EFL students' perceptions of learner autonomy in East Asian university English classes taught by native speakers of English (NSE) and non-native speakers of English (NNSE), and the perceptions of native speakers of English (NSE) and non-native speakers of English (NNSE) in terms of the implementation of learner autonomy in their English language classes.

Keywords: *learner autonomy; autonomy; language learning; EFL; language teaching*

1. Introduction

The importance of autonomy in second language acquisition and how autonomy varies according to cultural contexts have been studied widely in recent years. Researchers have looked at the role of autonomy in language learning and some have concluded that learner autonomy is a very important variable in successful acquisition. Literature suggests that autonomous learners explicitly accept responsibility for their learning, share in the setting of learning goals, take initiatives in planning and executing learning activities, and regularly review their language learning and evaluate its effectiveness (Holec, 1981; Little, 1991). Furthermore, autonomous language learners work well with teachers and peers and develop a sense of interdependence by sharing their learning goals (Ustunluoglu, 2009; Benson, 2001). Littlewood (1999) refers to the former autonomy as proactive, while the latter as reactive.

Proactive autonomy is associated with the autonomy discussed in the West, in which learners are able to establish a personal agenda for learning (Little, 1994), which affirms their individuality and sets up directions in a world which they themselves have partially created. In reactive autonomy, on the other hand, learners do not create their own directions, but once a direction has been initiated, they will be able to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal. Learners who have this kind of autonomy can learn vocabulary without being pushed, can do examination papers on their own initiative, or can organize themselves into groups in order to cover the reading for an assignment.

Little (1991) presents three arguments for developing learners capable of autonomous behavior is necessary in language instruction. The first argument is that autonomous learners are capable of reflective thinking. The second argument is that autonomous learners are intrinsically motivated and proactively committed to their learning. The third argument is that autonomous learners possess the highly developed social skills necessary for using their language skills in social contexts.

There has also been an extensive discussion of whether or not learner autonomy is an exclusively Western cultural construct. Some researchers argue that the concept of learner autonomy is perceived differently in different cultures and the influence of socio-cultural contexts cannot be ignored when trying to implement learner autonomy

(Littlewood, 1999; Benson, 2001; Holliday, 2003).

Cao (2011) describes the differences between preferred learning styles and approaches in Western cultures and Asian cultures. Cao concludes that Confucian ideology and autonomous learning may not be compatible because while Western cultures tend to value independence, creativity, and critical thinking, Eastern cultures do not. Yildirim (2012) found that Indian students learning English as a second language in the U.S. were not ready to exercise autonomy and take responsibility for making decisions in learning and teaching methods as is expected in the American educational setting. Aoki and Smith (1999) found similarly that learning behavior may be culturally conditioned. Despite this, Holliday (2003) found evidence that learner autonomy is a psychological phenomenon that transcends culture as learners from different cultures are autonomous in their own ways.

Should the preceding arguments of cultural differences in the perception of learner autonomy be true, it follows that students behavior may differ according to the context. One possibility is that learners may exercise more learner autonomy in the classes taught by native speakers of English, who may be pedagogically more accustomed to learner autonomy in their own cultures, than in the classes taught by non-native speakers of English. This is because, as Borg (1998) argues, teachers' pedagogical beliefs in language instruction influence students' behaviors. Research is needed to investigate this possibility further as the information could prove useful for designing effective teacher training programs for native and non-native English teachers with different training needs (Littlewood, 1999).

Based on the above argument about the importance of autonomy and how it varies according to the socio-cultural context provided above, this paper sought to investigate two main questions:

1. What are students' perceptions of learner autonomy in university English classes taught by native speakers of English (NSE) and non-native speakers of English (NNSE)?
2. What are the perceptions of native speakers of English (NSE) and non-native speakers of English (NNSE) in terms of the implementation of learner autonomy in their English language classes?

2. Research methodology

2.1 Participants

Two groups of participants from a private university in Japan were involved in this study. The first group involved teachers, three native speakers of English (NSE) and four non-native speakers of English (NNSE). Native speakers of English (NSE) in this study is defined as teachers with English as their first language such as those born in the U.S., Canada, Australia, and the U.K., while non-native speakers of English (NNSE) refers to Japanese teachers of English.

The second group of participants consisted of 40 university students who are taking English Education as their field of specialization, plus 291 university students majoring in social welfare, and taking a basic English course at the time the survey was conducted. The 40 participants are first and second year students taught by NSE. The 291 participants are also first and second year students taught by NNSE.

2.2 Instrument

Littlewood's (1999) 10-item questionnaire, which was based on his ten predictions, was adapted and modified for this study. Prediction 1: East Asian students will have a strong inclination to form in-groups, which work towards common goals. Prediction 2: East Asian students will be eager to engage in activities that involve discussions within groups. Prediction 3: East Asian students will be concerned to maintain harmony within their groups. Prediction 4: In an open classroom, East Asian students will be reluctant to 'stand out' by expressing their views or raising questions, particularly if this might be perceived as expressing public disagreement. Prediction 5: East Asian students will perceive the teacher as an authority figure whose superior knowledge and control over classroom learning events should not be questioned. Prediction 6: East Asian students will see knowledge as something to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the learners. Prediction 7: East Asian students will expect the teacher, as the holder of authority and knowledge, to be responsible for the assessment of learning. Prediction 8: East Asian students will show strong motivation to follow through learning tasks that have been set, provided they perceive the practical value of these tasks. Prediction 9: East Asian students' motivation will be strengthened when success contributes to the goals or prestige of significant in-groups. Prediction 10: A high level of achievement motivation combined with a strong awareness of group expectations might lead East Asian students to be very concerned to perform well and correctly in what they do in class.

The questionnaire for students consists of two parts. Part 1 contains basic information such as gender, year level,

university type, gender of teacher whose class is being evaluated, the course being evaluated, and the native language of the teacher being evaluated. Part 2 has 10 items adopted from Littlewood's questionnaire.

The questionnaire for teachers also has two parts. Part 1 also contains basic information such as gender, university type, native language, course they are evaluating at the time of the survey, and number of years of teaching English. Part 2 also has 10 items adapted from Littlewood's questionnaire. His questionnaire was intended for university students; therefore, the questions were rephrased for the teachers. For example, Question 1 "I like activities where I am part of a group which is working toward common goals" was modified to "I like to use activities where learners are part of a group which is working toward common goals."

In Part 2 for both questionnaires, Questions 1, 2 and 3 reflect the importance of relationships within groups. Question 4 is about student's attitude towards 'standing out' in the classroom situation. Questions 5, 6 and 7 focus on teacher authority and the transmission of knowledge. Questions 8, 9 and 10 relate to socially oriented motivation.

Responses in Part 2 were scored from 4 (Strongly Agree) to 1 (Strongly Disagree) on a Likert scale with no neutral, middle position. A score of 4 indicates a strong agreement while a score of 1 shows a strong disagreement. The neutral choice was eliminated because the research was about classroom autonomy, and all participants were familiar with the research variables being measured. Also, as has commonly been observed, students often select the neutral choice, which makes the interpretation of results more difficult. For ease of interpretation, the data were collapsed into a two-point scale. For example, data for "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" were merged and labeled as "Agree," while data for "Strongly Disagree" and "Disagree" were merged and labeled as "Disagree."

The questionnaire was translated into Japanese and was checked for clarity and accuracy by a Japanese professor of English. To ensure the comprehensibility of the questionnaire, it was piloted with a test group of university students and was revised and finalized using their feedback.

3. Results

Table 1. Student Perceptions of Learner Autonomy in the Classrooms Taught by Native Speakers of English (NSE) and Non-native Speakers of English (NNSE)

	NSE (n=40)			NNSE (n=291)		
	A (%)	D (%)	M	A (%)	D (%)	M
Q1. I like activities where I am part of a group which is working toward common goals	95	5	3.1 A	86	14	3.0 A
Q2. I like to take part in activities which involve discussions within a group	90	10	3.0 A	74	26	2.8 A
Q3. When I am working in a group, I like to help maintain a sense of harmony in the group	98	3	3.25 A	90	10	3.17 A
Q4. In the open classroom, I often feel hesitant to 'stand out' by voicing my opinions and questions	43	58	2.35 D	59	41	2.66 A
Q5. In the classroom, I see the teacher as an authority figure	75	25	2.88 A	68	32	2.78 A
Q6. I tend to see knowledge as something to be 'transmitted' by the teacher rather than 'discovered' by me as a learner	23	78	2.13 D	41	60	2.34 D
Q7. I expect the teacher (rather than me, myself) to be responsible for evaluating how much I have learned	25	75	2.13 D	29	71	2.17 D
Q8. I feel strong motivation to follow through learning tasks of which I perceive the practical value	95	5	3.28 A	78	23	2.96 A
Q9. I feel more motivated to work when my own success contributes to the goals or prestige of significant groups (e.g. family, other students).	90	10	3.23 A	85	15	3.12 A
Q10. In the classroom I feel very concerned to perform well and correctly in what I do.	88	13	2.98 A	70	30	2.83 A

n- Total number of respondents, A – Agree, D – Disagree, NSE – Native speaker of English, NNSE – Non-native speaker of English, M – mean agreement (1=Strongly Disagree, 4 = Strongly Agree)

As shown in Table 1, the students had the same perceptions of learner autonomy in the classrooms taught by native speakers of English (NSE) and non-native speakers of English (NNSE) as far as Q1, Q2, Q3, Q5, Q6, Q7, Q8, Q9 and Q10 were concerned. Specifically, most of the students liked to be part of a group that worked toward a common goal (NSE: A=95%, M=3.1; NNSE: A=89%, M=3.0), be involved in group discussions (NSE: A=90%, M=3.0; NNSE: A=74%,

M=2.8), and to maintain a sense of harmony in a group ((NSE: A=98%, M=3.25; NNSE: A=90%, M=3.17). Most of the students also considered teachers to be an authority figure (NSE: A=75%, M=2.88; NNSE: A=68%, M=2.78), were highly motivated to accomplish learning tasks of practical value (NSE: A=95%, M=3.28; NNSE: A=78%, M=2.96), were more motivated to accomplish the learning tasks that contributed to the goals or prestige of their groups (NSE: A=90%, M=3.23; NNSE: A=85%, M=3.12), and felt very concerned to perform well and correctly in what they did (NSE: A=88%, M=2.98; NNSE: A=70%, M=2.83).

On the other hand, there are two points where most of the student participants from the two groups of teachers disagreed. They did not agree that knowledge should be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by them (NSE: D=78%, M=2.13; NNSE: A=60%, M=2.34), and they did not expect teacher to be responsible for evaluating their learning (NSE: A=75%, M=2.13; NNSE: A=71%, M=2.17).

Finally, the students from the two groups of teachers differed in their perceptions on one point. More than half of the students in the class of NSE were not hesitant to 'stand out' to voice their opinions and questions (D=58%, M=2.35), while the same number of students taught by NNSE felt otherwise (NNSE: A=59%, M=2.66).

Table 2. Teacher perceptions of learner autonomy in their classrooms

	NSE (n=3)			NNSE (n=4)		
	A(%)	D(%)	M	A(%)	D(%)	M
Q1. I like to use activities where learners are part of a group which is working toward common goals	67	33	3.0 A	80	20	3.40 A
Q2. I like to have activities in my class which involve learner discussions within a group	67	33	2.67 A	60	40	3.0 A
Q3. When learners are working in a group, I like to see them helping to maintain a sense of harmony in the group	66	33	2.67 A	80	20	3.20 A
Q4. In the open classroom, I often feel uncomfortable when learners 'stand out' by voicing their opinions and questions	0	100	1.33 D	0	100	1.40 D
Q5. In the classroom, I see myself as an authority figure	0	100	1.33 D	60	40	2.40 D
Q6. I tend to see knowledge as something to be 'transmitted' by me, the teacher, rather than 'discovered' by the learner	0	100	1.33 D	20	80	1.80 D
Q7. As a teacher, I should be responsible, rather than the students, for evaluating how much students have learned	33	66	2.0 D	80	20	2.80 A
Q8. I like to see students feeling a strong motivation to follow through learning tasks of which they perceive the practical value	67	33	3.0 A	100	0	3.20 A
Q9. I believe students feel more motivated to work when their own success contributes to the goals or prestige of significant groups (e.g. family, other students)	67	33	3.0 A	100	0	3.20 A
Q10. In the classroom I feel very concerned to see learners perform well and correctly in what they do	67	33	2.33 D	80	20	3.20 A

n- Total number of respondents, A – Agree, D – Disagree, NSE – Native speaker of English, NNSE – Non-native speaker of English, M – mean agreement (1=Strongly Disagree, 4 = Strongly Agree)

Table 2 reveals that native speakers of English (NSE) and non-native speakers of English had the same perceptions of learner autonomy in their classrooms in regard to Q1, Q2, Q3, Q8 and Q9. Most of the teachers liked their students to be part of a group that worked toward a common goal (NSE: A=67%, M=3.0; NNSE: A=80%, M=3.40), to be involved in group discussions (NSE: A=67%, M=2.67; NNSE: A=60%, M=3.0), and to maintain a sense of harmony in a group (NSE: A=66%, M=2.67; NNSE: A=80%, M=3.20). Also, most of the teachers liked seeing their students have high motivation to accomplish learning tasks of practical value (NSE: A=67%, M=3.0; NNSE: A=100%, M=3.20), and be more motivated to accomplish the learning tasks that contributed to the goals or prestige of their groups (NSE: A=67%, M=3.0; NNSE: A=100%, M=3.20).

On the other hand, there are three points where all of the native speakers of English teachers and non-native speakers of English teachers disagreed. All teachers disagreed that they were hesitant to see their students 'stand out' to voice their opinions and questions (NSE: D =100%, M=1.33; NNSE: D=100%, M=1.40). They also did not agree that they were an authority figure (NSE: D=100%, M=1.33; NNSE: D=60%, M=2.40), and did not see knowledge to be transmitted only by them but discovered by students themselves (NSE: D=100%, M=1.33; NNSE: D=80%, M=1.80).

Finally, the two groups of teachers differed in their perceptions on two points. Most of the native speakers of

English did not think that they should be responsible for evaluating how their students learned, but it should be the students' responsibility (D=66%, M=2.0), while a similar number of non-native speakers of English felt otherwise (A=80%, M=2.80). Also, while the native speakers of English teachers were not very concerned to see their students perform well and correctly in what they did (D=67%, M=2.33), the non-native speakers of English teachers felt otherwise (A=80%, M=3.20).

4. Discussion

In Table 1, the results show that students had similar perceptions of autonomy regardless of whether NSE or NNSE taught the class, in all but one question. Specifically, the students taught by NSE and NNSE agreed with questions that reflect the importance of relationships within the group (Q1, Q2 and Q3; the average score of NSE = 3.12 and NNSE = 2.99). These results are similar to the findings found by Littlewood (1999) who utilized 50 Hong Kong university students learning English. One main reason why Japanese students feel more autonomous and open to learn and discuss utilizing group work as opposed to individual work is that Japanese value collectivism over individualism and collaboration over competition (Samovar & Porter, 1995). This claim is supported by the study of Nozoe (1993) in which a Japanese student wrote that most Japanese have a strong need to belong to a group. Moreover, in a large-scale study of students' attitudes and proficiency in Hong Kong, Littlewood and Liu (1996) and Chan (1995) found that group discussion was students' preferred activity in senior English classes at school and that they were equally keen to do most of the talking in English classes at university.

Like the findings of Littlewood (1999), the students taught by NSE and NNSE also agreed on questions that indicate socially oriented motivation (Q8, Q9 and Q10; the average score of NSE = 3.16 and NNSE = 2.97). Many studies indicate that East Asian students' achievement motivation is often socially rather than individually oriented (Markus & Kitayama, 1992, 1991b; Ho, 1986; Salili, 1996). The results of these studies show that the expectations of students' families are one of the strongest reasons that students often report for striving to enter university. The studies of Chan (1995) and Littlewood and Liu (1996) also reveal that students are eager not only to gain greater fluency in English but also to have their mistakes corrected by the teachers. This explains why a high level of achievement motivation combined with a strong awareness of group expectations leads East Asian students to be very concerned to perform well and correctly in what they do in class (Littlewood, 1999).

As far as clear status difference between students and teachers in the classroom is concerned, the average score (NSE = 2.38 and NNSE = 2.43) of Q5, Q6 and Q7 indicates the disagreement of students taught by NSE and NNSE. Specifically, the students taught by NSE and NNSE considered their teacher as an authority figure in the classroom, but they disagreed that knowledge should be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the students themselves, and that the teacher should be the holder of authority and knowledge and responsible for the assessment of learning. These results contradict the perceptions that East Asian students will consider the teacher as an authority figure whose superior knowledge and control over classroom learning events should not be questioned (Dzau, 1990; Jones, 1995). Littlewood, who interviewed an experienced teacher, reports that amongst themselves students frequently questioned their teacher's judgement. This suggests that students' overt acceptance of the teacher's authority may be due more to the constraints of the situation than to the internalized recognition of authority that is often taken to be. This means that students will find it normal to engage in modes of learning which are teacher-centered and in which they receive knowledge rather than interpret it. This is supported by the survey of Littlewood and Liu (1996) in which Hong Kong students named listening to the teacher as their most frequent activity in senior school English classes. Another support to this finding is revealed in the study of Gamble et al (2011) who found that Japanese university students at various levels of motivation perceived themselves as being capable of being more involved in their own learning. However, they often did not act on these feelings due to a perception that it was the teacher's responsibility or due to a lack of confidence. They further suggest that there is ample room in the typical Japanese university classroom for opportunities to change direction for students taking more responsibilities for their own learning. This should include educating and training students in learning strategies to narrow the gap between their perceived abilities and the learning responsibilities they take on.

The one difference in student perceptions of autonomy in regard to classes taught by NSE and NNSE was where students were asked if they felt hesitant to 'stand out' by voicing their opinions and questions. The results show that students felt less hesitant to speak out in classes taught by NSE. Why would students feel more at ease to speak out and voice opinions in classes taught by native speakers of English? According to Littlewood (1999), in an open classroom, East Asian students will be reluctant to 'stand out' by expressing their views or raising questions, particularly if this might

be perceived as expressing public disagreement. This is the experience commented on by many teachers, both with a Western background (Anderson 1993) and with an East Asian background (Song 1995; Tsui 1996). Students perceive the teacher as an authoritative figure and may feel that expressing personal views in class may disrupt the teacher-student harmony. The results in Table 1 show that Japanese students may have perceived NSE to be less of an authoritative symbol compared to NNSE; therefore, felt less inhibited to voice their views in front of their peers.

Regarding teacher perceptions of learner autonomy in their classrooms, NSE and NNSE agreed on all but two questions. Specifically, NSE and NNSE agreed with questions that reflect the importance of relationships within the group (Q1, Q2 and Q3; average score of NSE = 2.78 and NNSE = 3.2). Teacher perceptions conform with student perceptions. These results suggest that NSE saw the importance attached to the interdependent self in East Asian culture, that is why students forming in-groups to work towards common goals was practiced in their classrooms.

As far as the socially-oriented motivation of students is concerned, NSE and NNSE expressed agreement that it is important in their learning as shown in the average score of Q8, Q9 and Q10; NSE = 2.78 and NNSE = 3.2). However, NSE were not very concerned to see their students perform well and correctly in what they did. These findings suggest that while native speakers of English recognized that their students would show strong motivation to follow through learning tasks perceived as having practical value, which could be strengthened when success could contribute to the goals or prestige of significant in-groups, they did not think correctness in performance could be a contributing factor in the classroom success and could inhibit students to participate in class due to fear of making mistakes or fear of ridicule (Tsui, 1996).

Like the response of their students, NSE and NNSE expressed disagreement with regard to teacher authority and transmission of knowledge as shown by the average score of Q5, Q6 and Q7; NSE = 1.33 and NNSE = 1.40). Specifically, NSE believed that assessment of learning should not only be their responsibility, but also the students'. NNSE thought otherwise.

Another interesting finding was both NSE and NNSE had similar autonomous perceptions when it comes to not feeling authoritative and allowing students to discover knowledge and voice their opinions and questions. Both NSE and NNSE believed that learners would be more motivated in groups and should work in groups to help each other to achieve a common goal. These findings suggest that teachers of all societies viewed autonomous learning in pairs and groups as a positive aspect of education.

5. Conclusion

Based on the results, the following can be concluded. First, NSE and their students as well as NNSE and their students agreed to the importance of students working together in groups to achieve their common goal. These results especially imply that NSE understood that it was important for students to have harmony and cooperation in the in-group to achieve their goal, which NSE themselves implemented in their classrooms. This, in turn, might have influenced students' perceptions. It was expected that the students of NSE would claim the right to express themselves, make personal choices and strive for self-actualization, but the results revealed otherwise. Students preferred to cooperate to achieve harmony in the in-group.

Second, the perceptions of the students are consistent with the perceptions of their teachers, that is, students and their teachers favored socially oriented motivation. However, NSE were not very concerned to see their students perform well and correctly in what they did, which suggests that while native speakers of English recognized that their students would show strong motivation to follow through learning tasks perceived as having practical value, which could be strengthened when the success could contribute to the goals or prestige of significant in-groups, they did not think correctness in performance could be a contributing factor in the classroom success. It could, in fact, inhibit students to participate in class due to fear of making mistakes or fear of ridicule (Tsui, 1996).

Third, students taught by NSE and NNSE considered their teacher to be an authority figure in the classroom, but they did not think that knowledge should be transmitted by the teacher rather it should be discovered by the students themselves, and the teacher should be the holder of authority and knowledge and responsible for the assessment of learning. NSE and NNSE thought the same. However, NSE believed that assessment of learning should not only be their responsibility, but also the students'. NNSE thought otherwise.

Fourth, students felt less hesitant to speak out in classes taught by NSE. Japanese students may have perceived NSE to be less of an authoritative symbol compared to NNSE, therefore, felt less inhibited to voice their views in front of their peers. NNSE had similar autonomous perceptions when it comes to not feeling authoritative and allowing students to discover knowledge and voice their opinions and questions. However, these perceptions conflict with the perceptions

of their students, suggesting that although NNSE were comfortable with students' expressing their own opinions in class, the learning environment may not provide opportunities for students to voice their opinions and questions.

Finally, the kind of autonomy that prevailed in the classrooms of NSE and NNSE is evidently reactive, which characterizes East Asian autonomy. Except for exercising their power and authority as teacher by controlling students' learning, giving responsibility to students to evaluate their own learning, and not focusing on correctness in students' classroom task performance, NSE believed in collectivism and value of effort and self-discipline. NNSE also believed in collectivism and value of effort and self-discipline. They disagreed on exercising their power and authority as teacher by controlling students' learning, but believed that they should play a major role in evaluating students' learning. These pedagogical beliefs seemed to influence students' behaviors.

Since there were only three NSE and four NNSE and an unequal number of student participants (students in NSE classrooms = 40, students in NNSE classrooms = 291), there is a danger of making a generalization about autonomy in the classrooms of NSE and NNSE. In order to make a good comparison between groups of students and teachers, data should be collected from at least 30 NSE and 30 NNSE, and balance in the number of student participants should be observed. It is also recommended that statistical method should be utilized to determine the significant difference in perceptions between groups of respondents.

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Academic and Social Outcomes of Children with SEN in the General Education Classroom

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Abstract

This paper reviews the research literature on academic and social outcomes of children with special educational needs (SEN) in inclusive settings. It offers an overview of the current debates on issues such as classification of SEN and labelling, varieties of inclusion, followed by a review of separate studies focused on academic and social outcomes. Recommendations are given regarding a wider re-conceptualisation of outcomes and the need for mixed-methods longitudinal studies exploring and measuring outcomes for children with and without SEN.

Keywords: SEN, inclusive education; academic outcomes; social outcomes;

1. Introduction

Mythologising the past contributes partly to the maintenance of unreconstructed notions of schooling and educational defectiveness. There is also a tendency to mythologise the present as progressing towards some idealised inclusive state, with statements like 'not yet there' or simply moving 'towards inclusion' (Slee & Allen, 2001). Inclusive education is a topic that has caused much debate, stirred emotions, and has received great attention. Inclusive education has been driven by a belief that this is the correct or the only morally right approach, to include rather than segregate and exclude (Lindsay, 2007). Meanwhile, there are voices (e.g. Mock & Kauffman, 2005) that dissent, stating that *full* inclusion is an unscientific and unjustified endeavour, rather a delusion, a product of the current post-modernist thinking in education and social sciences in general.

Is *full* inclusion a "good" idea? Is it morally "right" and at the same time "practical"? Is it "efficacious"? Is it politically incorrect to question it or even oppose it? This paper will (and can) not dwell in or answer such philosophical, sociological or strictly educational questions regarding the conceptualisation or validity of inclusive processes in education (or society). The aim is much more modest than that, i.e. to offer an overview of studies exploring the academic and social outcomes of students (identified and labelled as) with special educational needs (SEN) in the general education classroom. This presentation will, hopefully, be of special interest to psychologists and educators, who are trying to contribute to the improvement of the academic progress and emotional/social well being of children with SEN in different contexts.

2. SEN and Inclusion: definitions and related problems

2.1 *Special educational needs: is labelling really necessary?*

Due to cross-national inconsistencies in the classification of SEN, the OECD obtained agreement across countries to re-allocate their national categories into three types, for the purpose of obtaining data for international comparisons:

Category A: Disabilities: students with disabilities or impairments viewed in medical terms as organic disorders attributable to organic pathologies (e.g., in relation to sensory, motor or neurological defects). The educational need is considered to arise primarily from problems attributable to these disabilities.

Category B: Difficulties: students with behavioural or emotional disorders, or specific difficulties in learning. The educational need is considered to arise primarily from problems in the interaction between the student and the educational context.

Category C: Disadvantages: students with disadvantages arising primarily from socio-economic, cultural, and/or linguistic factors. The educational need is to compensate for the disadvantages attributable to these factors (OECD, 2005, p.14)

Some countries have taken a strong stance in relation to categorisation. Sweden has generally adopted an anti-categorisation approach to special educational needs and has opposed the use of medical categories for educational purposes. Given the reluctance to categorise children, psychometric assessment techniques have not been widely used. An exception to the Swedish anti-categorisation stance is the recognition of deaf or hearing impaired students as a separate group who may have the option of attending a special school for the deaf. While, in the UK, various categories or areas of general 'difficulties' are organised in terms of four broad dimensions called 'needs' (DfES, 2003). They are:

- A. *Cognition and Learning Needs*
Specific Learning Difficulty (SpLD); Moderate Learning Difficulty (MLD); Severe Learning Difficulty (SLD); Profound and Multiple Learning Difficulty (PMLD).
- B. *Behaviour, Emotional and Social Development Needs*
Behaviour, Emotional and Social Difficulty (BESD).
- C. *Communication and Interaction Needs*
Speech, Language and Communication Needs (SLCN); Autistic Spectrum Disorder (ASD).
- D. *Sensory and/or Physical Needs*
Visual Impairment (VI); Hearing Impairment (HI); Multi-Sensory Impairment (MSI); Physical Disability (PD).

Lindsay (2007) points out that the generic term of special educational needs has been widely used in the UK for nearly 30 years to cover 'all children who have developmental difficulties that affect: their learning; their behavioural, emotional and social development; their communication, and their ability to care for themselves and gain independence'. Such conceptualisation has been considerably influential in Europe (e.g. Germany, Netherlands) where it has been used in legislation endorsing policies of inclusion in education. The terms 'special education' and students with 'special education needs' are widely used in the literature. The term 'special educational needs', as a form of labelling, is not without its critics (Norwich, 2010). In the past three decades, educators have been embroiled in a debate regarding pros and cons of labelling and categorization of students with disabilities. During the last two centuries, derogatory labels such as imbecile, stupid, and retarded were normally used by psychologists and educators to describe individuals who did not conform to the societal norms (Mukuria & Bakken, 2010). Their function was geared to exclude people with disabilities from facilities, and activities enjoyed by people without disabilities. Unfortunately, this resulted in alienation, isolation, and institutionalization of individuals with disabilities (Hallahan, Kauffman, & Pullen, 2009).

The proponents of labelling have suggested that labelling may communicate a child's strengths and weaknesses, establish a diagnosis, suggest interventions, be used to raise financial support, and provide foundation for research on etiology and prevention (Ysseldyke & Algozzine, 1990). In addition, they posit that labelling is imbedded in the law, recognizes meaningful differences in learning, leads to a proactive response, provides common language for researchers and professionals, helps in fundraising for research and other programs, enables disability-specific advocacy to promote programs and spur legislative action, and helps make exceptional children's needs more visible to policy makers members of public (Hallahan et al., 2009). According to Mukuria and Bakken (2010) labelling, however, should be assigned professionally, cautiously, and with common sense so that it does not become an end to itself. In addition, labelling may lead to a protective response in which adults and children without disabilities become more accepting of atypical behaviour of an individual with disabilities than a child without a disability who exhibits the same behaviour. Above all, according to Mukuria and Bakken, it is critical for individuals with disabilities themselves, to understand themselves and appreciate who they are, since by understanding their strengths and weaknesses they will be able to set high but realistic goals. Labelling may help the students with disabilities recognize that there are individuals out there who are like themselves, thus not only removing them from isolation but also helping them get some consolation, create a better self-image and develop better self-esteem.

Lynch (2001) warns that the term SEN should be used with caution. Lynch argues that the term may perpetuate the binary divide between 'ordinary' and 'special' students and systems. Second, the label may present a barrier to the development of inclusive practice, and it is not very helpful in pinpointing the educational difficulties of the learner. Third, the label tends to put the burden on the learner and a focus on individual deficits, rather than the characteristics of the school and environment and therefore excuse schools from change. According to labelling opponents (Blum & Bakken, 2010), disability labels have outlived their educational usefulness - although the origin of disability labels is connected to the medical model of identification where diagnostic medical disability criteria are useful in disciplines such as, medicine and psychiatry; however, they have little meaningful instructional application in education, despite the persistent use of

them in the general and special education. Instead of using a disability labelling approach, alternate assessments that provide an ecological framework to guide educators in the identification of students with disabilities may be adopted as more useful and empowering.

It is worth noting that, according to Norwich (2010), the term special educational needs (SEN) was introduced in the UK in the late 1970s to move away from deficit categories – what the child or young person could not do – to what was required to provide learning opportunities and support learning (DES, 1978; Warnock Report). The assumption has been that the significant difficulties that give rise to special educational needs lie along a continuum. Difficulties are a matter of degree; with the difference being one of degree not of kind. The term is specifically an educational one that relates directly to teaching and learning. It contrasts with the related term ‘special needs’ which has tended to be used as a general cross-sector term. ‘Special needs’ like the term ‘disability’ applies across different areas of life activities; but ‘special needs’ has also been used to refer to needs beyond learning difficulties and disabilities, for example, English as an additional language need. Another valued aspect of the special educational needs term, again according to Norwich, has been the focus on individual needs, which promotes an interactionist conceptualisation, which recognised the combined role of individual and social factors and is consistent with the more elaborate and recent versions of a bio-psycho-social model of disability, as found in the International Classification of Functioning applied to children and young people (WHO, 2007). This kind of interactionist model is a useful way of going beyond the unnecessary polarisation between medical (individual) and social models.

2.2 Inclusion (s): are people talking about the same thing(s)?

The World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) in 2000, affirmed the notion of education as a fundamental right and established the new millennium goal to provide every girl and boy with primary school education by 2015. EFA also clearly identified Inclusive Education as one of the key strategies to address issues of marginalization and exclusion. The fundamental principle of EFA is that all children should have the opportunity to learn. The fundamental principle of Inclusive Education is that all children should have the opportunity to learn together. Significant numbers of disabled children and youth are largely excluded from educational opportunities for primary and secondary schooling. Exclusion, poverty and disability are linked. Education is widely recognized as a means to develop human capital, to improve economic performance, and to enhance people’s capabilities and choices. Exclusion from education can result in a staggering loss of freedom and productivity in the labour market (Peters, 2003). One of the first expressions of the philosophy occurred nearly 40 years ago when Scandinavian countries began referring to the principle of ‘normalization’. This was defined as the process of making available to disabled persons ‘patterns of life and conditions of everyday living which are as close as possible to the regular circumstances and ways of life of society’ (Nirje, 1969). In almost every country, inclusive education has emerged as one of the most dominant issues in the education of students with SEN. In the past 40 years the field of special needs education has moved from a segregation paradigm through integration to a point where inclusion is central to contemporary discourse (Mitchell, 2010).

It is important to note there is no universally accepted definition of inclusion; thus, this term holds different meanings to different individuals (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994). Inclusive education may be implemented at different levels, embrace different goals, and be based on different motives, reflect different classifications of SEN, and provide services in different contexts. Specific goals may focus either on improved educational performance and quality of education, or on autonomy, self-determination, proportionality, consumer satisfaction or parental choice. Some of these goals may conflict and produce tensions. Similarly, motives for Inclusive Education may derive from dissatisfaction with the system, from economic or resource allocation concerns, or from a vision of educational reform. Finally, SEN services may be viewed as a continuum of placement options (multi-track approach), as a distinct education system (two-track approach) or as a continuum of services within one placement—the general education school and classroom (one-track approach). All of the variants produced by these different aims, levels, systems and motives may be called inclusive education (Peters, 2003; Meijer et al., 2003).

Inclusion has been imposed on or embraced by the educational systems of many societies as a moral imperative, thus, not necessarily in need for empirical support of its efficacy. However, for researchers in the pragmatist tradition, the critical question for educators and families should be, “Will the general education environment result in improved achievement for learners with diverse needs and disabilities?”, or, “Does evidence support the widespread belief that inclusion will improve social outcomes for students with SEN?”

The lack of a definition of inclusion makes evaluation difficult. If a judgement is to be made about how well inclusion is working, it arguably necessitates some consensus both about what inclusion is and how to define ‘working’.

It is possible to identify commitment to the principles of inclusion, the existence of policies for inclusion and evidence that practice is becoming more inclusive, but still not be clear how any of this contributes to more positive outcomes for the individual child or young person. A developing theme has been a focus on outcomes for the individual learner and a consideration of what inclusion means at the level of the child or young person's experience (McLaughlin & Rouse, 2000; Ellis, Tod & Graham-Matheson, 2008)

3. Academic and social outcomes of children with SEN in inclusive settings

Outcomes of inclusive education are often illusive and difficult to measure. Student achievement tests of content knowledge provide only one indicator of impact, and are not strongly linked to success in adult life, nor do they provide a measure of creative and analytical problem-solving skills needed for survival. The challenge is to measure success in terms of broad indicators of outcomes and impact (Peters, 2003). Lynch (2001) advocates for evaluation of inclusive education programs at all levels (institutional and teacher performance as well as student performance), and against the goals of inclusion within a democratic, human-rights-based environment. Researchers have shown ongoing interest in the academic skills acquisition/performance and social/affective outcomes of students with SEN in inclusive settings. This paper will briefly present and discuss here selected studies, in order to illustrate the nature and objectives of some of the research on the efficacy of inclusive practices.

3.1 Academic outcomes

There is large body of research that addresses the question of how inclusion impacts on the achievements of students with and without special educational needs. In interpreting these studies, however, several cautions need be taken into account: (a) some of the earlier studies may not be relevant to current conditions, (b) many of the studies compare placements only and do not 'drill down' into the nature of the educational programmes the students received, (c) many studies are methodologically flawed, and, of course, (d) all studies are specific to the context in which they were conducted (Mitchell, 2010). Other potential problems with the data which is collected to document academic progress, may include: (a) data are collected mainly from children with mild to moderate learning difficulties or emotional/behavioural problems, whereas in the special education schools students with more severe and challenging issues are educated; (b) teachers may use different standards when evaluating students with SEN in the classroom, for example, be more lenient or hold lower expectations regarding class-work, attendance, or participation; or (c) they may inflate the grades of children with disabilities perhaps, due to personal compassionate feelings, providing incentives (as a form of external motivation), or external pressure on the school to comply with standards of excellence.

Unique to Europe, Italy's National Law 118 (1971) and National Law 517 (1977) established Inclusive Education as national policy. In the report by Gobbo *et.al.* (2009) on the inclusion of students with SEN in the Italian school system, which (since the legislation of 1975 on inclusive education) currently accommodates about 98% of this group in the general education, some concerns on the poor outcomes are mentioned: (a) 56.5% complete compulsory education, and only 10.4% get an upper secondary degree or a university degree – the highest achievers are those with sensory-physical (motor) disabilities, only a few of those with language or psychological difficulties achieve at a similar level; (b) every year about 10% of disabled students fail and need to repeat the grade, while 26.3% have repeated at a least a grade during their school career (p.49-52). This report however reports only national statistical data, and doesn't provide details of research exploring these concerns.

In Germany, students with SEN are also considered as at-risk group for school drop-out – more than 2/3 leave school without any sort of qualified certificate, however, the majority of these "failed" students attend special schools (for mental diseases!), since students with SEN in integrated forms are normally entitled to receive a leaving school certificate (Gogolin and Jochum, 2009).

In France, in the second half of 2000, there were expressed strong criticisms regarding the inadequacy (or lack) of legislation and provisions necessary to enable inclusion (Ebersbold, 2006; Tranchant, 2008). However, the heated discussion is still at the socio-political level – systematic research evaluating outcomes of inclusive practices, has yet to come.

In the Netherlands, students aged four to approximately 12 years may be educated in mainstream schools, in special primary schools or in special schools; 95% of all 4–12-year-old children in the Netherlands attend mainstream schools, 3% special primary schools and 2% special schools. Special primary schools are schools for students with moderate learning difficulties and moderate behavioural difficulties. Special schools are schools for students with more

severe difficulties, e.g. physical handicaps, mental handicaps or severe social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. Instead of referring students to special schools, mainstream schools may include these students and obtain a budget for additional support, which for the most part has to be spent on support by a peripatetic teacher. There are no special classes in mainstream schools, so students are either included in or excluded from mainstream classes (I. van der Veen et al., 2010). Despite the fact that it has been Dutch government policy for over a decade that as many students with special needs as possible should be educated in mainstream schools, there has still not been a substantial scaling down of the percentage of students in separate provision (Smeets, 2007).

Peetsma et al. (2001) conducted a 4-year longitudinal study of matched pairs of Dutch pupils with mild learning and behavioural difficulties, one in special and one in mainstream placement. The mainstream pupils academically outperformed the special school pupils over the period. The results were that, after two years, only a few differences in development were found: students made more progress in mathematics in inclusive settings, but school motivation developed more favourably in special schools. After four years, students in regular schools had made more progress in academic performance, whereas there were no differences in psychosocial functioning. However, a small-scale qualitative study, which was incorporated as part of the major study, showed that students with psychosocial problems made somewhat better progress in special education than in regular education, pointing to the need to pay attention to the psychosocial development of students with mild disabilities when they are placed in inclusive settings. I. van der Veen et al., (2010) found in their large-scale study of children with SEN in general education, and their numeracy and literacy attainment levels, that cognitive problems had a much stronger effect on the school career than social-emotional and physical problems.

More systematic reviews of research on outcomes of inclusive practices come from the US and UK, where discussion of effectiveness indicators predominates in the literature. The assessment of outcomes for children included in mainstream education is key in current policy initiatives in both the US and UK (US Department of Education, 2002; DFES, 2003). However, one criticism of this "outcome-focussed" approach, maintains that indicators do little to promote an understanding of development and treat inclusive education as if it were an event, not a dynamic process (Peters, 2003).

In one of the earliest meta-analyses, 50 studies compared general (i.e., inclusive) and special class placements. It was found that placement in general classes resulted in better outcomes for learners with mild mental retardation, but poorer outcomes for students with learning disabilities or behavioural/emotional problems (Carlberg & Kavale, 1980). Another early meta-analysis of 50 studies (Weiner, 1985) compared the academic performance of mainstreamed and segregated students with mild handicapping conditions. The mean academic performance of the integrated groups was in the 80th percentile, while segregated students scored in the 50th percentile. Baker, Wang and Walberg (1994) conducted meta-analysis of inclusive education studies that generated a common measure of effect size. This measure demonstrated a small to moderate beneficial effect of inclusive education on academic and social outcomes of SEN students.

Lipsky and Gartner (1992) argued that special education, compared to regular education, had poorer outcomes for students with disabilities. For example, students with disabilities in special schools or classes were less likely to complete secondary education, and when they did leave school were likely to be unemployed, to live at home rather than independently, and to have few friends. Few were likely to be enrolled in post-secondary education, or were engaged in any productive activity after they left school. The problem with such conclusions about outcomes is that they fail to show how outcomes are determined by educational setting interacting with individual student background and characteristics, which are independent of the setting. Manset and Semmel (1997) reviewed learning outcomes for mainstreamed and segregated pupils, finding no difference in mathematics but a small advantage for mainstreamed pupils in literacy. These authors also found that 'normal' pupils in mainstreamed environments were actually advantaged in terms of attainment by the presence of pupils with special educational needs – perhaps because their teachers were sensitised to the different learning needs of others in the class with challenges.

A study comparing 8th grade students in middle schools in the US, one inclusive the other implementing a pull out special education system, with matched groups of students with LD, found that the inclusive education group achieved significantly higher levels on a range of academic measures and equivalent scores on others (Rea, McLaughlan, and Walther-Thomas, 2002). These children also had better attendance and equivalent levels of suspension. The features of this relatively successful model included a 'teaming model' whereby teachers planned work together and classes rotated during the day.

A UK study compared the outcomes for adolescents with Down syndrome of similar abilities but educated in mainstream or in special schools. The results showed no evidence of educational benefits for those in segregated

settings, despite the higher teacher-student ratios. Those who attended their neighbourhood mainstream schools made significant gains (two-three years) over their special school peers in expressive language and in academic achievement (Buckley, 2006). Several studies have found that quality of instruction, rather than placement, is the most important predictor of student achievement. For example, in one study of mathematics achievement of students with hearing impairments, placement in regular or special classes did not seem to impact on achievement. Rather specific features of quality placement included a supportive teacher, regular and extensive reviews of material, direct instruction and a positive classroom environment (Kluwin & Moores, 1989)

A range of studies has investigated academic progress of children with SEN within mainstream schools. There is evidence that children can make appropriate progress in a mainstream setting if specific curriculum differentiation and teaching strategies are employed (Manset & Semmel, 1997). Cross and Walker-Knight (1997) reviewed studies of inclusive provision for children with SEN. Successful methods for promoting inclusion involved planning for common tasks and small group learning requiring co-operative behaviour, individual accountability and responsibility. Fisher and Frey (2001) suggested that academic inclusion is facilitated by specific alterations to the delivery of the curriculum that are different and additional to the normal differentiation of the class, collaboration amongst the teaching team and involvement of peers.

Lindsay (2007) in his meta-analytic review found that the evidence does not provide a clear endorsement for the positive effects of inclusion. There is a lack of evidence from appropriate studies and, where evidence does exist, the balance was only marginally positive. Another point of mixed evidence can be found in a report from the European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education (2003). This suggested that inclusion generally works positively at the primary school level, but serious problems emerge at the secondary level. This was attributed to increased topic specialisation, the different organisation of secondary schools, and the increasing gap between the achievement of students with SEN and other students with age.

On the other hand, findings from studies suggest that there are no adverse effects on students without special educational needs of including students with special needs in mainstream schools (Kalamouka et al. 2007). The rationale behind inclusion, then, is the concern that children should not be segregated from their peers and excluded from the mainstream curriculum and practice (Lindsay 2007). Whether students with special needs will be able to develop well enough in mainstream education and how great is the risk that they will be referred to a form of special education depends on a number of different factors. Characteristics of the child, the teacher, the class and the school all play an important part. The important task now is to research more thoroughly the mediators and moderators that support the optimal education for children with SEN and disabilities and, as a consequence, develop an evidence-based approach to these children's education.

Although inclusion can be (relatively) effective academically, research literature suggests that children with SEN can experience rejection and bullying in mainstream schools (Dyson, Farrell, Polat, & Hutchenson, 2004). Therefore, to be considered successful, a programme to place a child with SEN in a mainstream school would need to enable both academic and social inclusion.

3.2 Social outcomes

Successful implementation of diversity in education requires a special effort to respond to the special educational needs (SEN) of students. Schools generally tend to place priority on acquisition of academic knowledge but rarely make provision for activities designed to foster socio-affective development of special needs students (Cambra & Silvestre, 2003). Research studies that have investigated the social and affective outcomes of educating pupils with SEN in mainstream schools have produced equivocal results; these children have poorer outcomes overall compared with their peers, and this is the case even in primary schools, notwithstanding greater concerns about secondary schools (Frederickson et al. 2007; Warnock, 2005). Although inclusion often is touted as improving the self-concept, social integration, and peer relationships of students with disabilities, evidence concerning the benefits of inclusion for the social functioning of students with LD reveal differential benefits (Vaughn & Elbaum, 1999). Furthermore, although the social functioning of students with disabilities is very important, few would suggest that the academic performance of students with LD be sacrificed as a means to enhance social outcomes. (Vaughn et al., 2001).

In a meta-analytic review of social skills deficits and learning disabilities, Kavale and Forness (1996) found that approximately 75% of students with learning disabilities received lower ratings of their social skills when compared with peers without learning disabilities. As a group, students with disabilities are perceived by all categories of raters to exhibit poorer social skills than their peers without disabilities. Across 152 studies analyzed, students with disabilities were at

approximately the 25th percentile in terms of social skills. Teachers perceived that students with learning disabilities are most frequently distinguished from their peers without disabilities by academic deficits and less frequent social interactions. Students without disabilities respond towards their peers with disabilities most frequently by rejection or limited acceptance, wherein students without disabilities are friends with only about 30% of their peers with LD.

A Swedish study of 183 pupils (9–3 years) found no difference in self-concept between those receiving support from special educators in mainstream schools (Allodi, 2000) although there was some evidence of those supported in mainstream having lower levels of self-concept for academic competence compared with those in small groups in special units. Cambra and Silvestre (2003) studied the self-concept and social preference of Spanish students with a range of SEN and comparison LD children in a mainstream school with Special Experimental School status (35% had SEN of various kinds). The typically developing group had significantly more positive social and academic self-concepts and were also more likely to be selected and less likely to be rejected. Hence, mainstreaming in this study was not associated with equivalent socio-emotional development for the SEN group.

Self-concept is a particularly relevant issue for students with LD for three reasons (Vaughn et al., 2001). First, when compared with their peers, students with LD demonstrate difficulties in both the academic and social areas, thus supporting the hypothesis that their self-concept may be adversely affected by low academic functioning. Second, students with LD are identified as needing special support to enhance their academic performance, and this identification and labeling process may negatively affect their self-concept. Third, students with LD differ from other students with disabilities in that they demonstrate average or above-average intellectual capability that is inconsistent with their academic performance. This average-to-high cognitive functioning may make students with LD more aware of their academic challenges, thus influencing their self-perceptions.

A meta-analysis of self-concept of students with learning disabilities derived from an analysis of 36 research reports allowing 65 different placement comparisons (Elbaum, 2002) provides more substantial evidence. This found no overall relationship between self-concept and setting (regular classroom for all instruction, part-time resource, self-contained for all academic instruction and special school) for four out of five comparisons suggesting that students fared no better or worse in terms of self-concept in regular or separate classrooms.

Friendships are an integral part of the social development for all children and can be distinguished both empirically and conceptually from peer acceptance, or social status. A student's peer acceptance is assessed by obtaining ratings by the student's classmates of how much they like the student. In comparison, friendships reflect reciprocated attachment, affection, companionship, and support between two individuals (Vaughn et al., 2001). In an interview study of 14 young people (12–18 years) with Down syndrome attending either their local mainstream secondary school or a resourced mainstream school, Cuckle and Wilson (2002) found that the young people were positive about friendships and having role models among mainstream peers but friendships were mainly limited to school. More truly reciprocal friendships were noted with peers who also had SEN, including others with Down syndrome.

Vaughn and Elbaum (1999) examined the friendships of more than 4,000 elementary students, including more than 900 students with LD. Ninety-six percent of students with LD listed at least one best friend, with approximately 67% listing six or more friends. At the elementary level, perceived quality of friendships was modestly higher for students without LD than for students with LD and continued to increase through high school. In contrast, the perceived quality of friendships for students with LD remained the same. Analyzing perceptions of friendship quality by the component dimensions of companionship, intimacy, and support for self-esteem, the authors found (a) no difference between students with and without LD in terms of companionship, (b) higher friendship intimacy for students without LD, and (c) less support for self-esteem for students with LD.

A number of teaching strategies have been identified that can promote the development of social relationships among primary school pupils with and without SEN. Among those identified by Salisbury, Gallucci, Palombaro and Peck (1995) were: co-operative grouping, opportunities for collaborative problem solving, focussing on social interaction, the use of peer tutors and structuring time to provide opportunities for generalising and applying learning. In the absence of such facilitating strategies, full-time physical placement (physical inclusion) of a child within mainstream school does not necessarily reduce negative social perceptions.

In a study of McConaughy et al. (2011), medium to large group effects showed significant academic and social impairments for elementary school children with ADHD compared to controls and other referred children without ADHD. Children with ADHD scored significantly lower than controls on standardized achievement tests, and significantly lower than controls and other referred children without ADHD on parent and teacher ratings of their academic performance and social behavior. Of children with ADHD, 15-55% showed clinically significant impairment in academic performance and 26-85% showed clinically significant impairment in social behavior.

A study by Avramidis (2010) which involved 566 pupils drawn from seven British primary schools, contrary to most previously discussed studies, found that pupils with SEN were found to be equally likely to be members of the friendship clusters of the class and occupied similar levels of network centrality as their non-SEN peers. In keeping with earlier studies, pupils with SEN were more likely to be nominated on anti-social indicators. Specifically, boys with SEN were more frequently perceived as 'rule breakers' while girls with SEN as 'shy/withdrawn'. However, those pupils with the pro-social characteristics of leadership and sportsmanship were well integrated in peer groups.

4. Conclusions

There is a lack of a firm research base for inclusive education to support either whether this is a preferable approach in terms of outcomes, or how inclusion should be implemented (Lindsay, 2007). Concerns about the possible negative consequences of full inclusion for students with LD have led various researchers to advocate a more individualized approach to inclusion in which the learning and social needs of each student are considered first and foremost, rather than the "place" where the student is educated (e.g., Fuchs, Fuchs, & Fernstrom, 1993). Suggestions for the responsible inclusion of students with LD have underscored the need to individualize placement decisions, provide appropriate training and resources to teachers, and monitor the outcomes of placement decisions and interventions so as to make changes as needed (Vaughn et al, 2001). However, negative results could be interpreted as examples of bad integration practices, rather than as indicators of the efficacy of inclusion. Nevertheless, studies focusing on academic and social outcomes could serve to obtain a "baseline" for the "functioning" of not only students with SEN, but of the general education settings also, as a starting point for improving the design and implementation of inclusive practices.

It appears, according to Davis and Watson (2001) that much of the literature homogenises the lives of adults and children in schools. They are characterised as only responding to structural influences within their life worlds. Disabled children encounter discriminatory notions of 'normality' and 'difference' in both 'special' and 'mainstream' schools, and that these experiences relate not simply to the structural forces that impinge on schools and teachers, but also to the everyday individual and cultural practices of adults and children. Mixed methods (qualitative-quantitative), action-research and/or longitudinal studies could perhaps be carefully designed by school psychologists and experienced teachers working in inclusive schools (in consultation with parents and children themselves), in order to understand and evaluate the impact of various practices called inclusion, on the development pathways of children and youth with and without SEN, not only on their grades or perceived social status in a certain semester in the general education classroom.

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Librarians' Online Efforts Toward Virtual and Collaborative Information Services

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Abstract

Virtual worlds have attracted hundreds of librarian volunteers who are interested in exploring virtual online environments like Second Life (R) as avenues to deliver and promote library resources to users "where they are." A core team of leaders from a variety of library types from many countries emerged online during this initiative to tackle many difficult questions in developing and implementing library services for virtual users. As innovators, librarians are not often seen as leaders by those outside of the profession. However, a growing online presence of librarians as technological early adopters has emerged to inform our view of ways in which library and information services professionals can design, test, and revise online "third places" where social interaction, information exchange, and inquiry about technologies or any other topics can occur as seamlessly as in a physical library. Online virtual environments have been truly social learning environments for the librarians, as well as for their users. We need to not overlook the importance of these new spaces or "sandboxes" as most useful for professional development of instructors and information professionals. Transferable skills in online collaboration, articulating oneself clearly through words and avatars, and functioning as a contributing team member on a new and uncharted initiative are truly valuable experiences for professional learning in information, communication, and technology (ICT) fields.

1. Introduction

Many librarians are concerned about the future. They worry that the library may fade away or become unimportant and that their own roles may shrink. These anxieties are realistic only if librarians are unavoidably dependent on the library as a physical place. The history of librarianship in the twentieth century demonstrates that they are not. Librarians met the initial challenges of the computer revolution reasonably and with a noteworthy series of successes. These were driven by the propensity of librarians to work cooperatively with others at local, regional, national, and international levels and by their inclination to share what they know. As a result, librarians can look to the Twenty-first Century with excitement and anticipation. No longer are they the custodians; rather they are the guardians with the capacity to shape their own environments for the benefit of their clients. (Martell, 2003, p. 2524)

With the dawn of the digital age, librarians began to seek new ways to store and organize information, to provide access to that information for patrons, and to provide new methods of awareness and communication for the general public about what libraries have to offer. Over time, libraries automated their catalog of book and periodical holdings for easier searching via computer, significant innovations for a traditional profession in a relatively short period of time. Now librarians are utilizing social computing tools to not only make library information available for free via interactive web pages and multimedia web portals, but also to communicate with library users and each other online. Sharing resources, asking and answering questions, connecting people to information, and engaging others in discussion of this new information have become important and valued services provided by libraries of many kinds.

Libraries began to embrace new technologies initially so that they could more easily and appropriately accomplish their goals of providing information and sharing knowledge freely and widely. Text-only library catalog searches began to include hyperlinks, graphics, and interconnected holdings information from libraries around the country and around the world. Libraries used increasingly sophisticated websites, which often included blogs and news feeds to provide users with updated electronic information quickly and via the most authoritative sources available. Librarians began to rely on online social networks to facilitate resource sharing among institutions, as well as to provide support for answering patron's reference questions by relying on each other for subject expertise.

In recognition of the importance of technology for the work of libraries and society everywhere, members of the American Library Association (ALA) -- the national professional organization of librarians in the United States -- articulated a series of strategic steps to better fulfill the needs of tech-savvy users. In espousing the mission of promoting the availability and usability of information tools and technologies which meet the changing needs of its users and society, they have helped incorporate innovation and transformation into its mission and strategic plans for libraries

everywhere. Specifically, ALA has committed to “providing leadership in the transformation of libraries and library services in a dynamic and increasingly global digital information environment;” to increase sharing, assistance, and recognition for “experimentation with innovative and transformational ideas;” and to “help libraries make use of new and emerging technologies” through promotion, training and support of innovative ideas which help others connect to information and each other as they learn (“ALA 2015 Strategic Plan,” 2010, p. 5).

Clearly, the social computing expectations of library users have continued to rise just as much as those in the private sectors, thus demanding even more sophistication from libraries and their librarians for free and easily accessible information, modern technological tools and training to use them, and personal assistance for help with research, current awareness, and decision-making.

2. Promoting Learning in Multi-User Online Environments

In order to keep current with all of this communication and information technology, librarians themselves needed to embark on a consistent and somewhat aggressive professional development sequence over the last few decades. New technologies were developed and piloted, often in concert with information technology specialists and software vendors. Staff members were trained, and they in turn helped library users learn the new technologies. With the goal of providing services to users in the format they not only needed but expected, librarians developed various electronic standards, methods, and procedures for storing, accessing and sharing information via the Internet. Conferences, workshops, journals and discussion groups about technology ensued and became increasingly online enterprises in developing learning communities among information professionals. Perhaps ironically, librarians soon became known for their technology expertise in addition to their “book smarts.” But in a technological environment in which many sources professed authority, accuracy, and helpfulness, libraries had to assert their worth as trusted sites from which (and from whom) to learn.

The library has been -- as it could not be otherwise since it is involved in the field of communication -- one of the first institutions that has benefited from an active online presence. The importance of that presence is growing, since many have [heretofore] equated an organization’s lack of an online presence with nonexistence. (Alonso Arévalo, 2002, p. 6)

Libraries today continue to strive to meet their users “where they are,” whether in our local communities or online in cyberspace. Librarians have made a concerted effort to improve the functionality and social capacity of their online information portals, making them similar to the sophisticated styles that users now expect to encounter when browsing commercial sites on the Web. Many libraries have also integrated a variety of Web 2.0 tools such as wikis, RSS feeds, user rankings, tagging, embedded or streaming video, and live chat functions, which many web users view as a hallmark of modernity. Virtual reference applications, which allow users and librarians to chat and co-browse the web synchronously and experience virtual world interactions are beginning to meet the needs of users who need or prefer to have these interactions online rather than in-person. Most importantly, however, is the ability of libraries to explore and implement these new technologies successfully, while functioning on shoestring budgets and by relying on an in-house tech-savvy spirit of adventure as they create, modify, and build applications which rival those of corporate peers.

Abram (2006) noted that the Web 2.0 conversation is “primarily about a much higher level of interactivity and deeper user experiences, which are enabled by the recent advances in Web software combined with insights into the transformational aspects of the Internet” (§ 7). This is echoed again years later in the recommendations of Bi-xia (2010), who encourages a blend of technologies to not only serve users better but to also improve librarian competencies. The continual theme throughout the literature is encouraging librarians to innovate with the most promising technologies to improve user experiences, not just to try random innovations without specific advances in mind.

When considering library technology innovation, Abram also reflects both the interests and concerns of modern libraries when he concludes that “Web 2.0 is ultimately about a social phenomenon -- not just about networked social experiences but about the distribution and creation of Web content itself,” in which users of all kinds, including library patrons and staff, come together in a more open conversation about content (Abram, 2006, § 7). Stevanović and Crnogorac (2011) similarly call for a balance between cutting-edge innovation and traditional approaches to serving users and echoing the term “harmony” to describe ways to effectively integrate technologies with current user services. This movement has clearly morphed into daily web-centric activity that has become not just about content but also about authority, reliability, timeliness as much as it is about connections, exchanges and discussions -- in essence, about information discovered and shared, and what was learned in the process.

In a socially and technologically connected world, libraries are therefore just one of many creators and distributors

of information; audience participation via the Internet changed many of the traditional paradigms of information services in which libraries were the repository of all information that was valuable. Users wanted what they wanted, when they wanted it, and in the format of their choosing, and by extension, many libraries felt that library services now needed to be provided in ways that were compatible with the social computing practices of everyday life. In an increasingly rich and complex information environment, librarians continue to help users navigate, participate, and critically analyze the claims and data they have found online, and to connect them with experts and knowledgeable assistance at the time and point of need, however mobile or urgent. For those who want to question or verify what they find easily and quickly online, and for those who have already realized that information often accompanies intent, librarians are providing the value-added service of helping users question what they see, hear, and consume from pervasive media outlets and online search tools.

The emergence of new demands surrounding information and its delivery and deliberation naturally dictates the need for libraries to meet these emerging user interests and desires, and to create a newer, more participatory type of user interaction. According to a recent major survey in the library community, "libraries, many of their resources and services, and the information experts who work in libraries appeared to be increasingly less visible to today's information consumer" (OCLC, 2005, p. 1). A combination of both hope and strategy from all types of library professionals thus aims to position the information services of libraries squarely within the field of vision of techno-savvy 21st Century citizens.

As multi-user online environments such as virtual worlds expanded, the field began to study the new network phenomena of "one-to-many" and "many-to-many" communication afforded by a more visual and increasingly networked online medium. Online spaces began to offer images and other graphical vistas in addition to text, which could be both exchanged and viewed by simultaneous users. Some even recreated physical libraries in virtual settings, replete with great books, rotating literature displays, and all of the time-sensitive news and announcement functions one would expect. This new medium brought with it possibilities limited only by the librarians' and users' imaginations.

In this new three-dimensional environment, where multiple users could interact with online items and with each other, *Second Life*® users began to learn to design, or script, new objects. Through open architecture of its software's design code, anyone could build a tree, a car, or a vacation home in-world. For many, living another virtual life online became an escape from the pressures of real life, or a fantasy world to try out new ideas or personas. For a relatively "traditional" profession, virtuality became an intriguing method of dispelling stereotypes and a variety of online behaviors, some similar and some quite unlike those in the real world, became the norm. As Turkle (2005) explained, professionals and educators could live out their "life on the screen," assuming a cartoon-like identity of their own design and even a new name to go along with it. Through open architecture of its software's design code, anyone could build items or structures or landforms, and that remains one of the attractions of *Second Life*® to date. The theories of participatory design and participatory culture on the Internet have led ordinary users to both design and develop online projects that surpass previous efforts in scale, size, complexity, use and popularity. Yet not everyone was enamored with virtual environments as places to do serious inquiry or investigation.

3. Implications for Libraries in Virtual Worlds and Beyond

Some critics of virtual worlds maintain that the highly customizable environment of *Second Life*® "is typified in the media as an over-populated, lawless land, easily obliterated by its owners . . . [and is] rapidly devolving into 'Second Strife'" (Cheal, 2007, p. 205). This assertion was hotly debated in the literature during the librarians' first year of conversations about pioneering efforts in virtual spaces. Proponents of both sides of a seemingly black-and-white argument carried out their attacks and defenses of the service in numerous professional blogs and online forums, and subsequently in professional journals. Many aspects of online society seem to trump the perceived dangers and possible troubles of life conducted over the Internet. The "social aspect" and "sense of togetherness" which seemed to be valued qualities of these and other online virtual environments could not be denied.

Yet as Cheal (2007) continued to explain, "we can hold up a virtual world to our own to better reflect and magnify the important issues in our real world" (p. 205). In a ubiquitous online learning environment, we may be able to improve on the real world, replicate it, or ignore elements in order to focus on a new mode of communication (Huancheng & Miaolei, 2011). The debate over whether *Second Life*® was inherently good or bad for the librarians, or whether it was useful for libraries, was truly a discussion of none of these points. What was in question may have been society's readiness (or lack thereof) to participate in an online world as chaotic as the real one, and therefore, the library profession's choice to join in the purported mayhem.

At the end of a first year of online discussion about their virtual world efforts by 650 early-adopter librarians and

educators of the Alliance Library Group of Illinois, firm conclusions about virtual world efforts were not yet drawn by participants. Utility of the platform for library service, and conclusions or analysis of its limitations did not appear to be negative enough to discontinue the project (Alliance Library System, 2008). The librarians worked out among themselves what to do in a new virtual world, how to do it, and who would do it. Yet, this do-it-yourself system didn't work for everyone involved. Some participants explained that the workload and emergent organization was difficult to deal with, and ultimately led to hard feelings and decisions to leave an otherwise enjoyable initiative. Overall, it appears that the participants collectively kept an open mind about the potential of virtual worlds as vehicles for expanding libraries' reach and improving users' understanding of what help and resources could be available to them.

The Alliance *Second Life*® Library participants have been shown to be a group of interested and forward-thinking professionals, mostly volunteers who chose to embark on a surely ambiguous and potentially overwhelming initiative with uncertain outcomes. And, it appears, they did not do so blindly. Periodic large-group reflective discussions, as well as numerous interpersonal conversations, showed clearly that the librarians tried to analyze their own moves and those of the larger group. Subgroups which formed to work on specific aspects of library services, such as those interested in health information, teens, or Nineteenth Century themes, flowed freely to and from the larger group, reporting back to the group leader and other prolific participants periodically.

As a result, the librarian participants themselves experienced an intense and engaging professional development activity through participation in the initiative. As the participants in this group learned from each other, they explored many of the emerging issues of an increasingly online existence. As many have noted in the literature, this work broke new ground in investigating user services and possibilities for future interactions among those seeking and sharing information. Librarians who had not previously engaged in multi-user virtual environments, played video games, or worked on a multinational or distance-led collaborative effort were now immersed in a new world which holds much potential for serving users in new and innovative ways.

Second Life® thus provided the librarians with a workable, fully customizable and operational environment to explore the potential of providing library services to online users in a relatively new format. Although criticized for forging into this seemingly "bleeding edge" technology with such numbers and commitment early in the platform's existence, the librarians in the group -- and the profession at large -- appeared to meet these challenges with grace and optimism. Their online discussions consistently show reflection on both the new medium and the new presence of librarians in it, similar to results from Buckland and Godfrey (2008). The decision to explore *Second Life*® with such gusto does not appear to have been taken lightly, and the new knowledge gained, appears to have informed the profession on many levels.

Similarly, explicit acknowledgement of the opportunities of the emerging medium and a close relationship with Linden Lab, the creators of the *Second Life*® environment, has benefitted the librarians' development. "We included '2.0' in the SLL project name because we wanted to implement and build upon some of the excellent ideas and principles emanating from the Library 2.0 movement," and since then "the Alliance *Second Life*® Library 2.0 has evolved into Library 3D, as it has moved quickly beyond text and graphics" (Trueman, Peters, & Bell, 2007, p. 160). Even through the first year of the project's existence, the Library 2.0 movement progressed itself, and began to give way to more immersive virtual experiences as possibilities for library instruction, operation, and outreach. But many barriers still exist between library professionals, who are often proponents of the "information wants to be free" movement, and vendors who must turn a profit on partnerships which have the potential to influence current trends.

The *Second Life*® librarians seem to have utilized all of the strengths of an emerging 3-D web-based environment. Spaces are provided for conversation, building of new creations, or interactions with others' creations. Images of their innovative 3-D objects and services abound, and were often shared by the librarians with each other, via conference presentations which become records of their online efforts in various media. And so it seems, librarians from a variety of information organizations have figured out ways to appropriate the opportunities of a virtual space for their particular niches, all in the service of the greater mission and goals of libraries -- to connect people with the information they need and desire, wherever they may be. However, just as quickly as they developed a presence in the virtual arena, public interest has shifted toward other tools and applications. Nevertheless, lessons learned in these efforts will certainly appear to inform, but not hinder, the subsequent forays of librarians into new technological movements.

4. Social Computing as Learning for Librarians

The online world of the *Second Life*® librarians, which involved participants from all types of libraries and with varying levels of commitment to the project, was not eternally rosy. Several challenges and issues remained as popular topics

throughout the first year of conversation and beyond. For example, discussions of whether replicating the real-world feel of libraries or conversely embarking on some futuristic idea of library service in a persistent virtual environment was a frequent yet inconclusive topic. Authors began to write and cite outside of the discussion group about these difficulties. As participants are "confronted with the notion that sometimes our 'virtual' spaces leak over into our 'real' worlds, and the nature of concepts like ownership in shared multiuser space are not a given" (Taylor, 2006, p. 151), the project appears to take on a life of its own. The many-to-many communication concept begins to involve outside users and outside builders in periods of exponential growth. "Examining the collective construction of culture -- which, it must be said, turns on constant acts of reappropriation by *all* parties -- introduces useful provocations for analysis" (Taylor, 2006, p. 150).

As the repurposing of objects, conversations, ideas and analysis occurred for these librarians, thus indeed building an internal culture among participants in their discussions and simultaneously an immersive library world for their constituents, several views of the project collided, both among participants and between the virtual world and the real world. The librarians periodically struggled with these issues, content to hold in mind the inherent competing tensions of the ideas until further exploration was performed and additional discussions took place.

As evidenced above, the librarians during their first year struggled with issues of the real versus the virtual, a predictable developmental process for those investigating a new medium and its opportunities. The librarians, as well as their users, needed to wrestle with a strange new set of rules and possibilities. In a persistent virtual world, "all of the higher order knowledge skills from Bloom's taxonomy are possible -- applying knowledge (e.g., moving about in *Second Life*®), analyzing (How can I build something realistic with a low prim count?), evaluating (Is it best to build a cathedral ceiling to show support systems or to leave it off to allow avatars to fly in?), and creating (use SL building skills to build a complete cathedral. Bloom's learning characteristics correlate well with the exploration and interaction inherent in virtual worlds" (Cheal, 2007, p. 208).

As part of their steep learning curve, the librarians constantly needed to reference their real world service sites and background knowledge of brick-and-mortar libraries, and begin to integrate new knowledge in the field such as best practices in digital reference services. However, as the librarians showed in this study, they did not pass group judgment on the initiative too early. They built libraries in-world which both resembled and were totally different from their counterparts in real life. "And is there any danger in too much 'real world' seeping in? Keeping the real world out is not the battle to be won or lost. We do not shed culture when we go online and enter game worlds, nor do designers create these incredible spaces in a vacuum. And this is a good thing. Culture is what we are and what we do, and understanding the varying ways all participants are productive is one of our best tools in making sense of what emerges" (Taylor, 2006, p. 154). The librarians' developmental processes showed that at times they suspended disbelief, as well as held contradictory information and feedback in mind simultaneously. Indeed, their exponential growth in numbers and communicative events was encouraged by the distinct lack of a black-and-white view of libraries and of themselves.

However, current stereotypes and several negative images of libraries in *Second Life*® still appeared, not only in other online forums but also their own professional literature. For example, an early article in *School Library Journal*, a top publication in the library field, otherwise positively describes the initial book club efforts of the Alliance Library System in *Second Life*®. The publication, however, began with the sentence, "If patrons won't come to the library, librarians are willing to take the institution to their customers -- even if that means traversing through cyberspace into the virtual world" (Barack, 2006, p. 26). This continual reinforcement of diminished value of libraries in the eyes of patrons presents an unending and repopulating cycle which helps old ideas about libraries to persist even in quite different and modern environments. Unfortunately, librarians themselves perpetuate these connotations -- unintended or inadvertent or subliminal disparagements -- presumably to connect with non-librarian readers who may be attracted and then influenced why what is read, or to engage a wider audience who may already believe that libraries are warehouses of the past. Librarians are also encouraged by their own journals to keep a portfolio of their intellectual work to justify their efforts (Marks, 2013). Until our profession can successfully negotiate these issues of image, we may never fully progress in the eyes of the users who we so desperately need in order to exist.

Online virtual environments have been truly social learning environments for the librarians, if not for their users. We need to not overlook the importance of these new spaces as having uses for professional development with those doing the teaching and not necessarily for those taught. Studies of the choices made by librarians as they create public 3-D versions of themselves, or similarly of their views of future incarnations of digital representations of library professionals, are rich in information about the evolution of the profession over time (and the degrees of its evolutionary successes) as well as characteristics of early-adopter technologically-minded librarians. Studies which expand our understanding of librarianship in a variety of ways, and which are influenced by a variety of theoretical frameworks and draw inspiration from a variety of subject areas, would faithfully reflect the same diversity found in this field's scholars and

practitioners.

From a variety of viewpoints, research on the technological work of, by, and between librarians will help to inform an information literate society, as well as to improve the lives of those who may most benefit from its democratic mission. In fact, this work is necessary not simply to keep the library profession alive, but to help improve society in meaningful ways which can be designed and provided specifically by information professionals of all types. As long as information is at the heart of a society's infrastructure, technological means will continue to be required to make it salient and valuable for a society of learners. Whether that information continues to be valued by society is up to the librarian professionals who assist in its creation and use.

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Interactive Ties of Metabolic Pathways in a Systemic Module

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Abstract

One form of the organization of the teaching process is the teaching unit which constitutes the essential unit. Changes in the way of organizing the teaching unit intend to increase the yield and the quality of the teaching process. The construction of the teaching unit, according to the linear method of teaching, is based on the transfer of the information step by step to the students, who can afterwards relate it to their previous knowledge. The teaching unit encourages memorizing, however, in some way, it prohibits the creativity which is very important for their future. Recently, the systematic unit for teaching and learning is gaining ground. Basically, the construction of this unit includes the creation of the concept map where the relationships between the concepts are established through the system interactions. These relationships between the concepts are explained during the lesson. The technique of the systematic unit is a very helpful instrument to make the teacher's job easier and to ensure that the students receive good information. Also, it ensures the essence of systematic thinking and the continuous increase of knowledge which is in it a sign of qualitative education.

Keywords: *systematic unit, concepts, systematic diagram, objectives.*

1. Introduction

The teaching unit is one way of the organization of the teaching process. The important changes in the way of its organization intend to increase the yield and quality of the teaching process, strengthen the role of the teacher as the organizer of this process, and enhance the role of the student as a party in this process. The teaching process becomes pleasant if the communicative skills of the teacher prevail over the natural inertia of the students as they concentrate on a difficult topic (Eilks, I., & Byers, B. 2009).

The organization of the lesson by employing the systemic approach in teaching and learning is unique in itself. The systemic approach in teaching and learning is a new approach contrasted to the common approach of the concept map which involves the creation of a hierarchy of concepts. The systemic approach creates somewhat closed system of concepts, a cluster concept, that highlights interrelations. This method contradicts the linear method which is currently used in our educational system. The founders of this method are Prof.Dr.A.F.M Fahmy dhe Prof.Dr.J.J.Lagovski. In their opinion, systematic is an orienting, restructuring means which asks for the explanation of the subject matter by both the student and the teacher through the creation of a diagram about the strategy of the map of concepts. The systemic approach in teaching and learning promotes higher levels of thinking, that are, evaluation, analysis and synthesis.

Teaching all over the world is adopting this method. This way of teaching is increasingly being highly appraised by the world academy.

2. Methodology

Methodology provides students and lecturers with a global image of the teaching of science. As is known, teaching is carried out through communication. The technique of the systemic approach in teaching and learning is a good instrument to increase the communicative skills of the teacher.

The methodology of the systemic approach in teaching and learning is holistic (Fahmy, A. F., & Lagowski, J. J. 1999). In essence, the systemic approach includes offering of facts, concepts and skills, all in one unit. In this age, in the

21 century, it is indispensable for us to shift from the linear educational system to the systemic educational system. A fundamental structural element of the systemic approach is the systemic diagram which has the attributes of the closed map of concepts. The construction of this systemic diagram, as an essential element of the systemic teaching unit goes through many stages detailed below (Fahmy, A. F., Hamza, M. A., & Lagowski, J.J. 2002).

2.1 Aim and objectives

The study of the interactive ties of metabolic pathways.

2.2 Identification of students knowledge on the topic.

Students will get informed about different aspects of metabolic pathways of studying liaison mechanisms and regulation of metabolic pathways. Liaison mechanisms and regulation of metabolic pathways constitute a dialectical unity of processes and phenomena, which is based on the presence and development of several rings of common mechanisms (Fahmy, A. F., & El-Hashash, M. 1999).

Most essential liaisons to be treated are:

- The formation of common substances for various metabolisms which constitute the end of a catabolic string and the start of an anabolic string. These substances, the most important are: acetyl-CoA, pyruvate, oxaloacetate, glucose-6-phosphate, etc. Role can be called universal, because it is exercised in all metabolic pathways of carbohydrates, lipids and proteins (Garret, R. H., & Grishan, C. 1995).
- The action of energetic liaisons through ATP, ADF, AMP, GTP, CTP, UDP, NAD and NADH+ H+. ATP has been at the same time the main source of energy, ensuring the development of anabolic routes. ATP is a secondary product that is synthesized by the phosphorylation of ADP through giving the macroenergetic phosphoryl group by different substances of different metabolic strings (Kuchel, W.F., & Gregory, B. R. 1988).
- The action of final products of a series of metabolic string on the allosteric enzymes of the first reaction of metabolic string (Collen, S., Allan, D. Marks., & Michael. L. 2005).
- The action of hormones as effectors allosteric on allosteric molecules in general. The allosteric mechanism constitutes the main factor of regulating sequences and local intracellular biochemical cycles, intercellular, at the level of a whole organism and suburb-body interaction (Lygre, D. 1995). This mechanism has universal biological value because not only represents the main link to the regulation of genuine metabolic processes, but also the processes of absorption in the intestine, the kidney reabsorption, the transport of substances through the plasma proteins and intercellular fluids and intracellular (among which the O₂ and CO₂) the penetration of substances through cell chips and cell organelles (active transport), the realization of repression and induction of protein and enzymes synthesis, the conduction of nerve electricity through chemical mediators and immune processes.

2.3 Drawing of a diagram to show linear connections between concepts.

Based on students' knowledge about the most essential liaisons concepts described above, we draw a diagram. The diagram that shows the linear relationship between the essential liaisons, previously described about is displayed in figure 1.

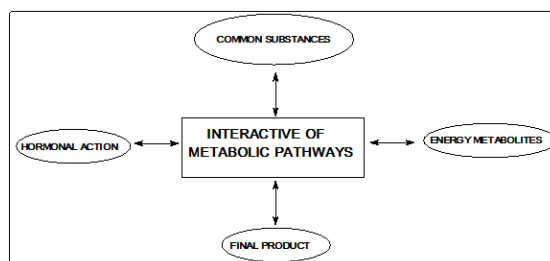


Figure 1: Display of the linear relationship between liaison mechanisms and regulation of metabolic pathways

This diagram describes the concepts of the lesson in relation to the respective information. As noticed in the diagram, the above relationships are linear and independent from each other.

2.4 Identifying the till then known and unknown linear connections between concepts.

In the diagram, the till then known and unknown linear connections between metabolic pathways should be identified. The sign \surd and a number is put on the known linear connections between the metabolic pathways. The sign $?$ and a number was put on the unknown linear connections between the metabolic pathways. The modified diagram is shown in Figure 2.

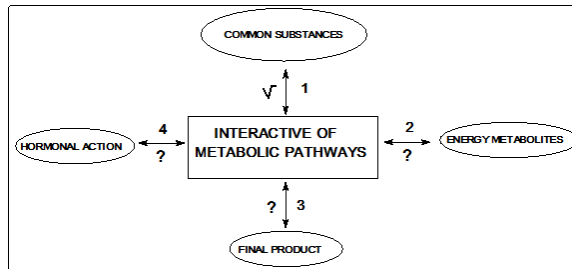


Figure 2: Display of the known and unknown linear main issues.

2.5 Identification of arrow direction of the known and unknown linear connections between main issues.

In the diagram we draw, the direction of the arrows of the known and unknown linear connections between liaisons is identified. Arrows can have either one direction or two directions. Based on the direction of the arrows, the order of the study is indicated. In this way, the diagram drawn based on the suggestions of the previous stage undergoes changes. These changes transform the linear diagram into a systematic one as are presented in figure 3.

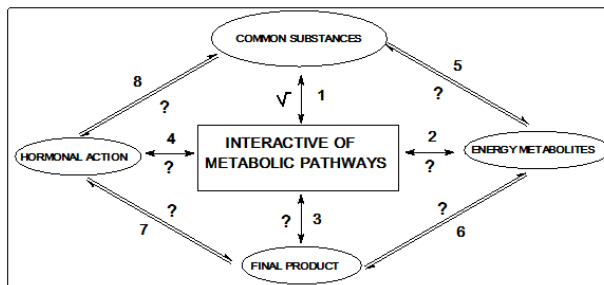


Figure 3: A display of the systematic connection between liaison mechanisms and regulation of metabolic pathways. Systematic diagram(SD-0).

This is the first diagram of the kind in the series of diagrams to be constructed in the process of teaching. We mark(see figure 4) this diagram with SD-0 (systemic diagrams) and the final diagram with SD-3. In the systematic SD-0, diagram it can be noted:

- The links 1 and 2 in the diagram (SD-0) are known. For this reason, the arrow heads go in one direction and have the \surd sign.
- The unknown relations in the SD-0 diagram have the question mark $?$ and arrow heads have two-way reversible directions.

2.6 Replacement of some (?) signs in the SD-0 diagram with the (✓) sign.

Now, there comes another stage of learning, when some of the unknown relationships between liaisons in SD-0 have been explained by the lecturer. In the SD-0 diagram, some of the (?) signs are replaced with the (✓) signs. Changes in the unknown connections between liaisons in SD-0 are made only after they have been taught by the lecturer. Hence, we come to the SD-1 diagram.

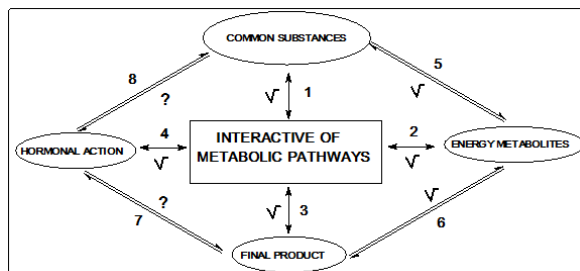


Figure 4: Systematic diagram (SD-1).

The SD-1 diagram is composed of two types of links. The first link is already known, as is explained by the lecturer. In the SD-1 diagram, we put the (✓) sign in the learned systematic links. The second component consists of not yet known connections between liaisons, which will be discussion topic in class. So in the SD-1 diagram (?) signs are placed on unknown systematic links. Class discussion between the lecturer and students helps to unfold "learning secrets" of several unknown liaisons. After these discussions, the class draws some conclusions.

- In the diagrams, the (?) signs are replaced by (✓) signs
- The discussion topic in the classroom about the connections between unknown metabolic pathways and known ones results in knowing new connections systematically.
- The discussion topic that continues helps students to identify new connections. Changes made in the SD-1 diagram convert it to the SD-2 diagram.

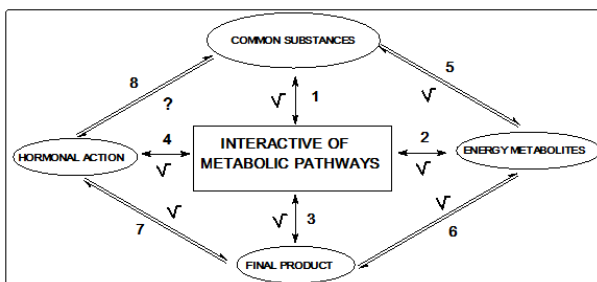


Figure 5: The systematic diagram (DS-2).

In the SD-2 diagram, it can be noticed:

- All links between the liaison mechanisms and regulation of metabolic pathways have been identified, except the connection 8, which would be taught at a later stage of learning (see figure 5).
- At this stage of the study, students clarify the connections analyzed during the debate and try to analyze the remaining unknown links.

2.7 Drawing of the final systematic diagram

At this stage of the study we have already reached our goal. In the SD-2 diagram, the unknown links are now known. These changes are placed in the diagram SD-2 to obtain the SD-3 diagram. The SD-3 diagram does not have unknown connections between concepts which means that the systematic teaching unit has been completed. The SD-3 diagram is called the final systematic diagram that is shown at figure below 6.

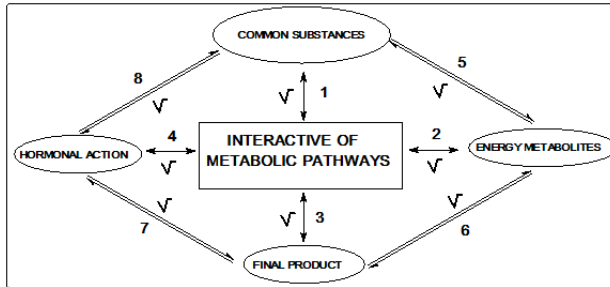


Figure 6: The final systematic diagram (SD-3).

3. Results

- A systematic teaching and learning unit involves drawing systematic diagrams (SD-0, SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3). These diagrams have SD-0 diagram as a starting point, SD-3 diagram as a terminal points and SD-1 and SD-2 diagram as intermediate point.
- Lectures of the systematic method are marked SD-0, SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3. All diagrams are essentially similar, however, they differ from each other in placing the (✓) sign on known systematic links and (?) signs on unknown systematic links.

The strategy of this approach is displayed in the following figure 7.

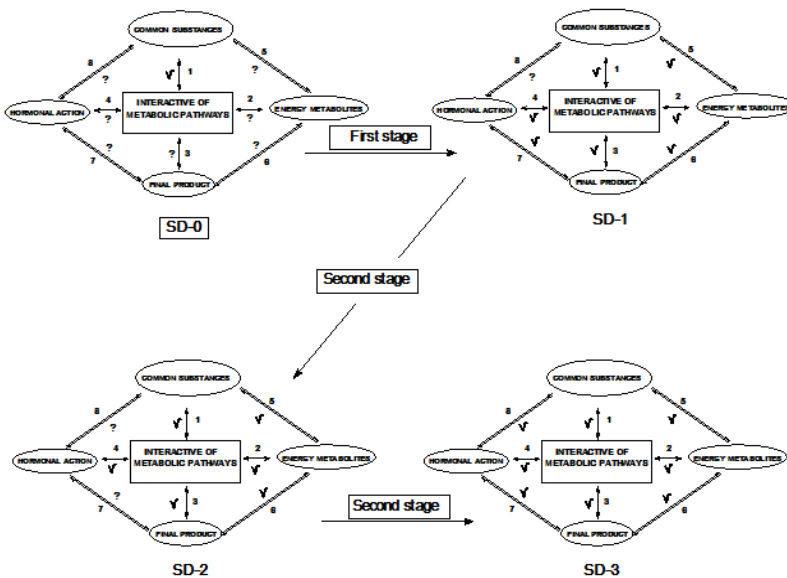


Figure 7: The strategy of structuring the systematic teaching unit.

4. Discussion and conclusions

- The systematic teaching unit carries a range of innovations and demonstrates the possibilities of overcoming the traditional model which is still currently practiced in our schools.
- This unit helps students develop their skills and provides them with a collection of knowledge through learning by giving up knowledge provision through available sources.
- The systematic teaching unit offers new sources of information. It motivates students to acquire new information, rely on prior knowledge and deepen it through the various stages of systematic learning.
- Organization of this systematic lesson makes students capable of finding new sources of knowledge, and building up an accurate cognitive structure.
- Students participate in the organization of this tutorial (teaching unit).
- Employment of the systematic approach in organizing learning/teaching units establishes new relationships between teachers, teachers and students and among students.

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The Russian Language in Soviet Russia in the 1920-30-s

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Abstract

The present inquiry addresses the problem of functional, stylistic and other changes in the Russian language in post-revolutionary Russia. This phenomenon known as "the Soviet language" is argued to have been a specific tool in building the new Soviet state with all its political, cultural and educational institutions. The research is based on comparative analysis method. The authors analyze the aims and results of the Soviet government policies applied to the state key institutions as well as the interdependence and interaction between the Soviet ideology and the language transformation. The investigation touches upon the historic background of political, economic and cultural changes after the Russian revolution of 1917. The main channels of ideological intervention are proved to have been school education, mass (proletarian) culture, mass media, penetration into the everyday life of the Soviet people. The findings reveal that the Soviet Russian language developed into one of the main Soviet propaganda tools due to the wide use of abbreviations, place names and clichés that turned it into a crucial factor in establishing "the right thinking" of the Soviet citizens.

Keywords: *language change, the Soviet language, abbreviations, slogans, clichés*

1. Introduction

1.1 Research Background

There is an opinion that the process of civilization development is represented by a succession of the so-called languages paradigms of mankind social progress resulting in the establishing of the language view of the modern society evolution (Gorelikov, L.A. & Lisitsina, T.A., 1999). The contemporary world picture is described as a product of Anglo-Saxon language community. The 15-17 centuries were marked by the French dominance. The process of historical evolution influences any language and is influenced by it. During the Soviet period in the Russian history the Russian language was considered to be a means of communication between the people living in the Soviet Union and could have been seen as a competitor (rival) to the English language as the world language. The development of Stalin's government model in Russia including all its social institutions and symbols remains one of the key issues in foreign and Russian historical studies. The main aspect of the research is the transformation of the Russian peasantry into a new social community – the so called Soviet people (Kozlova, 1995). In 1920-30-s the process of transformation took place under the influence of economic, cultural and educational factors. The process of social adaptation to the new historical situation became possible due to measures and government policies in the sphere of language development. This phenomenon came to be known as the Soviet language. The Soviet language can be termed the "language of the epoch" to describe dialectical integrity of verbal and non-verbal symbols that provide the semantic unity of a society.

During the period described the world witnessed the spread of the American variant of the English language and the existence of the Nazi variant of the German language.

Therefore the political history of the XX century can be understood through studying and analyzing language development process in those countries that underwent dramatic political, economic and as a result cultural changes at the period. Such techniques, methods and tools of ideological impact as propaganda, agitation, public relations, advertising got their wide application and were based on linguistic methods and approaches.

The importance of the study is determined by the following considerations:

- i. In the period of the world transition to the global economy and information society it seems to be important to analyze and evaluate the XX century experience and heritage not only in the field of economy but in such spheres as education, culture as well as non-economic instruments and tools implemented by governments to build the desired view of the world.
- ii. To fully understand the Soviet heritage in the development of contemporary Russia it is useful to take into consideration the fact that cultural and behavior models of several generations of Russian citizens are deeply rooted in cognitive structures and concepts of the Soviet language.

1.2 Purpose and objectives of the study

The purpose was to investigate the process of the Russian language change in the 1920-30-s taking into account such language function as exerting the influence (Keller, 1994). The study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To reveal the main channels of language change;
2. To analyze the key means and tools of language change.

1.3 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were put forward and analyzed:

- i. The Soviet Power made a successful use of different channels, means and tools of language development to impose the Soviet model of state by constructing a new view of the world.
- ii. The process and results of language change and development were similar throughout the territory of the country.

2. Methodology

The research into the process of language change in post-revolutionary Russia carried out by numerous Western, Soviet and Russian researchers has been observed and analyzed.

The study is based on the comparative analysis of processes and data of different levels and periods. In addition the functional approach is used to evaluate the process of language change through its functioning. To provide interdisciplinary approach the study is conducted at the nexus of two fields of science: history and linguistics.

German linguist Rudi Keller (1994) identifies the main function of a language as that of exerting influence to others. In our research we apply his theory to the explanation of processes and phenomena in language change.

The main sources of the study are:

1. Documents published in collections of archival papers,
2. Documents of the 1920-30-s from Penza regional branch of the State Archive of the Russian Federation,
3. Newspapers dated the 1920-30-s (The Trudovaya Pravda, The Stalinskoie Znamya).

3. Material Review

S. Fitzpatrick (1999, 2008) focuses on the social and cultural history of the Stalinist period. Analyzing various aspects of social identity and daily life she touches upon the problems of education, cultural revolution, social mobility. Much attention is paid by the historian to the change of cultural paradigm of the society including the change of personal names and place names.

D. J. Raleigh (2001) suggests the idea that the discourse of Bolsheviks included two party languages – external (the language of Bolshevik newspapers, public meetings and agitation literature) and internal (that of secret reports and documents). He asserts that a party member could use either “external” or “internal” language depending on the environment.

R. Pipes (1986, 1997) explores Bolsheviks` policies in the sphere of religion and culture and gives examples of language change.

M. Geller (1982, 1983) has coined the term “the Soviet language” and constructed its conception.

The Nazi variant of the German language was described by V. Klemperer in his book “Lingua Tertii Imperii”(the Russian edition in 1998).

N. Kozlova (1995) analyzes the diaries of Communist party members and comes to the conclusion that the Soviet language was used by everyone: those who supported the Soviet Power and those who disagreed with it. She also reveals that some ordinary members of the party used this language not only in public, but in private.

A. Besancon (1986, 1998) analyses the compromise of two languages within the Soviet language – the party language and the people's language.

4. Discussion

Changes in the language that led to the establishment of the Soviet language prove to have been prompted by the following social and economic conditions: change of the social class structure and migration of the population, industrialization, collectivization, low level of general culture and education (Fitzpatrick, 1999, 2001).

According to the official statistics, before 1917 80 % of Russian population were peasants. Russia was an agricultural country characterized by high level of industrial production concentration and well organized revolutionary working class. N. Kozlova (1995) writes that by the end of the 1920-s Russian peasants bore the title of "the disappearing class" and anticipated dramatic changes in their lives. According to N. Kozlova, the process of adaptation went through such social institutions and structures as the army, Komsomol (the Young Communist League), education, moving from the country to town. She points out that there were two levels of adaptation:

- obtaining a new identity by going through all social and political filters;
- reaching the top of the social hierarchy, coming to power.

The starting point for these two levels had to be the imitation of new forms of social behavior and public speaking.

That is why it is important to mention main channel and methods of language impact (manipulation). The authors consider the following channels as the leading ones in the process:

- educational institutions (schools, vocational training courses, institutes) including the system of political education;
- mass culture;
- mass media;
- ideologization of daily life, penetration to a person's private life.

One of the primary tasks of the Soviet government was the elimination of illiteracy as in 1855 93% and in 1897 about 77% of Russian population were illiterate. Geller (2000) points out a close interdependence between the level of literacy and the process of urbanization. Thus, given the high rate of industrial development in Russia at the beginning of the XX century the percentage of literate people started to grow. In the Soviet times the elimination of illiteracy in post-revolutionary Russia was considered to be one of the main achievements of the Soviet state. But it can also be seen as a world-wide tendency that Bolsheviks took advantage of. However, the real purpose of the Soviet power was not only to teach the illiterate people reading and writing but to teach them "the right thinking". V.Lenin (1918) wrote in his works that "An illiterate person is out of politics and therefore has to learn the alphabet. Without it there cannot be any politics." In May 1924 there appeared a society called "Get rid of illiteracy!". By the end of the 1920-s in Penza region, for example, there were 745 points organizing the teaching process for a total number of 12-14 thousand learners. Nevertheless, the rate was slow and the results were modest until the introduction of compulsory primary and secondary education for children and teenagers. The ideological approach to all spheres of education, science and culture had the aim to construct proletarian (Soviet) vision of the world that was in the root of each curriculum, any field of science and technology. It should be stressed that the word "Soviet" became a keyword in the Soviet language entering a lot of word-combinations: the Soviet people, the Soviet government, the Soviet way of life.

Mass media were supposed to be an effective means of ideological treatment of the population. After October revolution all oppositional newspapers were closed because of a different interpretation of events.

The language function of exerting influence found its realization in such trends and approaches as:

- stylistic changes that came in the accordance with the Soviet government policies.
- society stratification and social hierarchy.
- naming facts of everyday life, private communication.
- geographical names.

The study showed that the most widely used linguistic tools became clichés, slogans, repetition, choice of words to describe the reality as well as political labeling. Most clichés were taken from the works or speeches of Soviet political leaders V.Lenin and J.Stalin. One of them was "engineers of human souls" - i.e. Soviet writers. The most terrible phrase was without any doubt "a people's enemy" coined by V.Lenin in 1917 to call his political rivals and opponents. Ten years

later, in 1927 Stalin used this phrase regarding L.Trotsky and some other political figures of that period. It began to regularly appear in Soviet newspapers and on the radio. Soon this cliché turned into a legal term.

The most popular slogans of the period described included Lenin's or Stalin's quotes: "Life turned to better, life turned to happier". Life became better, life became happier.

"Everything depends upon the staff".

"Everything depends upon the technique"

Political labeling included such words as "kulak"(a wealthy peasant). "lishenets" (person having no civil rights), "vreditel" (i.e. *saboteur* - someone who purposely does harm to the state property). People bearing such labels were subject to legal prosecution. In modern Russian such words remain as historical terms.

It should be stressed that the period of the 1920-30-s became a period of place names changes. The key event in that process was marked by acquiring another official name for the country – the Soviet Union. (It is interesting to note that the word "Russia" was not politically used until the 1990-s). In 1924 after the death of V.Lenin the former Russian capital Petrograd changed its name to Leningrad. Some towns, located in the Volga area were renamed in honour of Bolshevik political leaders. The town of Simbirsk (a birth place of Vladimir Lenin, the leader of 1917 October Revolution and the Soviet State) was named Ulianovsk (Ulianov was the real surname of V. Lenin). Samara was changed to Kuibyshev, Tsaritsin-on-Volga became Stalingrad (Fitzpatrick, 1999). The process of place name changes affected other regions of the country: Perm (in the Ural regions) became Molotov, Vladikavkaz (in the Caucasus region) became Ordzhonikidze. It is interesting to note that in 1920 the names of I. Stalin and V. Lenin were not among leaders in renaming. But later, after V. Lenin's death in 1924 and at the period of political repression when lots of leaders and ordinary members of the Bolshevik movement were sent to prison or executed, some cities and towns were returned their original names (e. g. Perm).

Not only cities and towns had the names of outstanding political figures. Their names were given to factories, collective farms, cinemas and theatres, streets. The central Moscow street – Tverskaya – was called Gorky street in honour of the "great proletarian writer" Maksim Gorky (Peshkov). Another famous street- Myasnitskaya – was turned to Kirov Street, Bolshaya Lubianka – to Dzerzhinsky Street (both were prominent political figures of the Bolshevik movement).

Outside Moscow the process of changing place names was going practically in every city, town or village. According to the research conducted in the provincial town of Penza in the 1980-s, the large-scale renaming brought to life a lot of new street names to commemorate heroic lives, deeds and often deaths of outstanding figures of October revolution, writers, pilots, working class representatives that often became legendary figures. In the 1930-s members of the flying profession (pilots, test-pilots) became especially popular. In Penza at least nine streets got the names of prominent Soviet aviators: Belyakov, Vodopianov, Gromov. Chkalov, Grizodubova, etc.) (Godin ,1983) There were objective reasons for the process. The period of industrial development in the Soviet Union prompted the growth of cities and towns. Therefore there was a great need for names to be given to new streets. At the same time it marked the beginning of a new life to the people of the country where such names as Lyagushovka (meaning something like "a frog area") or Kozlovka ("a goat area") were not only outdated but politically wrong.

An integral part of many names and titles used to be the word "krasnykrasnaya" ("of red colour"). We can find this word in the place names, e.g. Krasnaya Polyana (Red Meadow), Krasnopolie (Red Field), Krasny Kut or in the names of state and collective farms, factories and plants: Krasnaya Niva, Krasny kolkhoznik (Red collective farmer). The example demonstrates that the word lost its original meaning: in Soviet Russia and Soviet Union "krasnykrasnaya" meant a true revolutionary, a person devoted to the ideals of the revolution. Alongside with that tendency there was another one: some names associated with Russian history or stuck deep in the Russian patriarchal conscience failed to be changed. Take, for example, Moscow, the capital of the country. If there had been attempts to rename it, they would have been in vain. When the local authorities in Penza tried to rename the central street in the town from Moskovskaya (Moscow street) into Kommunisticheskaya (Communism street) the citizens rejected the new name and the old one was returned to the street.

Personal names and surnames also were subject to changes. At first they were connected with revolution and scientific progress (Fitzpatrick,1999): Iskra (i.e. "spark" - from the name of the first Bolshevik newspaper), Barrikada (i.e. "barricade") , Edison, Electron, Kim (an abbreviation from "Communist Youth International"). Some were derivatives from the name of Vladimir Lenin, e.g. Vladlen. But it didn't lead to a new tradition. People often refused to give such names to their children because they came in conflict with Russian cultural traditions and stereotypes. The authors found only two cases of having revolutionary names. In Penza there lived and worked a talented composer Oktyabr Grishin (born in 1918, Oktyabr means October). And one woman of the same age had the name of Stalina.

Abbreviations came to be a productive means of vocabulary enlargement. Initially they were intended to identify lots of new notions including political parties, government agencies, public organizations, etc. It should be stressed that abbreviations became widely spread in many European languages in the 19th century due to political developments, one of them being formation in European countries such government systems that depended on political parties. Another reason was widely spread development of education when literacy of common people became a common thing. Numerous industries were creating new jobs and working places. All that led to changes in languages: in their lexical and grammatical structure.

In the 1890-s with the beginning of the so-called proletarian stage in the Russian revolutionary movement the language got such abbreviations as РСДРП \ RSDRP – Russian social-democratic labour party; ЦК \ TsK – Central Committee and others. They were used by members of revolutionary movement. In the field of industry there were such words as “prodmet” - sale of metals. During World War I there appeared words like “glavkoyuz” – commander-in-chief on the south-western front. After October 1917 there was a strong tendency to shorten word combinations, to use abbreviations in many spheres of life and in every language style including private communication. In the preface to the 1-st edition of “Political Dictionary” (1922) it was written that “The revolution, turning and destroying in its development all ideas and concepts, ...revealed a need for a new...scientific political dictionary that would satisfy the newly-born reader...who is no more a “Russian inhabitant...but a free citizen of the Russian Federative Socialist Republic.”(translated by us – S.Sorokina, O.Musorina). Examples of the most widely used abbreviations include:

РКП\РКР – Russian Communist party,
РСФСР\РСФСР – Russian Socialist Federative Soviet Republic;
Соввласть\ Sovvlast – Soviet power\authority;
НЭП\NEP - New Economic policy.

In the 1920-s lots of abbreviations were appearing and disappearing because at that period the new Soviet state was establishing itself throughout the country and abroad. Late 1920-s and 1930-s are characterized by the situation when most abbreviations finding their place in political, industrial, social and cultural spheres were widely used and recognized by the citizens of the country. Moreover, they were not subject to further changes and became self-sufficient. In fact they were not emotionally neutral: those who used them felt strong emotions from pride for their native land to fear, uncertainty, even hatred. And after the collapse of the Soviet Union they are considered to be historical terms. Among those are СССР\USSR, НКВД\NKVD, ОГПУ\OGPU, ЦИК\ TsIK.etc.

A wide range of abbreviations used in newspapers can be illustrated by an excerpt from one of them. The plan for celebrating the International Cooperation day included at least 27 abbreviations, the total number of words in the abstract being 52. (Newspaper “The Trudovaya Pravda”, 1931,27 July)

As in every form of word-building activity we can find examples of clumsy abbreviations, e.g.” chevkolap” - an emergency commission for supplying shoes (so-called “lapti” or “bast shoes”) to the army. Such “masterpieces” were criticized by the press in short Russian folk-songs –in “chastushkas”.

It is interesting to note that some words changed their meaning or connotation.

The word “worker” began to denote not only a man or women of a working profession, but in most cases a representative of the leading group of population and gave a person great career opportunities. As for the word “zabastovka” (rebel, riot), it acquired a negative meaning. Before 1917 “zabastovka” was one of primary forms of working class protest. In the 1920-30-s it turned to be a criminal offence.

It should be stressed that the process of language change in the Soviet period in this or that form continued until the 1980-s but the Soviet language as a set of rhetoric codes and rules was established in the period of the 1920-30-s and later was only slightly modified. Many of the words, phrases and definitions of the Soviet period are in great use now, so we can consider the Soviet language to be a part of the modern Russian language.

5. Conclusions

- i. The investigation of the process of the Russian language change in 1920-30-s taking into account such language function as exerting the influence proved the idea that the use of certain channels, linguistic means and tools can influence people’s thinking and behavior.
- ii. The main channels of language change such as educational institutions (schools, vocational training courses, institutes) including the system of political education; mass culture; mass media and their role in the ideologization of daily life and penetration to a person’s private life were analyzed.
- iii. Considering the leading means and tools of language change it has been revealed that the most common of

them were such language means as abbreviations, slogans, clichés, change of place names and personal names.

- iv. As many of the words, phrases and definitions of the Soviet period are in great use now, we can consider the Soviet language to be a part of the modern Russian language. This can help to better understand Russian policies and cultural model.

6. Recommendations

- i. We recommend the results of the study be used while analyzing the political history of the XX century.
- ii. The provided material might be applicable to such scientific areas as public relations, text interpretation, and political studies as it reveals some methods and tools of ideological impact.
- iii. The analysis design can be applied to the investigation of language changes in other historical periods.
- iv. The study can help in understanding the political situation in today's Russia as the country has retained a lot of Soviet heritage.

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Knowledge, Skills and Competences of a High School Foreign Language Teacher of Today

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Abstract

The way we live, work, play and learn has been greatly transformed by technology and the new inventions over the past years. Today we need more different skills than we did in the 20th century, and the educational system and institutions have a crucial role to play in developing those skills. The knowledge and performance required of teachers today, should meet the demands of the classroom of the 21st century. The 21st century will need people who have 21st century skills like problem-solving and critical thinking, creativity, analyzing, creating and offering solutions to problems, capable to live and work at home and abroad. What does it mean to be a highly effective foreign language teacher today? What are the competencies that high school foreign language teachers must possess and demonstrate to enable their students to attain high learning outcomes and be prepared for life? In this article we will try to give answers to these questions by outlining a model of knowledge, skills, and competences of a high school foreign language teacher of today.

Keywords: 21st century, high school teacher, skills, competences, knowledge

1. Introduction

Societies challenge one another with the quality of their intellectual capital today and in order to be part of today's globalized, knowledge-based economy successfully, countries of the world need to have innovative, creative and entrepreneurial citizens.

This shift in the global age and its needs call for an adaptive reaction from us; we need to compete, collaborate, and find solution to problems through competencies in languages and cultures other than our own.

"Education is at the heart of human progress. Economic and social prosperity in the 21st century depend on the ability of nations to educate all the members of their societies to be prepared to thrive in a rapidly changing world. An innovative society prepares its people to embrace change..." [G8 Summit Statement 2006, St. Petersburg]

Indeed, the way we live, work, play and learn has been greatly transformed by technology and the new inventions over the past years. Today we need more different skills than we did in the 20th century, and the educational system and institutions have a crucial role to play in developing those skills.

"Teaching will be a better job when we recognize that the world has changed, and the job of a teacher is to help young people learn ask good questions, not regurgitate answers. With the flood of information around them, young people need help separating wheat from chaff. And it's no longer the teacher's job to tell them the difference, but to give them the skill to inquire, to dig deeper."¹

The knowledge and performance required of teachers today, should meet the demands of the classroom of the 21st century. The 21st century will need people who have 21st century skills like problem-solving and critical thinking, creativity, analyzing, creating and offering solutions to problems, capable to live and work at home and abroad.

What does it mean to be a highly effective foreign language teacher today? What are the competencies that high school foreign language teachers must possess and demonstrate to enable their students to attain high learning outcomes and be prepared for life?

2. The classroom of the 21st century

The language classroom has changed a lot in the last 20 years being transformed so as to reflect the increasing

¹ Merrow, J. (2011) *The Influence of Teachers: Reflections on Teaching and Leadership*: New York, LM Books.

emphasis on developing students' communicative competence. Students now are not required to know a great deal of information about the language and not be able to use it; today's classroom is about teaching languages in a way that students gain the ability to communicate freely with the speakers of the language, to find it easy to use the language when abroad for living, working or tourism.

Before students learned about the language and mostly grammar, today they learn how to use the language. If before the class was teacher-centered, today it's learner-centered. This causes another change; from emphasis on the teacher as a presenter there's focus on the learner as a doer. Language learning was confined to the classroom, now students are told and provided opportunities to use the language outside the classroom, as well. Focus was put on isolated skills such as listening, reading, speaking, and writing, but today teaching prepares student to be able to interpret and present and have interpersonal communication. Evaluation and testing was to learn what students did not know, now assessing aims at finding out what students can do. If before students had their work prepared just to be marked by the teacher, now they learn to share and publish their work.

3. Foreign language teacher competencies

Foreign language teachers must obtain and demonstrate adequate linguistic proficiency in the language they will teach together with an understanding of the structure of the language. Since language and culture are closely linked, foreign languages teachers' competence in the language should also include in-depth cultural knowledge and understanding of the language. Knowledge of second language acquisition and learner development, as well as pedagogical skills appropriate to the setting they will be teaching are to some more competencies to be added to the list.

3.1 Foreign language teacher's language proficiency and content knowledge

Most of the teachers in the world are not native speakers of the language they teach and yet, they might be successful teachers. And seemingly not all native speakers are good teachers. So how much of the language they teach should the teachers know in order to be able to teach it effectively?

The language-specific competencies that a foreign language teacher needs to have include the following abilities²:

- to give explanations and instructions in the target language; maintain use of target language in the classroom
- to use appropriate classroom language
- to provide good language models
- to comprehend texts accurately
- to select target-language resources
- to monitor his/her own speech and writing for accuracy
- to provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty
- to provide examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanations
- to give correct feedback on learner language

As about the content knowledge a teacher should know, there is little agreement concerning what the academic subject matter of language teaching matter is. Content knowledge refers to what teachers need to know about what they teach (including what they know about language teaching itself), and constitutes knowledge that would not be shared by teachers of other subject areas.³

"When language teaching emerged as an academic discipline in the 1960s, this disciplinary knowledge was largely drawn from the field of linguistics, but today it encompasses a much broader range content. For example, it could include the history of language teaching methods, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, phonology and syntax, discourse analysis, theories of language, critical applied linguistics, and so on."⁴

3.2 Teaching skills

Teachers need to acquire some basic teaching skills needed in the process of teaching, to present and maintain a lesson. A repertoire of techniques and routines are needed to open the lesson, organize work in the classroom, introduce

² Richards, C., J., (2011) Competence and Performance in Language Teaching, CUP.

³ Richards, C., J., (2011) Competence and Performance in Language Teaching, CUP.

⁴ Richards, C., J., (2011) Competence and Performance in Language Teaching, CUP.

and explain tasks, manage passing from one task to another, and monitor students' work and language use. Over time and with the gaining of experience, these skills are performed fluently and automatically making it possible for teachers to focus their attention on other features of the lesson.

3.3 Knowledge on the language's culture

All teachers should know the intellectual and artistic achievements of the culture of the country and people whose language they are teaching, basic concepts and developments of the political and history of that culture, the most important facts and concepts related to the economic and political geography of the culture as well as formal and informal culture practices. Teachers should use authentic cultural sources and they should take into account students' cultural backgrounds.

3.4 Application of appropriate pedagogical principles

Teachers should be informed on the ever-evolving knowledge of language acquisition because they plan, select and develop the language-teaching activities based on that knowledge and current development. This involves knowledge on different learning styles and ability to recognize each one and help students to develop their own learning styles; knowledge on what makes a language-learning environment successful and how to choose, structure and develop cooperative learning activities; knowledge on strategies for increasing in students a positive attitude and motivating them towards the learning of a language.

Apart from the above mentioned skills and knowledge, which have always have been a part of a teacher's preparation (but now need to be in line with the new discoveries and advances) we need to mention a few more which are required from a teacher to have in order to be a 21st century teacher preparing 21st century citizens:

4. Use of ICT

Today digital technology is changing every aspect of people's lives. Information and communication technology (ICT) in a short time has become very important in our society. In many countries it is regarded as an essential part of education and mastering the basic concept and skills of ICT is considered to be as important as knowing how to read and write.

A new aspect of learning in the 21 century is the Lifelong Learning. Research has shown that if used properly ICT-supported education can help learners acquire the knowledge and skills that will make possible the lifelong learning. "A comprehensive and coherent lifelong learning strategy for Europe should aim to provide lifelong learning opportunities as close to learners as possible, in their own communities and supported through ICT-based facilities wherever appropriate." (European Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning, 2000).

We tend to raise the number of digital illiterate people which in turn can be achieved by equipping schools, teachers and students with the necessary material, professional skills and technical support. The effective use of ICT will very much contribute to the implementation of lifelong learning by widening access and introducing more varied ways to learn.

Teachers are a key component in the process of learning but teachers have to understand that their roles have changed. They have to remember that "electronic communication can help foster a new teacher-student relationship in which the students become more autonomous and the teacher becomes more a facilitator." (Warschauer M. 1995). The use of ICT allows for the lesson to be more learner-centered. The classroom environment is more cooperative and collaborative and more active learning takes place.

Their workload in the classroom might be reduced in the 21st century but they need to work more on planning the steps in a class as well as developing their skills and knowledge of ICT. When the newly qualified teachers step out of the comfort zone of the college to the cacophony of the classroom, many are expected to work with ICT products and services they have never previously experienced. For some adapting to untried tools is fairly easy, but for others, confidence can be knocked by anxiety about adoption of unfamiliar classroom technologies.

5. Engaging in action research

Action research is an expanding field which is commanding significant education attention. It is a methodology of paramount importance in teacher education programs as it offers an approach to introducing innovations in teaching and

learning. Kemmis and Mc Taggart argue that “to do action research is to plan, act, observe and reflect more carefully, more systematically, and more rigorously than one usually does in everyday life.”⁵ Action research is a way to grow and learn by making use of one’s own experiences.

The report on European Profile for Language Teacher Education-A Frame of Reference, proposes that the foreign language teacher education in the 21st century should include certain elements of initial and in-service education among which, continuous improvement of teaching skills as part of in-service education (element 10) and ongoing education for teacher educators (element 11). As part of their in-service or continued education teachers should develop skills in action research, reflective practice, creative use of materials, resources and new learning environments and mentoring. “Qualified teachers benefit from keeping a “learning diary” to reflect on their experience and identify areas that might benefit from action research projects. Learning further skills in action research would be a key part of continued education, since it is easier to solve a problem if it is one’s own.”⁶ Action research also encourages teachers to find new ways of doing things.

6. Project work

Project work is not a new teaching method. Its benefits have been widely recognized in teaching many different subjects, language teaching as well. It is a highly adaptable teaching methodology and can be used at every level, from beginner to advanced, and with all ages. Project work is important because it is among those activities which foster students’ autonomy.

“Project-based learning is a model for classroom activity that shifts away from the classroom practices of short, isolated, teacher-centered lessons and instead emphasizes learning activities that are long-term, interdisciplinary, student-centered, and integrated with real world issues and practices.” [Asan & Haliloglu, 2005].

PBL is a powerful tool in the hands of a teacher. It requires a great deal of investment on the part of the teachers to become effective facilitators. Designing and implementing a good project requires efforts on the teacher’s part; they need to make sure of using project work at the right time and for the right reasons. It also requires efforts from the students, who may be used to being told exactly what to do.

Educators’ role in project work should be less dominant. They are facilitators and not the only source of knowledge or provider of all solutions. Teachers assist project work as fellow learners, coordinators. At all stages of project work the teacher should suggest ideas, provide references, provide alternatives to a situation or stimulate students to think. Great importance should be given to the first phase, that of the preparation for the project. Preparation, then, is the key to make project work a success. [Hutchinson, 2001]. Taking the role of a guide or facilitator is not the way that most educators were taught, nor even the way they were taught to teach. Thus, a suggestion to improve project work in Albania would be to improve teachers knowledge and skills in project conducting by giving them all the administrative support needed as well as providing some kind of training. Professional collaboration among teachers is another way of improvement. Being able to share with colleagues, project ideas, strategies, resources, and results can make a great difference for educators, especially during the early stages of their career or PBL efforts.

7. Alternative assessment and Self-evaluation

“As part of a broader assessment reform movement, conceptions of good assessment are moving toward direct observation of complex performance rather than brief written tests that correlate with the target aptitudes.”⁷

“Teachers are today experimenting with alternatives to traditional tests. Performance assessment, portfolio collections, classroom observation, peer assessment, and self-evaluation are joining the unit test and the final exam in the repertoire of the skillful teacher. ... While teacher-made tests and standardized tests give us information about student learning, they do not provide all the information. Alternate forms of assessment can generate that other information. ... The research evidence accumulating in our studies, and other data produced by other researchers, make us optimistic about the impact of one form of authentic assessment - self-evaluation – on the learning of students and

⁵ Kemmis, S. and Mc Taggart, R. *The Action Research Planner* (third edition) Geelong, Victoria, Australia: Deakin University Press, 1992, pág 10

⁶ Kelly, M., Grenfell, M., Allan, R., Kriza, C., Mcevoy, W. *European Profile for Language Teacher Education-A Frame of Reference: September 2004* pág 39.

⁷ Linn, R., Baker, E., & Dunbar, S. (1991) *Complex performance-based assessment: Expectations and validation criteria*, *Educational Research*, 20 (8), 15-21.

their teachers.”⁸

A new aspect of learning in the 21 century is the Lifelong Learning. Member states of the European Union are asked to prepare strategies, take action and organize systems in order to encourage and sustain lifelong learning for all. In order to become lifelong learners, students need to know the importance of self-evaluation. Being able to evaluate oneself fairly and helpfully is a valuable life skill which will be an asset to people long after they leave collage. When evaluating themselves, students better understand their weaknesses and strengths.

8. Professional growth

The secret of success in the profession of teaching is to continually learn and grow professionally. Professional development is defined as a continuous learning process in which teachers undertake voluntarily to learn how to match their teaching to the learning needs of their students. Professional development is not a single isolated event, but rather an ongoing process of professional reflection and growth which develops gradually and gives the best results when sustained over time and when focused on knowledge and skills matching the changing demands of jobs and occupations, workplace organization and working methods.

Teachers aim at equipping learners with a wide range of skills that they will need to live, study and work in a world that is in constant evolution. Even high-quality initial teacher education cannot provide teachers with knowledge and skills necessary for teaching during their entire life. Thus, teachers are urged not only to acquire new knowledge and skills but also to develop them continuously.

The European Council held in Lisbon in March 2000 signaled an important moment for the direction of policy and action in the European Union. It concluded that “Europe has indisputably moved into the Knowledge Age.”⁹ The way people learn, live and work is changing very quickly. As a result at the Lisbon European Council it was confirmed that “the move towards lifelong learning must accompany a successful transition to a knowledge-based economy and society.”¹⁰ In this respect, the education and professional development of every teacher needs to be seen as a lifelong task. “To equip the teaching body with the skills and competences needed for its new roles, it is necessary to have both quality initial teacher education and a coherent process of continuous professional development to keep teachers up to date with the skills required in a knowledge-based society.”¹¹

“Furthermore, as with any modern profession, teachers have the responsibility to extend the boundaries of professional knowledge through a commitment to reflective practice, through research, and through systematic engagement in continuous professional development from the beginning to the end of their careers.”¹²

There is a crucial characteristic of language which teachers sometimes fail to remember or underestimate; language is dynamic, fluid and changes continually. Thus, the best teachers are those who are also dynamic in the way they develop; always focusing on updating their knowledge of new teaching methodologies and approaches. These teachers are introduced to new methodology and theory to ensure they are kept informed of developments and take an active role in their own professional development.

Good teachers are, after all, students themselves.

9. Results

The 21st century offers new challenges to all of us. Students and teachers are faced with a vast range of information which relates to the rapidly changing nature of the educational environment. Teachers strive to prepare students who will be able to survive in a world which is in constant change. But there is no such teacher education which can provide skills and knowledge necessary for teaching during an entire life. As a result, there comes the need for developing those skills and knowledge constantly, the need to become life-long learners and to grow professionally continuously.

⁸ Rolheiser, C., and Ross, J. (1998) Student self-evaluation: What research says and what theory shows http://www.cdl.org/resource-library/articles/self_eval.php

⁹ European Commission's Memorandum of Lifelong Learning. Brussels 2000, pág. 3

¹⁰ European Commission's Memorandum of Lifelong Learning, Brussels 2000, pág. 3

¹¹ Teachers' Professional Development, Europe in Comparison, Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Union 2010, pág. 12

¹² Teachers' Professional Development, Europe in Comparison, Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Union 2010, pág. 12

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The Curriculum Development in Training Teachers Providing Mainstreaming Programs for Children with Special Needs in Primary School Level, Southern Thailand

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Abstract

In Thailand, children with special needs have fewer benefits in inclusive education mainly because instructors are not trained as special education teachers. The ultimate goal of this research was to construct training curriculum for the instructors, providing them with knowledge to better manage these children. The purposes of this research were to study the present situation of the special education services among special needs children at primary level in Area 1, Songkhla Province, South Thailand, identify barriers and needs of teachers within the mainstream programs, construct a training curriculum for teachers and to assess the effectiveness of the proposed curriculum. The curriculum development program comprised four steps. First, the present situation in providing special education services was studied; the barriers and the needs of teachers were identified. Second, the curriculum for training purposes was written. Third, the trial training curriculum and its assessment were carried out. Fourth, the curriculum was revised. The research design was one group pretest - posttest. The sample consisted of 20 representative teachers. The results of the research showed that the effectiveness of the curriculum was scored as 82.07/81.17, slightly higher than the set criteria of 80/80 indicating that the curriculum was appropriate for implementation. There was a significant different at the .01 level among the average posttest and pretest scores of the participants. The results of the test indicated that this curriculum improved knowledge of the teachers. Positive teacher comments included: increase of knowledge, understanding the benefits of the training, ability to apply knowledge, better skills in the management of teaching children with special needs and increased self confidence. This training course has been promoted to other inclusive schools in the area. It should be noted that the development of the training course needs to be conducted on a continuous basis.

1. Introduction

Education is a key process to develop human quality, which is very important in developing countries. People with disabilities should be considered equal to the rest of society. People with disabilities can reach their potential to be a self-reliant and live in society happily if they receive proper support. Furthermore, they could support their society as well as other people. From the IDEA was originally enacted by Congress in 1975 to ensure that children with disabilities have the opportunity to receive a free appropriate public education, just like other children. Thailand also has Persons with Disabilities Education Act B.E 2551 (2008) which is intended for persons with disabilities to be able to access education services and other resources at all levels and to improve the Thai educational system to enhance their quality of life and independent living through empowerment. In section 3, they classified 9 groups of people with disabilities as: people with visual impairments, people with hearing impairments, people with health or physical disabilities, people with communication problems, people with behavioral or emotional problems, people with learning disabilities, people with intellectual disabilities, people with autism, and people with multiple disabilities.

Education for people with disabilities focuses on equal opportunities in formal education, informal education, and lifelong education. Education for all was set by UNESCO, to be reached by the year 2015 as "The right to education is universal and must extend to all children, youth, and adults with disabilities. The goal of the Dakar Framework for Action is to achieve "education for all". In Thailand, this goal was encouraged, and lead by some schools since 2005. Based on the principle of public education that has been defined clearly in The Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand B.E 2550 (2007) states that a person shall enjoy an equal right to receive education for the duration of not less than 12 years, which shall be provided by the State, and be of the requisite quality standard, and without charge. In paragraph 3 states that poor people, people with disabilities or people who are in difficult condition must receive support from the government, and be able to receive education comparable with others. The Thai Constitution B.E. 2550 (2007) contains anti-discrimination provisions and guarantees accessibility to social welfare and services for persons with disabilities.

This means that people have the right to all basic education equally, regardless of their health or physical condition. However, the government must provide facilities and assistance, in accordance with section 54 as - the Persons with Disabilities Education Act B.E. 2551 (2008) which is intended for persons with disabilities to be able to access education services and other resources at all levels and to improve the Thai educational system to enhance their quality of life and independent living through empowerment.

Education for people with disabilities focuses on developing their individual potential, promoting their potential by providing early intervention services from birth or first disability diagnosis. The process is to educate and train them to be good citizens with professional jobs. If they are accepted and treated equally to others in the community, they can help themselves and participate in the development of the country. To promote the development of children with special needs we should bring children into normal environment as much as possible which includes educational assistance (Hegarty, 1993). The idea of bringing children into normal environments is believed to help special needs children have better lives. To receive education and other support encourages them to be normal in this society as much as possible. In order to provide special needs children to have life styles that are typical of most societies (Madden et al., 1996), we should bring children with special needs from special schools to mainstream education (Pope, 1992). In mainstream program, the educators found that the children with special needs have no difference in their test achievements compared with their peers in regular schools. Furthermore, they also have better social skills (Benja, 2002).

Children with special needs will have advantages with mainstream education. Teachers need to improve various factors such as the school environment, classroom environment, curriculum, measurement and evaluation. Teachers need to provide facilities, teaching aids, and assistance to suit the individual child's potential. However, these factors have not yet been adjusted enough or properly to suit the needs of each person. This is due to some teachers not being trained as special education teachers. Hence, they lack clarity in terms of knowledge and understanding of children with special needs. Providing inappropriate systems in mainstream education will have fewer benefits for the special needs students. Therefore, the ultimate goal of this research is to construct a training curriculum for teachers of children with special needs in primary schools, providing them with knowledge and understanding to better manage these children to suit the individual child's potential.

2. Purpose of the research:

1. To study the present situation of the special education services to special needs children at Primary Educational Service Area 1, Songkhla Province, Southern Thailand
2. To identify barriers and needs of teachers within mainstream programs
3. To construct a training curriculum for teachers and to assess the effectiveness of the proposed curriculum

3. Research Design:

The curriculum development program comprised of four steps:

3.1 Step 1: Study the present situation, the barriers and the needs of the teachers in providing special education in mainstream programs.

3.1.1 Population and sample

The populations were the teachers providing mainstream programs for children with special needs in the schools under Songkhla Primary Educational Service Area 1, Southern Thailand. The teachers were homeroom teachers, special education teachers, resource teachers and teachers' assistant, then selected 1 sample in each school. The total samples were 31.

3.1.2 The instruments:

The instruments used to collect the information were questionnaires which were divided into 5 parts.

- Part 1: Surveyed the number of students who have special needs attending schools in the academic year 2011. The types of disabilities were classified into nine different types.
- Part 2: There were 5 check lists of the status of the teachers.

- Part 3: The 10 questions about the present situation of the schools in providing mainstream program relating to their student support systems.
- Part 4: The problems in providing mainstream programs for special needs children.
- Part 5: Questions asking about the teachers' basic knowledge 24 topics needed for training and extra open ended f questions or additional topics.

3.1.3 *The collection of information:*

Data was collected by sending questionnaires to the 31 samples. The questionnaires were distributed to one teacher in each school. The teachers could be classroom teachers, special education teachers, guidance or counselor teachers and teachers' assistant.

3.1.4 *Findings and Discussion:*

1. There were 521 special education students, most of them had learning disabilities (496 people, 95.20 %), the remaining children had physical or health impairments (11 people, 2.11 %), autism (5 people, 0.96 %). The rest were children had hearing impairments (3 people), intellectual disabilities (3 people), and multiple disabilities (3 people), each 0.57 %.
2. Information about the status of the respondents. The sample included 31 people as follows:
 - i. Sex: 26 females (83.87 %), and 5 males (16.13 %).
 - ii. Working experiences: Teacher's working experiences were 6-10 years (5 people, 48.39 %), 11-15 years (8 people, 25.81 %) and working experiences more than 26 years (5 people, 16.12 %). The least working experience was less than 5 years, (3 people, and 9.68 %).
 - iii. Education: Most of the teachers have bachelor degrees (21 people, 7.74 %), or higher (10 people, 32.26%).
 - iv. Special Education Degrees: 22 people were not special education teachers (70.97 %). Only 9 teachers have special education degrees (29.03 %).
 - v. The responsibility in mainstream programs: The sample in this research were 18 class teachers (58.06 %), 7 subject teachers, (22.58 %) and 6 special education teachers (19.35 %). There were neither resource teachers nor guidance teachers.
3. The present situation: The results showed more than 50 % of the schools provided only three of the ten supported activities mentioned in the questionnaire. 25 schools provided supported activities (80.65%), 18 schools provided evaluation adjustment /special equipment (58.06%), 17 schools provided teaching aid adjustments, (54.84%). The 7 remaining schools provided fewer than 50% of the supported activities. Only four school provided buddies or tutors as supported activities (12.90 %).
4. Problems in the mainstream program:
 - i. Personnel issues: including the teacher to student ratio not meeting the criteria. Teachers have to do extra work in schools (besides teaching).
 - ii. Teachers have not enough knowledge in dealing with children with disabilities, especially children with learning disabilities.
 - iii. Some administrators do not pay attention to mainstream programs.
 - iv. Teachers did not understand about how to manage the mainstream program, write lesson plans or evaluate the students
 - v. The head office pay less attention to the special needs students.
 - vi. Lack of teaching aids/media, information technologies to help in teaching children with special needs.
 - vii. The teachers pay less attention to the special needs students.
 - viii. Building / environment were inappropriate, with a lack of resource rooms for children with disabilities, especially children with learning disabilities.
 - ix. Lack of specific teachers in subjects such as music and art.
 - x. Lack of coordination between teachers and parents.
5. Recommendations:
 - i. The head office should provide more teachers
 - ii. Training should be provided to enable teachers to have a deeper understanding of the mainstream

- program, especially regarding children with learning disabilities.
- iii. Training/Conferences/Seminars should be provided to create understanding and awareness of mainstream program.
- iv. Supervision from an outside organization should monitor the mainstream program.
- v. Provide teaching aids/media, and training teachers of children with special needs.
- vi. The schools should pay attention to mainstream programs.
- vii. Meetings between teachers and parents should be held to meet the agreement.
- 6. The topics that the teachers need to know: The teachers need to know the top 5 topics as follows:
 - i. The educational provision for children with learning disabilities.
 - ii. The media/ teaching aids for helping children with learning disabilities.
 - iii. Teaching skills.
 - iv. The individual education program (IEP).
 - v. The implementation of individual plans (IIP).

3.2 Step 2: Writing the curriculum for training purposes.

The draft training curriculum was written by.

1. Analyzing the documents and review relevant literature in mainstream programs. Analyze the topics needed in providing mainstream programs.
2. The training curriculum was divided into four units:
 - **Unit 1:** Knowledge about children with special needs.
 - **Unit 2:** Education for children with learning disabilities.
 - **Unit 3:** The individual education program (IEP) and the implementation of individual plans (IIP).
 - **Unit 4:** Media/teaching aids to assist children with learning disabilities
3. Examine by specialists

The training curriculum has been sent to the four specialists: one person in measurement and evaluation, one person in special education and two persons in curriculum. The training curriculum has been improved according to the recommendations.

3.3 Step 3: The trial of the training curriculum and its assessment was carried out.

This research was tried out and the effectiveness of the curriculum was found. The research design was one group pretest posttest.

1. The populations were the teachers providing mainstreaming programs for children with special needs in the leading schools project under Songkhla Primary Educational Service Area 1, Southern Thailand. The teachers were homeroom teachers, special education teachers, resource teachers and teacher's assistants, and then 1 sample was selected from each school. The total population was 31 people. The sample group of 20 representative teachers was selected, and then 1 teacher was randomly selected from each school.
2. Instrument:
 - i. The training curriculum
 - ii. Document: The document included handouts, worksheets, teaching aids (low /high technology), videos and guide books,
 - iii. Tools used for data collection include:
 - a. The pretest- posttest of knowledge was taken.
 - b. The test of knowledge was used to evaluate the effectiveness of the training. The test measured their cognitive knowledge after each training unit.
 - c. The questionnaire on the comment about the training courses.
3. The trial of the training curriculum and its assessment was carried out by the sample group of 20 representative teachers
4. The trial results
 - i. The participants took the test after the units training. They all have a grade point average of 80 % in all units: unit 1 equal to 82.67 %, unit 2 equal to 82.33, unit 3 equal to 81.00 % and unit 4 equal to 83.67 %. The average value is equal to 82.07.

- ii. The effectiveness of the training curriculum was 81.17/82.07 which indicates that the training curriculum created higher performance over 80/80 criteria.
- iii. Achievement of the participants, the result obtained by comparing the average of the pretest and the average of the posttest of the participants. Using the Dependent t-test the average of the test score prior to the training is equal to the average value of 38.33, and after the training is equal to 81.17, which differ significantly at the .01 level.
- iv. Assess the teachers' comments on the training curriculum

Part 1 Knowledge and understanding: It appears that after the training, the knowledge and understanding of the teachers and management in children with special needs, and their participation levels are high. The teachers have high knowledge and understanding of management in teaching children with special needs

Part 2 Additional suggestions on curriculum improvement include:

1. There should have more examples on English language teaching media to teach children with disability.
2. Increase the amount of time in unit 4: media/ teaching aids in teaching children with disabilities
3. The training should have 2 phases, so that the teachers can develop a continuous task.
4. Increase the amount of time in each training unit.

3.4 Step 4: *Revise the training curriculum*

The researchers gathered the data from the performance assessment of the training and documentation of the training. Documents were prepared for publication as well as revealed to other organizations.

4. The research summary and discussion of the results:

4.1 *The training curriculum:*

The objective in developing the training curriculum was to promote teachers to have knowledge and skills in teaching children with special needs in mainstream programs. The curriculum consists of 6 topics: (1) rationale (2) the objective of the training curriculum (3) the content of the training curriculum (4) the training activities (5) media used in training (6) measuring and assessment. The training period was 7 hours per day for 4 days, totaling 28 hours.

The conceptual framework of the research papers reviewed the documents and literature about the development of personnel in schools that provided mainstream programs. This was done to enhance the performance in the teaching of teachers. Most of the teachers who do not have special education will have more knowledge, understanding and confidence in teaching. This is consistent with the research report of the Bureau of Supervision and Development Educational Standards (2000), which found that the teachers will have anxiety about teaching activity.

When the achievement of children with special needs was measured, it was found to be lower than normal children. Friends did not accept them, increases the burden to the teachers. The teachers had bad attitudes towards mainstreaming programs. If the teacher receives training and instructional approaches to the children, the teacher will have peace of mind and will be willing to teach the children. And this is according to the concept of Chan (2004), who said that training is a systematic process. The systematic process will increase knowledge and skills in performing tasks including changes in practicing better behavior which will be beneficial to job responsibilities. Also in accordance with the research of Wijitporn (2001). She had improved the training curriculum; the result found that after the training, the participants increase their achievement effectively. This shows that the training curriculum can develop the teachers' achievement.

4.2 *The performance assessment of training curriculum*

The performance assessment based on the set criteria of 80/80, results showed that the effectiveness of the training curriculum was 82.07/81.17, slightly higher than the set criteria which indicating that the training curriculum was appropriate for implementation. This meets the concept of Chalerm Sri (2001), Napaporn and Jiraporn (2002) who found that the performance assessment exceeded 80, because the participants were keen and interested in training to enhance their knowledge and understanding. Moreover, during the training, the participants paid attention, and were interested in joining all the activities.

4.3 *The achievement assessment of the participants*

The achievement assessment of posttest scores obtained by using the t-test dependent. There was a significant different at the .01 level. The majority of the teachers are not special education teachers. After receiving the training, they received more knowledge and understanding of teaching children with special needs. Their knowledge after the training was statistically significant.

4.4 *The assessment opinions regarding the training curriculum*

On the assessment of the understanding and the benefits of the training, it was found that (1) after the training, the teachers indicated that they had more knowledge and understanding in the management of teaching children with special needs than before the training (2) the teachers could apply their knowledge and understanding in the management of teaching children with special needs in high levels (3) the teachers commented that they have increased their understanding and gained high benefits from the training.

The reason for this is because the teachers were not special education teachers, or they had not been trained by Office of The Basic Education Commission. When the teachers were trained, they increased their knowledge, understanding and skills in the management of teaching children with special needs. They have more confidence and can bring their knowledge and understanding of management in teaching children with special needs. This is consistent with Wantanee (2008), which found that teachers who teach in elementary levels also lack the skills required to teach students with special needs, and also agree that supporting is the first priority. All the teachers need to help each other in lesson plans and teaching. For learning together to be successful there must be coordination and planning for students. Consistent with the results of the study on the conditions of special education in Thailand. Division of Special Education (1999), which summarized the barriers, according to the opinion of the administrators, teachers. The opinions are: (1) lack of books, textbooks, and the various documents relating to the technical knowledge of children with disabilities (2) lack of learning materials to support teaching and learning activities for children with disabilities (3) teachers lack the knowledge and skills required to teach children with disabilities (4) teachers lack the knowledge to adjust worksheets (5) teachers lack knowledge as a resource (6) lack of supervision from supervisors. Moreover, the Bureau of Supervision and Development Educational Standards, (2000). Reported the research on "The development process in developing personnel, and special education teachers' year 1998-2000 and guidelines for future development". After studying the present situation, problems and obstacles in special education were seen through school principal and special education teachers' opinions. The opinions of the teachers included (1) too many students in a class room (2) There are few trained teachers (3) teachers lack confidence in teaching children with special needs (4) there were not any special education teachers in school or very few. Moreover, the teachers need to coordinate with others. And also in accordance with the research reports of Nonglak (2001) which found that most of the teachers who teach children with disabilities lack knowledge about special education. Furthermore, they lack books, text books, and teaching support supplements. Although, the government tries to promote all teachers to take part in training and self-study. The government also provides extra money, but it was not enough to produce and develop specialized teachers. From those reasons, the teachers had been trained on this curriculum. They have more knowledge, understanding and skills in the management of teaching children with special needs and have more confidence in the management of these areas.

5. Conclusion

This training curriculum provided to teachers who teach children with special needs in mainstream programs in Songkhla Primary Education Service Area Office 1, Southern Thailand. To train teachers to have more knowledge and skills in the management of teaching children with special needs in mainstream programs. This due to teachers who teach children with special needs not being special education teachers. Hence, they could gain more knowledge, understanding, and confidence in teaching children with special need. The content of the curriculum is mainly focused on children with learning disabilities which was the biggest group from the survey. And from the survey, the teachers needed knowledge in teaching children with learning disabilities.

From the trial with curriculum group training, it appears that after the training, the participants are trained in understanding and managing teaching children with special needs. They have more confidence, and are able to bring knowledge and understanding of special needs child management to use in their work. However, the development of the training curriculum has been conducted continuously, to keep up with the curriculum, information technology, and media, to meet the benefits of children with special needs.

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Learning of Bullying's Acts Throught Social Learning

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Abstract

This scientific article is focused on the learning process of bullying's acts; especially on the learning of bullying's acts through social learning (mainly by observation). From the analysed data in statistical way of the observations and the surveys conducted in two 9-year schools and two high schools in the city of Elbasan, it is found out that students more likely imitate the bullying's behaviors of their favourite students, of their parents or of the characters of different films. In this way, by adding those imitations some personal behavioral elements, they learn a new type of behavior. Many bullying's acts are learnt through observation. Observers in the case of bullying's acts are students and observational models include friends or classmates, parents, teachers, siblings, heroes of books, favourite sportsmen etc. From the analysed data in statistical way, it is also found out that the bullying's behaviors are especially repeated when the student sees that the model, whom he imitates, has received indirect reinforcements from his bullying's acts. Students can learn bullying's acts through observation of models, who perform bullying's acts. Students are more likely to learn through observation of bullying's acts performed by a model, who has been indirected reinforced as result of this bullying's acts.

Keywords: *bullying's acts, social learning, reinforcement, indirect reinforcement, imitation, observation.*

1. Introduction

Bullying is a widespread phenomenon of concern to many students school life. Psychological and physical consequences of bullying are numerous and long in time. These effects lead to poor performance of persons involved in bullying's acts in emotional, social, academic and other important areas. Consequences of bullying do not feel only in the school environment, but these consequences also move on to other social environment, which the students included in bullying's acts attend.

Although the phenomenon of bullying is a worrying phenomenon, the literature on this phenomenon in Albanian language is scarce. As a consequence of the nondisposition of scientific information about the phenomenon of bullying, school psychologists, teachers and parents in most cases do not give the appropriate importance on bullying's acts, and often even ignore them, which weighs heavily on emotional state of the students involved in bullying, especially in emotional well-being of victims of bullying's acts.

This scientific research is focused on the phenomenon of bullying, considering bullying's acts performed only among students in schools. Bullying is a complex phenomenon, but this research is especially focused on the learning of bullying's acts through social learning (mainly by observation).

From frequently observations in school environments is noticed that many students are inclined to imitate behaviors, which are done before by other students, parents or characters of different movies. In this way, by adding to those imitations also some personal elements, they learn a new type of behavior. Many bullying's acts are learned through learning by observation. Learning by observation occurs when an observer's behavior is influenced by being witness to the model behavior (and often its consequences). Observers in the case of bullying are students and models include parents, teachers, siblings, schoolmates, heroes of books, sports etc.. In this scientific research is aimed to be prove this hypothesis: Students can learn bullying's acts by observing a model, which performs bullying's acts.

2. Research methodology

Population: The phenomenon of bullying is a widespread and concerned phenomenon primarily for students in secondary schools. Hence, the theoretical population of this empirical scientific research are: the students of secondary schools in the Municipality of Elbasan.

Sample: Total 600 students of four secondary schools, 150 students of school "Sule Harri", 150 students of school "Vasil Kamami", 150 students of school "Ahmet Dakli" and 150 students of school "Kostandin Kristoforidhi". Schools and students were selected in casual way in collaboration with the Regional Education Directorate.

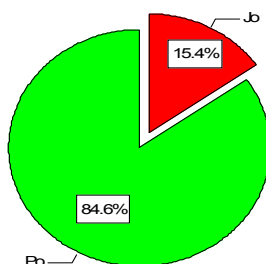
Instruments: The instruments used in this scientific research are observation and surveys. But as the instrument which has the highest weight in this study to verify whether or not the hypothesis is the questionnaire. The used questionnaire is "Scale of bullying in school – Olweus", revised in collaboration with teachers and school psychologists of Elbasan, in order to make it more suitable for the purpose of this research. To assess the validity of these questions was conducted also the pre - test, which made it possible and necessary revision of some questions. The pre - test was conducted with 20 students, divided 10 male and 10 female, then not included in the survey, who where asked about understanding and clarity of responses before and after filling in the questionnaire. The final version of the questionnaire was compiled, after being taken into consideration their opinions about understanding and clarity of the questions. The variables of the questionnaire are dichotomic in order to obtain clear and accurate results.

Procedure: The followed steps of the research are:

- The development of the hypothesis.
- The determination of the theoretical population on which the experiment was conducted.
- The construction of the sample.
- The realization of the pre- test in order to define the hypothesis on which the experiment was conducted.
- The development of the final draft's version of the questionnaire, in close cooperation with representatives of the Regional Education Directorate Elbasan and school psychologist.
- Implementation of the questionnaire. For conducting this questionnaire was taken the appropriate permit from the Regional Education Elbasan, as well as permission from the parents of the students surveyed, to whom was explained in detail what is bullying, goals, objectives and modalities of the survey in this research. Also they were insured for their children's anonymity and were asked not to talk with their children prior to the questionnaire, so that they were not influenced in their responses from their parents. To the students were also taken their consent of filling in the questionnaire. To them were also given the right information about bullying, were clarified any uncertainty about the questions and completing of the questionnaire procedure and they were assured that their data will remain confidential.
- The selection of questionnaires evaluated as regular.
- The data entry and their processing in SPSS programm.
- The interpretation of the data.

3. Analysis

The statistical data presented in the graph below shows that 84.6% of the surveyed subjects claimed to have committed acts of bullying last 3-4 months in school. 15.4% of them claimed to have done bullying's acts, upon seeing their friends, family or characters on television performing those acts. This shows that they have learned bullying's acts through observation and imitation of these acts.



4. Conclusions

In educating children, the parents and the teachers have a difficult and demanding role. Like no other, they are responsible in ensuring that children develop emotionally, socially, and academically. The fact is that, like adults, in coping with today society's pressures and demands, children are paying a heavy emotional toll too. At alarming rates, more and more children and adolescents are experiencing all kinds of stress and trauma reactions, and at all levels of severity. Since children's affective and emotional status strongly influence how they perform in the classroom, it is imperative for teachers to become acquainted with how students develop and function socio-emotionally. Bullying is a widespread phenomenon of concern to many students school life. The parents, the teachers and the society itself should pay more attention on bullying's acts in order to prevent them. Bullying's acts could be learned by observing bullying models, so the children should not be exposed to such models. Even if it occurs, to the children should be explained the bad consequences of those acts.

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'Traditional' and 'Innovative' Potential Entrepreneurs among Portuguese Graduates: A Case Study

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Abstract

If youth entrepreneurship is far from being the solution regarding unemployment, it is likely to be part of a response, fostering the access to the labour market, the acquisition of entrepreneurial skills and the social tolerance for risk. Based on the research project "The Entrepreneurial Potentials at the University of Minho", and main results gathered both in quantitative and qualitative approaches (online survey administered to 283 graduates and in-depth interviews with 8 graduates from different scientific areas who finished the course between 2002 and 2008) we intend: 1) to present some reflections regarding the role of higher education to develop the entrepreneurial potential and also understand how activities in an academic context and a political environment (NSRF 2007-2013) may be useful to foster a more favorable atmosphere for innovation and entrepreneurship in the European context; 2) to discuss how academia can (or can not) change the lives of graduates, considering the fact that social capital is crucial to innovative sectors in order to provide intensive knowledge for starting-up a business, and women's options continue to remain anchored in the traditional sexual division of labour, in regard to the two main portraits of entrepreneurial potential identified in our research; 3) and discuss to what extent social capital, gender and the entrepreneurial potential of graduates can be an obstacle to innovation and how higher education contributes towards changing the economic patterns of specialization in Portugal.

Keywords: Higher education, Entrepreneur potential, Social and Sexual division of work, Case study

1. Introduction

If youth entrepreneurship is far from being the solution regarding unemployment, it is likely to be part of a response, fostering the access to the labour market, the acquisition of entrepreneurial skills and the social tolerance for risk. In that sense, the policy of higher education and entrepreneurship in Portugal has been assumed as a national strategic priority to facilitate access to the labour market. It means that entrepreneurship brings new and important challenges to the University that are related to their ability that, together with other actors (economic, social, political), develop an entrepreneurial mind-set and an entrepreneurial culture and innovation. Such investment from universities in the promotion of entrepreneurship among graduates may contribute to the transformation of the productive specialisation profile of the Portuguese economy, especially by changing the business culture.

In turn, the profile of a graduate in Portugal is female in many areas of knowledge (53,4%), methods of access to employment, career development and cultural patterns associated with the organization, which is deeply dominated by male rationality and patriarchy, challenges the relationship between entrepreneurial characteristics, social resources, academic, professional and economic contexts, social and cultural environment.

The entrepreneurial potential concept we have tried to develop in this article has a wider perspective, based on two main components: one more dispositional, in the sense of Bourdieu's concept of *habitus* (1979), with its unconscious and "automatic" character, reflecting existence conditions and class history; and another component, more interpretative, rationally orientated for action and pluralist - based in the notions of *status* and social privilege employed by Weber (1978) - related to structural framework as well as to the social inequalities that can be observed in relation to different buying powers and different identities in the family groups, namely from the *prestige* and *status* definitions in social

hierarchy (e.g. education level, profession, lifestyle). In this perspective, the entrepreneurial potential is considered to involve various dimensions and a pluricausal nature, and may be influenced not only by symbolic-cultural configurations (cultural values and symbolic representations) but also by social capital, in particular due to the objective socio-professional and educational conditions that define the class structures of the family (occupational work system with different types of capital).

Thus, it will be important to understand to which point the focus on entrepreneurial potential centred in the social and gender inequalities among university graduates is inscribed in the logic of reproduction and validation of social inequalities in the framework of higher education policies. This assumption leads us to some relevant questions: to what extent does higher education maintain selectivity in its social recruiting pattern? What is the influence of social origin in the enterprising intention? Does gender influence entrepreneurial potential? Are there differences between courses or at least education fields chosen by those graduates with greater entrepreneurial potential?

In this paper we intend to test some possible answers for these questions, using the results from recent case study¹ conducted at the University of Minho, a Portuguese university located in the north of the country. This paper is structured into subsections addressing four main topics. In the first, some reflexions about selectivity patterns of Portuguese higher education system are addressed. In the second, we point out significant changes in the (re) configuration of higher education emphasising the role of entrepreneurship education. In the third, the exploration of substantial information allows us to characterize the socio-graphical profile of graduates, including their main motivations and preferred sectors for an entrepreneur activity. In the fourth, we present the structure of disposition for entrepreneurial activity by graduate's profile perceptions and point out that women's options continue to remain anchored in the traditional sexual division of labour, in regard to the two main portraits of entrepreneurial potential identified in our research.

2. Selectivity patterns and dispositions towards entrepreneurship

The selectivity of the higher education system, exercised according to the social origins of the families of their young candidates, has been a persistent trend during the past few decades. This trend, corroborated by various sociological researches carried out internationally (Wright, 1997; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1964, 1972; Bourdieu, 1979) and nationally (Casanova, 1993; Fernandes, 2001; Machado *et al.*, 2003; Estanque & Nunes, 2003; Marques, 2006, 2007; Gonçalves, 2009) has been followed, in a yet feeble manner, by a process of progressive widening of the social base of recruitment, with the access of young students from families with relatively low educational and professional qualifications.

In many countries, including Portugal, it is possible to identify strong indicators that the various "elites" continue to perform a prominent role inside higher education, by means of a stratified higher education structure and protected positions in the labour market, or both (cf. Bourdieu, 1979; Balsa *et al.*, 2001; Brennan, 2002, Teichler, 2007). Regardless, there has been a progressive mitigation of social inequalities in the access to higher education, which has led to a *social recruiting double standard* (Machado *et al.*, 2003) or class dualism, but is not sufficient to constitute equal opportunities structures. In fact, cultural capital and the system of dispositions inherited from the family still operate as the social reproduction logic that acts as social selection mechanism (Marques & Moreira, 2011b).

One of the main axis of internal differentiation in the university system is its division in main areas of knowledge, which Machado *et al.* (2003) identify as a *prestige hierarchy socially attributed to the various areas* that cross the higher education field, which is translated into a social closure of certain education areas to students from families with less resources. Thus, in certain courses, such as medicine, law and architecture, an over-representation of students from families with high educational and economic capital persists.

Likewise, it is possible to verify high selectivity relative to education choices, for which feminine preferences explain, in great measure, the sexual replication of the social division of work. The predominance of gender stereotypes, based on a process of "naturalization" of gender roles (Bourdieu, 1998) contributes towards deepening the diversified and unequally valued presence of education paths in function of gender. Some authors talk about the "double effect of gender discrimination" (Cruz & Cruzeiro, 1995) or the "bad choices" (Grácio, 1997) made by women, due to the fact that their options focus on courses with a literary and humanist nature or due to their greater difficulty in accessing work and in exercising professions with greater power and social prestige (Marques & Moreira, 2011a).

¹ This paper is part of the research project entitled "The Entrepreneurial Potentials at the University of Minho" (2010-2012) in which it was intended, firstly, to address the shortcomings of existing empirical studies on the topic of entrepreneurship; and secondly, to understand the important role of higher education in developing knowledge and skills that influence the manner in which they shape the processes of professional transition.

In the present article we shall cast a look on the social class origin of the graduates in order to understand their dispositions towards entrepreneurship. It is important for us to consider the role of family not only in the socialization process but, above all, as a social group endowed with different resources and varied social capital (e.g. economic, educational and cultural). In this perspective, it is admissible to accept that the social capital link based on family or other intimate relation links may generate different values, beliefs and confidence in the cognitive dimension, favouring the individual dispositions for entrepreneurship. Thus, the contact with business people among family or friends generates, as established by Bott (1976), more favourable perceptions of the convenience or feasibility of creating a personal business.

Adopting this theoretical approach, we have built a model of analysis of entrepreneurial intentions which, in very broad terms, operationalizes *i)* the relations between the characterization variables of the social origin of the family (social capital) of the graduates from University of Minho, *ii)* associating them to other factors that explain social inequalities, such as the education field and the gender of the graduates.

3. Academic entrepreneurship and policy environment

In the past few years, in Portugal as well as in the rest of Europe, entrepreneurship has been presented as one of the possible access ways to the labour market, having clearly become a professional transition alternative, particularly important for young individuals with higher qualifications. The problem of the substantial increase of the unemployment rate among higher education graduates presents new and important challenges to the University in regards to the employability of its graduates (ECOTEC, 2010; EC, 2009; Clark, 1998).

Notwithstanding the developments of the last decade, Europe still presents what is considered lower levels of exploitation of entrepreneurial potential, be that in terms of self-employment or creation of new businesses. Effectively, the data published in the *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor* (GEM, 2011) does not favour Europeans in regards to entrepreneurial initiative, especially in comparison to countries such as the U.S.A. and Japan. When analysing differences between the genders, it is possible to verify that it is mostly men who are involved in entrepreneurial activities or who declared their intention to start entrepreneurial activities. This discrepancy between the genders also presents itself in relation to the motivation for entrepreneurial activity, with more men than women declaring opportunity as the main reason to start a business; in an opposite situation, significantly, there is no gender disparity when the base of motivation is necessity (Marques & Moreira, 2011a).

The necessity of improving entrepreneurial and innovation capacities of European populations deserved special attention in three flagship initiatives of the current *Europe 2020* strategy for employment and sustainable growth: "Innovation Union", "Youth on the Move" and "An Agenda for new skills and jobs", with action programs such as *Youth@Work*² and *Erasmus for Young Entrepreneurs*,³ currently in underway.

The promotion and support to qualified young entrepreneurship has been the aim of public employment policies in Portugal, with particular emphasis on the transversal strategic plan *Youth Impulse - Strategic Plan for the Promotion of Youth Employability and Support to the SME*⁴ and its measures "Passport to Entrepreneurship" and "Entrepreneurial Portugal". Both are measures in which self-employment or the creation of personal business gain relevance in the fight against unemployment or as access mechanisms for first jobs for young citizens with higher education qualifications. The support predicted in these programs aims to encourage entrepreneurship in this segment and make available specialized technical support (e.g. training; support in the elaboration of the business plan; monitoring and tutoring for the business), but also support for raising funds for the creation of businesses (e.g. financing, risk capital, micro-credit).

²This is a new action to fight youth unemployment. The main idea comprises in narrowing the relationship between young workers and small and medium businesses, promoting the search of these potential talents among SME employers and, simultaneously, promoting work in these companies as "a launching ramp for young people who are interested in becoming entrepreneurs".

³Erasmus for Young Entrepreneurs is a new European exchange programme that aims to support new or future business people in acquiring relevant competences for the management of a small or medium business and assist experienced businessmen or businesswomen who seek new perspectives and international cooperation opportunities. Its objective is to foster entrepreneurship and competitiveness as well as the internationalisation of companies in the European Union.

⁴The Youth Impulse programme presents a wide set of measures to fight youth unemployment. Information available in: <http://www.portugal.gov.pt>.

4. Entrepreneurial potential: social origin, gender and educational field

4.1 Research design

In this point we will advance with the presentation of some of the main aspects obtained in the research "The Entrepreneurial potentials at the University of Minho (2010-2012)". The methodological design combined both quantitative and qualitative approaches. In the first methodological stage, an online survey was applied to a universe of 1,419 graduates from the University of Minho who terminated their course between 2002 and 2008. These graduates are from 43 courses that were grouped into six scientific areas, according to the Portuguese National Classification of Education and Training Areas (2008) as: "Education", "Humanities", "Social Sciences and Law", "Science and Computing", "Engineering" and "Health and social care". The obtained sample resulted in a 20% share quota, totalling 283 valid surveys. In the second methodological stage, in-depth interviews of the graduates who participated in the first stage of this research, especially those with "high entrepreneurial potential" (in total 8 interviews) took place. Analysing interview data, it was possible to stress some information concerning main motivations and projects for self-employment/business.

4.2 Educational field and gender

The data presented in table 1 shows us an elevated entrepreneurial potential among the graduates inquired - the majority (72%) declares having desired/considered creating their own business at some point of their path. However, it is possible to notice that the female graduates have a slightly lower propensity to self-employment/business (67%) in comparison to the male graduates (80%). In this case, the female graduates from the "Humanities" field (50%) demonstrated the least interest in materializing a business project. This lower propensity of the female gender for entrepreneurship has been corroborated in research previously carried out in family companies, demonstrating that the men in these families are socialized for a high position in the companies from a very tender age, unlike the women (Ussman, 1998).

Table 1: Entrepreneurial intention by educational field and sex (%)

Educational field	Education	72.9
	Humanities	50.0
	Social Sciences and Law	76.9
	Sciences and Information Technology	67.3
	Engineering	75.0
	Health and social protection	66.7
Sex	Masculine	79.8
	Feminine	67.9
	Total	72%
	(N)	197

Source: Potential of entrepreneurship at UM Survey (2010)

Also, table 1 shows that the predisposition for entrepreneurship has greater expression in the "Social Sciences and Law" (77%), Engineering (75%) and "Education" (73%) fields.⁵ According to the respondents, this is mainly due to a desire for new challenges and for making more money, associated to difficulties finding jobs in the field of graduation.

In relation to the preferred activity sectors and to the motivations for the creation of self-employment/business, there are differences according to gender and field of education. With the exception of a few courses, there is a concentration of female "Social Sciences" and "Education" graduates in a restricted set of activity sectors associated to care, such as "Education, Health and Social Action" and "Retail, Hospitality and Catering". Inversely, the preferences of male graduates from the "Engineering" courses are associated to the sectors of "Technology" and "Financial Activities, Real State, Rent and Corporate Services".

⁵This desire to move on to self-employment/business presents itself with more significance in the Social Communication, Law and Public Administration, Architecture and Civil Engineering courses.

A similar trend can be seen in relation to the motivation for entrepreneurial activities, with the difficulty in finding jobs in the graduation sector and better conciliation between family and professional life as important reasons to start a business appearing more often among female graduates in the "Social Sciences" and "Education" fields than among male graduates. Among the later, it is possible to notice that motivation is based on individual opportunities related to instrumental dimensions of the work involved, especially aspects such as the desire for new challenges, the perspective of higher earnings, the idea for a new product or service; despite the lack of great disparities between the genders, these aspects are more significant among male graduates in the "Engineering" field.

4.3 Social Origin

The analysis of the social origin of the respondents starts from a privileged base of analysis: the family, where the sharing of resources and lifestyles can take different configurations and differentiate the relative positions that its members occupy in the structural space of social. In the case of our research, the sociologically relevant aspects involved in the analysis of the social origins of University of Minho graduates implied the use of two types of indicators: socio-professional and socio-educational indicators (Bourdieu, 1979; Costa, 1999; Machado *et al.*, 2003).

Firstly, it is important to highlight that the analysis of the information resulting from our research has shown little significant statistic correlation between the entrepreneurial intentions of the respondents and the educational level of both their parents⁶. However, a finer analysis of the information collected shows that those graduates whose parents possess higher educational capital (secondary and higher education) are more represented than those from families with parents who only completed the compulsory education levels⁷, even if this difference is not very relevant in comparative terms. This can be partially explained by the crossing of the entrepreneurial intention with various factors. We can refer, for example, to the higher education levels of the parents of "Social Sciences and Law" and "Engineering" graduates, who, despite the differences among the courses, have shown greater propensity for the execution of self-employment/business projects. In the opposite direction, "Humanities" graduates are also those who come from domestic groups with lower education levels and present the lowest intention levels for entrepreneurship. In general, the data obtained demonstrates a connection, although slight, between the propensity for entrepreneurship, the area of graduation of the respondents and the educational level of their parents.

According to the data presented in table 2, it is possible to observe that families with higher global capital are more represented among the graduates with higher entrepreneurial potential. If we consider the two classes with higher volume of resources - "Businesspeople, Directors and Liberal Professionals" and "Technical and Framework Professionals" - it is possible to notice that these present greater entrepreneurship intention when compared to other professional groups. It is important to stress that in the case of "Factory Workers" there is a contrasting pattern between the two genders, with the entrepreneurial intention of sons influenced by the father figure.

In global terms, the data reveals that there is an important correlation between the professional group where the father is inserted and entrepreneurial intention. A possible explanation for this fact relates to the greater influence of fathers, in comparison to mothers, when it comes to the choice and transmission of professions to descendants. This idea is shared by Bourdieu (1979), who mentions that the correlation between one practice and the social origin (assessed by the father's position) results from a double effect: the effect of the influence exercised directly by the family or by the original conditions of existence and that of the social trajectory itself, about its dispositions and opinions. This latter is, by itself, an essential dimension of the first, since the trajectory of the father contributes to form the original experience of dynamic insertion in the social world (Marques & Moreira, 2011b).

⁶ Father($\chi^2=4.80$; $V=0.134$; $p=0.187$) Mother ($\chi^2=1.59$; $V=0.077$; $p=0.662$).

⁷In regards to the educational level of the parents, we decided to consider for our analysis the compulsory education period of 9 years, enforced since January 1st 1981. This situation was altered recently by law no. 85/2009, which established a compulsory education period of 12 years (12nd grade) or until age 18.

Table 2: Entrepreneurial intention by socio-professional class of parents (%)

Socio-professional class of the parents ⁸		Entrepreneurial Potential		
		Yes	No	Total
Businesspeople, directors and liberal professionals	Father (1)	77.5	22.5	100
	Mother	61.1	38.9	100
Technical and framework professionals	Father	82.1	17.9	100
	Mother	83	17	100
Independent workers	Father	38.9	61.1	100
	Mother	71.4	28.6	100
Factory workers	Father	76.2	23.8	100
	Mother	63.9	36.4	100
Executing employees	Father	53.3	46.7	100
	Mother	66.7	33.3	100
Other (non-classifiable)	Father	75	25	100
	Mother	-	-	-
Total	Father (1)	(N) 130	(N) 49	(N) 179
		72.6	24.7	100
	Mother (2)	(N) 93	(N) 35	(N) 128
		72.7	27.3	100

(1) ($\chi^2=16.43$; $V=0.303$; $p=0.006$)

(2) ($\chi^2=5.36$; $V=0.205$; $p=0.252$)

Source: Potential of entrepreneurship at UM Survey (2010)

For those reasons, it is not strange to find a greater predisposition for entrepreneurship among graduates from the two groups with more resources and more expression in our sample: the "Businesspeople, Directors and Liberal Professionals" and the "Technical and Framework Professionals". The resources detained by these groups are, in most cases, economic resources originated in business activities and management positions (in the public and private sectors) and not so much due to the possession of high levels of education (considering that the global percentage of fathers and mothers with academic background does not surpass 17% and 19%, respectively). This idea is reinforced if we pay attention to the high percentage of parents that only completed their compulsory education levels, a number that surpasses 65% in both cases (67% of fathers and 70% of mothers).

5. 'Traditional' and 'innovative' profiles of potential entrepreneurs

Based on the analysis carried out in the preceding items, we will now present the two type-profiles that result from the operationalization of our analysis model, seeking to answer the main question posed by this work, which regards the different relations between social capital (position of the family of origin in the class structure), gender and the predisposition for entrepreneurship, consubstantiated in the idea of creation of self-employment/business. Beyond the social characterization factors (social origin and gender of the graduates), other aspects have been considered in this typological test, namely the preferential sectors and the motivations for carrying out a self-employment/business project.

We must also consider that the construction of this typological essay regards only the cases of graduates who revealed high entrepreneurial potential, that is, those individuals who at some point of their individual path have considered and/or desired the creation of a self-employment project or personal business. The key indicators that were the base of this essay enabled us to find not only common features among the respondents, but also the differentiating aspects and the singularities of each profile in relation to entrepreneurial potential. This proposal was supported by the crossing of information collected in two separate stages of the research⁹, as we have referred previously.

Table 3 summarizes the distribution of the population with high entrepreneurial potential in homogeneous groups,

⁸It is important to mention that, within the composition of the variable socio-professional class of the parents (father and mother), we have combined the great profession groups of the National Professions Classification (CNP/94) and of the Portuguese Professions Classification (CPP/2010).

⁹ The type-profiles are supported by a simple statistical analysis of the information collected in the online surveys, as well as in the analysis of the contents obtained in the in-depth interviews.

according to the two profiles identified: *Traditional entrepreneur potential* and *Innovative entrepreneur potential*.

The first profile, *Traditional entrepreneur potential*, is composed of a majority of women from two fields: "Social Sciences and Law" (in the specific case of the Law course, more traditionally orientated for the exercise of liberal professions) and "Education". Despite a double pattern of social recruitment, this profile encompasses young women from families with lower social capital, characterised by the low educational level of the parents (except in the case of the Law course) and composed of "Businesspeople, Directors, Liberal Professionals" and "Technical and Framework Professionals" or "Factory Workers". These individuals generally have ambitions of a self-employment/business project for their professional future, but prefer to take this step in a set of restricted professional sets that are close to the traditional definition of "feminized" sectors, such as "Education, Health and Social Action" and "Retail, Hospitality and Catering". That is clear in the following statement of an interviewed woman: "My business sector is clothing, that is, creating a clothing line (...) we will bet on this project because we have a certain facility, in other words, financial facility, (this project) did not require much investment (...). This project is small, i.e., is not anything new ... we are trying something and seeing if it works" (E7, 30 year old Female, Education). Another aspect to consider in this profile is its position in relation to entrepreneurial activity, with the difficulty in graduates finding a job and better conciliation between family and professional life appearing as the main reasons to advance with self-employment/business. In fact, the 2nd woman interviewed revealed that the choice for entrepreneurship appears as an alternative to unemployment: (...) Look ... I'd liked, for example to start-up a FTA Leisure Centre (Free Time Activities), or a kindergarten. For now, because I really love children... and I think it is increasingly difficult to find employment (...) and I am going to have a son and I know it is increasingly difficult to find a kindergarten, for example, "(I3, Female, Sociology). As a result, in this profile, the motives to start entrepreneurial activities are more orientated by economic necessity, that is, as an alternative to unemployment and a way to ensure economic subsistence when jobs in an individual's graduation field are hard to find.

Table 3: Structure of entrepreneurial dispositions by graduate profiles¹⁰

Structure of entrepreneurial intentions	Type-profiles	
	Profile 1 Traditional entrepreneur potential	Profile 2 Innovative entrepreneur potential
Social Origin	Low educational level of parents From the families of Factory Workers and Unqualified Workers	Higher education capital From the families of Businesspeople, Directors, Liberal Professionals Medium and High Technical Levels
Educational field	Social Sciences Education	Engineering
Sex	Feminine	Masculine
Sector of activities preferred for self-employment/business	Traditional, low skilled and feminized work: - Education, Health and Social Action - Retail, Hospitality and Catering	Innovative, skilled and masculinized work: - Technology and Science: - Financial Activities, Consulting, Real Estate, Rent and Corporate Services
Motivation for self-employment/business	Means to ensure economic subsistence: - difficulty finding jobs in the field of graduation - better conciliation between family and professional life	Opportunity and Innovation, ambition to apply the knowledge gained in the graduate course: - desire for new challenges; - autonomy (being their own boss); - perspective of earning more money; - ideas for a new product/service.

Source: Potential of entrepreneurship at UM Survey (2010) and in-depth interviews (2011)

The second profile, *Innovative entrepreneur potential*, comprehends, in their majority, male graduates from courses in the "Engineering" field. This is also a group that presents a double pattern of recruitment in terms of social origin, despite the majority of students coming from families that possess more social capital, with the type-profile defined by higher educational level among the parents, who belong, in their majority, to the "Businesspeople, Directors, Liberal

¹⁰ It is important to mention that, beyond these two profiles of entrepreneurial intention, there may be others that do not differentiate from a statistical point of view, but which may be significant from the perspective of deeper sociological analysis.

Professionals", "Technical and Framework Professionals" or "Factory Workers" family groups. As the name suggests, the group of individuals that comprise this profile invest in the development of more innovative business opportunities, preferring knowledge-intensive sectors and strategic areas of scientific and technological development, a fact that suggests more involvement in activity domains that make it possible for them to mobilize all their potential and apply the knowledge gained in their university courses. Among their preferences for the creation of self-employment/business employment stand out the sectors of "Information and Communication Technologies", "Biotechnologies" and "Financial Activities, Real Estate, Rent and Corporate Services", among others. We can underline this trend looking at the following statement obtained from an interviewed man: "I chose to create a company related to environmental engineering services, because of the basic training and knowledge that I have in this area (...) I thought that we could foster better services. I also had personal research and development projects so it made sense for us to launch this service "(E8, 30 year old male, Environmental Engineering); and in another statement: "I can give several reasons to advance, but none is a matter of employability. It is really for enjoyment (...) I'm just not able to teach, I can do other things, I have a talent for that (...)" (I2, Man, Biology/Geology Teaching). As for the motivational base for self-employment/business, in this group it is possible to verify that it is related to opportunity and justified by aspects, such as the desire for new challenges and autonomy, the perspective of earning more money and the will to innovate with new products or services.

6. Final notes

The present paper was intended to essay the heuristic potential of a typological portrait of entrepreneurial intentions. The results collected in our research point to an important relation between the entrepreneurial intention and the social origin, field of education and gender of the graduates of the University of Minho that amassed our study. This data also shows that the higher social capital of the male graduates of the "Engineering" courses is decisive for the choice of innovative and knowledge-intensive sectors for the creation of a business; on the other hand, it is possible to notice that the feminine options of "Social Sciences" and "Education" graduates are still based in the traditional model of sexual division of labour, with individuals preferring to create self-employment/business in more "feminized" activity sectors related to care, as previously shown.

In truth, the predisposition for entrepreneurship is a consequence of various factors and different social capitals. The substantive analysis of the results of the entrepreneurial potential survey leads us to consider that the choices made by the graduates throughout their academic paths vary according to their preferences and social origins, which in turn make it possible to glimpse the way in which they unequally position themselves in relation to entrepreneurial intention.

Therefore, it seems plausible to assume that the entrepreneurship strand is particularly decisive in the game of social opportunities and obstacles in current days, with expectations that inequalities based on gender or scientific study field, in the current context of economic crisis and job instability/precarioussness, become an obstacle to innovation and to the reconversion of the productive sectors of our country, as well as accentuating the social labour division and contributing for the reproduction of social inequality in the labour market. In this particular context, the exploration of two type-profiles of potential entrepreneurs (traditional vs. innovative) and some testimonials extracted from the in-depth interviews led us to question to which point the Academy, namely the academic trajectory, may effectively break (vertical and horizontal) professional and occupational segregation or, in contrary, configure itself to reproduce social inequalities in the labour market.

Finally, it is important to add that it would be interesting for future sociological research to deepen the concept of entrepreneurial potential, recurring to a multidimensional perspective that, in parallel to social origin, consider the importance of diversified factors and contexts (social, educational, cultural, political, economic) for the configuration of new entrepreneurial and innovative trajectories in higher education.

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Lifelong Learning: The Career and Identity of Teachers in Transition

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Abstract

It is known that the professional development of the teacher includes learning opportunities that are facilitated throughout their careers and in different contexts - both formal and informal. In other words, the diversity of significant and enriching experiences that teachers encounter are favourable for the development of teachers and, consequently, of the quality of their teaching. Our proposed communication is part of a research, whose main objective is to understand the impact of recent Portuguese legislation on the (re)construction of professional identity and the teaching career in the context of lifelong learning. The intended learning activities that are developed throughout life in order to acquire, develop or improve professional knowledge and skills lead the strategic plans of European governments, which are eager to achieve significant changes in the educational area. In Portugal, we question whether these political intentions have brought the desired effect(s)? To answer this question we will focus on the results from a questionnaire, which was given to 396 primary teachers and its statistical analysis, as well as on the analysis of the content of oral and written narratives and of three discussion groups formed for this purpose. The professional voices reported by the participating teachers in this study indicate results, which reveal professional discontent that has negative effects on the contexts of the educational dynamics, thus undermining up the purposes of Portuguese politics.

1. Introduction

Successive educational reforms, transformations brought about by the Information Society and the different needs of students are raising challenges for the school and the work of teachers, which call for ever more complex and demanding responses.

Education and training are central pillars of investment that are explicitly recognised as an urgent key requirement of the Lisbon Strategy, which induces European governments to make a political intervention that is fundamentally directed at the quality of education (Monteiro, 2008) and educational systems with different aspects to those by which they are currently constituted.

These political interventions “will challenge the professional autonomy of teachers and will raise a question about what it means to be a professional under an ever greater public scrutiny” (Day, 2001, p. 21) and which stimulate the need for teachers to be “well trained, highly motivated, with knowledge and qualifications not only at the start of their career but also throughout their professional pathway” (Day and Sachs, 2004, p. 3).

In this political and social context the capacity invested in the teacher to be capable of developing good work in school is questioned, thus triggering in the teacher a feeling of a loss of public confidence with evident repercussions in pedagogical practice.

This affective component of work, as stressed by Silva (2007, p. 159), “is an important factor that interferes with the actions and emotions of professionals with impact on their performance and, above all, in their professional accomplishments.”

The works of Day (2001; 2004) confirm this interference by highlighting that the interaction of the different professional experiences of teachers within the contexts in which they work – from the classroom, to the school, to social and political contexts – results in thinking and actions of the teachers that condition, in this way, the attitudes of the teachers in the face of the need for professional development. Yet, in the opinion of the same author, in order to improve the performance of teachers their development must be defined in accordance with their personal and institutional needs in a way that suits their “commitment and disposition in relation to learning,” while at the same time being a lifelong

learner (Day, 2004, p. 186).

In this way recently driven educational changes anticipate the efficiency of teachers, as an essential requirement for the success of the students and an improvement in the quality of learning, since it is acknowledged that highly efficient teachers can have an enriching effect in the everyday life of the students, as well as in their respective educational and professional aspirations throughout their lives (Tucker and Stronge, 2007).

Moreover in the context of change European governments, particularly the Portuguese, have implemented quality education through imposed standards. This study is centred on two of them that are particularly relevant: the Statute for the Teaching Career (STC) and the Evaluation of Teaching Performance (ETP). These standards see teacher development, as the principal factor of educational change.

2. Lifelong learning

The concepts of training and learning throughout life have been seen to be increasingly emphasised in the political, economic, educational and social domains having been marked out in the last few decades, as a fundamental paradigm for educational and social success (Merrill *et al*, 2003; Merrill and Alheit, 2004; Silva, 2008; Barros, 2011; Melo, 2011).

So it is a question of omni-present concepts disseminated on a global scale in which education and training are remitted for systematic efforts, deliberated actions, rationally planned decisions and strategies specifically in formal contexts from which it is hoped that learning will take place. On the other hand, learning "focussed on a more behavioural and individual significance can be relevant not only for formal or non-formal educational actions but also in experiential situations without structured and deliberate character" (Lima, 2003, p. 131).

Historically the perspective of lifelong learning is particularly associated with documents produced by the OCDE. However, the text that is more officially accepted, as a definition for the concept of lifelong learning, was published at the end of 2000 by the European Commission. In particular the matter is treated by the Memorandum document about Lifelong Learning, which has, as its principal objective, the launching of a debate at the European level concerning a strategy for lifelong learning.

This document contains a definition of lifelong learning, which is based on the perspective that "all and any learning activity with an objective, carried out on a continuous basis," aimed at "improving knowledge, aptitudes and competencies" (European Commission, 2000, p. 3). Thus, the Memorandum perpetuates the concept, "as the guiding principle of the supply of and participation in a continuum of learning, independently of the context," thus denying it, "as being only a component of education and training" (*Ibidem*).

Yet, in 2001, the Commission of the European Communities - based on the impact that resulted from discussion about the Memorandum - drew up a communication entitled *Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality* in which it introduced a concept of great magnitude in which all of the references to lifelong learning should be understood as: "all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective." (European Commission, 2001, p. 9).

This definition calls attention to a range of basic categories of learning activity and particularly to learning in formal, non-formal and informal contexts regardless of them being or not being conscious and intentional. In addition it also indicates the importance of the temporal dimension and of the multiplicity of spaces and contexts of learning. It emphasises, therefore, the continuous acquisition of knowledge and competencies for being able to take up opportunities, as well as the acquisition of new qualifications, as a way of responsibly exercising a more active and more conscious citizenship.

In this context, it is thought to be important to take up again some of the ideas implicit in the Memorandum concerning the concept under discussion and to reflect about two crucial elements that distinguish it from other conventional approaches but which give strength to the strategy outlined by European educational policies for 'Education in the 21st. Century' (Silva, 2002).

The first has to do with individual motivation for learning in all of the areas of life in a *continuum* of learning by valuing access to and the multiplicity of educational learning opportunities (Canário, 2007). This strategy of lifelong learning considers the whole of the process of acquiring knowledge, as an uninterrupted continuum during which it is important to provide access to learning opportunities by extending supply and demand in a way that the training is adapted to individual needs and demands and not the opposite. In this perspective, "the informal contexts offer an enormous fountain of knowledge and will constitute an important source of innovation as far as teaching and learning methods are concerned" (European Commission, 2000, p. 9).

The second element, besides the idea of education throughout life, demands the extension of education to all

sectors of life. With this intention it seeks to reinforce the importance of training contexts that are not institutionally organised by calling on decision makers for an indispensable sensibility for “valuing the multiple contexts and formative pathways in order to recognise the acquisition of experiences - in particular between adults - to extend and diversify educational opportunities on offer” (Silva, 2002, p. 146).

It is in this perspective, then, that the learning of teachers in school is centred and conceived with the intention of promoting their professional development with emerging consequences for the quality of education.

3. Methodology and sample

Taking as a reference the brief earlier contextualisation the authors carried out an investigation with teachers from the First Cycle of Basic Education (first four years of primary education) and some of the results are presented below. In this text the principal purpose has been to identify the participating elements in the professional development of these teachers and the implications that the afore-mentioned standards have had on their professional development.

For this purpose, the following are some of the objectives of this investigation, which more directly articulate with the results that are mentioned and discussed below: i) to identify the perspectives that the primary teachers had of the new Statute for the Teaching Career and the Evaluation of Teaching Performance; ii) to identify the motivation for teacher learning in school; iii) to find out about learning opportunities in school; and iv) to discover the learning strategies adopted by the teachers throughout their teaching career.

In this way and paying attention to the objectives identified above, the authors opted to combine both a quantitative and qualitative research approach in the study.

The quantitative approach was centred on the conception, application and treatment of data from a questionnaire composed of closed questions, open questions and *Likert*-type scales. This questionnaire was constructed from the results of the narratives, the legislation and a review of relevant literature and it was distributed to 396 primary teachers. 249 questionnaires were returned, which corresponded to 63% of the total distributed, and these were processed and analysed later on using the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) programme, version 17.0.

In the sample, it should be pointed out that there were eight primary teachers that played a most important role as key informants by agreeing to be the main providers of information. They had real knowledge of experiences and were receptive to showing that they could communicate this knowledge in a spirit of steady collaboration, particularly by means of oral and written narratives at three moments during the investigation in 2007, 2008 and 2010.

This text will explain the perceptions of the primary teachers in relation to the written and oral biographical narratives collected in the three phases mentioned above and in three discussion groups formed for this purpose. Besides the perceptions pointed out in the narrative texts of the teachers, some of the results gathered from the application of the questionnaire distributed to the 396 primary teachers will be presented, as well as the statistical analyses carried out with the Chi-Square test (e.g. Table 1).

4. Some results from the investigation

4.1 *(De)motivation of teacher learning*

In a situation of teacher demotivation, Guerra (2000, p. 71) argues that the teaching force “barely gets beyond the mere formal fulfilment of their administrative obligations: carrying out timetables, attending meetings, giving classes...” and it desists completely from the implementation of any innovative and maintainable practice in school.

These experiences were corroborated by the primary teachers that responded to the questionnaire, when questioned about their motivation and job satisfaction in face of the legislative policy implemented in Portugal. The teachers mentioned that it is extremely important to feel motivated in their occupation (96,0%). Nevertheless, they recognised that the recent legislation (STC and ETP) interfered negatively with their professional motivation (62,6%), that it impeded their professional development in school (95,5%) and that it jeopardised the quality of their practice of teaching in a school context.

Table 1. The demotivation of teachers with respect to professional learning

Indicators	Positive	Negative	CST
The motivation of teachers should be stimulated	96,0	4,0	210,6***
I feel motivated by current legislation	37,4	62,6	15,6***
It feels that the new Statute for the Teaching Career and the evaluation of performance boosts my professional development	4,5	95,5	204,0***

Note: *** p <0,001 and CST = Chi-Square Test

However, we may raise some interpreting hypotheses, which result from the characteristics of our sample, such as the percentage of female teachers (80,7%), which corresponds to the general population of primary teachers in Portugal, as well as to the age group to which most of the participating teachers of this study belong.

In this sense, a large part of the teachers, who participated in our research, are between 31 and 40 years old, which corresponds to the stabilisation/normalisation phase presented by Sikes (1985) in which the teacher considers that being competent in the work is his/her major concern, since it is a phase of greater energy, involvement and ambition. The authors warn about some specific concerns that teachers show in this phase, especially women, as they often see a possibility of progressing and developing different roles in school, due to the fact that they perform another occupation simultaneously, “the mother and wife career, which gives their [teaching] careers a secondary role” (*Idem*, p. 46). Besides these concerns, Sikes (*Idem*) refers to political, social and economic contexts, which may also condition teacher motivation to wanting or not to be more competent in his/her work. To these factors, which are more evident in women teachers, we can also add the emotional and material predisposition to invest in training, namely post-graduate training, which requires a major investment of time and money to the detriment of the family. This circumstance may be an explanatory reason for the low percentage (5.7%) of teachers in our sample, who possess a Masters degree.

It is in this controversial scenario in which the teachers actually live out their professional experiences dependent - in certain measure - on internal and external factors at school, which interferes in a negative way with their personal and professional development, thus awakening feelings and emotions that are characterised by frustration, tiredness, stress and fear.

Table 2. Factors affecting professional demotivation: internal and external to the school

Professional Demotivation	Factors internal to school	Factors external to school
	Working conditions	Educational policies
	Working environment	Bureaucratic educational system
	Professional recognition	Social recognition
	Relationship with peers	Permanent demand of new tasks
	Consequences/impact on teachers: Frustration, Tiredness, Stress, Fear	

Analysing Table 2, it is possible to determine the indicators of demotivation that emerge, due to excessive demands (and impositions) that can be found in both spheres: internal and external to school. Of the factors external to school, the recent educational and curricular policies and unframed educational contexts are generators of other indicators – internal and external to the school – including professional demotivation with its impact on the identity of the teachers, as can be recognised in the following negatively lived and expressed experiences in the narrative voices of the following participating teachers:

“(...) creating great instability, insecurity, discontent, frustration and demotivation in the class teacher (...)” (Catarina, ON/2008).

“(...) [STC and ETP] promote disinvestment in the pedagogical activity of teachers, which inevitably will reflect itself in the quality (...)” (Gabriela, ON/2008).

In this sense, as motivation is an essential requisite for efficient professional learning and knowing that it is associated in different forms with countless factors, it will be relevant for identifying and understanding these factors and even more so, when they are hindering the stimulation of the conception of opportunities that motivate the teachers for learning and for a teaching performance of quality.

The standards for the origin of this research, (STC and EPT) have been an indelible frame for teachers and their

work, as has been shown in the study we carried out concerning the identity lived by teachers (Dubar, 1997), which impacted on their biographical and relational experiences (*Idem*) that resulted largely from the content and intentions of the previously mentioned documents and has led to a set of experiences that show fragile and often inexistent learning opportunities, which may compromise their professional realisation and development.

4.2 Teacher learning opportunities in school

Keeping in mind the idea that work contexts are dynamic, Guskey (1995, p. 126) proposes an "ideal combination" between professional learning and opportunities to which Day (2004) adds that the school must participate in the creation of sustained opportunities of diverse activities both inside and outside the institution in the course of a teaching career.

In this way, for example, formal group work in school or school group meetings would be an opportunity to encourage dissemination, sharing and collaboration by breaking down potential barriers to participation in all forms of reflective practice (Day, 2004; Herdeiro, 2010).

Yet the teachers feel that this space of formal learning is under used and does not encourage professional learning, as Ruivo affirmed in his discussion group: "(...) if these meetings were at the level of sharing inside the school, I think that I would be learning many more things" (Ruivo, GD3). This discontent is essentially due to the bureaucratic character imposed:

"(...) as I stressed there is little at the level of meetings, which are innumerable... almost every month there are meetings, and at times I feel that what we go there to do and what we decide in these meetings is essentially part bureaucratic (...)" (Elsa, ON/2010).

The time that is taken up in meetings means that many times the family is 'robbed' and also personal rest time lost, so they feel that their time was frankly wasted and, simultaneously, it instigates professional debilitation:

"(...) the hours that people spend in meetings (...) and which makes me so enormously tired that at times I do not have the output that I would like to have in my classroom" (Rita, GD3).

However, besides this learning opportunity, the teachers mention others present in the school, like the frequency of training actions, the co-ordination and participation in projects and pedagogical experiments in the classroom. In view of the learning opportunities provided, the teachers feel that these emerge at a different level among teachers in the same institution. In this way, they reveal that "*the opportunities for development are not equal for everybody*" (Q. 144). In other words, the primary teachers perceive that "(...) they do not have the same opportunities" (Q. 145) and those that exist are allocated, preferentially, to the teachers of other cycles or levels of teaching, as "(...) at the level of the school group the requests and projects are few for those who are involved" (Elsa, ON/2010).

Besides this example, the time of service that the teachers have in the school or school group seems to be seen by teachers, as the priority used by school directors, when they wish to distribute the development opportunities for the professionals of the institution. So, "(...) to start a project in a school group in which you have only been there a short time, as in my case when I had only been there one year, no chance! (...)" (Patrícia, ON/2010), because projects that already exist in school groups, "(...) are generally run by people, who already have been a long time in the school group (...)" (*Ibidem*) and who already belong to the circle of friends that have the power of decision: "(...) therefore, they already know them, they already know where they have to go and which people that they have to choose (...)" (*Ibidem*). Of course what this opportunity guarantees to the leaders/co-ordinators is a double professional satisfaction: to have been chosen by the directive body and to be seen to have their work recognised publically in face of the work of their remaining colleagues. In short "(...) only some teachers, who are directly part of the project, are recognised, the remaining teachers fade away." (Q. 242), thus influencing professional teacher identities.

The supply of training actions also does not respond to the needs of the teachers in school - both in quality and in quantity (García, 1999). The thematic imposition of training actions by the Ministry of Education is not very stimulating for teachers, as is evidenced in the following narrative:

"(...) there exists a range of training actions with little variety" (...), which do not go anyway to meet the interests of the teachers and their short-term and contextualised needs, as is the case of the excessive offering of ICT and School Library training courses (...), which at this moment, is not what worries me (...)" (Elsa, ON/2010).

In summary, teachers, although they recognise the existence of some opportunities in school, point out the many

limitations that operate, as inhibiting factors to the construction of an attractive teaching career.

4.3 Strategies for teacher learning and career progression

Sikes, Measor and Woods (1985), when investigating some of the problems and continuities of teaching careers, debated some of the problems that affect careers by stressing the phenomenon of the resultant *stress* of the poor structure of the career and the inadequate remuneration.

In spite of the actual motivational crisis in school with its influence on commitment and performance, the teachers tried to overcome the demands and looked for new courses for professional development by giving value to a range of learning strategies (Figure 1). Of all the different professional learning strategies available, the most frequently identified by the respondent teachers focussed on Training Courses, which reflected the strategy explicitly identified in STC as being mandatory for career progression.

Figure 1. Strategies for professional learning valued by teachers

Strategies for professional learning			
Strategies	Continuous training:	Self-training:	Professional experience:
	Training actions	Specialised reading	Professional experiments
	Specialisations	Classroom experiments	Group work
	Post-graduate courses	Participation in colloquies	Informal meetings

From this figure it can be inferred that the range of strategies selected by the teachers has been developed essentially in a work context, thus confirming the actual tendencies of continuous training in the way that the same would be assumed like “a real instrument of professional development of teachers” (Oliveira-Formosinho, 2009, p. 263).

In this perspective, Flores, Veiga Simão, Rajala and Tornberg (2009, p. 136) affirm that the teachers do not only attend training actions with the purpose of developing themselves socially and intellectually but also with “the objective of gaining competencies that could help them to offer their students resources and tools that will lead them to give shape to what each one wants to become”.

The teachers, who are sustained by a natural will to learn how to teach better, resort to their professional experience acquired throughout their career - individually or in groups - in order to produce new knowledge, as Carlos states:

“(...)but will that not be a reflection of some learning that you yourself made during this time? Certainly, it was the benefit of some self-learning that I was doing (...)” (Carlos, GD3).

In this way, the dynamics of group reflective practice in school stands out as a means for opening up “new possibilities for action and leading to improvements in what one does” (Herdeiro, 2010, p. 106) with the help of peers and more training and professional experience in a more or less informal atmosphere. As Mário states:

“(...) I think that it will influence much more the experience that I am going to get and the life that I will have inside the school group with other colleagues, who must be responsible for helping me get better (...)” (Mário, GD1).

It is known that “the valuing of informality allows a greater direction of the formative processes for experience and for the experiential knowledge of teachers at the expense of formal external knowledge in the professional field” (Ferreira, 2009, p. 335).

Another strategy selected by the teachers is self-training. That is, autonomous learning, which is promoted and defended by Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1990), as a development strategy, which is essentially sustainable by specialised readings, experimentation with new practices in the classroom in collaboration with peers that occurs without the existence of a formal professional development programme.

The authors declare that, when the teacher takes the initiative of learning alone by determining his/her own goals and choosing the activities that he/she thinks will result in the attainment of these objectives, it is certainly a learning

experience (*Idem*).

The pursuit of specialisation and post-graduate courses in universities, which are focussed on formal contexts and in groups under the supervision of a trainer, who selects the content and the activities, is one phenomenon that has emerged with greater intensity recently, due to the agreement about continuous training being an obligatory condition for career progression (Ferreira, 2009), as expressed by Cátia: "(...) *I always like to study, I have stopped now for some years, but it is only for my professional progression (...)*" (Cátia, GD1). For that reason, it is natural that it will be sought by younger teachers, as a way of progressing more rapidly in their career and to reach the top to which they aspire.

In this perspective, the expressions of teachers, when considering their attendance at these courses, places them at extreme points: some attend with the intention of learning new practices and to fight against the instituted routines, as Carolina thinks: "(...) *to look for a specialisation that makes me grow and develop other practices that will destroy some of my routines, I need this at this moment and not another diploma, it is not this that I want, (...)*" (Carolina, ON/2010). Others attend having in mind distinct purposes, like career progression, although doubting the efficiency of their professional practice, as Mário said: "(...) *I hope to get to take the Masters, which is one of the expectations that I also have, or my doctorate or whatever, but it does not seem to me that all this would directly influence what I am as a teacher (...)*" (Mário, GD1).

Thus, training in context makes sense to everyone, because it corresponds to formative practices that articulate with the existential contexts of the educational actors (Ferreira, 2009). However, it is important to create working conditions in schools that permit the teacher to have time and space for his/her development jointly with colleagues - whether in formal or informal contexts.

5. Conclusion

Nowadays, to create mechanisms and contexts that lead the teacher to a logical attitude towards professional investment all through his/her career is a necessity that schools and other external institutions must programme and direct in a way that allows the teacher to decide the projects that he/she wishes to develop and the way that they are carried out.

Therefore, it is not a question of providing solely formalised knowledge but creating conditions, contexts and opportunities for professional learning that permit the exchange of pedagogical experiences jointly with the aim of enriching teaching work.

In this way, the promotion of learning in the work place is reinforced according to Smylie (1995), as it highlights the opportunities of the individuals for working and learning with others on a continual basis and believing that learning can be improved through sharing it with others, particularly with those that possess different knowledge and experiences. Schön (1996), as well, mentions the impact of reflection - in action and on action - in teacher learning and training in an individual or collaborative context of work.

Yet in reality teachers experience obstacles throughout their career that aggravate (their) motivational crisis: For example, the moments that they are living in currently in school, as a result of the publication of the new statute and teacher evaluation, reveal that, besides other components, the central component of intrinsic reward that they obtain from their work - the response and progress of the students - is also under threat.

With the alteration of the rules related to career progression, the teachers feel themselves pressured and the priority conceded to the learning of the students is replaced by preoccupations with (their) teaching career, because they are choosing strategies of learning and development with the predominant objective of progressing in and reaching the top of the career.

However, in a context of professional teacher demotivation, Goodson (2008, p. 170) acknowledges that the changes will only develop "from a form of symbolic, political action deprived of any dedication or feeling of personal ownership or internal to the institution," if the teachers view the new reform, as sources of personal and professional inspiration

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Issues of Indeterminism in the Polish School of Logic

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Abstract

Dealing with the history of logic and its relation to philosophy, I have noticed the significant contribution given hereto by the representatives of the Polish School of Logic, and especially of its main representative Jan Łukasiewicz. This author has discussed thoroughly indeterminism, which he considers as a metaphysical substrate of the polyvalent logic, introduced by himself. His arguments in favor of indeterminism are taken from everyday life and by exemplifying the absurdity of the opposite theory, i.e. determinism. Through his research he concludes to the polyvalent logic. Such issues and interpretations of other authors will be discussed in the following article.

Keywords: modality, bivalence, determinism, indeterminism.

1. Introduzione

Pur non coincidendo all'origine, lo dobbiamo ammettere che lo sviluppo del pensiero logico e filosofico si sono influenzati continuamente tra di loro e la natura del pensiero ha sempre rappresentato il loro punto di coincidenza. Pur essendo più denso all'origine, quando le scienze erano indistinguibili e non avevano preso le loro strade separate, questo intreccio ha accompagnato tutta la storia della logica e della filosofia raggiungendo l'epoca moderna e contemporanea. Nel campo logico la tradizione aristotelica e di conseguenza la logica bivalente dominarono questo campo del sapere fin al ventesimo secolo. Un evento importante che modifica il corso della storia della logica e anche della filosofia è l'invenzione nei primi decenni del secolo scorso della logica polivalente dal rappresentante più importante della scuola logica polacca, Jan Łukasiewicz. A questa scoperta precede una lunga discussione filosofica sui oggetti logici, sui principi logici e sulla logica di Aristotele. I suoi principi vengono trattati come processi di pensiero e la validità universale si sostituisce con il consenso interindividuale. Risultato di questa lunga discussione è la nuova logica non aristotelica con più valori di verità. La lunga tradizione della logica classica viene messa in discussione. Le modalità vengono accettate e le proposizioni possibili vengono inseriti nella struttura logica strutturando un sistema logico più ricco con una verifica complessa distribuendo di valori di verità tramite matrici.

2. Oggetti logici e principi logici secondo Twardowski, Meinong e Łukasiewicz

Come rappresentante più importante della scuola polacca, che rappresenta l'argomento della nostra discussione, è il filosofo e logico Jan Łukasiewicz. Per comprendere meglio il suo pensiero trattiamo brevemente anche il pensiero di Twardowski, Meinong sugli oggetti logici. Questi due autori hanno avuto una grande influenza sul pensiero di quest'ultimo. Con Twardowski il legame è più importante. Łukasiewicz si laureò a Leopoli nel 1902 sotto la sua direzione. Invece con Meinong ebbe un contatto diretto a Graz fra 1908 e 1909 in un seminario filosofico tenuto dallo stesso Meinong. La lunga discussione sugli oggetti logici contribuisce nel rivedere la validità dei principi logici classici. Accettando come indiscutibile il principio del terzo escluso i valori di verità di una proposizione non possono essere estesi fuori ai due tradizionali. Questa discussione precederà la logica polivalente.

Per quanto riguarda gli oggetti logici e mentali Twardowski distingue il duplice significato di "rappresentato". Secondo egli, il contenuto è pensato, rappresentato. Ciò che è rappresentato in una rappresentazione è il suo contenuto; ciò che è rappresentato per mezzo di una rappresentazione è il suo oggetto. È chiaro che sono gli oggetti che si rappresentano nella nostra mente. Secondo Twardowski, rappresentazioni e giudizi sono due classi distinti di fenomeni psichici a causa del diverso tipo di riferimento intenzionale all'oggetto e l'esistenza del giudizio consiste nel affermare e nel negare, ed affermare un oggetto A significa affermare l'esistenza di A e le sue parti costituenti, mentre nel negare viene negato l'oggetto A ma, non l'esistenza di tutte le parti costituenti. (Raspa. p.231). Poiché affermare o negare significa asserire l'esistenza o meno dell'oggetto su cui verte il giudizio, il contenuto del giudizio non può che

consistere nell'esistenza dell'oggetto di cui si tratta. Quello che in questo caso viene giudicato è l'oggetto stesso.

Twardowski svolge anche un'analisi della rappresentazione di "niente" e delle rappresentazioni contraddittorie, di quelle non fattuali. "Niente" non è una rappresentazione perché solo i termini categorematici (greci, non greci) disegnano rappresentazioni. Se si considera bene "niente" è solo componente di proposizioni negative (niente è eterno). Invece nella rappresentazione "quadrato con angoli obliqui" il contenuto correlato a questo atto di rappresentazione costituisce il significato del nome. Questo nome non significa qualcosa ma nomina qualcosa, e precisamente qualcosa che ha proprietà contraddittorie, e cui si nega l'esistenza non appena ci si vede indotti a annunciare un giudizio intorno a ciò che si è nominato. Ma qualcosa è disegnato mediante il nome anche se ciò non esiste. Per Twardowski il contenuto esiste anche nel caso in cui l'oggetto non esiste. In un giudizio negativo vero negare un oggetto implica che esso si rappresenti ed è questo un fatto psichico. Questo fatto succede come conseguenza delle capacità della mente di paragonare. Mentre la rappresentazione è sempre reale l'oggetto a volte si a volte no.

In questo terreno opera anche Meinong che abbiamo ricordato sopra. Per Meinong tutto è "oggetto" non solo le cose reali, i referenti e i significati delle espressioni linguistiche a prescindere dal fatto che abbiano o no dei referenti reali esterni (Raspa. p.242). Secondo Meinong oltre agli oggetti reali che "esistono" si danno anche gli oggetti ideali che "sussistono" ma non esistono. Questi ultimi cadono nel ambito del essere solo in parte. Sussistenti sono oggetti ideali come numeri, relazioni, concetti ecc. Sono al di fuori dell'essere gli oggetti che, né sussistono, né esistono e si dividono in possibili, però privi di essere e impossibili (contraddittori come il quadrato che abbia l'area di un cerchio di raggio una unità o diversamente chiamato quadrato rotondo). Meinong distingue fra *objekt*, l'oggetto della rappresentazione e *objektiv*, l'oggetto del giudizio e dell'assunzione. La differenza fra giudizio e assunzione sta nella presenza, nel primo, del momento della convinzione, che manca nella seconda. La possibilità di predicare determinate proprietà su un oggetto, che non esiste, presuppone che in qualche modo viene dato.

Dopo aver visto questi autori che accettano le rappresentazioni del "niente" e degli "oggetti contraddittori", allora è impossibile in queste circostanze, non mettere in dubbio i principi logici di non contraddizione e del terzo escluso ritenuti evidenti in tutta la storia della logica ed è questo lo scopo di Łukasiewicz e l'influenza sul suo pensiero dell'interpretazione di questi due autori è notevole. Łukasiewicz nel libro *Del principio di contraddizione in Aristotele*, dove tramite un'analisi dal punto di vista psicologico, ontologico e logico, cerca di dimostrare che il principio di non contraddizione non è sempre valido ed accenna la possibilità di una logica non aristotelica. In questo scritto si discute anche il principio del terzo escluso (Łukasiewicz. 1910:95). Anche questo principio, secondo Łukasiewicz, dipende dalla distinzione degli oggetti in completi (gli oggetti reali spazio temporali) e incompleti (oggetti ideali prodotti dallo spirito umano). Una proposizione che verte sui primi è vera o falsa mentre ciò non vale per i secondi, poiché essi non sono sufficientemente determinati. Egli sostiene che il principio del terzo escluso non è un principio vero per se stesso, ne può essere dimostrato, per cui va considerato come una supposizione, ma indispensabile ai fini pratici. Egli afferma che l'applicazione del principio del terzo escluso agli oggetti reali è collegato con il postulato della determinazione universale dei fenomeni, non soltanto quelli passati o presenti, ma anche di quelli futuri. Se qualcuno negasse che tutti i fenomeni futuri siano già predestinati sotto tutti i rispetti, probabilmente egli non accetterebbe il principio in questione.

3. Per un destino indeterminista dell'uomo.

La questione del determinismo non è soltanto una questione che serve come sostrato della logica non aristotelica ma una questione collegata direttamente con il destino e l'attività dell'uomo. L'uomo essendo soggetto d'azione usa il sapere non soltanto per scopi teoretici, ma anche pratici. Chi agisce ha da fare con cose che non sono sempre le stesse, ma possono essere anche diverse. In esse, egli scopre gli aspetti su cui ha da agire. Il suo sapere deve guidare la sua azione (Gadamer. tr.it.p. 651).

Non escludendo del tutto il pensare teoretico dobbiamo accettare che l'uomo pensa per agire. Piegarsi passivamente al destino oppure mobilitarsi con tutte le forze a modificare il corso degli eventi, è una questione che preoccupa non soltanto ogni studioso di scienza o filosofia, ma ogni uomo. Per evitare gli inconvenienti e trarre più profitto possibile, istintivamente l'uomo, ed ogni essere vivente, cerca di orientarsi nel mondo e di adeguarsi ai fenomeni e agli eventi. Nella complessità degli eventi l'uomo è costretto a scegliere o evitare, rifiutare o accettare, accontentarsi dello stato di cose o cercare di modificarle. Davanti a queste scelte l'uomo si mette in una dura prova e quindi deve riflettere, ragionare e calcolare le probabilità degli eventi. La capacità di capire e di prevedere il corso degli eventi comporta benefici, l'incapacità comporta rischi. Molti filosofi hanno trattato largamente queste questioni tracciando due linee filosofiche, quella del determinismo e del indeterminismo. Queste questioni sono trattate anche in alcuni momenti della storia della logica, soprattutto di quella modale. Un importante contributo ha dato il filosofo che stavamo trattando

Jan Łukasiewicz. Questo filosofo ha trattato l'indeterminismo ma collegandolo sempre con i problemi logici perché lo considera come substrato metafisico della logica polivalente che sta scoprendo. Gli argomenti a favore del indeterminismo gli trova nella storia della filosofia ma anche prendendo semplici esempi della vita quotidiana dimostrando l'assurdità del determinismo. Secondo il determinismo tutto ciò che succede è predestinato ed il corso degli eventi non si può modificare dalla forza della volontà dell'uomo. Dalla storia della filosofia recupera la libera volontà e la capacità di scelta dell'uomo come argomenti contro il determinismo. La tradizione filosofica indeterminista che attribuisce all'uomo la libera volontà è estremamente ricca in tutta la storia della filosofia. Il senso indeterministico si distingue chiaramente nel pensiero aristotelico. Nell'opera *Della interpretazione* Aristotele riteneva che alla contingenza è costitutivamente connessa la scelta, la quale ha luogo soltanto nel dominio di ciò che non è necessario che sia così com'è, e nella scelta si specifica l'attività pratica nella sua valenza morale" (tr.it di Zanata M., Milano 1992.p. 51). L'uomo deve fare delle scelte che hanno senso soltanto nel dominio di ciò che non è necessario quindi in una realtà contingente. Aristotele lascia i fenomeni fisici in preda al caso.

Per quando riguarda la *libera volontà* ci sono stati filosofi che glielo attribuivano anche agli animali. Uno di loro è Pierre Bayle. Secondo egli non c'è ragione di togliere alle bestie la libertà (Bayle. tr.it.324). Łukasiewicz considera il determinismo imprescindibile dalla questione della *libera volontà*. Secondo egli il determinismo rigetta la libera volontà. Per loro ogni fatto è vero anche nei tempi precedenti e futuri. Tra il passato e il futuro non c'è differenza; l'unica differenza è che il passato è trascorso e il futuro trascorrerà; non c'è differenza dal punto di vista della verità. Noi esistiamo in questo mondo che ci circonda e non conosciamo come finirà. Ogni bene ed ogni male è predeterminato nel passato, ed è predeterminato il momento della morte di ciascuno. Noi siamo soltanto burattini in questa dramma universale e non rimane nient'altro da fare che aspettare tranquillamente la fine!" (Łukasiewicz, *Selected works*. p. 113). Inoltre la teoria determinista è strettamente legata anche alla teoria della causa e dell'effetto. Łukasiewicz spiega come i deterministi usano questa teoria a loro favore. Per Łukasiewicz, il fatto che tutti gli eventi siano casualmente determinati non comportano che siano predestinati dall'inizio. (*Ibid.*:117).

Łukasiewicz non può accettare questa situazione dove l'uomo viene privato dalla sua libertà di decidere e dalla sua volontà. Secondo egli possiamo decidere, volere e rifiutare, scegliere ed evitare. Per fare ciò bisogna cercare di conoscere i segreti dei fenomeni della natura e del mondo che ci circonda, una impresa questa non facilmente raggiungibile. Pur accentuando la complessità della situazione umana, Łukasiewicz richiama il protagonismo dell'uomo. L'uomo non deve sempre subire ma con la forza della volontà e guidato dalla ragione deve tentare di migliorare il proprio destino, ogni tanto anche contrastando ciò che è realmente. L'uomo deve essere libero e responsabile nella scelta del bene o del male. Queste questioni vengono trattate largamente e in diversi aspetti con uno scopo che non sembra solamente teorico ma anche pratico. Recuperando la libera volontà per quando riguarda le questioni umani Łukasiewicz recupera il possibile in logica e scopre la logica polivalente.

4. Una nuova logica non crissipea

Tutto il dibattito a favore del indeterminismo e degli eventi possibili di cui abbiamo parlato porta all'invenzione della nuova logica che Łukasiewicz chiama non crissipea, perché i stoici si distinguevano come sostenitori della logica bivalente. L'indeterminismo, secondo Łukasiewicz, rappresenta il substrato metafisico della nuova logica non classica. I sostenitori di questa nuova logica sono indeterministi, mentre i suoi oppositori sono deterministi. Per una proposizione che oggi non è né vera né falsa ma è possibile, Łukasiewicz introduce un altro valore di verità che inizialmente la denota con 2 e poi sempre con la frazione 1/2. Introducendo questa possibilità schematizza un sistema logico inizialmente con tre valori di verità e poi un sistema polivalente con infiniti valori di verità. Diventa così possibile la costruzione delle tavole di verità inizialmente con il terzo valore introdotto e poi con infiniti valori. La tavola della verità della negazione nel nuovo sistema logico con tre valori di verità diventa :

P	~ P
0	1
½	½
1	0

Invece l'implicazione ha la tavola della verità seguente:

$P \rightarrow Q$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
0	1	1	1
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	1
1	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	1

In questa maniera sono costruite le tavole di verità anche per la congiunzione, disgiunzione e l'equivalenza inizialmente con tre valori di verità puoi con infiniti valori di verità.

In fine aggiungiamo che con il grande contributo di Łukasiewicz la simbolica della scuola logica polacca diventa del tutto originale:

è possibile che p in simbolica polacchi si scrive Mp

non è possibile che p in simbolica polacchi si scrive NMP

è possibile che non p in simbolica polacchi si scrive MNp

non è possibile che non p in simboli polacchi si scrive MNMp

dove la lettera 'p' disegna una qualsiasi proposizione, 'N' è il simbolo della negazione; 'M' disegna la possibilità.

Non è possibile che non p si può esprimere è necessario che p. Invece l'implicazione $p \rightarrow q$ viene disegnata Cpq e la congiunzione $p \wedge q$ viene disegnato Kpq. In questa maniera si costruisce un sistema logico del tutto particolare.

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Possible Application of Sound Human Resource Development Techniques for Enduring Employment Relationships and Sustainable Tertiary Education Governance

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Abstract

This paper views Higher Education as catalyst for human resource development for sustainable governance and Institution-building. It recognizes employment relationships in the tertiary education system as being very complex, involving often delicate diversities as well as several competing multilateral interests and decision processes. It is therefore concluded that tertiary education governance should leverage strategic human resource development approaches, which in turn, should encourage effective and efficient utilization of human resources required in meeting the demands of their founding objectives.

1. General Introduction

The structure of this paper is broken into six broad parts for ease of presentation. Background information is initially provided on the societal role of education and social capacity building, while some key associated underlying concepts (e.g. human resource development / management, human resource planning, human resource accountability, e.t.c.) are explained. Thereafter, the issue of tertiary education development and human resources is discussed. The variables that influence availability and management of human resources in the tertiary education sector are further elaborated, with a particular emphasis on the imperative of strategic human resources development for possible sustainable futures of tertiary education governance and institution-building. The paper concludes that the future of the tertiary education system, especially in an emerging nation such as Nigeria, lies in the embrace of best practices of tertiary education governance, including sound human resource development, human resource accountability and reporting as well as proactive initiatives in favour of strategic capacity building for symmetrical organization development in line with the founding objectives and in the best interest of public good.

2. Conceptual Framework of Thought

Education is regarded as the singular most important instrument for holistic human development and the empowerment of the populace of any nation. Obielumani (2006) observed that education is the super-structure on which economic development and societal growth are predicated since innovation and creativity usually come from the educational environment. The global perception agrees that, for economic and social development to be achieved effectively there is a need for advancement in, and the application of, knowledge (Adebayo, Oyenike and Adesoji, 2007). It is evident that illiteracy, or the lack of formal education, often constrains the logical process of human development in a nation. Given the importance of human capital and its harnessing for economic growth and sustainable development, widespread or free education is often a desirable ideal. However, depending on a country's economic endowment or financial resources, and the existence of various competing demands of public expenditure within the social sector, the financing of free or widespread education may be problematic and or unaffordable or even uneconomical. However, with the effective and efficient management of a nation's resources (human, material or physical/natural and financial), organizations therein, including tertiary / educational institutions, can very well sustain their existence, operations and growth. The goal of tertiary education is to produce world-class professionals and entrepreneurs that will provide leadership and sustain national economic growth in the relevant fields, including the occupations and professions.

The notion of human resource development refers to the integrated use of training, organization, and career development efforts to improve individual, group and organizational effectiveness. In other words, it is the expansion of human capital within an organization through the development of both the organization and the individual to achieve

performance improvements with the primary objective of achieving sustainable human development. It is recalled that Adam Smith once stated, that "The capacities of individuals depend on their access to education". According to Swanson, Richard A & Elwood F. Holton 111 (2011) human resource development develops the key competencies that enable individuals in organizations to perform current and future jobs through planned learning activities. It may be pertinent to further state that groups within organizations often resort to human resource development in the initiation and management of change as well as in ensuring a match between individuals and organizational needs. In the tertiary education sector, human resource development, otherwise known as human capacity building, is attained through a regime of organized seminars and conferences and, more importantly, the purposive training and development of staff. In essence, the purport of tertiary education is to build a culture of better informed people who will contribute to overall development initiatives, sustain development and ensure best practices in the totality of service and project delivery.

Human resource management is the management of an organization's workforce. This managerial function is responsible for the attraction, selection, training, assessment and rewarding of employees, while also overseeing organizational leadership and culture, as well as ensuring compliance with employment and labour laws.

Human resource planning is a continuous process that identifies current and future human resource needs for an organization to achieve its goals. As defined by Bulla and Scott (1994), human resource planning is 'the process for ensuring that the human resource requirements of an organization are identified and plans are made for satisfying those requirements. It involves forecasting labour demand, analyzing present labour supply, and balancing projected labour demand and supply.

Human resource accountability is the requirement of answering or accounting for one's performance. Accountability is derived from authority. The important principle of accountability is single accountability. That is each person is accountable to only one person. Divided accountability is undesirable. Accountability by both individual managers and departmental leadership is a key factor in implementing robust performance development practices.

The concept of tertiary education governance, according to Meek and Davies (2009), "is, in the end, primarily about the governance and management of knowledge and the formation of coherent knowledge systems". A knowledge system can be defined as "an organized structure and formal process for generating and representing content, components, classes, or types of knowledge".

3. Objectives of Human resource development:

Reid A. Bates (2000) noted that, at the 2000 Academy for Human Resource Development Conference, a small group of researchers and practitioners (the Performance/Integrity Workgroup) had agreed that the primary purpose of human resource development is to enhance learning, human potential and high performance in work-related systems.

Human resource development programmes include planning development programmes based on identified performance gaps by enabling individuals to achieve short-term career goals and supporting succession planning through the implementation of leadership development programmes. Human resource development programmes also help organizations comply with local, state and federal regulations, often necessarily in tandem with the norms of employment legislation and regulatory imperative.

For a better understanding of the objectives of human resource development, it may be pertinent to have clear understanding of some additional terminologies. Therefore, the following definitions are also provided in the following segments of the paper. These are:

4. Human Resources

Human resources can be defined as the personnel of an organization, especially when regarded as a significant asset. This constitutes the ultimate basis of the wealth of nations, capital and natural resources, are passive factors of production; human beings are creative agents who accumulate, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations and carry forward national development (Harbison, 1973. P. 39)

5. Human Resource Input

It is necessary for a country to be well endowed with natural resources if it is to develop a modern economy. However, as it were, this view is no longer tenable; the reason being that the Asian tigers of China, Japan, South Korea, Singapore and other countries have demonstrated, beyond any doubt, that a rich endowment of natural resources is not a sufficient

condition in developing a modern economy. Nor is it necessary that a country be large for it to modernize, hence the need for highly trained human capital to harness these natural resources. This can only be achieved through education which has become a major source of skills and trained talent. Indeed, education plays a critical economic role –i.e. in the formation of human capital, which shows “the capital value of man”.

6. Human Resource Development

It must be noted that human resource development is a broad field of research, theory and practice directed at the development of human resources, their rational and optimal use, and the establishment of an enabling environment in which these resources can find their full expression. The primary purpose of human resource development is to enhance learning, human potential and high performance in work-related systems as well as contribute to sustainable human development.

7. Human Potential

This refers to the vast latent capabilities in humans for growth and development. It is a critical element of human resource development because of the implications it has for the ongoing adaptation, change and well being of individuals as well as work systems.

8. Sustainable Development

It is on record that the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is the primary source on sustainable development. The mission of UNDP is the Global Compact. UNDP one of the key international assistance agencies on sustainable development with the main focus to help countries build and share solutions to what they have identified as the biggest challenges to the development process; democratic governance, poverty reduction, crises prevention and recovery, energy and environment, information and communications technology, HIV/AIDS. In its work the UNDP aims to protect and promote human rights, especially the empowerment of women. The UNDP Commissions an annual Human Development Report. This report is written by experts who analyze development data, ideas and practices from around the world. The hope is these reports will spur political debates, draw attention to issues, and help countries formulate development solutions.

The United Nations Division for sustainable development works to advice, train and build the institutional capacities of governments at their own request. The Division designs and implements development projects that the government subsequently becomes responsible for. The goal is to formulate policy around sustainable development. Their expertise covers: freshwater management, energy infrastructure, and land management, HRED (2003).

In order to understand the concept of sustainable development, it is important first and foremost to understand the concept of “development”. The concept – “development”, in its simplest term, is synonymous with growth. Curle (1973) viewed development “as the creation of a form of society in which certain conditions – safety, sufficiency, satisfaction and stimulus (4s) prevails for human beings. Hence, for development to bring about improvement in the living standards of the people, it must involve the economic, political, educational, and psychological transformation of its citizens. The concept of sustainable development was popularized in 1987 with the publication of the “Brundland Report” – the Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development. However, the concept of sustainable development, as used in this paper, means the continuous, practical, positive, proactive and deliberate improvement of resource inputs, of human, financial and facilities in tertiary education with the intention of positioning them to perform their assigned mandates. The over-riding goal of sustainable development is to permanently improve the living conditions of human beings, with the implication that social and economic development must be carried out in a way that is environmentally and ecologically sound, ensuring the continual rejuvenation and availability of natural resources for future generations.

9. Performance

This is the outcome or achievement that results from goal-directed work system behavior. Campbell (1990) notes that performance is distinguishable from effectiveness (i.e.an evaluative judgment of outcomes), productivity (i.e. level of effectiveness divided by the cost to achieve that outcomes), and utility (i.e. value of performance effectiveness or productivity)

10. Work system

Reid A. Bates (2000) defined work system as an interdependent, organized architecture of human activities directed toward the accomplishment of a valued goal or outcome. This broad definition extends the concept of work system from a loose collection of individuals to organized work teams and formal for-profit and public service work organizations. The underlining fundamental assumptions of this definition are as follows. First, it assumes that work systems are carried to enhance the human condition. Second, it assumes that work systems are entities that do not exist independently from the people that comprise them.

11. Learning

For the purpose of this paper, learning is defined as a relatively permanent change in work system capabilities. It is a primary process through which human resource development accomplishes its objectives. It can result from formal, planned learning experiences such as those that occur in training situations. It also includes structured and unstructured self-directed learning, as well as unplanned, spontaneous learning that often occurs when one learns from one's work. Traditionally for human resource development, learning has been conceived of as occurring at the individual level.

12. Interface between Resources Input and Sustainable Development in the Tertiary Education System

Education, all over the world, is believed to be the most powerful and dynamic instrument for social-economic, political, scientific and technological development of nations (see Olutola, 1983; Fadipe, 2000; Aghenta, 2001, and Abdulkareem, 2001). This reasoning has informed the establishment of about one hundred and forty-two (142) universities in Nigeria to facilitate the production of the required critical manpower to drive the wheels of national development. In order to achieve this, it is important to always examine the relationship these resources have with the wider process of pursuing and achieving sustainable development in tertiary education.

13. On the need for sustainable tertiary education governance

For a country, such as Nigeria, to fulfill her quest for solid national development, there is the need to build sustainable and strong institutions. It is generally believed that education is an essential tool for achieving sustainability. People around the world recognized that, given the current economic development trends, the variables of public awareness, education and training are keys to moving society towards sustainability. In other words, for the Nigerian universities to be effective, efficient and productive there must be a collaborative interplay between human resources supply, infrastructure/facilities provision and adequate funding for maximum productive output. If a country is unable to develop the skill and knowledge of its people and utilize them effectively and efficiently within the context of the national economy, then such a nation would be unable to develop anything else.

It must be noted at this juncture, that, if there has to be sustainable development in the Nigerian tertiary education sector, the composite tertiary education institutions they have to be "adequately" staffed. The financing of education should be the concerted function of all the major stakeholders. This is because government alone cannot fund tertiary education. Inadequate funding of tertiary education has been identified as the prime cause of the problems of the tertiary education sector (Ifakachukwu, 2009). There is need for strong institutions for purposes of service delivery, government efficiency, and strong policy and programme implementation. More importantly, there is the need to build capacity divorced from our individual, regional, religious and personal aggrandizement in order to encourage public and private sector sustenance.

Correspondingly, it must be noted that, a country cannot grow or achieve much if she depends on individual genius, personality cult, and passion to run her public institutions. The development of infrastructure as well as maintenance and delivery of other state services need viable and functional institutions. These institutions should be the driving force towards the maintenance of the country's dilapidated roads, outdated power infrastructure and other conceivable public sector services.

It may be pertinent to further state, at this juncture, that government agencies have failed because they failed to build an enduring institutional structure. If the government had built sustainable institutions or leveraged on strategic capacity building, most of the critical challenges that are being encountered in the country could have been minimized or possibly totally avoided.

Further still, on Nigeria, substantial investments of the nation's wealth should be made in favour of the training and retraining of the national workforce. This is because every nation's strength appears to also lie in her work force. If an emerging nation such as Nigeria would develop a well-dedicated and trained work force, a substantial part of the nation's developmental problems could have been solved.

14. Conclusion

By and large, the general importance of effective tertiary education governance cannot be under- stated, given the primacy of strategic educational and knowledge management for the possible attainment of necessary economic growth and sustainable human development across the globe. The pursuit of the inclusive but multidimensional goals of sustainable tertiary education governance and strategic capacity building are also dependent on the extent to which institutional human resources are prudently harnessed and managed.

Consequently, tertiary education governance has a critical role to play in this nexus. Indeed, successful tertiary education governance within the context of the 21st century must leverage on the tenets of sound resources allocation, utilization and financial management to catalyze processes of necessary capacity building for balanced organization development and sustainable futures of the knowledge industry.

Finally in conclusion, the instrumentality of human resource reporting, international best practices in strategic tertiary education governance and the necessary understanding of the harvestable pool of human resources that is available to the global tertiary education system as well as various mechanisms for putting these into usage for the promotion of industrial peace and organizational stability in the tertiary education system are all necessary ingredients for possible application of sound human resource development techniques for the attainment of enduring employment relationships and sustainable tertiary education governance.

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Teacher's Role in the Development of Albanian School Outside the Albanian State Border Territories 1941 -1948

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Abstract

The intention of this study is to treat the Albanian teachers contribution originating from Albanian territories who worked in different areas of Albania. They came from different Kosova areas like Pristina, Peja, Gjakova, Prizren, Gjilan, Mitrovica etc. All these teachers gave an important contribution in the development of education and Albanian pedagogical thought during 1941-1948 eras. Their workings were not inside schools' walls but it a broader range. At that time work was 24/7 with regular students and people who didn't know how to read and write. Kosovar teachers that worked in Albania are found in the position of teachers, deputy head masters and head masters, educational inspectors and up to Ministers of Education. These teachers of this period took an active part in all political, cultural and educational events. Even though they worked in Albania, they never forgot their mother country and their birthplace. In all occasions when Albanian language schools were legalized they rushed without hesitation to organise the opening of such schools. Such things happened during 1915-1918 years, 1941-1944, and also after 1945.

Keywords: contribution, Albania, teacher, Albanian schools, school documentation.

1. Introduction

The history of education in Albanian territories outside the political-administrative border of the Albanian State, as part of the Albanian national education development, includes the entirety of activities and achievements in the area of education. Over the centuries, many generations have made valuable contributions and influence the course of Albanian civilization.

"One deal's with knowledge and science throughout his life - Sami Frashëri wrote- learns them in childhood, youth and puts into practice and in old age teaches others".¹ Continued commitment to this long and complex process of education and Albanian language has made them for people interesting and studied Albanian education aspects and has been becoming larger.

Trends in education in the region of Kosovo, Macedonia and Montenegro, depending on the cultural context, social and political dynamics have had their development, which at times were normal and in other cases are slowing curb.

As a result, we had to face serious challenges and obstacles, the source of which is not to be sought only to education but also to factors outside education such policies built by governments and their orientation in different periods of existence of the independent Albanian state.

The paper's study or educational problems and the dynamics of its development in the Albanian territories in the period 1941 -1948, especially regarding the contribution of teachers from Albania, has not been an easy task for me. Such studies of national character require good knowledge of major national policies in the field of education but simultaneously understanding the details of local processes.

Also, significant contribution has given Musa Krāja in a long time. He has written a number of articles and studies on the development of general education and Albanian schools, as well as some specific monograph for a number of distinguished veterans of Albanian education, who served on both sides of the administrative border of Albania. Especially his work "Teachers for the Albanian nation," which was published in 1993 in Tirana, will be considered as major contribution and efforts to date to more serious research in this area of all-Albanian issue.

In this context, in Kosovo, the first to deal with this issue was Akad Yasar Rexhepagiq who published many works

¹ Zija Xholi, Sami Frashëri, Tirana, "November 8", 1978, p. 64.

of some genuine scientific monographs and though still failed to include all periods in the development of education. It should be emphasized that following his path and other researchers, such as Dr. Iliaz Goga, Prof. Dr. Murat Gecaj, Prof. Dr. Hajrullah Koliqi, Prof. Dr. Sulltana Kojçini (Uke), Abdulla R. Vokri, Mr. Tahir Berisha etc., of which we have in hand some of the scientific works that shed light on many aspects of this area.

Although until recently, there have been many research studies on the development of e education in Albania and Albanian school in Albanian territories. Especially in the parent country, in Albania, we still do not have a genuine all-Albanian monograph, which includes development of education and schools in all ethnic Albanian lands. There is no sufficient number of monographs on the life and distinguished teachers, especially of those who served in the ethnic Albanian lands in the former Yugoslavia.

The study is the result of a long research study. It is designed based on the recognition of bibliographic works and multiple documentary sources of local and national archive. In this design, there are considered the best achievements of Albanian historiography, among which we would mention: "History of Albania", vol. IV, published by the Institute of History of the Academy of Sciences (Tirana 1983), "History of Albanian People", vol. IV edition of the Academy of Sciences (Tirana 2008), "History of Albania from 1912 to 2000" (Tirana 2007) by Prof. Valentina Duka, "History of Albanian education and pedagogical thought," vol. I, published by the Institute of Pedagogical Studies (Tirana 2003), "educational phenomenon during World War II in Albania" (Tirana 2005) by Prof. Dr. Fatmir Rama, "Education in Albania 1945-1960" (Tirana 2005) by Prof. Dr. Enriketa Kambo, "History of Albanian education and pedagogical thought" (Pristina 2002) by Prof. Dr. Hajrullah Koliqi, etc.

Knowing that promoter and driving force of the whole educational process is exactly the teacher, which depends on the cultural achievement of the people, we decided to dedicate this paper mainly to study veteran education teachers, who planted the first seeds and built the first stone in the foundation of education and Albanian school in these areas. In this regard, we have tried to highlight the names of a greater number of teachers and other enlighten people who gave great contribution in a period that is considered critical in the life and development of the Albanians in these areas in all spheres of our activity. It is true that we are saying "a large number", because it is impossible to highlight and to include in a research paper all Albanian teachers who worked during a seven-year period 1941-1948 in different areas of the former Yugoslavia.

Regarding the determination of the years 1941-1948, we should mention the reasons for this period of time, and they are: First, due to the development of education and schools slip in the former Yugoslavia in the previous period is written very little. Having focusing on these 7 years we wanted to keep a continuous and ongoing research in this capital case. Secondly, exactly 1941-1948 was considered very important, at that time when there were big turns in the development of quality process in education and Albanian school not only in Kosovo but also in other Albanian territories in the former Yugoslavia.

It is true that roots of Albanian education in these areas were found in the "depths of centuries."² Thus, in the previous period, Albanian schools in most of the time were not free and legal. Rather, that was constantly strictly prohibited and Albanian teachers were persecuted, as during the time of Ottoman rule and during the period of the existence of monarchist Yugoslavia. Education and Albanian schools breathed more freely during the Young Turk Revolution years (1908-1912), and during the Austro-Hungarian occupation (1915-1918).

Meanwhile, for the first time in its history, Albanian schools were opened and worked legally and freely in all the liberated areas of Kosovo (except those in the Bulgarian occupation zone) in 1941, and continued to work well after the end of World War II.

It must be said that, during this period, especially after the war, there was a tendency to attempt this right of Albanians to be educated in their mother tongue, to narrow the curtailed on grounds of different reasons. Therefore, this period is divided into two stages: the first stoppers, spanning from 1941-1944, when first foundation stones of education and Kosovo Albanian school were set, while the second stage, snatch the years 1945-1948, when normal work continued on the Kosovo Albanian schools in its efforts to their common knowledge or between missionaries and community.

² Mehmet Gjevori, *Memoirs of notes - About the work of the first Albanian schools in Kosovo after World War II* (hereinafter: *Memoirs of notes ...*) Pristina: Publishing House "School Book", 1998, p. 14.

2. Role of state in development in Albanian school in "areas are Kosovo Lirue me and Dibra" in the years 1941-1944.

Although education has always been a slip and indivisible others without our will have had policy limits. However Albanian teachers have served in all ethnic Albanian lands, regardless of the limits imposed. Thus, for example, many teachers from Kosovo, after the conquest of these territories in 1912 by invading armies of Serbian-Montenegrin, Bulgarian, emigrated to Albania, where they served as teachers as Qamil Bala, Ahmet Gashi, Ibrahim Fehmiu, Bekir Kastrati, etc.) And many teachers in 1941 came from Albania and served in Kosovo and other Albanian territories of the former Yugoslavia. A number of teachers in schools served in Kosovo Macedonia, Montenegro, Sandzak region of Presevo, Bujanovac and Medvedja. But some teachers to these areas served or were educated in schools and colleges of the University of Kosovo, etc.

During World War II, the territory of Kosovo was divided into three zones of occupation: in the area conquered by the Germans, Italians and Bulgarians. Most of Kosovo, which was under Italian occupation zone and Albania was joined and administered according to the Serbian model. Prefectures involved in this area were Prizren, Pristina, Peja and Debar cities like Struga, Kicevo, Tetovo, Gostivar, and Ulcinj, Tuzi, Plava and Guçia.³ The Germans possessed: Mitrovica, Novi Pazar, Vushtri and Podujevo.

Italian and German occupiers allowed into their territory Albanian schools but according to the ideology that they belonged. But the Bulgarians in their area did not allow secular schools in Albanian nor Serbian-Croatian language, but only in Bulgarian.

In 1941, in Kosovo (in areas occupied by Italy and Germany) did over 130 primary schools in the Albanian language, which worked until 1944. Total number of pupils in primary schools went to 15,030, of which 13,665 students attend primary school in Albanian. While the total number of teachers did not exceed 364, of whom 264 were Albanian teachers.

The greatest merit for Albanian schools in this area belongs to the minister of Albania Education, Ernest Koliqi, which provided the necessary educational framework. Personally, he organized and led the Albanian schools, not only in Kosovo but also in Tetovo, Debar, in the old bazaar and Ulcinj. It must be said that, during this period there were also opened several high-schools.

Regarding the Albanian schools, the Ministry of Education on June 23rd, 1941, issued an order for the establishment of the *Extraordinary Commissioner* in Albanian schools, consisting of eight experts in the field of education. "*For the state educational research according to the program described below in Kosovo Lirue me, - stressed Koliqi - I decide to send an extraordinary mission there*".⁴

The head of the Commission was Ali Harshorva.⁵ Its headquarters was in Prizren, which formed the inspectorate of education, teaching departments, issued decrees, decisions and circulars to regulate educational work, organize the "primary education, secondary education and training, as well as arranging summer language courses in Albanian for children and adults."⁶

On May 15th, 1941, the Administrative Council of the Ministry of Education of Albania, examining the need for teachers in "*areas of Kosovo Lirue me and Dibra*" decided to send new teachers in those areas as "*temporarily transfer all teachers who would want to willingly commit in rural schools in question*."⁷

Ministry of Education for teachers, who would serve in Kosovo, announced an appeal through which volunteer teachers were required to come to Kosovo. Also, it was determined the personal income and other expenses related to their families with travel expenses, the payment of rent homes where they will be accommodated. These teachers would teach not only in Albanian schools in Kosovo, Macedonia, Montenegro but also in accelerated courses in Albanian,

³ Group of authors, history of Albania and the Albanians, Prizren, 2000, p. 293.

⁴ Central State Archive of the Republic of Albania (hereinafter: SCA), Ministry of Education Fund - no. 195 (1911-1944), V. 1941 D. 137, p. 164.

⁵ Ali Harshorva after a year working in Kosovo, was appointed inspector in the Ministry of Education of Albania, then appointed Secretary General of the Ministry of Education. In 1944, dismissed as political opponents and supporters of the war against the invaders. For a time he worked as a teacher of a secondary school in Tirana, and later transferred as a teacher in a primary school. Imprisoned and exiled for many years. After release from prison he worked some studies (MSS), which did not belong to the scope of his intellectual and professional. In recent years the work was actively involved as a literary proofreader. Lived until 82 years old (Source: Iliaz Goga, Worker prominent Albanian school (hereinafter outstanding worker ...), Tirana, 2001, p. 2 19).

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ I. Goga, outstanding worker ..., p. 238.

where the interest of the community in these areas to be educated was great.

1941-1942 school years, in this region began in October 1941.⁸ During this school year, "fifth-class system operated in 174 primary schools with 15,988 students. Worked in these schools were 359 teachers, of whom 54 were female teachers."⁹ Number of primary schools to be added in the 1942-1943 school year, "Where there were a total of 239 schools, with 25,544 students, of which 5031 were girls, where 590 teachers taught."¹⁰ In the same period, "there were opened three professional schools, with 693 pupils and 68 teachers."¹¹ But in the 1943-1944 school year, "operated 221 primary schools with 20,846 pupils and 501 teachers."¹² As in Kosovo, and Macedonia continued learning process about 11 high schools and professional, with 848 students, of whom 127 were female, with 81 teachers teach, mostly from Albania".¹³

Also, in this period also opened courses, which meant it had in Albanian language for Albanian pupils, who had previously been taught in the Serbian language, to pursue further academic year 1941-1942, as prepared in following classes. "*These students have learned Cyrillic alphabet, - says researcher Bajram Shatri - and had no knowledge of alphabet and to read or write in Albanian.*"¹⁴

Important is the fact that there were courses in Albanian language opened in all major centers of the municipalities in Kosovo. They were divided into two groups: a) for those who were illiterate and b) for those who knew how to write and to read. In the course of adults that were illiterate, attendees learned reading, writing and music (songs), while others who knew reading there were literacy courses, designs, etc. and teach national history.¹⁵

Regarding Albanian schools, it should be noted that they have acted in the prefecture of Tetovo, Debar, and Ulcinj with the same plans and programs, as primary schools in Kosovo. These were public schools. They opened and were held by funds of the Ministry of Education of the Government of the Kingdom of Albania. Teachers of these schools were mainly engaged from Albania, but later increasingly also from Kosovo. Albanian state at the time, along with education funding, provided Albanian textbooks and literature. Also, the Albanian state was awarded a number of scholarships to students pursuing studies in school.

In his memoirs, Ali Harshova, stated that: "*The enthusiasm and joy of the people of Kosovo Albanians schools was great. Wherever we came, we were expected ... If God came down from heaven. They came to us from behind as drunk by asking us: When is Albania coming, when our Albanian teachers are coming ... People were alive, brave, and in flames of national feelings. National spirit is pounding in all parts of Kosovo.*"¹⁶

In order to open Albanian schools and elementary summer courses in Albanian in the period of World War II, according to Martin Camaj, in the preface to Ernest Koliqi novels "*Commercial flags*", writes that "as a minister in the Government of Albania in 1941-1942, sent into Kosovo from Albania over 200 teachers, among them in Kosovo after the war set the foundations of education in the Albanian language of this area."¹⁷

We think that the number of teachers who served as teachers in Albanian language schools in Kosovo coming from Albania in Kosovo and in other "freed" areas by prominent researchers Martin Camaj was greater than 200. Referring to figures that researchers give the number of teachers who served in the territories of Kosovo, Macedonia and Montenegro there are uneven results. Thus, according to Mehmet Gjevori, in his work, "*Memoirs of notes - About work of first Albanian schools in Kosovo after the Second World War*", said that in Kosovo there have been 300 teachers from Albania.¹⁸ Another researcher, Dr. Abdulla Vokri, "*Schools and education in Llap area in the years 1878-1944*", on page 107, states that 400 teachers have come.¹⁹ But the same figure, also confirmed other researchers such as Tahir Berisha volume work "The names that can not be forgotten" and Musa Kraja, in his book, "Teachers for the Albanian

⁸ Hajrullah Koliqi, History of education and pedagogical thought Albanian Pristina: "School Book", 2002, p.424

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² Ibid.

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Bajram Shatri: Education in Kosovo in the twentieth century. The challenge, evidence, facts (hereinafter: Primary education in Kosovo ...), vol. I, Pristine: Publishing House "School Book", p. 48.

¹⁵ J. Rexhepagiq, A. Vokri and A. Veseli, Normal School "Sami Frashëri" 1941-1944 Pristine, Pristine, 1997, p. 107.

¹⁶ SCA, F. 195 V. 1941 D. 137, p. 163. Doc. 24.06.1941.

¹⁷ Martin Camaj, "Introduction", in: Ernest Koliqi "Commercial flags", Pristine, 1991, p. 4.

¹⁸ M. Gjevori, Memoirs of notes ... p. 15-16.

¹⁹ Abdullah Vokri, "Schools and education on the Llap area in the years 1878-1944", Pristine: ETMM, 1995 p. 107.

nation," say that in this period in Kosovo worked more than 400 Albanian teachers.²⁰

We think the authors, based on different criteria operate with figures that are undoubtedly too large and disparate. Based on the analysis of the state of schools, number of students and teachers in primary and secondary schools in Kosovo, Macedonia and Montenegro during the years 1941-1944, "there were engaged in the process of teaching or educational administration (superintendent and director of teaching) there are about 500 teachers."²¹ All these teachers were from Albania because they were engaged in the learning process a large number of local teachers. It should be noted that some of them worked only in summer courses, which were financed by the Albanian state.²² And the rest, with the start of the school year, passed the course of the summer in the newly opened elementary schools. Any teacher who was involved in Albanian language courses for adults a reward of "200 Albanian francs would be given, plus travel expenses."²³

Former President of the Republic of Albania, Sali Berisha, by Decree no. 811, no. April 11, 1994, 287 teachers were decreed "on opening and/or serving in schools in Northern and Eastern Albania outside political borders of 1913, the Albanian state in the years 1941-1944", sent from Albania to Kosovo.

Tab. 1.²⁴ Names of Teachers in Schools Who Served out of the State of Albania

1	Abaz Xhafa	145	Lirak Dodbiba
2	Abdulla Haxhi	146	Liri Ekmekçiu
3	Abdullah Zajmi	147	Lirika Nikolli
4	Abdurrahim Behluli	148	Llaqi Pemçe
5	Abdurrahim Buza	149	Lutfi Hoxha
6	Abdyl Lluzi	150	Mahmut Dumani
7	Abdylheqem Dogani	151	Mahmut Kaja
8	Abdylqerim Seiti	152	Makbule Xheria
9	Abedin Faja	153	Malo Beci
10	Abdyvehbi Kadriu	154	Marika Naço
11	Adem Grovica	155	Marjanthi Filaj
12	Ademis Hoxholli	156	Mehmet Azemi
13	Afërdita Deliana	157	Mehmet Gjevori
14	Agallai Plaku - Kruja	158	Melihat Deva
15	Ahmet Ashiku	159	Meri Berovski
16	Ahmet Çaku	160	Meri Thoma
17	Ahmet Gashi	161	Met Karadaku
18	Ahmet Gjylaçi	162	Mikel Bytyçi
19	Ahmet Mustafa	163	Minush A. Shala
20	Ahmet Pere	164	Mirush Shala
21	Ahmet Rexhepagaj	165	Mithat Cami
22	Ahmet Treni	166	Mithat Hoxha
23	Ajet Gërguri	167	Muhamet Uruçi
24	Ajshe Shpendi	168	Muharrem Çollaku
25	Ali Bajrami	169	Muharrem Domi
26	Ali Gaxha	170	Muharrem Muka
27	Ali Myderizi	171	Mustafë Ismaili
28	Ali Shëngjergji	172	Myfit Shala
29	Antoneta Gjylapi	173	Myfit Sinoimeri
30	Antoneta Lako	174	Myrteza A. Sheh-Dula
31	Antoneta Sherko	175	Myrteza Katzadej
32	Aqif Bekteshi	176	Naide Çaushti
33	Aqif Selfo	177	Nazmi Mustafa
34	Asllan Masaraga	178	Nazmi Peza
35	Avni Murat Zajmi	179	Ndoc Çurçiu

²⁰ Tahir Z. Berisha, Names not forgotten - Veteran Teachers (1941-1951) and Kosovo Albanian education (Hereinafter: Names do not forget ..., Pristine: "Valton", 1994, p. 31.

²¹ B. Shatri, Education in Kosovo ..., p. 49.

²² Official Journal of Tirana, 07.02.1942, p. 79.

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Teacher, Tirana, 18 April 1994, p. 1-2. See also: T. Mr. Berisha, Names not forget ..., p. 27-30.

36	Azem Morina	180	Ndoc Kuixhina
37	Bajram Murro	181	Ndrec Ndue Gjoka
38	Baki Sheshi	182	Nesim Kacandoni
39	Bedri Gjinaj	183	Nexhip Minarolli
40	Beqir Kastrati	184	Niman Ferizi
41	Beqir Killojka	185	Nos Deliana
42	Beqir Spahiu	186	Nuredin Kopliku
43	Beqir Thaçi	187	Nush Shllaku
44	Bexhet Hoxholli	188	Pandeli Guci
45	Çuçille Gashi	189	Paulin Grabocka
46	Dedë Shala	190	Persa Grabova - Gjylbaja
47	Demush Taha - Gjakova	191	Persefoni Muka
48	Dervish Bejleri	192	Petraç Nase
49	Dhimitër Shuli	193	Petref Therepeli
50	Eftim Dheri	194	Prenk Gruda
51	Ejup Binaku	195	Qamil Guranjaku
52	Elena Pulati	196	Qamil Luzha
53	Elena Todi	197	Qazim Bakalli
54	Elez Gashi	198	Qazim Murat - Haraçiu
55	Emin Abazi	199	Qemal Haxhihasani
56	Emine Sheh Dula - Gjakova	200	Qemal Matrazhiu
57	Enrieta Panduku	201	Ragib Rexhepagaj
58	Eqerem Çano	202	Ramadan Horvati
59	Fadil H. Hoxha	203	Ramadan Reçi
60	Fadil H. Hoxha	204	Refik Shaqiri
61	Fahri Sulo	205	Remzi Prapaniku
62	Faik Qatipi	206	Reshit Hasani
63	Fatbardha Çaushti	207	Rexhep Dizdari
64	Fedhra Përmeti	208	Rexhep Shpendi
65	Ferid Mehmet Imami	209	Rifat Berisha
66	Filip Matejë Gashi	210	Rrok Zojzi
67	Frano Kurti	211	Rustem Ismaili
68	Frano Xhelaj	212	Sadik Kadiviu
69	Gafur Rada	213	Sadik Prishtina
70	Gani Graceni	214	Sahit Bakalli
71	Gaspër Bica	215	Sali Morrina
72	Gavrill Santo	216	Salih Kolgeci
73	Gëllqeri Velko	217	Salo Halili
74	Gjergj Martini	218	Sefedin Noto
75	Gjergj Shota	219	Seit Xaxo
76	Gjon Kabashi	220	Sejdi Pojani
77	Gjon Serreçi	221	Selim Kompliku
78	Hajdar Abdurrahman Sheh-Dula	222	Selman Kasapi
79	Hajdar Jakup Çaushti	223	Selman Musa
80	Haler Tako	224	Servet Mane
81	Halil Agusholli	225	Shaban Ferri
82	Hamdi Gani	226	Shaban Mara
83	Hamdi Goga	227	Shaqir Hoti
84	Hamdi Goga	228	Shefqet Veliu
85	Hamdi Zabzuni	229	Sherine A. Sheh-Dula
86	Hasan Baholli	230	Shqyqeri Haxhia
87	Hasan Bilali	231	Shyqyri Hafizi
88	Hasan Dylgjeri	232	Shyqyri Sokoli
89	Hasan Egro	233	Siri Starova
90	Hasan Përmeti	234	Skënder Hoxha
91	Hasan Stafa	235	Skënder Tupja
92	Hilmi Ejupi	236	Sotir Gallani
93	Hysen Abdihoxha	237	Spiro Gjini
94	Hysen Hasani	238	Sulejman Adil Shala
95	Hysen Vuthi	239	Sulejman Ali - Drini

96	Hysni Ekmekçiu	240	Sulejman Aliu
97	Hysni Zajmi	241	Sulejman Hamiti
98	Ibrahim Fehmiu	242	Suljeman Brahimi
99	Ibrahim Hoxha	243	Taip Perjuci
100	Ibrahim Kolçi	244	Talat Jakupi - Paçarrizi
101	Ibrahim Riza	245	Tefik Spahiu
102	Idriz Fishta	246	Telha Çela
103	Idriz Idrizi	247	Thanas Caku
104	Ilmi Duli	248	Theodora Trecka
105	Ilmi Duli	249	Thomaila Rako
106	Irfan Tërshana	250	Tom Shoshi
107	Isak Sulejmani	251	Tomor Starova
108	Ismail Bedhia	252	Urani Zaharia
109	Ismail Shabani	253	Vangjel Daka
110	Ismail Zyberi	254	Vangjel Filo
111	Isuf Adem Puka	255	Vangjel Shoshi
112	Isuf Sula	256	Vasil Dhimitruka
113	Jaho Dibra	257	Vasil Naqi
114	Jak Lukaj	258	Vesel Hyseni
115	Jani Gjino	259	Vezire Gjeraku
116	Jelldez Haxhihyseni	260	Violeta Kote
117	Jonuz Aliti	261	Virgjini Dodbiba
118	Jonuz Bala	262	Xhafer Korbi
119	Jonuz Balla	263	Xhafer Narazani
120	Jonuz Blakçorri	264	Xhafer Qatipi
121	Jorgji Bekteshi	265	Xheladin Hana
122	Josif Todi	266	Xheladin Presheva
123	Jovan Dodi	267	Xhemal Lopçi
124	Jovan Jorgji	268	Xhemal Voci
125	Jusuf Starova	269	Xhemal Xhahysa
126	Kadri Hoxha	270	Xhevat Shkreli
127	Kamber Xheria	271	Xhevat Xhaferi
128	Kasëm Geraj	272	Xhevdet Doda
129	Katrina Ujka	273	Xhevdet Shkreli
130	Kel Rroku	274	Xhyhere Belegu
131	Kiço Panilli	275	Ymer Berisha
132	Kolë Kasmaçi	276	Zef Ashiku
133	Kolë Matejë Gashi	277	Zef Çuçia
134	Kostanca Dhimitri	278	Zef Pali
135	Kostaq Tushi	279	Zekerria Rexha
136	Kov Bibaj	280	Zeki Shehu
137	Kristanthe Temo	281	Zenel Zajmi
138	Kristaq Progri	282	Zenel Zajmi
139	Kristavgji Niço	283	Zenko Mehmeti
140	Latif Ymer Jaka	284	Zhafer Xërxa
141	Latif Ymeri	285	Zija Basha
142	Lazër Krasniqi	286	Zija Mahmuti
143	Lin Çiraku	287	Zografa Martini
144	Lina Shkreli		

According to researcher Tahir Z. Berisha, in the list of decorated people by President Berisha "there are not mentioned some of the figures" who contributed with dedication and sacrifice in spreading the light of knowledge in Albanian territories outside the political-administrative borders of Albania, "Rexhep Krasniqi, Rauf Zajmi, Vasil Andoni, Lazër Berishës, Adem Selim (Gllavica), Idriz Ajetit, Zeqir Bajrami, Musa e Feti Dizdari, Feridum Beli, Luan Gashi, Ali Agushi, Kristo Kasapi, Enver Sudi, Haki Taha, Nuri Sherifi, Lorenc Antoni, Tajar Hatipi, Muzafere Hatipi (Gjinali), Masar Begolli, Hasan Vokshi, Muharrem Gazia, Zef Shpendi, Zef Nekaj, Dhimitër Markaj, Skënder Curri, Sulejman Lleshi, Hysen Shehu, Xhavit Nimani, Bajram Nura, Nasibe Hoxha (Rizvanolli), Pina Kola, Zef Agimi, Nusret Xeka, Nevruz Nura, Ferdinand Shkezi, Nazmi Bekteshi, Haxhi Bardhi, Njazi Agastra, Gjergj Gjokaj, Kolë Parubi, Xhavit Sarraçi, Adem

Bazhdari etc. ²⁵

Teachers coming from Albania were young and in many numbers inexperienced. Most of them had completed the Normal School of Elbasan or teaching studies at Shkodra and Tirana Pedagogical High-School, etc. ²⁶ Appointment of teachers in schools was proposed by education inspector who was known as the only president of the District educational administration. He "had the right to elementary school to inspect every infant, whenever needed to see, no matter the teacher is not inspected by the director." ²⁷ New teachers appointed to the initial term of six months, after which they were continued work for one or two years. ²⁸

During the years 1941-1944, the appointment and dismissal of teachers was done by the Ministry of Education of Albania. Appointment decisions were released in the "Official Gazette" of the Kingdom of Albania. Thus, on December 31st, 1941 in Prizren Region, Pec and Pristina appointed these teachers

In continuation of the first Albanian school, beside goodwill, difficulties were quite evident. It lacked the necessary framework, especially education process, lacked the buildings and grounds of didactic material, and had lack of textbooks, so that students were required to write the words dictated by the teacher. In Kosovo, 95% of the population was illiterate. ²⁹ It is a fact that enthusiasm for unique opening of schools can not respond to the completion of the contingents of students. It was a great hesitation in sending girls to school, just for the concept of conservative patriarchal mentality.

3. Hired teachers role in the progress of Albanian language summer schools in Albanian territories outside the political-administrative border of the Albanian state after World War II until 1948

With the end of World War II, Kosovo Albanians had to face numerous challenges in all areas. Reconstruction of the country could not be done without an educated population. The education of the population, obviously, conditioned and accompanied, first of all, the overall economic development of the country's social life.

The change of political orientation and introduction of former Yugoslavia in the way of implementation of totalitarian socialism, was determining the performance of the Albanian school as part of our national history. Period 1945-1948, occupies an important place in the development of this process, the foundation of the early postwar years.

This 4-year period characterizes trends of cooperation between local education authorities, with central ones which acted quickly and with multiple organizational measures, in terms of opening and reopening of Albanian primary schools, gymnasiums and high-schools in major cities of Kosovo etc. and they worked under the guidance of the Ministry of Education of Yugoslavia on "Directions for the work of schools and national minorities", adopted on August 10th, 1945.

³⁰ In this document, the criteria was set to open schools in minority languages, where among other things, stated that, "for all national minorities and minority schools is open if it has at least 30 students, and there is no other school. If there is an elementary school near it schools open class minority, if there are 20 students. Children whose parents were minority were not eligible to enter this number. According to these norms there were also opened classes for children of our nations in those countries in which minorities were the majority. Enrollment in schools minorities are made by the parents." ³¹

It must be said that by the end of October 1945, primary school had only primary class and later, the "Law on the seven-year-compulsory basic education" in the territory of the Democratic Federal Yugoslavia introduced 7-year primary education for children of both sexes mandatory" for children aged 7 to 15 years". ³²

Besides the expansion of primary schools and 7-year primary education the first task of the new administration of Kosovo was a declaration of war against illiteracy, since over 90% of the population could not read and write. To this end the pain and sacrifice was opened against illiteracy rates, "in which it includes a considerable number of different age groups, ranging from school age up to age 45." ³³ Thus, by the end of 1945 had opened a total of 480 courses, which

²⁵ T. Z. Berisha, Names not forget ..., p. 31.

²⁶ M. Gjevori, Memoirs of notes ... f. 20.

²⁷ SCA, F. 195 V. 1941 D. 137, p. 115-117.

²⁸ Notebooks here official publication of the Albanian Kingdom, December 31, 1941

²⁹ Ibid, p. 17.

³⁰ Kosovo Albanians are considered minority.

³¹ B. Shatri Education in Kosovo ..., p. 61.

³² Official Journal no. 84/45, Belgrade, 1945, p. 886.

³³ B. Shatri Education in Kosovo ..., p. 61.

taught about 11,134 people.³⁴ In 1946, there were 986 courses, the trainees in 2563, and in 1947, while there were 2563, 1839 of them were courses in Albanian, with subsequent 41,478 followers.³⁵

Important role in the maintenance of primary and secondary education in this period played Department of Education, which was established in December 1945.³⁶

The development of school network in Kosovo after the war started based on very weak cadres, as well as the number of qualification. However, it should be noted that the entire inherited curriculum framework was insufficient to respond to the educational development of Kosovo municipalities. Therefore, the main problem in the development of a network of schools was to provide teachers.

On the issue of providing the necessary framework, again came to help Albania to Kosovo Albanian schools. Under the convention signed between the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and the People's Republic of Albania, on December 15th, 1945, the state home runs in Kosovo a group of teachers to work in Albanian schools. It must be said that, a good portion of them had completed the Normal School teachers branch of Elbasan or pedagogical schools near Tirana and Shkodra, of the Lycée and gymnasium of Shkodra, Tirana, Gjirokastra etc. but there were others who had completed a high school classroom or teaching courses open in the main cities of Albania.

However, many of these teachers worked in Kosovo until the first half of 1948 and, after resolution of the Information Bureau of communist party, returned to Albania. However, there were those who continued to give their contribution to the ongoing Kosovo Albanian schools, and continued his studies full time or regular part-time faculties of the University.

Drawing on archival records for the period 1945-1948, served at the Kosovo Albanian schools, 74 teachers in total.³⁷ After 1948, a large number of teachers returned to the parent state, while the rest stayed with their desire to contribute to the survival of Kosovo in the Albanian school.

Tab. 2.³⁸ Names of teachers who served in Albanian schools in Kosovo during 1945-1948

1	Apostol Tanefi	38	Nexhmedin Hoxha
2	anton Gurashi	39	Ollga Kostari
3	Abdurrahman Hafuzi	40	Stathi Kostari
4	Ali M. Zeneli	41	Petrush Z. Kaçaj
5	albert Karamani	42	Pëllumb Radovicka
6	Dhimitër Fullani	43	Patok Perolli
7	Llambi Kallupi	44	Qemal E. Bedalli
8	Eshref Kadiu	45	Qamil Graceni
9	Emin Hatipi	46	Roza D. Mehmja
10	Enver Spahiu	47	Rrahim R. Hoxha
11	Ferid Hoxha	48	Rasim Xh. Kaloshi
12	Fehmi Sinella	49	Stefan Zorba
13	Gazi Kurteshi	50	sabedin Vrioni
14	Gjon Voci	51	Safet Hoxha
15	Hysen Alibali	52	Spiro K. Llulla
16	Hulusi Runa	53	Selami J. Kreka
17	Hajdar M. Siqëca	54	Shukri Sh. Xhelili
18	Ilia Lakërori	55	Til Andoni
19	Kolë Jaku	56	Ymerli K. Shehu
20	Kadri Blloshmi	57	Vehbije Barbullushi (Gjinali)
21	Kolë V. Gjoni	58	Vangjel Sterja
22	Karajfili Starova	59	Viktor Çala
23	Kasem Caka	60	Xhafer Palloshka
24	Kolë Berisha	61	Xhevdet A. Runa
25	Kosovë Rexha	62	Xhavid R. Kuço

³⁴ Sultana Kojçina (Ukaj), *Development of Education in Kosovo 1945-1952*, Pristine, 2006, p. 43.

³⁵ *Ibid*, p. 81.

³⁶ Faruk Salihu, "The economic social, political and cultural center of Kosovo's reconstruction period 1945-1947", in: *Progress*, Pristine, 2/1978, p. 237.

³⁷ Abdulla Vokri, *Master in Kosovo and Albania. Dignitaries our national education*, Pristine: Publishing House "School Book", 2008, p.36.

³⁸ T. Z. Berisha, *Names not forget ...*, p. 33.

26	Kurtesh Neziri	63	Zeqir Zeka
27	Lumnije Sheh-Dula	64	Zulfo Qerimi
28	Lili Berisha	65	Nexhip Habipaj
29	Lirije Tanefi	66	Sali Elhyka
30	Maliq Xh. Bala	67	Shefqet Kelmendi
31	Mehdi R. Shehu	68	Burbuqe Musaj
32	Muzak A. Nepravishita	69	Ajshe Shpendi
33	Mesrtet Çavolli	70	Ndoc Deda
34	Meleq Musai	71	Riza Dani
35	Nebil Dilo	72	Betulla Veliu
36	Ndue D. Pjetri	73	Jah Dibra
37	Ndue Z. Marku	74	Selajdin Spahiu

4. Conclusions

In conclusion it can be said that from quantitative result perspective, which were significant educational developments of first post-war development decades the process helped the Albanian society in general and Kosovo in particular. Despite restrictions, level of education was increased by providing more opportunities for all segments of the population and in particular the younger generations.

In addition, the role of teachers in developing schools of Albanian ethnic lands outside the state border in 1941-1948 years, *has been in conformity with laws, rules, norms, plans and the development of educational curricula nationwide. Also in the profile of educational development in Kosovo it can not be avoided the national dimension, which is configured by factors such as geography, plain and hilly terrain of the province, tradition and love for education and the desire of the population to learn new knowledge, teaching body level, creating a friendly environment and respect for the newcomers, the economic performance of agricultural trend, without denying and trends of agricultural-industrial development of Kosovo in the period of World War II.*

In the 1940's, or put as throughout Albania and Kosovo, primary care education was financially supported by the Albanian government and all the teachers who came from Albania to Kosovo Albanian school development in period in 1941-1948, were divided into two stages: *the first stage* includes the years 1941-1944, when first foundation stones of education were placed for Kosovo Albanian school, while *the second stage*, includes 1945 -1948, when normal work continued on the Kosovo Albanian schools in its efforts to their common knowledge or between missionaries and community.

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Teacher Identity and the Neoliberal Condition: Asserting a Participative-Professional, Socially Democratic Teacher Imaginary in Technical-Managerial Times

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Abstract

Drawing on extensive ethnographic research in disadvantaged communities, the paper describes the effects of 30 years of neoliberal education policy on the teaching profession. I describe the type of teacher identity that is promoted by neoliberal discourse, and which is doing damage to countless young people, as 'technical-managerial'. Teachers are expected to be effective instructors but educational ideas and democratic values are largely missing from this view of teaching, which is strongly aligned with individual, institutional and national economic competition. I distinguish this restricted perspective from a more engaged, relational type that I describe as 'participative-professional'. Within this latter perspective, teachers would be engaged, critically reflective practitioners - active participants in educational and organizational politics and policy and well as pedagogy. I conclude that teachers must strive to assert participative-professional teacher identities in order to restore notions of social justice to the moral purpose of education.

Keywords: teacher identity, neoliberalism, education policy, social justice.

1. Introduction

During the past thirty years there have been major changes in government and public thinking about education. This has occurred in Australia and in most Western countries (Lingard, 2010), and also in many developing nations (Nordveit, 2010). There has been what Ball (2006, 10) and many others regard as 'a major *transformation* in the organising principles of social provision right across the public sector'. Ball's general point is that the nature of western society as a whole, including its underlying values and organising norms, or what Taylor (2007) would call its 'social imaginary', has substantially changed in less than a generation. In this paper I describe some of the changes that have been asserted in the values and policy directions in education in Australia and elsewhere, and attempt to explain the impact of such changes on the teaching profession. I will argue that the changes, by and large, have had a deleterious effect on teaching and have contributed to the deprofessionalization of teachers to the point that serious debate is needed on what kind of schooling and what kind of teachers are desirable and, indeed, necessary, for the 21st century.

2. Teaching within an entrenched, neoliberal policy regime

To raise education standards and drive national economic competitiveness, there has been an enormous emphasis in many countries on so-called 'failing' schools and teachers, and on the presumed need for monitoring and regulating schools and teaching. This thinking has resulted in policies of narrow accountability, market competition among schools, and the use of 'league tables'. This way of framing education through a discourse of blame and standardization is extremely powerful in promoting an educational quasi-market, but is dangerous and damaging to educational values as it decreases teachers' professional autonomy (Ball 2006, 2003). I argue below that the resulting 'standards agenda' displays a managerial approach in which teaching and learning are regarded as technical processes that occur within the 'black box' of the school.

Relatively early in the period of neoliberal ascendancy I argued elsewhere that the type of teacher professionalism that was presumed to be appropriate could best be described as 'technical-managerial' (Angus 1994). I distinguished this from a more engaged, relational approach to teacher professionalism that I described as 'participative-professional'. I use these terms not to construct a binary but in trying to distinguish between broad, different ways of conceptualising teacher identity. My aim at the time was (and still is) to advance a 'social and educational vision of democratic and participative school arrangements [that can contribute] to an equitable and socially just society' (p.30). Characteristics of these

approaches are highlighted in Figure 1. My argument presumes that different values, principles and ways of 'doing' education are at stake, and my main point is that 'educational' ideas and values are largely missing from the current education policy agenda, which is strongly aligned with the needs of the economy. This linkage has profound implications for ways in which the purposes of education have been asserted.

Figure 1: 'Technical-managerial' and 'participative-professional' ways of seeing professional educational practice (Adapted from Angus 1994, 30)

Technical-Managerial	Participative-Professional
<i>Characterized By</i>	<i>Characterized By</i>
an <i>implementation</i> mentality associated with top-down, external control and educational conformity to specified rules and ends. Teachers provide quality instruction	a <i>reformulation</i> mentality associated with internal expertise and processes, and openness to educational alternatives. Teachers construct and assert shared good practice
<i>bureaucratic-hierarchical</i> roles specified by managerialist rationality	<i>social actors</i> in a specific context in which roles are open, at least in part, to negotiation and change
people at the school level are largely <i>objects</i> of organizational management-policy which is <i>done to</i> them sometime in the guise of so-called 'best practice'	people at the school level are largely <i>subjects</i> who participate in the creation-utilization-adaptation of organizational policy and good practice
<i>technical rationality</i> prevails with an emphasis on delivery of mandated requirements and top-down accountability for professional performance and expertise	<i>social-educational</i> concerns and issues prevail with an emphasis on being answerable to educational, social and community needs and to professional, educational values
school level participants <i>take</i> problems as defined by policy- hierarchy: problems and solutions are identified in school effectiveness and-or managerial discourses to which 'best practice' and the incorporation of school effectiveness factors should apply	school level participants <i>make</i> problems as identified through the 'good practice' of local participants: issues are identified in relation to the local context and within a broad understanding of the relationship between educational and social responsibilities
emphasis is on <i>efficiency and effectiveness</i> : achieving pre-specified results and targets	emphasis is on <i>worthwhileness</i> : achieving educational and social gains that are empowering to local participants
<i>performativity</i> : students as 'clients' and emphasis on narrowly defined student and teacher performance as specified in a top-down manner	<i>engagement</i> : students as 'members' and co-learners with teachers and others who strive to be relevant to and respectful of local contexts
<i>Results In</i> ↓	<i>Results In</i> ↓
linear outcomes-predicted results- reproduction of status quo- deprofessionalization	uncertain effects-diverse consequences- possibility of reform and change- professional responsibility

An important distinction can be made between the two broad conceptualizations outlined in figure 1 in terms of their relationship to social context. In technical-managerial approaches, context is largely a backdrop or a source of inputs to which the school responds by taking appropriate managerial action. Close monitoring and accountability measures ensure that schools 'do the right thing' in terms of imposed policies and mandates which are expected to be implemented largely unquestioningly. That is, the approach allows for very little, if any, real discretion at the local level. The emphasis is on the end-product - the achievement of performance indicators and the implementation of mandated policies such that prescribed results are achieved and targets are met. In a participative-professional approach, in contrast, the definition of problems and solutions within a school is likely to be a very different, more complex matter. Educational problems and priorities would be seen in relation to the dynamic interplay between education and society - as matters that need to be addressed contextually and collaboratively rather than by managerial, technical means. In a participative-professional conceptualization, the school is regarded as a site of social, political and cultural interaction. Educational processes and policy are not seen as neutral, and participants are regarded as social and political actors who make a difference rather than simply as occupants of organizational roles. That is, the participative-professional orientation requires an activist perspective on the part of teacher-professionals who are capable of pursuing 'transformative agendas' that 'challenge the *status quo* and contribute to a more egalitarian social order' (Lather 1986, 64).

Such thinking presents a direct contrast to technical-rational 'policy implementation', which tends to assume that schools conform to a natural, 'real' social order which has a neutral, underlying value consensus (Bowe, Ball and Gold 1992). By treating conventional educational arrangements as if they occur naturally, this approach reifies existing social and political conditions which are treated as if they must necessarily be the way they are. Such presumed neutrality and

objectivity of technical-rational approach to education implicitly endorses the *status quo*. It assumes neutrality and 'common sense' within a paradigm of accountability, compliance and 'performativity' (Ball 2003). The neoliberal framework, with its market arrangements and heavy compliance regimes under which schools have increasingly had to operate over the past 30 years, have tended to push and shove teachers towards an impersonal attitude towards students and communities. According to Thomson, Hall and Jones (2010, 652), this quantitative approach has inhibited more humane, richer, authentic and socially responsible forms of teaching and erodes educational creativity and imagination through the

... equation of organizations, teachers and pupils into categories and numbers, where schooling is seen as infinitely calculable and available for calibration and permanently available for forensic dissection through apparently objective, scientific and transparent computational practices.

Such technical-managerial mechanisms translate students and their experiences into 'hard data' but, as these authors remind us:

good data [is] not the same as good education if that is taken to mean students being productively engaged in learning which is worthwhile and gives access to powerful concepts which have explanatory power in the world (p.653).

In contrast to technical-managerialism, participative-professional approaches attempt to deal with schools and communities as social sites in which wider social relations are played out and mediated through the everyday lived experiences and perceptions of the human agents involved. Such thinking helps teachers and education leaders perceive the connections between their personal, micro-political lives and the larger macro forces that bear down upon them and influence society and education. They may develop a critical spirit of inquiry and reflection which would aim towards emancipatory and democratic goals. Such teachers would have a critical concern with reflecting on how they can accommodate, resist, and interrupt prevailing discourses. My point is that, by adopting a spirit of inquiry, critique and interrogation in their everyday practice, teachers can become better able to reflect on their work and to question, analyse and understand their own educational locales and the state of education more broadly. An immediate priority for such interrogation is the current economic framing of education, in which schools, principals, teachers and, most importantly, students, in keeping with a technical-managerial perspective, are treated as objects of policy to whom schooling is 'done'.

3. Asserting and contesting subject positions in education

McGraw (2011, 105) explains that, instead of schools acknowledging the skills and competence of students, and opening up new and empowering 'possibilities of being and knowing', many young people experience the 'worst' aspects of schooling. She states:

At its worst, [school] narrows opportunities and creates formidable whirlpools of anxiety, fear and distrust. Schools 'sort' and 'shove' young people in ways that are both physical and imagined. . . . This institutional preference for dividing and selecting, for noting and disregarding, leads to poor attendance at school, resistance, disengagement and early school leaving.

However, it is not only students, but also teachers, who are terribly constrained within the current climate. As McGraw points out:

Teachers too are struggling to maintain their own professional and personal identities in a profession that is increasingly moving beyond their control. . . . Teachers, like young people are shoved forcefully to the side and pressured to conform to the political, social and economic agendas of the day. They too are left feeling disoriented, disarmed and disengaged. Amidst such pressure, opportunities for open dialogue are minimized and relationships suffer (2011, 110).

This last point is critical. The thinking behind policies of narrow accountability, competition, and the use of 'league tables' to rank schools against each other, assumes the culpability of individual students, schools and teachers rather than social, cultural and economic issue that contribute to educational injustice. Pushed into the background are the issues and problems of everyday life that must be dealt with inside and outside classrooms by educators and young people. The accountability regime defines what is 'officially' important, but the multiple forms and causes of educational disadvantage that exist in and around schools have become largely irrelevant to considerations of educational reform.

Local knowledge, locally generated curriculum, and shared, good teaching and learning practice tend to be disregarded. Hence the need for teachers to ...

learn how to look at the world from multiple perspectives, including those of students whose experiences are quite different from their own, and to use this knowledge in developing pedagogy so they can reach diverse learners (Darling-Hammond 2000, 170).

To exercise such a critical disposition, and to see beyond one's own perspective, teachers need to confront any deficit orientations of their own towards working-class children and their communities. It is important to transform such views into an 'assets-based' orientation that acknowledges and respects alternative knowledge bases and curriculum resources that can be drawn upon from within minority and working-class communities and cultures (Cummins, 2001; Moll et al., 1992). By incorporating such assets into their teaching, teachers would be engaging in advocacy education while they were learning and teaching collaboratively with their students. According to Cummins (2001, 653), this would 'start by acknowledging the cultural, linguistic, imaginative and intellectual resources poor children bring to school'. Such a collaborative approach to pedagogy requires a socially-informed, qualitative understanding of the social context of schools and of the lives and experiences of students – an approach that is vastly different from the managerial and measurement orientation of the technical-managerial, neoliberal framework. The participative-professional approach obviously offers a much richer notion of what being a teacher entails. As Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2004) explain:

Teaching goes far beyond what teachers do when they stand in front of students, just as student learning is not limited to the classroom . . . It is about how teachers and their students construct the curriculum, commingling their experiences, their cultural and linguistic resources, and their interpretive frameworks. Teaching also entails how teachers' actions are infused with complex and multilayered understandings of learners, culture, class, gender, literacies, social issues, institutions, 'herstories' and histories, communities, materials, texts, and curricula.

Moll and his colleagues argue that this kind of socially critical and culturally relevant teaching takes account of the 'historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills [within communities] essential for household or individual functioning and well-being' (Moll et al. 1992, 132). These authors are determined 'to develop innovations in teaching that draw upon the knowledge and skills found in local households' (p.132). By drawing on the concept of 'funds of knowledge', they argue that, 'by capitalizing on household and other community resources, we can organize classroom instruction that far exceeds in quality the rote-like instructions these children commonly encounter in schools' (p.132). Instead, the teacher ...

will know the child as a 'whole person', not merely as a 'student', taking into account or having knowledge about the multiple tiers of activity within which the child is enmeshed. In comparison, the typical teacher-student relationship seems 'thin' and 'single-stranded', as the teacher 'knows' the students only from their performance within rather limited classroom contexts (Moll et al. 1992, 133–4).

The important task for the teaching profession is to develop the radical potential of this concept of 'funds of knowledge' so teachers can ensure that their classrooms will not be sealed off from the 'social worlds and resources of the community' (Moll et al. 1992, 134) which exist beyond the walls of the school. According to Moll and colleagues, the pedagogical situation can then become one in which 'learning is motivated by the children's interests and questions; in contrast to [conventional] classrooms, knowledge is obtained by the children, not imposed by the adults' (p.134). In short, teachers would attempt to uncover the different ways of seeing and knowing practiced by students and their families. The school community would be viewed as a source of 'cultural and cognitive resources with great, potential utility for classroom instruction' (p.134). This view, the authors point out:

contrasts sharply with prevailing and accepted perceptions of working-class families as somehow disorganized socially and deficient intellectually; perceptions that are well accepted and rarely challenged in the field of education and elsewhere (Moll et al. 1992, 134).

The important point here is that teachers would come to assert, and celebrate in their work, the essential human agency, creativity and obduracy of educators, community members and students at all levels who continue to work within the constraints of social structures, embedded power relations and professional cultures to create a space for challenge of the obstacles to achieving social justice in education. There is no avoiding the conclusion that education is a political and ideological arena in which teachers are important players. Most importantly, it is critical that teachers become alert to

both micro and macro political influences on the nature of their work. Educators must learn to become participative-professional teacher activists who will have sufficient confidence to assert their professionalism despite the climate of top-down managerial control and the powerful effects on the public consciousness of the neoliberal discourse of markets, testing, accountability, standards and the like.

4. Addressing the declining professional autonomy of educators

The decline in the professional autonomy of teachers over the past three decades must be reversed. According to Ball (2003), the technical-managerial concept of 'performativity' has resulted in strategies of surveillance (such as publishing test scores and ranking schools) that consolidate a culture of coercion and compliance within the education profession. Teachers have become caught up in the 'politics of blame' as 'high-stakes' testing has imposed a powerful constraint on their work. The effect is that conceptions of what constitutes a 'good' teacher have become distorted, as have long-held and previously-accepted beliefs about the social and democratic purposes of schooling. The situation, as described by Fitzgerald (2008, 126), has reached the point where teachers have been 'removed from public debate and are now required to deliver organizational objectives; objectives that are linked with the demands of the global marketplace and economic capital'. Carr and Hartnett (1996, 195) regard this situation as a direct attack on teacher professionalism:

[T]he professionalism of teachers is based on the recognition of their right to make autonomous judgments about how, in particular institutional and classroom contexts, to develop their students' capacity for democratic deliberation, critical judgment and rational understanding. Without this kind of professional autonomy, teachers have no protection against external coercion and pressure, and they quickly become neutral operatives implementing the 'directives' of their political masters and mistresses.

Within such a climate of mistrust, teachers' subject positions have been challenged. Being a member of a profession implies the ability to assert what Bourdieu might call its professional culture or, more precisely in his terms, to define the professional field of teaching in terms of its distinctive cultural and symbolic capital. Members of the teaching professional field, then, should be willing to define, assert and defend a body of norms and knowledge that, although never entirely stable, gives them grounds for claiming internal and external legitimacy. Thus, although contested, members need to keep asserting the importance of their broad professional knowledge and judgement because, if they do not, the nature and status of the profession will become more problematic as 'the cultural capital of the [professional] field is lost' (Oakes et al., 1998, 263).

Like Fitzgerald and the others quoted above, I would argue that the teacher professional field has been attacked and shaped in subtle and not-so-subtle technical-managerial ways during the past 30 years. The importance of market competition among schools, for example, has become universally recognized as a pragmatic imperative for schools. This is a strong illustration of the material effects of performativity that Ball (2003) has emphasized. The cultural capital of the professional field has been problematized and the characteristics that were once associated with 'good teaching' (e.g. curriculum expertise, teaching and learning innovation, a social justice orientation, making the curriculum relevant in local contexts) have been devalued. In Bourdieu's terms, previously asserted versions of professional capital have been contested and reconstructed.

Mechanisms of market, managerialism and accountability have amounted to transformative technologies in the implementation of educational change as well as being outcomes of change in themselves. They have had 'system-changing' effects (McDonnell & Elmore 1987). As the discourses that link managerialism and standards have become regularized into organizational thinking and practices in schools, they have had a profound effect on conceptions of education and the education profession. The overall effect is that long-established beliefs and understandings about the purposes of schooling have been distorted in this process. The effect is that:

Schooling has mutated from a way of preparing young people for broader purposes (such as participation in democratic society) to a mechanism of selection and preparation for the local and global labour market. In other words, the unquestioned purpose and responsibility of schools is [now] to provide the workforce necessary to compete in the global economy (Fitzgerald, 2008, 124).

The upshot is that technical-managerial, market-oriented, neoliberal norms and assumptions have been asserted within a supposedly value-neutral education policy discourse. The professionalism of teachers has been restricted and the technical-managerial orientation reflects a conservative and backward-looking conception of the appropriate relationships between schools and communities. An alternative educational future requires a form of teacher

professionalism that, in both conceptual and practical terms, is far more relational and participative. Within the current educational discourse, accountability has taken on the status of a political ideology that embraces policies that build into a relatively solid neoliberal framework of management, surveillance and control. The ideology of accountability has grown increasingly powerful. Nonetheless, alternative 'educational' values, such as equity, responsiveness, critique, student-centred learning, and concern with the social context of schooling, would become more dominant within a policy discourse that was education-led or 'pedagogy-led'.

A focus on instruction and test-taking has largely come to define 'twenty-first century learning'. This is consistent with a technical-managerial approach. It is consistent with the 'corporatization (or marketization, or economization) of the 21st century learner, his/her desired skills, dispositions and capabilities' (Williams et al 2013, 2):

Thus, the goal of schooling becomes the production of the ideal neoliberal subject. This is most evident in the specification of the '21st century learner' as the self-managing, entrepreneurial individual, lifelong learner and responsabilized citizen of the post-welfare state.

Such neoliberal thinking ignores the point that the major influences on the school performance of young people exist outside rather than inside the school (Angus 2012). We need to think about how education, as a social institution, systematically advantages and/or disadvantages certain types of people in certain types of communities. All students deserve to be treated in a more dignified, engaged and respectful manner than occurs within the ideology of technical-managerialism. Activist, participative-professional teachers need to reach out to all young people, particularly disadvantaged young people, and move to meet them rather than expect them to adjust to entrenched school and teacher paradigms that reflect the norms of unacknowledged privilege. Schools can then be successful in engaging all students in relevant and interesting school experiences.

5. Teachers of the future: Critical, reflective and relational

The taken-for-granted norms and assumptions embedded in the neoliberal policy framework are important not only because of their anti-educational effects on education, but also because they displace and marginalize alternative, more humanistic conceptions of education that are associated with participative-professional approaches. For teachers to be critical, reflective and activist practitioners, they must resist the hegemonic effects of the neoliberal policy regime. Educators are operating in environments in which the emphasis on outcomes and policy compliance is the order of the day. Webb (2005, 204) claims that 'increased accountability pressure [has] created conditions where participants became additional agents of the external accountability system, not self-governing agents of their own expectations'. If Webb is correct, teachers have lost their professional-participative disposition and succumbed to technical-managerialism.

No doubt many teachers have taken on board, at least to some extent, pragmatic compliance with policy mandates and have become wary of rocking the boat. But numerous critical, reflective practitioners do consider the social outcomes of education and promote democratic opportunities for learning. They need to advocate and promote a social justice orientation that embraces inclusive teaching and learning. Teachers need to develop a relational perspective on education in order to see schools as important sites in which social processes and education politics are played out. Fundamental to developing a sense of democratic, emancipatory possibilities within the teaching profession is the realization that schools, like other social institutions, contribute to the construction and legitimation of advantage and disadvantage, and to the broader cultural production and legitimation of societal norms. The legitimation of the values implicit in neoliberal discourse has made it difficult for alternative discourses to be 'heard', but, as Bowe and his colleagues (1992) emphasize, any discourse is open to continuous amendment and reinterpretation, especially at the school level. From a teacher's perspective, there is always some capacity for school-level re-interpretation and adaptation of education policy as alternative professional judgments and educational practices are asserted by professional-participative teachers. The kind of democratic social responsibility and commitment to social justice that might be expected from critically reflective, professionally-informed teachers, then, would be reflected in attempts to make schools inclusive of all learners, even the most problematic ones.

6. Conclusion: Working with a socially democratic professional imaginary

The fact that education is a social institution that has not managed to achieve its historic democratic and egalitarian objectives does not mean we should give up trying. But if schools are to be successful in their democratic mission,

teachers must be encouraged to experiment with various definitions of desirable future selves working in the best interests of all young people, their families and the future society they envisage. In short, as Rizvi and Lingard (2010) have convincingly argued, teachers need to develop an alternative 'social imaginary' to that foreshadowed by neoliberal education policy.

This concept of 'social imaginary' is explained by Taylor (2007,119):

What I am trying to get at with this term is something much broader and deeper than the intellectual schemes people may entertain when they think about social reality in a disengaged mode. I am thinking rather of the ways in which they imagine their social existence — how they fit together with others and how things go on between them and their fellows, the expectations that are normally met and the deeper normative notions and images that underlie these expectations.

The most powerful and dominant social imaginary in the current historical period, according to Rizvi and Lingard (2010), is 'the neoliberal imaginary'. The task for activist, critically-informed education professionals is to problematize and 'reimagine' the neoliberal imaginary, and to replace it with a more educationally appropriate and socially just alternative - a 'socially democratic imaginary'. Within such an imagined state of education, professional-participative teachers would exercise autonomy and discretion in critically appraising and re-interpreting mandated policy in the social and democratic interests of their students, communities and the common good. In keeping with such a socially democratic imaginary, and consistent with participative-professional notions of teaching, teachers would contribute to education debates and work with fellow teachers, students, administrators and school communities to develop practices of critical scrutiny. Such an approach would be consistent with teachers seeing their role as not merely conveying knowledge for consumption but also 'helping students to become creative, critical thinkers and active social participants, and to become capable of redefining the nature of their own lives in the society in which they live' (Gordon, 1985).

Hursh and Henderson (2011, 182) point out that, at present:

Schools are more often places where teachers and students learn what will be on the test rather than seeking answers to questions that cry out for answers, such as how to develop a healthy, sustainable environment or communities where people are actually valued for who they are rather than what they contribute to the economy.

The aim of this paper has been to critically consider the need for teachers who are willing and able to critically reflect on themselves, their practices, their experiences in classrooms and schools, and the current education system and imagined alternatives. I have proposed a participative-professional, socially democratic teacher imaginary that should be regarded as much more than a simple ideal. It is a way of conceptualising the kind of teachers and schools that are needed for the future. Teachers can imagine themselves into the reality of becoming active, informed agents who have a social responsibility to re-connect the nexus between schooling and democratic engagement, and to shape themselves and their schools into the kind of educators and educational institutions that will enable all young people and their communities to contribute as citizens, workers and participating members in their preferred future.

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Quelques outils pédagogiques pour la classe de français de Spécialité

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Résumé

Cet article propose différentes suggestions d'exercices qui peuvent être utilisés lors des cours de français de spécialité (cas pratiques-français juridique). Les auteurs partagent les méthodes connues pour introduire des activités dynamisantes de la classe du français juridique. Les récentes innovations concernant les approches participatives font de plus en plus de place aux méthodes visuelles (diagrammes, représentations visuelles) au dépend des méthodes verbales (discussion de groupes, questions/réponses, simulation et jeu de rôle). Les «Technologies de l'Information et de la Communication pour l'Enseignement» (TICE) ont désormais leur place dans les curricula, qu'elles constituent une discipline autonome ou qu'elles se donnent pour une compétence transversale.

Mots clés: méthodes technique, contenu curriculaire, objectifs proposés, compétences linguistiques, simulation.

Cette étude est de nature didactique. Son contenu récapitule les différentes méthodes qui président à l'enseignement du français langue étrangère à un public en voie de professionnalisation. Les réflexions présentées ont une allure générale, du moment que chaque méthode est choisie selon les priorités du contenu curriculaire et les objectifs proposés.

À nos yeux, il n'y a pas de méthodes meilleures que d'autres, toute est question de priorité. Notre intention est très simple: d'apporter aux personnes intéressées un éclairage sur les différents choix possibles. Cependant, le choix d'une méthode (ou d'une technique) ne dépend pas seulement de la prise en compte des principes d'apprentissage. Il dépend aussi du contenu du programme, des conditions et contraintes que la méthode (ou technique) impose au professeur.

Il est donc important de pouvoir identifier les principales méthodes et techniques, d'évaluer leurs avantages et leurs inconvénients pour effectuer le meilleur choix compte tenu des objectifs, des circonstances et des contraintes. L'enseignant choisit la méthode qu'il va utiliser en fonction des buts qu'il veut atteindre, les personnes à former et le contexte. Le choix de la technique pédagogique tient compte des objectifs pédagogiques, des contraintes matérielles, de la forme et de la nature du contenu à enseigner ou des apprentissages à réaliser mais également de l'état du groupe en formation et de ses attentes. Pour utiliser une méthode il ne faut pas négliger quelques conditions de contrôle :

1. Le climat régnant au cours de FOU est-il agréable et motivant pour l'utilisation de la méthode respective?
2. Vos méthodes d'enseignements permettent-elles aux participants de faire connaître ou d'utiliser leurs anciennes connaissances?
3. La méthode permet-elle aux participants de mesurer leurs propres progrès?

La simulation reste au centre d'un cours de français de spécialité. F. Yaiche définit la simulation comme de la façon suivante » Prenez un lieu, de préférence clos : une île, un immeuble, un village, un hôtel, un paquebot etc. Faites-le investir et décrire par des élèves qui imagineront en être les habitants. Utilisez ce lieu-thème comme un lieu de vie pour localiser toutes les activités d'expression écrite et orale, toutes les activités de communication générale et spécialisée. Vous obtenez ainsi une « simulation » méthodologique élaborée au BELC et pratiquée par les apprenants de français, en formation initiale ou en formation continue. (F. Mourlhon-Dallies, 2008, p.284). Toute simulation s'inscrit dans un lieu thème. Pour les étudiants en droit, par exemple, la simulation s'organise sur un décor des lieux proches de ceux dans lesquels ils vont travailler à la sortie de la faculté. Ainsi, la simulation permettra à l'apprenant de se « mettre dans la peau » d'un personnage pour mieux comprendre une situation et les réactions possibles face à cette situation professionnelle. Cette méthode développe les attitudes favorisant la communication et la création.

La simulation permettra, ainsi, aux étudiants d'entrer dans « la peau d'un acteur juridique » et d'utiliser correctement dans un contexte professionnel la terminologie de spécialité. Les principes de la communication ne sont pas que ceux de la communication verbale, ils incluent aussi les gestes, l'image personnelle qu'on donne aux autres, les emphases dans les discours... etc.

Une bonne simulation juridique permettra de travailler les 4 compétences linguistiques:

- Compréhension orale et compréhension écrite,
- Expression orale et expression écrite.

Afin de se rapprocher du discours juridique le plus possible et de la para-communication en situation juridique tout en conservant l'intérêt des étudiants, on a décidé de simuler des procédures juridiques imaginées par les étudiants en droit après l'étude d'un cas.

Exemple d'une séquence de simulation a un cours de Français juridique.

Cas à défendre : Avocate et musicienne de rue

Bergerac (AFP) - Une avocate de Bergerac qui joue régulièrement de l'accordéon avec son ami violoniste sur les marchés de Dordogne suscite les foudres de ses pairs qui l'ont convoquée en conseil de discipline en l'accusant de manquer à son "devoir de dignité".

Me Valérie Faure, 42 ans dont sept de plaidoiries, devra s'expliquer le 7 octobre devant le conseil de discipline des avocats du barreau de Bergerac. La sanction peut aller du simple avertissement à la radiation, en passant par le blâme et la suspension temporaire. Pour le bâtonnier, Me Christian Tomme, le pire est que sa jeune consœur se livre publiquement à la mendicité. "On l'a vue sur des marchés et sur des foires, un chapeau posé devant elle pour recevoir des pièces", s'indigne-t-il. Pour lui, "ces agissements peuvent constituer une infraction à la déontologie et au devoir de dignité des avocats". De son côté, Me Faure assure que "tous les musiciens de rue posent un chapeau ou un étui devant eux, parce que c'est une tradition du métier". Néanmoins, il ne s'agit pas de mendicité parce que "les musiciens de rues ne sont pas des mendiants mais des artistes qui se produisent par envie de jouer, non pour demander la charité", plaide-t-elle.

Pour elle, l'action engagée par le barreau de Bergerac relève de l'atteinte grave à la liberté individuelle et à la liberté d'expression, parce "qu'aucun texte ne dit que les avocats ne peuvent être musiciens des rues". "Il n'y a pas d'indignité de la profession, il y a une éthique à respecter, des valeurs de moralité et d'humanité, je ne vois pas en quoi je les enfrens quand je prends mon accordéon", affirme-t-elle. "J'aime mon métier, la musique classique est ma passion, jouer avec son compagnon sur les marchés ma joie de vivre". Et elle ne voit pas "pourquoi il faudrait choisir".

Modèles d'activités à proposer :

- a. Organisez un débat sur le cas à défendre.
- b. Préparez une plaidoirie pour défendre la jeune avocate.
- c. Préparer la plaidoirie pour l'avocat d'accusation.

Face à un groupe d'étudiants en français juridique, le scénario commencera par:

- la description de la profession d'avocat;
- la description de la compétence d'un Tribunal;
- la personnalisation de la réponse;
- une conclusion.

Consignes pour les enseignants: Les élèves sont divisés en trois groupes, selon leur niveau :

Le premier groupe comporte les étudiants ayant un très bon niveau de la langue et qui peuvent être caractérisés comme inventifs et capables de prendre une idée et la développer. Le deuxième groupe comporte les étudiants à un niveau aussi bon de français, mais qui ont une réaction plus modérée face à une situation compétitive, mais sont reconnus comme « exécutifs ». Le dernier groupe se compose d'un groupe plus calmes et sur le plan d'action et sur le plan de réflexion.

L'enseignant proposera des activités qui correspondent à la communication orale et à la para-communication juridique. Lors de cette séance, on distribua les rôles et chacun simula une procédure juridique. Les manières de corriger l'oral peuvent être différentes:

En cas d'une erreur récurrente, on commence par arrêter la simulation pour corriger. Si l'erreur est causée par un manque de connaissances, de lexique, ou une mauvaise prononciation, le terme est écrit au tableau. S'il y a des erreurs de para-communication, on les recense et on les commente à la fin du cours.

Donc, une simulation peut être utilisée pour voir comment les étudiants réagiraient devant un certain événement ou face à certaines contraintes. Dans certaines simulations l'expérimentation est encouragée.

Les principales étapes à suivre sont les suivantes:

- La simulation nécessite une grande clarté: Que veut-on illustrer par cette simulation?
- La fonction de chaque groupe ou de chaque personne participant à la simulation doit être identifiée.
- Aider les étudiants à utiliser leurs compétences et leurs connaissances pour traiter des problèmes qu'ils affrontent réellement.

Utilisation de la vidéo. Elles peuvent être utilisées comme introduction, comme stimulant pour une discussion ou comme résumé de points clés.

L'utilisation de vidéos nécessite une préparation préalable. Les enseignants devront:

- Choisir des documents culturellement appropriés;
- Savoir comment ils vont utiliser la vidéo et quels sont les questions/problèmes qu'ils désirent que les participants examinent;
- S'assurer que tous les participants peuvent voir l'écran et entendre le son.

Exemples de situations où l'utilisation de vidéos peut être efficace

Exemples de cette technique

Fiche Pédagogique Au Document Vidéo

Niveau intermédiaire / B1

Document : Le droit

Objectifs communicatifs :

1. Comprendre globalement puis en détail un reportage.
2. Interpréter des informations.
3. Retrouver les liens entre différentes informations.
4. Imaginer puis faire un sondage.

Objectifs linguistiques :

1. Revoir les comparatifs.
2. Exprimer la cause et la conséquence.

Objectif interculturel :

1. S'interroger sur les attentes du monde professionnel.

Suggestions d'activités pour la classe

Suggestion de mise en route :

En petits groupes. Discutez sur les droits de l'homme.

Thème pour la discussion en groupe : » *La loi-source principale de notre droit* ».

Activité 1 : Préciser le rôle de la loi dans une société civile.

Suggestion pour l'activité 1 :

Montrer le reportage avec le son, mais sans les sous-titres jusqu'au début de l'intervention de DENIS SALAS-magistrat professionnel.

Faites l'activité 2.

Demander aux apprenants de décrire la situation le plus précisément possible en s'aidant aussi du

Commentaire proposé par M. Salas. Faire une mise en commun à l'oral, inciter les apprenants à donner leur ressenti face aux premières images du reportage.

Il ne s'agit pas de comprendre en détail les informations, mais d'avoir une vision globale de la situation.

Suggestion pour l'activité 3 : Séquence 3.

Après avoir montré la séquence 2 aux étudiants, montrer le reportage en entier avec le son et toujours sans les sous-titres.

Activité 3 :

Trouvez la différence entre :

Loi.....Coutume

Application :

Une femme mariée porte le nom de son mari. Il s'agit d'une loi ou une coutume ?

Activité 4. À deux.

Montrer à nouveau le reportage si nécessaire. Faire une mise en commun à l'oral et préparez la discussion en 2 : changer ou non le nom dans le mariage. Connaissez-vous les traditions dans d'autres pays ?

Cette activité permet de vérifier la compréhension détaillée d'informations contenues à la fois dans les images et dans le commentaire.

Activité 5 « La langue du droit »:

Retenez et trouvez l'équivalent en roumain des mots et expressions proposés par la séquence «La langue du droit » :

- droit objectif
- droit objectif
- conseil constitutionnel
- la promulgation

Activité 6.

Demander aux apprenants de lire les phrases proposées par la séquence « Le mot dans l'histoire » :

Activité 7. Faire expliquer l'idée de l'art.6 : «La loi est l'expression de la volonté générale ».

Montrer le reportage sans les sous-titres. Faites-les parler du contenu de l'art. 6.

Faites l'activité 8.

Montrer à nouveau le reportage pour permettre aux apprenants de justifier leurs réponses.

Activité 9. Répondez aux questions : séquence min.12.29

1. Quel est le plus ancien texte de loi ?
2. Quel est que le Code de Mourabi ?
3. Quelle a été la première loi roumaine ?
4. De quel siècle date-elle ?
5. Quelle a été la première loi barbare ?
6. En quoi consiste la première ordonnance de Louis XIV, roi de France ?

Activité 9. Faire une mise en commun à l'oral.

Cette activité demande aux apprenants de repérer certaines informations du reportage, d'en comprendre les détails ou de les interpréter.

Suggestion pour l'activité 4 :12.29

Montrer le reportage avec les sous-titres.

Activité 10. En groupe. Donnez votre avis sur l'affaire du viol propose dans la séquence. Rédigez un petit commentaire sur le sujet : Viol-attente physique ou morale ?

Activité 10. » Le bon ordre ».

Passer auprès des apprenants pour les aider et corriger leur production. Faire une mise en commun à l'oral et inviter chaque groupe à écrire au tableau quelques phrases.

Cette activité permet de relier les différentes informations vues dans les activités précédentes. Il s'agit de vérifier la bonne compréhension des informations par les apprenants.

Suggestion pour l'activité 10 : Apres avoir visionné la séquence avec son, fermez le son et proposez aux étudiants de commentez les schémas proposées.

Activité 11. Former des petits groupes de 5 ou 6 apprenants. Leur préciser le travail attendu : ils peuvent poser des questions diverses sur le document.

Cette activité permet aux apprenants de s'entraîner à communiquer de façon réelle, si possible à l'extérieur de la classe et à s'exprimer en continu en langue étrangère. C'est aussi un moyen de les amener à s'interroger sur les différentes façons de voir le monde professionnel.

Activité 12. Regardez le reportage jusqu'au début de l'intervention de Denis Salas. Répondez aux questions suivantes.

1. A partir duquel moment une loi est-elle applicable ?
2. Quelles sont les étapes de l'application de la loi?
3. Quel est le droit le plus appliqué par les tribunaux ?

Conclusions

En matière de méthodes pédagogiques, il faut savoir qu'il n'existe pas de bonne ou de mauvaise pédagogie en soi. Une méthode doit d'abord être adaptée à l'objectif fixé et au contenu de l'enseignement : c'est ce qu'on appelle la règle de contingence ou parfois le principe de contingence ce qui signifie qu'en la matière, il n'y a pas de règle absolue qui s'applique automatiquement dans tel ou tel cas d'enseignement ou de projet pédagogique. Simplement, certaines méthodes sont a priori mieux adaptées à telle intervention pédagogique; à l'intervenant de confronter a priori à la réalité de son intervention.

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Pedophilia in Albania: Isolated Phenomenon or "Epidemic"

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Abstract

Pedophilia and sexual abuse offenses against morality and dignity of minors in Albania, presents a serious problem for the actual Albanian society, and to the future generation. Pedophilia is no longer an isolated phenomenon, but has become an "epidemic" of modern society. Other countries of the civilized world are affected by this phenomenon, but that they have the necessary legal mechanisms, social and psychological, and awareness of society which control and mitigate to the maximum of this phenomenon. The paper provides the latest optics on psychosocial aspects, legal and criminological phenomenon of pedophilia in Albania in recent years. From the review and analysis of comparative statistical data of justice and police aim to provide dynamics and trends of pedophilia taken during the study. Through this paper we intend to diagnose psycho-social factors, criminogenic causing the spread of this phenomenon with great impact on the family environment, social and political country. In addition, the article analyzes the problems of law, criminal policy, police preventive aspects, social and psychological measures and the involvement of all stakeholders towards reducing this disturbing phenomenon. In the paper, cases study were taken to several court cases to analyze typical problems that exist in the area of sentencing of some offenders. The paper is realized through a methodological approach combined with official statistical data, case studies, the authors study the profiles of sexual violence against minors, the phenomenology, social and psychological context etc.

Keywords: *Pedophilia, sexual abuse, puberty, pedopornografia, cibercrime, penal policy*

1. Problematic of pedophilia in Albania and dilemmas!?

The minor sexual violence in Albania, in recent years, has become a problem of great concern to social opinion. This is because in Albania, even though the numbers show that there is a growing number of authors of sexual crimes on minors, not counting the number of victims is high, state institutions remain far approaches to the prevention policy for this brutal phenomenon.

Tragic cases of abuse, and macabre murder of a 11 year old child, kidnapping of a minor next 13 years in Tirana, by the same sexual maniac author in 2013, and several other cases of pedophilia, within a span of time is short this year, have put to the dilemma public opinion and civil society, how defend and how prepared we are to face these situations and to avoid this horrific cases, while it seems that preventive measures against this phenomenon, aren't still at the appropriate level. Increasing the number of sex crimes on minors has recently prompted political, legal, criminal and media debate.

The size and the geographical distribution that has taken the phenomen, the number of victims, increases the importance finding adequate solutions to this worrying phenomenon. It is imperative that the authors of this paper try to provide assistance through the elaboration of this phenomenon by increasing the relevant hypotheses and recommendations on what to do in this society and institutions incandescent situation to prevent this brutal "pedoepidemic".

Seeking the roots of such phenomenon have to go a little back in time, when in the totalitarian past system this phenomenon was considered taboo and not given any information about this problem, which although was present according to statistics available now. Problematic of pedophilia will be complicated after 1990, when the Albanian society came out of isolation after 50 years, during which from state repression and violence, was a delinquent and deviant behaviors compression to many socio-minded individuals and disorderly personality or those who had experienced domestic violence episodes of various forms of sexual to them. Perhaps this is the reason why the main part of

statistics for author of sexual crime on minor age, are over 50 years old, born before 1980.

The analysis of the data available for this phenomenon, deduce that the specific crime of pedophilia in Albania, is the increasing number of cases sexual violence against minors, and victimization of minors up to 14 years, the cruelty of violent acts, more involvement in acts of elderly pedophile, incestual pedophile , or cases of forced sexual exploitation of minors.

Faced with this shocking social reality, devastating the lives of victims and victims' families alarm, has sparked controversy and dilemma in public opinion, among which: Should much tougher penal system against pedophiles? Could the perpetrators be isolated or castrated? What to do society, institutions and organizations to educate more families and minors about the dangers that can happen?

2. Aspects of the dynamics of sexual violence against minors

Looking at the dynamic aspect, sexual crimes against minors, for the decade 2002-2012 point out a considerable volume of these crimes compared with the total number of sex crimes that occurred in Albania in this period (Police, 2012). For the period 2002-2012, were recorded by police, courts and track 375 issues associated with minors victims of sexual violence. According to official data of the Ministry of Justice for the period 2002-2009, 107 cases were followed for sex or homosexual minors under 14 years, and 86 cases of sexual or homosexual relationship with violence, with infant 14-18 (Ministry of Justice, 2010), 67 issues for indecency with a minor, incest 4 cases, and 23 cases of trafficking of minors (see Table 1).

Draws attention to the fact that, of the 25 sexual crimes processed by Justice in 2009, 21 of them are passive sexual crimes with a minor subject. This indicates a somewhat alarm in terms of sexual victimization of minors, which requires the necessary scientific interpretations of research centers and civil society as well as proposals for policy makers and executives to improve the situation and prevent the victimization of minors.

Disturbing is the fact that, in recent years there has been a growing trend, the specific weight of cases of sexual/homosexual violence with minors. According to statistics, the total number of cases of pedophilia investigated for the years 2002-2012, 159 cases or 73.6% of them have occurred in the last 5 years 2008-2012. According to observations made by us, cases of sexual crimes against minors in relation to the total number of sexual crimes have increased as a trend. Thus, in the last 5 years, from 2008 to 2012, cases of pedophilia make a specific weight of 48.77%, compared with the total number of sexual crimes recorded by the police for these years. In 2008, 36.8% of which constituted sexual crimes with minors in relation to sexual crimes in general, in 2012 they increased to 50% (Police G. D., 2012).

Even in comparison with the number, of abused women, for this period, the injured minors constituted 50.17% of their (Police G. D., 2012), which shows a high incidence of frequency of occurrence of these crimes.

According to recent research (interviews with minors 4351), shows that the prevalence of sexual harassment, to minors is 11%, while the incidence is 9%, while the prevalence of sexual violence 4.9%, and the incidence is 4%¹. The high percentage of prevalence of sexual harassment is related to the greatest number of the authors with adult age, over 60 years old.

Regarding sexual harassment victims by gender shows that girls reported prevalence is 8%, whereas homosexual boys harassment is 14%, while the incidence is reported 6% for girls and 13% for boys. Regarding sexual violence is reported a prevalence of 2% for girls and for homosexual violence for boys is 8%. While the incidence is about 1.5% for girls and 7.5% for boys². Albanian reality, shows that physical and psychological violence is more present in the environment in which many children grow, which become influential factors in criminal behavior of authors of sexual violence against minors.

Even in a study conducted by the WHO, in Albania, shows that the prevalence of sexual abuse was significantly higher among male students (8.8%) than in females (4.7%). Abuses, according to questionnaires, were associated with the rural environment of birth, parental education, parental unemployment and the low level of household income.

The trend of sexual violence against minors over the past two years has increased the cases of pedophilia,

¹Children's Human Rights Centre of Albania (CRCA) presented at a BECAN National Conference the results of the study "Violence against Children in Albania in the framework of the Balkan Epidemiologic Study on Child Abuse and Neglect (B.E.C.A.N). 19 January 2013

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although not reported in official statistics because all opinion, shame, fear, impunity, etc...During 2012 were registered 47 reports of sexual violence against children by non-governmental organizations and official statistics listed only 22 cases.

The number of cases of sexual/homosexual minors violence is also significant growth in 2013, which is becoming almost "epidemic". According to police statistics, for the period January-15 June 2013, were registered 22 cases of sexual violence with minors, a figure equal to the number of all cases that occurred during 2012. Disturbing is the fact that 50% of sexual violence or harassment occurred to minors under the age of 14 years, which is more delicate age and leaves deep traces in their life and behavior.

Meanwhile, the problematic is presented by the fact that many sexual crimes against minors committed in aggravating circumstances, with large numbers of casualties, and severe forms of cooperation in groups of 2-4 people, mostly younger authors.

Regard to treatment by the courts, for authors of pedophilia cases for the period 2003-2007 shows that, from 57 cases that were tried for sexual / homosexual minors violence under 14 years, only 45 cases the authors are found guilty by the court, while for 13 authors, is not taken any punitive sanction. Even more problematic data submitted to penalties for authors of sexual / homosexual minors violence aged 14-18 years, where the 17 cases reviewed, only in 8 cases the authors were convicted, while two other cases they were declared innocent (CEDAW, 2008).

In the years 2002 - 2007, from 71 authors judged, for such crimes are sentenced 18 minors authors of serious sexual crimes. Equally minors survived to this kind of criminal proceedings, because they were below the age of criminal responsibility. This problematic situation encourages the authors of acts to pedophilia to commit crimes without being bothered and punish, or taking a minimum punishment measure.

Table Nr. 1: Cases and authors for 2002-2009³.

Naming	Year	Sexual or homosexual Relationship, with a minor under 14 years	sexual or homosexual violence Relationship, , with minors 14-18 years	Incesti	Shameful acts	trafficking of minors	Totally
Case	2002	16	12	0	11	0	39
Author	2002	13	9	0	10	0	32
Case	2003	15	15	0	14	4	48
Author	2003	16	13	0	11	8	48
Case	2004	25	20	2	11	5	63
Author	2004	15	18	3	16	14	66
Case	2005	11	12	0	12	6	41
Author	2005	11	9	0	11	3	34
Case	2006	7	7	1	7	5	25
Author	2006	7	5	0	7	6	25
Case	2007	10	4	1	10	2	27
Author	2007	9	3		11	2	25
Case	2008	14	8	0	5	3	30
Author	2008	15	5		6	2	28
Case	2009	9	8	0	4	0	21
Author	2009	12	7		5		24

Observation of this phenomenon in the regional standpoint, proves that pedophilia critical situations is problematic in Kosovo, where the 49 cases were recorded in 2011, reached to 58 in 2012, while for the period 2008 to 2011 were 182 reported cases of sexual exploitation of children, of whom 174 are underage girls and 8 males (Kurti, 2013) . The victims are mostly aged 14-16 years, in most cases, are Kosovo Albanians, but there are cases, by Roma, Bosnian and Serbian nationality. Most of these sexually abused children had left school. Studies show that victims come from families where there is violence, economic problems, as well as the families of returnees from Western Europe (Avokati I Popullit, 2013).

In Macedonia, according to official data, in 2011 there were 70 child victims of pedophiles, or about 50 % higher compared to 2010. 85% of cases, the victim knows the perpetrator of the act, which is often a friend or family member closer or wider (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy of Macedonia, 2013) .

³The Statistical Yearbook 2002-2009, Ministry of Justice, Albania, Tirana 2010.

3. Typological approaches of pedophilia and criminological profile of authors

According to the study of cases occurring during this period conclude that pedophilia in Albania, has more or less, a *modus operandi* similar to other developed countries of the world. The most common forms of pedophilia in Albania, these last 10 years, are, using the group of children, through the use of deception, seduction in the streets, parks or houses, erogenous zones harassment, incest, sex games, and up the use of physical violence or even murder victims. Another form is efebofilia and ninofilia, or attraction of authors, from adolescents aged 12 years old, but who have pubertal development, especially by authors over 60 years old.

3.1 *Modus operandi* of the criminal authors:

- a. Utilization in group of minors from "professionals" pedophiles, in "charity" foundations. In recent years, there have been two cases of sexual exploitation of minors, in charitable centers, using the same mechanisms criminal ..

Case study 1:

Court of Durres, in April 2013, sentenced to 25 years in prison in absentia CSK U.S. citizen, 70 years old, and two British nationals JDB, RA 20 years and 15.6 years, the three accused of sexual abuse and gay, with some minor. In 2001, they created the Albanian Foundation, "My children," where they took in 35 abandoned children from 2 to 14 years. During 2003-2005, they have sexually abused in the center with 7 children. CSK was sequestration a CD with six thousand photos realizing sexual acts with 7 minors from 5-12 years old. Over him burden on a series of charges for penal acts including sexual abuse of minors in several European countries. An abused child through a videolink to the court stated that "At the time I went to the center I was 10 years old and every night I slept in the same bed with RA and DB". I could leave the bed only when they had finished their desire. One of abused children even today continues to be treated for psychological trauma that has suffered. But the risk is back now, after RA, convicted British pedophile with 15.6 years in prison, was transferred from Tirana prison to Vaqarr prison, on whose premises serving sentences for minors convicted of various crimes.

- The same case is presented in June 2013, when two pedophiles 60 and 65 years old, were arrested in the city of Elbasan, because under the pretext of child care, commits homosexual harassment, with two minor brothers 5-8 year old who were housed in a charity center there.
- b. Sequestration through fraud, rape victims and then massacring the disappearance of bodies from serial pedophiles. During 2012 there have been two cases of this nature, but there are also other cases before. A typical case is that of AP maniac, arrested in the act by police in Tirana, in March 2013, which had deceived seized after a minor AC, 10 years old, tried to commit homosexual acts and has prepared tools, to disappeared it . While in the second case is about an author adventurer, ex convict, who after the sexual act beheaded a minor 18 years old, which had previously violatedd at the age of 14 years.
 - c. The use of seduction of minors with gifts, money or items of various attractive or care. Only during the years 2002-2009, there have been 67 cases of this nature. Usually authors of minors abused are aged 65-70 years old, and prefer more children 6-11 years old, for sexual/homosexual abuse, and sexual harassment. As appropriate places, use parks, environments and elevators palaces. A pedophile with initials VH, 60 years old from Korca city, on 3 June 2013, was arrested for abusing with three minors (8 and 13 years old). Generally, sexual / homosexual harassment minors by older authors dominate, in relation to sexual abuse and as a worrisome trend growth.
 - d. Abuse of teachers with young girls during consultation sessions at home or school, teaching laboratories, etc..
 - e. Only a short time period are listed in reported 4 cases of this nature, even more than 2-3 casualties, but there are other non-denounced cases. There is a problem, because, abusive teachers, after serve their sentence, have the right to return to duty and to recycle again the pedophilia. This absurdity is because the Albanian legislation does not provide normative dispositions, to stop an officer, a teacher, or a doctor to return to perform his previous job.
 - f. Incestuous relationship with minors. Usually the relationship between the father, with the minor, or uncle. Within June 2013, there have been four cases of incest with minors. A 13-year-old minor denounced, to the police, his father, after 3 years of sexually abused, which has been arrested. An Albanian immigrant was arrested in Greece in 2013, after he had abused to his daughter since she was 8 years old when he was in

- Albania and for 10 years there. Such abuses occur more in divorced families, and economic problems, but not reported to the police because of habit, shame, fear of violence, the couple divorce, etc.. In another case, an author, is the most violent sexual intercourse with his granddaughter. The shame and the secrecy, fosters a culture of silence prevalent where children could not talk about the sexual abuse they have suffered violence, or other environment.
- g. The high frequency of pedophilia in last year. Within a short span of time recorded 6 cases of this nature. In March 2013, within 12 hours, was recorded and arrested, 3 cases of pedophilia in the capital. Same month, April 2013, within 24 hours was recorded three cases of sexual violence against minors (two cases Tirana and Vlora 1 case).
 - h. Latent forms of pedophilia. Because of the dominance of the culture of silence in Albanian families in the past, which still is resistant even today, only half have suffered sexual violence is reported to minors, while the rest remains a mystery and wounds for the family and victim all life is suffering. The fact that 6% (from 1431) of students surveyed in 2012, they accepted that they were sexually abused in their childhood, and that 14% have at least 4 negative experiences in childhood, while more than half of them reported at least two such, is alarming (WHO, March 2013).
 - i. Increasing numbers of younger authors on sexual / homosexual violence on minors in various places in schools, parks, discos the night outside around buildings where there is no lighting. According to the data, 8-10% sexual crimes authors are aged 14-18 years old.
 - j. The impact of social networking in acts of pedophilia. It is a new form of pedophilia, which has just begun to spread in Albania, through the internet, blogs, face book, pornography. In recent days there has been one case in the city of Vlora, when a minor 13 years fell prey to the lure of sexual violence in the face book of three young people. But various associations reported for several other cases that are not reported in polici.
 - k. Committing sexual relations with minors from adult authors in cooperation with minors. It is a unique case of recent, grandfather 71 years old with his nephew 14 years old, was arrested by police after sexually abused over a period of time with a minor 13 years old.

3.2 Profile of pedophilia authors

Scientific studies in the field of psychiatry show that pedophilia is something that starts in adolescence, when person separates sexual orientation. According to this, for a variety of external or internal factors persons who display further instinct of pedophilia, are loners people and socially differentiated (Brahaj, 2009).

From the examination of cases in the study shows that sexual orientation can be heterosexual pedophiles and homosexual, but dominate heterosexuals. The data indicate that male homosexual pedophiles choose children (boys) more adults, and they heterosexual, more girls 8-12 years old.

Although the literature has no prototype characteristics of pedophile person, but there are general characteristics such as; persons subject, dear child, very good behavior with them gently. Over 70% of them have relationship with children, are teachers, educators, custodians, supervisors, grandparent who cares for children, uncle etc.. sadistic, narcissus, persionalitetit disorders, that have not lacked, of commit crimes in this area.

Pedophiles love to touch children, then teach vocabulary filthy expressions, of different parts of New brushing, to buy small things childlike joy, toys, candy, etc.. Activities with children, are games partially naked, watch and fondling. Children are often from their surroundings.

But there is of pedophile with the profile that manifests aggression, sadism-indulgence by trying, or kill the victim, in this case the person has organic personality disorder. In terms of mental disorders, persons with mental delay, with schizophrenia, drunk or persons with psycho-organic changes, can perform sexual acts with children, but these are very rare cases. In the psychiatric clinic in Tirana, 2-3 cases are examined, both for pedophilia with murder and other serious abuse of sexuality.

According to a study published in 1998, and Coutanceau Martorell,, to determine the profile of a pedophile requires a multidisciplinary approach triple: Criminalistics, psychiatric and psychoanalytic (sometimes psychomotor or social assessment)(Martorell A, 1998).

Psychiatrists noted that the psychological profile of people with pedophile trend, they are with poor social impact and emotional poverty consequences from childhood trauma (Brahaj, 2009). Also, should not be ignored legal and institutional vacuums, insufficient preventive measures, a low level of awareness of society, family crisis, migration, social networks, and factors may have favored the "boom" of sexual crimes on minors.

In France, the most famous studies (Balier, Coutanceau and Martorell, Dubrava and Zagury) are based mainly on clinical observations, and often focus on the concepts of "perversion" or "perverse"⁴.

By the study of data, we faced some typical cases of pedophiles in Albania:

Polymorphic pedophile type of clinical behavior, is an exemplary case of a homosexual, heterosexual and incestual pedophile. Author CP, 58 years old, convicted four times for various sexual crimes, homosexual relations with a minor 24 hours to grab the family, incest with his niece and Yemen.

Pedophile, with sadist and killer profile. Pedophilia killer, manifests a sadist aspect in which the maximum satisfaction achieved by killing the victim. 3 cases were recorded with four victims during the last two years⁵.

Pedophile- Necrophilia behavior, a minor 13 years old, killed a woman 35 years old, and then head sex with her.

Pedophile in incest, is also another type of pedophilia, which is limited to incest (only shown interest towards children, his children, or sisters, or brothers of pedophile subject). This profile pedophilia coincides with actions that mark more than one penal act.

Author of crime, once a victim of pedophilia. Sigmund Freud treats childhood traumas, such as incurable, and that wound, not corrected, and to provoke, in adulthood, a multiplicity phenomena, charged emotional, social, and abnormal behavior. In this case, sexual crime occurs, such as behavior, post traumatic childhood, which has undergone. A unique case occurred in 2012, when a minor 18 years old NV abused since 14 years old, linked to the forest for 11 days and violated for four consecutive years, finally she killed with guns her Pedophile .

Recidivizmi, is another feature of pedophile, who have faced on several occasions mentioned above.

Recognition the profiles of pedophile is important, after recognizing their profiles could be more careful in the education of children, to their daily behavior, appropriate advice can be given to avoid any contact with other persons.

4. Some recommendations

In the field of legislation Recommend:

- Since, pedophilia is not provided as a separate penal act from the Albanian law, but " violent sex / homoeksuale relations with minors ..." Look at the way, to make changes and additions;
- International legislation, provides that for offenses on minors, especially those dealing with sexual violation, or the use of their work, to the slavery or kidnapping tendency, should be treated as serious and grave penal acts, while Albanian law has not;
- Legal forecast all forms of pedophilia, and appropriate punitive measures is more than necessity to handle all cases.
- As in many European countries, the estimated risk pedophiles, are also subject to severe punishment, in order, to prevention, such as pharmacological castration, should provided, such a provision in legislation.
- Required prediction of indemnity, compensation and rehabilitation for victims of sexual violence;
- Mandatory reporting of any act of violence committed against children, from workers of health and education sectors;

In the institutional field we recommend:

- The establishment of, the National Register, for registration of all cases involving the sexual abuse of minors, and for periodic reporting on important superior organisms;
- Establishment of a system that would deal with complaints of children who suffer episodes of violence in education and social care institutions;
- Prepare specialized psychiatrists to treat genuine cases of pedophilia, because in Albania, there is no such service
- The establishment of a counseling and rehabilitation unit, dealing with urgent cases where there is sexual violence on minors;
- Review and develop a new curriculum for the recognition of basic concepts, so that children know the risks and the phenomenon;

⁴Mme Denise Bouchet-Kervella. Existe-t-il des caractéristiques cliniques et psychopathologiques des pédophiles extra familiaux adultes ? psychanalyste, membre de la société psychanalytique de paris - psychologue dans le service du professeur barte

⁵Case 1 A 80 year old authorafter abused, a 14-year-old minors for 4 years after the sexual act, killed with guns and decapitated. Case 2, sadistic pedophile in 2012, the AP, which made after coitus, the minor killed and threw into landfill, and tried one other minors, but was arrested in flagrance in 2013. Case 3, sadistic pedophile SHZ, in 2007, after the forest raped a minor 10 years old, strangled with a rope and left there. The juvenile was found in the woods with the body down, massacred, with torn-face and sexually violated.

- The establishment of mechanisms for monitoring policies and programs (public or private non-profit organizations) that deal with violence towards children.

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Representations of the Concept of Pedagogical Supervision among Teachers

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Abstract

Considering teaching and education, the challenges we face daily are increasingly relevant, for all agents involved. Given the time that children spend in school, a good pedagogical relationship, between teachers and students, is very important in the development of children. So, teachers seek for strategies to make the process of teaching and learning more engaging for students, and more rewarding for themselves. This empirical study was developed within the scope of the theory of social representations (Moscovici, 1961/1976). We aimed to understand, first of all, the way how teachers (N=176), men and women, of the 1st and 2nd stages of basic education, in Portugal, represent the concept of pedagogical supervision, and also the way how the representations found can be related to the way they usually feel in classroom. The data was gathered using free associations of words, derived from open questions that were individually made, in an questionnaire (e.g., 'Pedagogical supervision makes me think of...'; or 'Pedagogical supervision makes me feel...'). Results were examined through the technique of factorial analysis of correspondences (FCA). Among the main findings, it was verified that, in general, the teachers of the 2nd stage feel more active than those of the 1st stage, linking the concept of pedagogical supervision with a helpful process that is led by someone with more experience and scientific knowledge. Women, compared to men, demonstrate more nervousness and anxiety, when confronted with pedagogical supervision, tending to anchor the supervision with the evaluation process that all teachers have throughout their career.

Keywords: *pedagogical supervision, social representations, school, teachers, feelings*

1. Introduction

The complexity of contemporary society and its rapid changes and movements, suggest that the role of training, especially in the field of pedagogy, should be viewed in a broadly sense, open and innovative, without restricting to a specific field, such as a educational or business issue (e.g., Simões and Ralha-Simões, 1997). Considering, the challenges we face daily, in the domains of teaching and education, are increasingly relevant, for all agents involved. Given the inclusion of this study in an educational context, the supervision appears as a process of teaching and learning, relative to the social representations of teachers of the 1st and 2nd stages, on the concept of pedagogical supervision.

Supervision is a concept that is linked to the orientation of pedagogical practice by someone that, in principle, is more experienced and informed (e.g., Alarcão, 2003), being strongly influenced by posture and vision of the supervisor, trying to see what happened before the process, what is happening in the present, and what can happen after the supervision process, with an intelligent attitude, responsible, empathic, peaceful and engaging, ie, the supervisor enters the process to understand it, from the outside and inside of it, to analyze it through his view, and see beyond it, based on a strategic thinking, in order to improve the learning and teaching process, and also contributing to a better relationship between the teacher and the students (Mintzberg, 1995; Alarcão, 2003).

As a teacher of 1st and 2nd stages of basic education, I realize that may be considered different representations of the concept of pedagogical supervision by teachers, related to different forms of how teachers develop their practices, which leads us to consider the importance of understanding the relationship between these same representations and

the practices associated with them.

The process of supervision while training process is a constructive place where it is generated, moment by moment, a set of unpredictability, in which the representations are reconstructions of what is observed in the context of values, concepts and rules, and cannot be identified with the reproduction or copy of objects (Bidarra, 1986).

Given the time that children spend in school, a good pedagogical relationship, between teachers and students, is very important in the development of children. Thus, teachers seek for strategies to make the process of teaching and learning more engaging for students, and more rewarding for themselves. The pedagogical supervision may help the teachers and, indirectly, the students.

In this sense, when we focus on how teachers represent the pedagogical supervision, we intend, as a main goal, to understand the way of thinking and feeling, as well as the reactions, in relation to pedagogical supervision - and how these same representations may influence the process of teaching - raising a discussion that aimed at better training of teachers.

In social terms, we tend to understand and explain how the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of human beings are influenced by one another real, imaginary or implied (Allport, 1968; Leyens, 1979).

In studying representations, we study human beings, we reflect on what are human nature and the relationships that we hold between us (e.g., Oliveira, 2008; Pinho, 1993). In this study, we discuss relevant concepts, such as pedagogical supervision, school and education, in Portugal. We do not intend to suggest any model of supervision. However, we frame our results from the perspective of innovation and renewal of supervisory practices.

2. Objectives

We aimed to understand, first of all, the way how Portuguese teachers (N=176) of the 1st and 2nd stages of basic education, represent the concept of pedagogical supervision, and also the way how the representations found can be related to the way they usually feel in classroom.

3. Method

We had a sample of 176 Portuguese teachers (110 of the first stage and 66 of the second stage of basic education), of both sexes (24 men and 152 women). We developed a questionnaire consisting of open-ended questions in order to collect ideas, thoughts, symbols, feelings or emotions through free associations of words, to several questions, of which we highlight, in this work:

In the classroom, I usually feel...;
During an assisted class, I usually feel...;
Pedagogical supervision makes me think of...;
Pedagogical supervision makes me feel...

Teachers responded to these questions, without limitation, and spontaneously, through words or short phrases, maintaining the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses - all the answers, in each question, were reduced to simple words, with no categorization (e.g., Oliveira, 2004, 2008; Oliveira e Amaral, 2007).

The questionnaire also had some socio-demographic questions, such as genre/sex (men or women) and teaching cycle (1st or 2nd stage) - these corresponded to the independent variables.

Data was analyzed through the technique of factorial analysis of correspondences (FCA). The dimensions obtained through this technique, for each question, constituted the dependent variables.

4. Results

Most participants usually feel well in the classroom (the word cheerful is mentioned by almost 70% of teachers), however, they also feel tired. Reinforcing these feelings, seemingly ambivalent, we also find other words such as accomplished, frustrated, active and happiness (with frequencies around 40%). Which leads us to think that being a teacher generates, on one hand, satisfaction with the work done, and by the like to teach, and secondly, a feeling of malaise, associated with some unattained objectives, with limitations and physical and psychological stress, inherent the activity of being a teacher, at contemporary schools.

So, this is a good reason for a feeling of accomplishment, by what the teachers can achieve and are able to do

with their students, also contributing for the development of the children. At the same time they may feel unsatisfied or frustrated, thinking that if they had better conditions, they probably could go further and help more all the children (cf. Table 1).

Table 1. 'In the classroom I usually feel...'

Word	Frequency	%
cheerful	121	69%
tired	98	56%
accomplished	70	40%
frustrated	67	38%
active	59	34%
happy	54	31%
resigned	36	20%
unhappy	28	16%
anxious	25	14%
nervous	24	14%
confident	20	11%
careful	18	10%
energetic	17	10%
productive	10	6%
responsibility	10	6%
tranquil	8	4%

'During an assisted class, I usually feel...'

Most participants do not feel at ease during a class assisted. Instead, they feel, before all, nervous and anxious, beyond feeling observed by others. Despite feeling uncomfortable with the situation, teachers also feel confident, attentive, cheerful and active - teachers love to teach and to practice their profession.

However, although to a lesser degree, teachers also reveal feelings of misunderstanding and frustration, by all that is happening and that involves them, in some cases, leading them to a state of acceptance or resignation (cf. Table 2).

Table 2. 'During an assisted class, I usually feel...'

Word	Frequency	%
nervous	80	45%
anxious	69	39%
observed	47	27%
confident	40	23%
careful	33	19%
cheerful	26	15%
active	25	14%
unsafe	22	13%
frustrated	21	12%
valued	20	11%
resigned	16	9%
tranquil	13	7%

In what concerns to the representations of pedagogical supervision...

Table 3. Answers to the question, 'Pedagogical supervision makes me think of...'

Word	Frequency	%
evaluate	49	28%
observer	40	23%
directing	34	19%

learning	27	15%
cruel	25	14%
share	22	13%
bureaucracy	22	13%
teaching	22	13%
quality	22	13%
resigned	13	7%
frustrated	13	7%
work	12	7%
discipline	12	7%
anxious	12	7%
responsibility	11	6%
confident	10	6%
nervous	9	5%
useless	9	5%
change	9	5%

Most participants feel observed and evaluated when they think about pedagogical supervision (evaluated is referenced for almost 30% of participants). Simultaneously, teachers feel supported in the process and encouraged to take advantage of this observation to increasingly learn, and develop greater capacity for autonomy and management, in the process of teaching and learning.

To reinforce this ambivalence, we also find the words to share, cruel and bureaucracy, which leads us to think that the pedagogical supervision generates both knowledge and experience, as well as some uncertainty, resignation or sense of injustice, by the process itself, in the face of difficulties and the ratings assigned. Teachers anticipate that with work, discipline and some confidence and responsibility, can overcome the apprehension and anxiety that oversight raises on them, trying to take something from this process that will help them to improve their own performance (cf. Table 3).

'Pedagogical supervision makes me feel...'

Participants say they feel particularly nervous and observed. And this has to do with the observation, by the supervisor. The fact of being alone on a day-to-day with their students, leads the teachers to feel nervous about the presence of a stranger to their everyday life, and which is there to observe them. So teachers also feel a little anxious and often unaccompanied and unprotected, during the process of supervision, in their classes.

Given the success of observation not only depends upon the teachers themselves, and include, in particular, the students (who sometimes do not want to collaborate with teachers, in the teaching-learning process, and thereby they may harm them in their assessment), leads the teachers to feel frustrated and concerned with this procedure, that may become ruthless in his career (cf. Table 4).

Table 4. 'Pedagogical supervision makes me feel...'

Word	Frequency	%
nervous	39	22%
observed	38	22%
anxious	26	15%
frustrated	25	14%
cruel	23	13%
directed	21	12%
resigned	20	11%
evaluate	19	11%
confident	19	11%
careful	16	9%
active	16	9%
unhappy	13	7%
unsafe	12	7%

5. Discussion

Although they play an important role in society, teachers suffer now a strong discreditation by society. The malaise is justified by the difficulty inherent to the profession, for failing to correspond to the expectations or, for having a profession that maybe it was not their first choice.

The fact that today the role of the teacher have lost some prestige and impact on the society in which we live, may also justify this uneasiness in the teaching career (e.g., Handal and Lauvas, 1987; Zeichner, 1993).

The loss of authority, the excessive bureaucracy and lack of interest from students, means that teachers feel that their job is almost impossible.

The sensation of assessment in the course of supervision, generates, especially, negative feelings. There are several important factors that affect the performance of teachers in the classroom, as the number of students, the educational community or geographical location, and these factors are not considered by supervisors, although they are fundamental to achieving quality education. Insecurity and nervousness expressed by teachers, is also related to all that has been debated on the evaluation of teachers and their implications in their career (e.g., Schaffer, 1996; Soveral, 1996). While women show less positive feelings about the way they feel during an assisted class, men denote some contradiction in their feelings (cf. Table 5).

Most participants stated that nowadays, due to the way society is structured on what concerns to the values and habits of the family, the school became the place where students acquire knowledge and at the same time, receive rules, values and references (e.g., Schaffer, 1996; Soveral, 1996).

One of the great difficulties expressed by teachers is the bad education demonstrated by some students, associated with shortage of time to give them knowledge and at the same time, to educate them.

Most teachers represent the pedagogical supervision as a process of evaluation, with lots of bureaucracy and injustice. They have distrust on how the evaluation takes place. They note that the supervision process should be simpler, helping to make the teaching more effective, transparent and more helpful to students, and not to evaluate teachers, dividing them into categories, preventing therefore its progression in terms career.

There is a greater anxiety and nervousness on the part of women than men, which reveals their difficulty differentiating between personal lives and profession, often evidencing their maternal side in the classroom.

Table 5. Synthesis of feelings and emotions, by teaching cycle and gender/sex

	teaching cycle		gender/sex	
	first stage	second stage	Men	Women
'In the classroom I usually feel...'	nervous sensitive confident	cheerful anxious careful	cheerful tired accomplished	cheerful tired frustrated
'During an assisted class, I usually feel...'	evaluated active nervous	attentive cheerful	anxious active observed	nervous anxious observed
'Pedagogical supervision makes me think/feel...'	learning quality active	share change directed	directed observed share	evaluated nervous observed

In short, and in general, teachers of first stage show greater concern for pedagogical supervision than those of the second stage. This has to do not only with the age difference between students, but also with what is taught in a cycle and the other teaching cycle (cf. Table 5).

Teachers of the 1st stage, due to be just one for each class and according to the greatest number of hours they spent with students, have differing feelings from the teachers of the 2nd stage in relation to pedagogical supervision.

6. Conclusions

Pedagogical supervision is still perceived as something scary, which causes apprehension and confusion. This stems largely from the lack of information about the process, how it should progress, a negative view linked to the evaluation itself - on the prospect that it might serve primarily to generate criticism and reprimands and not exactly to help and contribute to an improvement in professional performance, with the emphasis on the scientific, educational and in a

better relationship with students (and even with parents).

Today, the efficiency of the school is very often questioned, as well as the quality of teaching, the teacher's role and his performance in the process of teaching and learning. In recent years teachers are having an extra work, with bureaucracy that deprives them of time and forces them to deviate from what is their main function: to educate young people.

The fact that the teaching profession is somehow discredited at this point, together with the lack of interest of many students in school, and disrespect of some of the students for the teachers, does not facilitate the task of the teacher, that, rather than have the opportunity to focus in the transmission of knowledge to their students, has to lose time, and energy, in solving problems in the classroom.

Given the lack of moral values, social and affective from many students, the teachers dedicate and are concerned to be able to create teaching methods that captivate their students. The school should promote the progress of students in a wide range of objectives intellectual, social, moral and emotional. The education system is effective when maximizes the capacity of the school to achieve these results (e.g., Bolivar, 2003; Santos, 1991).

Teaching is not just to transfer knowledge or content, and forming is not an action by which, a creator subject, gives form, style and soul to a body indecisive or accommodated. It is necessary that the student assume itself as the main subject of his training and of the production of knowledge, engaging himself from the start in its construction. Thus, it is up to the teacher to create the possibilities for that to happen (e.g., Freire, 2002).

The way of perceiving the evaluation and supervision, leads teachers to have negative representations of supervision, which may limit and transform, negatively, their daily posture in the classroom.

In terms of gender, women stress more their maternal side, friendly and personalized support to their students, than men. These, usually focus on a professional dimension of teaching, through which students must acquire new skills and competences.

We also found that teachers of the 1st stage feel more responsibility and have greater monitoring of their students, concentrated in doing a good job that allows to provide students with strategies and skills to overcome the difficulties of the academic path, which may be long and complicated. Teachers of the 2nd stage relate primarily to the importance of sharing knowledge with them, and monitoring them, so that they feel safe and accompanied.

Pedagogical supervision should be seen as an activity support, guidance and regulation, with a very important dimension of training, with a diversity of practices (Sá-Chaves and Alarcão, 2000).

The concept of supervision has followed the evolution of different approaches to education, and streamlined views on everything that involves school. Assuming that the role of the educator is to teach how to think properly (e.g., Freire, 1997), then one of the functions of the supervisor (in teacher training) is precisely to teach how to search, because there is no teaching without research, and there is no research without teaching.

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Including Human Values in Management Education: Experiential Insights

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Abstract

This paper makes a critical analysis of the need and method for instilling human values in management students, derived from an understanding of the role of the Management Centre for Human Values (MCHV), a centre concretised in and by the Indian Institute of Management Calcutta (IIMC) way back in April 1992. The case of MCHV is used here to understand and appreciate the responsibilities of educational institutions towards a global world. MCHV has come a long way in "integrating" courses on human values into the mainstream post-graduate programs administered by IIMC. Human value courses offered by the Centre make an attempt to cultivate a global outlook, love for nature and a concern for fellow human beings and the environment in management students. These courses touch the distinct dimensions of human personality such as developing; aesthetic sensibilities, socially desirable moral values and finally, the inner dimension of spiritual growth. The human values agenda of MCHV is to make students more socially concerned, compassionate, liberal, inclusive, ethical, and humane. The courses offered by the Centre, also helps developing inclusive leaders who would include humans, religions and environment in their programmes. For achieving this purpose, MCHV courses use universally applicable syllabus which is multidisciplinary in nature. This paper makes a journey through the experiences of the Centre to share some of its success stories and also to share some of its concerns.

1. Introduction

Human values are eternal and universal and they do not change according to time or region. Harvard Business School has started an Oath taking ceremony for its MBA students which is popularly known as "The MBA Oath."¹ In this Oath, as the students become business leaders, they are asked to recognize their role in society. They are required to promise that they will manage their enterprises with loyalty and care, and will not advance their personal interests at the expense of their enterprise or society. They are also to assure that they will refrain from corruption, unfair competition, or business practices harmful to society besides protecting the rights and dignity of all people affected by their enterprises, and will oppose discrimination and exploitation. This Oath emphasizes the importance of a myriad of core values like honesty, equality, selflessness, sincerity, ethical actions, etc., which have been insisted from time immemorial in all countries and cultures.

The convocation address found in one of the philosophical texts viz. *Taittiriya Upanishad*² is important to understand the significance of human values. In this convocation address the students are urged to honour superiors and to give in proper manner and spirit, in joy and humility, in fear and compassion. This address tries to inculcate in students, qualities such as social consciousness based on love for humanity, character, honesty based on moral law and, discipline based on the sense of duties and responsibilities of an individual. This age old convocation address and "The MBA Oath" similarly urge the students to follow the righteous path always without any exception.

Let us look at the vision and mission statements of the top Business Schools such as Harvard, Sloan, Stanford, Indian Institutes of Management (IIMs) set up by the Government of India in Calcutta, Ahmadabad, and Bangalore. Had they believed that human values and ethics are not important in the corporate world, they would not have any reference to values and ethics in their vision and mission statements.³ The path breaking empirical research conducted by Srikant Datar, David A Garvin and Patrick G Cullen of Harvard Business School is published in a book viz. "Rethinking the MBA: Business Education at a Cross Roads". To improve the ethical and value dimension of B-School students they have suggested "Knowing, Doing and Being model" of education in their book.⁴ Being part includes:

Values, attitudes, beliefs that constitute one's character & worldview, being aware of the line between right & wrong, the preferred treatment of others, the purpose & goals of organisations & the behaviours that exemplify integrity, honesty, & fairness. The buzz word in today's corporate circle is 3Ps, Planet, People and Profit. If values and ethics are not congruent with profit making, CSR and Environmental auditing would not have been insisted in the corporate world.

The vision of Indian Institute of Management Calcutta is 'to produce ethically oriented and caring leaders who manage change and transformation'. This institute houses the Management Centre for Human Values (MCHV) which was created in April, 1992 to initiate teaching, research, training and offer consultancy on Human Values and Ethics in Management.⁵ It is significant in this context to note that the premiere technological institutes in India and abroad house a Humanities Department.

This indicates a felt need for courses on humanities in such institutes, where technical knowledge takes the cake. It may be noted here that, in one form or other, in the global picture of world class institutes, the need to propagate a holistic education over that of mere specialisation is taking center stage.⁶

An attempt is made here through the experiences of MCHV to explain the significance of teaching human values and the methodology adopted for the same. While delivering courses ranging across sessions for post-graduates to executives, MCHV has come a long way in "integrating" courses on human values into the mainstream post-graduate programs administered by IIMC⁷. MCHV courses attempt to *integrate* history and mythology, Eastern and Western ethos, sciences and humanities, academic and industrial, fiction and real-life, – to develop a personality that helps human life, society and civilization thrive in the contemporary world of heterogeneity. A *self-reflexive* vision of the world based on humanistic-thought traditions provided through these courses would make a powerful impact on the participating students to look beyond narrow, short-term individualistic motives that generally drive human beings. The larger vision, derived from *multiple thought systems* encompasses the *good* of humankind and the welfare of society. This vision in turn, will help cultivate *flexibility* by admitting *diversity* besides championing the cause of human values. As stressed in these courses, human values for a *diverse* world would include inclusivism, interdependence, interconnectedness, ethics and compassion in every field of human activity. The courses deal with a wide range of issues related to personality development and provide ideas, opinions, experiences, beliefs, perspectives and futuristic thoughts which are of immense value to all those who aim to thrive in different fields in today's complex and globalised world.

MCHV courses mainly rest on the three Pillars of Inclusion viz. (1) The Pillar of Environmental Inclusion, (2) The Pillar of Religious Inclusion and (3) The Pillar of Human Inclusion. It becomes necessary to spell out the reasons for developing such inclusive insights and the method adopted in developing these three pillars. What is attempted next is a background survey of these three pillars of inclusion which are the bedrocks for the courses offered by MCHV. A detailed discussion is also entertained here on the importance of concepts and materials used in developing these three pillars of inclusion. The concepts and materials are multi-disciplinary and universally applicable and hence easily replicable.

2. The Pillar of Environmental Inclusion

Ancient Indians' concern for environment as documented in the ancient Indian scriptures and literature may be compared with the concerns expressed by the contemporary ecologists. It must be pointed out that the contemporary ecologists start with the assumption that we have to take care of the environment as it affects our living. On the other hand, the ancient Indians' concern started with the assumption that they were a part of a larger existence. It is to be noted here that the Norwegian philosopher Arne Naess first coined the phrase 'deep ecology' to describe deep ecological awareness. Deep ecology is rooted in a perception of reality that extends beyond the scientific framework to an intuitive awareness of the oneness of all life, the interdependence of its multiple manifestations. Arne Naess says:

Care flows naturally if the 'self' is widened and deepened so that protection of free Nature is felt and conceived as protection of ourselves ... Just as we need no morals to make us breathe. [. . .]. [So] if your 'self' in the wide sense embraces another being, you need no moral exhortation to show care. [. . .].

You care for yourself without feeling any moral pressure to do it ... If reality is like it is experienced by the ecological self, our behaviour naturally and beautifully follows norms of strict environmental ethics.⁸

We must note that the ancient Indian scriptures which are the oldest documented scriptures of mankind (as early as 1500 BC); the philosophical and theoretical texts; and Sanskrit classical literature clearly enunciated a nature-friendly world-view that prompted the ancient Indian civilization not merely to treat the environment with reverence, but also create an awareness amongst themselves that the great forces of nature – the earth, the water, the fire, the air, the ether – as well as various orders of life including plants, trees, forests and animals are all bound to each other within the great rhythms of nature.⁹ The mythological, the legal and the fictional narratives of nature in Ancient Indian texts also historicize the interconnectivity and hence the inclusion of nature in human practices; the echoes of which are so compelling in contemporary discourse cited above. Reverence for animals is also evident in the ancient mythologies. The

bull, the eagle, the lion, the elephant, the swan, the cow, the mouse and many more are the vehicles of various Gods and Goddesses. The point conveyed here is that the animals are not to be looked upon as creatures to be cruelly exploited but to be seen as partners with human beings in the journey of life. Even if one does not have any overflowing love for the plants and insects, at least one's self-love should dictate that one's survival is tied up with the survival of the plants and insects.¹⁰ It must be pointed out here that the environmental inclusivity and sustainability have been discussed even in art, architecture and literature. Sanskrit poetry was a product of those who lived amidst hills, lakes, animals, trees and flowers and had all the time to feel the full impact of Nature in its beauty, severity and sublimity. The description of Sakuntala, the female protagonist in Kalidasa's famous Sanskrit drama viz. *Abhijnanasakuntalam*, leaving the surroundings of her foster father's hermitage is one of the most moving scenes in the world's entire dramatic literature. Brought up from infancy in the lap of nature, Sakuntala had a sisterly affection for the flora and fauna of the place. The strings which joined her heart to them seemed to burst as she said good-bye to them tearfully. Such examples are plenty in Sanskrit literature and provide good insights to students by adding one more perspective for developing an environmental friendly life style.¹¹

3. Pillar of Religious Inclusion

The history of religion bears ample witness to the dual and rather contradictory role of religion throughout the ages. It has always inspired people to attain great heights in the realm of moral and spiritual life besides promoting solidarity, peace and harmony in society. This constitutes the bright side of religion. But at the same time there is also a dark side of religion, which brings unhappiness and suffering to people. This is mainly due to a persistent confusion between the deeper aspect of religion which constitutes its truth and its external aspect or structure which ordinarily serves as a means to attain that truth. The essence and purpose of religion has to be clearly distinguished from its external structure. Any exclusive stress on the external side of religion often leads to undesirable consequences. His Holiness The Dalai Lama says that religions may differ from each other significantly in; metaphysics, concept of God, ways to salvation or liberation, mythology, rules, customs, rites and rituals etc. But more or less they agree on the basic ethical principles like commitment to truth, compassion for the weak, and self control. While the other components of religion divide people on religion, ethics has the powerful potential to unite them on a common footing as illustrated in the golden rule appearing in almost all religions. He says that it is the intrinsic responsibility of World Religions to maintain World Peace.

And he furthers his claim on Religious inclusivity when he states that Universal Humanitarianism and Compassion "are in accordance with the ethical teachings of all world religions." He says:

I maintain that every major religion of the world - Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Islam, Jainism, Judaism, Sikhism, Taoism, Zoroastrianism - has similar ideals of love, the same goal of benefiting humanity through spiritual practice, and the same effect of making their followers into better human beings... The common goal of all moral precepts laid down by the great teachers of humanity is unselfishness.¹²

India is the birth place of many religions. The ancient Indian religion viz. Hinduism went through many transformations, absorbing the tenets of Jainism, Buddhism, and Sikhism, to name a few. They may be interpreted as reform movements from within the fold of Hinduism put forth to meet the special demands of the various stages of its' development. Zoroastrianism, Islam, and Christianity have been so long in India that they have become native to the soil and are deeply influenced by the atmosphere of native religions.

The contemporary political debate in India has been between the secular principle, which is the identification of a citizen as equal in the eyes of law, notwithstanding his/her religious and racial and economic background, and the Indian concept of *sarva-dharma-samabhava*, i.e. equal respect for all religions, or *dharma nirapeksha*, i.e. neutrality between religions. In this context it becomes important to refer to His Holiness The Dalai Lama who emphasizes on the significance of religion; the acceptance and legitimization of religion. What is important here is His Holiness' stance:

Rather, I try to think of how I as a Buddhist humanitarian can contribute to human happiness.¹³

That religion matters, and religious identity matters is a fascinating thing to say in today's secular discourse. In His Holiness' poignant words:

While pointing out the fundamental similarities between world religions, I do not advocate one particular religion at the expense of all others, nor do I seek a new 'world religion'. All the different religions of the world are needed to enrich human experience and world civilization. Our human minds, being of different calibre and disposition, need different

approaches to peace and happiness.¹⁴

Thus, the interest should be, not secularism at the expense of religion, but to respect a social and cultural identity of an individual first. As His Holiness has rightly commented, it is important to identify and eulogise efforts made in any part of the world to "better understanding among religions", rather than eradicate religious identity. If interconnected and inclusive humanitarianism is the common denominator of every religion, then why should any religious identity not be eulogised and appreciated? The need to appreciate individual religions is necessary to maintain harmony and balance of humankind; not deriding of religions in the name of political secularism.

Each religion has its own distinctive contributions to make, and each in its own way is suitable to a particular group of people as they understand life. In fact, every religion teaches man to be good and has its positive aspects, be it the quest for knowledge of Hinduism, the tolerance of Sikhism, the sacrifice embodied by Christianity, the brotherhood of Islam, or the compassion of Buddhism. The world needs them all.¹⁵ In this context, we can further justify ancient Indian King Ashoka's (3rd C. B.C) global religiosity even then as is evident in his Rock Edict 12:

Beloved-of-the-Gods, King Piyadasi [Ashoka], desires that there should be growth in the essentials of all religions. Growth in essentials can be done in different ways, but all of them have as their root restraint in speech, that is, not praising one's own religion, or condemning the religion of others without good cause. And if there is cause for criticism, it should be done in a mild way. But it is better to honour other religions for this reason. By so doing, one's own religion benefits, and so do other religions, while doing otherwise harms one's own religion and the religions of others. Whoever praises his own religion, due to excessive devotion, and condemns others with the thought "Let me glorify my own religion," only harms his own religion. Therefore contact (between religions) is good. One should listen to and respect the doctrines professed by others. Beloved-of-the-Gods, King Piyadasi, desires that all should be well-learned in the good doctrines of other religions.¹⁶

It is pertinent to note in this context that the Ayodhya verdict of the Indian Judiciary is inclusive and exemplary of religious harmony. The much-awaited verdict on the 60 year old Ayodhya title suits was pronounced on September 30, 2010. In this landmark judgment that seeks to find a compromise solution, the Lucknow bench of the Allahabad high court in India ruled that the disputed land at Ayodhya in Uttar Pradesh will be divided among three parties to the suit viz., Hindus, Muslims and the Nirmohi Akhara. The site housed the Babri Masjid which was demolished in 1992 by Hindu protesters who believe that the plot once had a temple marking the birthplace of Lord Rama, the hero of the epic poem, *Ramayana*. The court ruled that the two communities viz. Hindus and Muslims will be free to build a religious structure on their respective portions of land for worship.¹⁷ What really matters is that there has been no violence or untoward incidents following the verdict. It has not triggered any untoward communal incident as yet. There is no one single reason to explain that how is it that one of the most sensational and sensitive issues turned out to be so peacefully received and resolved after a decade and more of intense violence, and intolerance and debate? Moreover, both Muslims and Hindus find the judgment below their expectations. Yet all criticism and questioning has been tempered with a maturity that surprised all, and the world. There were no motives attributed to the judiciary, nobody said it was fixed by the government, and nobody said s/he had lost her/his faith in the judicial system. So far no political party has tried to exploit the verdict for partisan purposes. Excerpts from an interview of Justice S. U. Khan, who was one of the Judges who delivered the Ayodhya Verdict is given here:

My judgment is short, very short. Either I may be admired as an artist who knows where to stop, particularly in such a sensitive, delicate matter or I may be castigated for being so casual in such a momentous task. Sometimes patience is intense action, silence is speech and pauses are punches.

The one quality which epitomised the character of Ram [hero of the epic Ramayana] is tyag (sacrifice). When Prophet Mohammad entered into a treaty with the rival group at Huda'yliyah, it appeared to be abject surrender even to his staunch supporters. However, the Koran described that as clear victory and it did prove so. Within a short span there from Muslims entered the Mecca as victors, and not a drop of blood was shed.¹⁸

Justice Khan quoted Darwin, "Only those species survived which collaborated and improvised." He writes in his epilogue:

Muslims must also ponder that at present the entire world wants to know the exact teachings of Islam in respect of relationship of Muslims with others. [. . .]. Indian Muslims have also inherited a legacy of religious learning and knowledge. They are therefore in the best position to tell the world the correct position. Let them start with their role in the resolution of the conflict at hand.¹⁹

Such attempts to reconcile differences and to appreciate the importance of other religions were also made in Indian history right from the days of King Ashoka, which authenticates the point that India always stood for concord through religious inclusion. It may be mentioned here that Akbar the Great (1543-1605 A.D), an important Mughal ruler of India, being a firm proponent of universal tolerance and religious freedom for all, welcomed to his court, representatives of all religions known to him, Muslims, Hindus, Jains, Parsis, Jews and even Jesuit priests from the Portuguese settlements in Goa.²⁰ He tried to reconcile the religious differences by creating a new faith called the Din-i-Ilahi ("Faith of the Divine"), which incorporated both "pantheistic" versions of Islamic Sufism (most notably the Ibn Arabi's doctrine of "Wahdat al Wajood" or Unity of existence) and "bhakti" or devotional cults of Hinduism. Even some elements of Christianity – like crosses, fire worship of Zoroastrianism – were amalgamated besides Jainism in the new religion. Akbar the Great was particularly famous for creating this new pluralistic and synthetic faith. Akbar's all inclusive views are best summarized in the following verses which he himself wrote towards the end of his life:

*O god, in every temple I see people that are seeking You,
and in every language I hear, people are praising You!
Polytheism and Islam feel after You.
each religion says, 'You are One, without equal!'*

*If it be a mosque,
people murmur the holy prayer,
and if it be a Christian Church,
people ring the bell
out of love to You.*

*Sometimes I frequent the Christian cloister, and sometimes the
mosque,
but it is You whom I search, from temple to temple.²¹*

Hinduism's view that there is one Divine, which may be reached by many paths, has proven throughout the centuries to be a powerful influence upon Hinduism's interaction with other religions. This point of view is expressed clearly in the famous speech delivered by Swami Vivekananda in Chicago on September 11, 1893, an extract of which is given here:

I am proud to belong to a religion which has taught the world both tolerance and universal acceptance...We believe not only in universal toleration, but we accept all religions as true. I am proud to belong to a nation which has sheltered the persecuted and the refugees of all religions and all nations of the earth...and I fervently hope that the bell that tolled this morning in honour of this convention may be the death-knell of all fanaticism, of all persecutions with the sword or with the pen.²²

These insights are greatly helpful to leaders of today in all domains while dealing with the contemporary and the future issues of development. It tells them not to fight for relics, icons and ideas of the past. A nation is judged by its contemporary status and not by its past. A leader must look with confidence at what s/he can do in the future to better the lives of people rather than digging up the past.²³

4. Pillar of Human Inclusion

Vedanta philosophy which is based on the collective wisdom of generations of seers and sages of India establishes a sound argument for human inclusion. It has been codified in the philosophical texts called *Upanishads*, *Bhagavad Gita* and the *Brahmasutras*. Vedanta philosophy provides insights, which can be of crucial value for the survival of the human race in the twenty first century. According to this philosophy, all human beings are members of a single family and this also is the basis of the concept of human beings as an extended family, *vasudhaiva kutumbakam*. A popular Sanskrit verse points out that the division between mine and yours is a small and narrow way of looking at reality, indulged in by people with immature minds. For those of the greater consciousness, the entire world is a family:

*ayam nijah paroveti ganana laghuchetasam/
udara charitanam tu vasudhaiva kutumbakam/²⁴*

Now we may look into a few dominant personalities who fought for human inclusion and succeeded also in their endeavours. Dr. John R. Mott, a Christian missionary, once asked Mahatma Gandhi, "What have been the most creative experience in your life?" In reply, Mahatma Gandhi narrated events of the night in Maritzburg Station in South Africa where he was thrown out of the train for travelling in the first class compartment because of prejudice against coloured people, even though he had a valid ticket. Mahatma Gandhi decided to fight against colour discrimination which is against human inclusion.

The hardship to which I was subjected was superficial-only a symptom of the deep disease of colour prejudice. I should try, if possible, to root out the disease of colour prejudice and suffer hardships in the process. Redress for wrongs I should seek only to the extent that would be necessary for the removal of the colour prejudice.²⁵

Mahatma Gandhi peacefully revolted and after spending about twenty years in peaceful fighting, he returned to India. Gandhi immediately took the side of the people who were discriminated and called 'untouchables' in India.

The untouchables carried out all work— such as cleaning toilets, burying or burning the dead of all castes, sweeping the streets, picking up garbage, etc. They were forbidden from going into temples, hospitals, schools, and many other public places, because they were believed to be unfit, unhealthy and undeserving. Even though Gandhi belonged to a higher caste, his conscience led him to help them. To start a paradigm shift, he renamed the untouchables as Harijans. This literally means God's children. Gandhi took meals with Harijans and cleaned the public toilets along with them.²⁶ Gandhi saw that this system was wrong. He traveled across India and at every place his message was the same: 'All human beings are one'. Although Gandhi was a very religious person, he stopped going to temples to pray until they were open to everybody. He told the people gathered around him that, 'There is no God here, if God was here, nobody would be kept out. God is in every one of us.' The people knew that Gandhi was right. Gradually, across India, temples began to open their gates to Harijans. Some people began opening their homes to them as well. Gandhi's strong conviction about the injustice done to untouchables is revealed in the following statements made by him:

... I do not want to attain Moksha [Salvation, merging with God]. I do not want to be reborn. But if I have to be reborn, I should be born, an untouchable so that I may share their sorrows, sufferings and the affronts leveled at them in order that I may endeavour to free myself and them from that miserable condition.²⁷

...I think this miserable, wretched, enslaving spirit of 'untouchableness' must have come to us when we were in the cycle of our lives, at our lowest ebb, and that evil has still stuck to us and it still remains with us. ... and you the student world, who receive all this modern education, if you become a party to this crime, it were better that you received no education whatsoever.²⁸

Another great personality who fought against discrimination and exclusion of human beings is one of the most popular American Presidents viz. Abraham Lincoln who is often described as "The Great Emancipator" and he eventually issued the Emancipation Proclamation, which freed all slaves in those states that were in rebellion. He vigorously supported the 13th Amendment which abolished slavery throughout the United States, and, in the last speech of his life, he recommended extending the vote to African Americans. Lincoln, in a speech at Peoria, Illinois delivered on October 16, 1854 attacked slavery on the grounds that its existence within the United States made American democracy appear hypocritical in the eyes of the world. He said:

I cannot but hate [the declared indifference for slavery's spread]. I hate it because of the monstrous injustice of slavery itself. I hate it because it deprives our republican example of its just influence in the world.²⁹

In a letter to James N. Brown written on October 18, 1858 he said:

I have made it equally plain that I think the negro is included in the word "men" used in the Declaration of Independence. I believe the declaration that "all men are created equal" is the great fundamental principle upon which our free institutions rest; that negro slavery is violative of that principle.³⁰

In another letter to Henry L. Pierce written on April 6, 1859 he said:

This is a world of compensations; and he who would be no slave, must consent to have no slave. Those who deny freedom to others, deserve it not for themselves; and, under a just God, cannot long retain it.³¹

His Holiness The Dalai Lama coined the phrase “wise self-interest” to define any practical act that involves *thinking for others when pursuing personal happiness*. And from the premise of a “wise self-interest” he *hopes* to move towards a better level of human bonding, which he terms as “compromised self-interest”. His Holiness argues for human inclusion for everyone’s survival. He says:

*Today we are so interdependent, so closely interconnected with each other, that without a sense of universal responsibility, a feeling of universal brotherhood and sisterhood, and an understanding and belief that we really are part of one big human family, we cannot hope to overcome the dangers to our very existence – let alone bring about peace and happiness.*³²

5. Conclusion

Thus the courses offered by MCHV provide insights on inculcating human values in management students along with developing inclusive mindsets which has become inevitable in the context of a globalized world. In a nutshell, the participating students are guided to adopt innovative approaches that foster understanding and build bridges across ethnic, racial, cultural and religious groups besides promoting social welfare, economic development, and tolerance of all religions, languages and cultures. Caring for the well being of the planet as a whole, together with all its inhabitants (including human beings) and nonliving resources is the focus point of many courses offered by MCHV. Living in harmony with nature and eschewing violence to any form of life, as violence harms the sacred unity and causes suffering which sends life out of balance, is stressed through many examples from classical and contemporary sources.

It is increasingly realized by all stakeholders that educational institutes should promote human values and inclusive mindsets in the wake of sustainability development and inclusive growth. In conclusion it may be wisely pointed out that educational institutes have to concentrate on the development of three pillars of inclusive mindsets in the students namely (1) The Pillar of Environmental Inclusion, (2) The Pillar of Religious Inclusion and (3) The Pillar of Human Inclusion.

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Reflective Practice: A Tool for Enhancing Quality Assurance in Science Education at Nigerian Colleges of Education

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Abstract

This paper illustrates how reflective practice can be used as a tool to enhance quality assurance control in science education at tertiary level. It examines what quality assurance and reflective practice/teaching are, the approaches of reflective practice and how to be a reflective teacher as well as benefit that can be derived from being a reflective teacher. It further concludes that if experience, inexperience and pre-service teachers are given the chance to reflect continuously before, during and after a class, reflection can be turned to a habit which will encourage professional development as well as enhancing quality assurance in teaching and learning process.

Keywords: Quality Assurance, Science Education, Reflective Teaching, Reflective Practice.

1. Introduction

Quality assurance in teaching and learning in tertiary institution is currently of major concern all over the world. The fiscal constraints faced by many countries, coupled with increasing demand has led to overcrowding, deteriorating infrastructure, lack of resources for non-salary expenditures such as textbooks and laboratory equipment, and a decline in the quality of teaching and research activities. Harvey and Green (1993) distinguish three definitions of quality that are relevant to the issue of quality assurance (QA): as value for money, as fit for the espoused purpose, and as transforming. This implies that the definition one gives to it depends on the kind of quality to be assured. The last two sees QA as maintaining and enhancing the quality of teaching and learning in the tertiary institution. QA is concerned with assuring that teaching and learning does now, and in future will continue, to fit the purpose of the institution.

Quality Assurance is not concerned with quantifying aspects of the system, but with reviewing how well the whole institution works in achieving its mission, and how it may be improved. This is analogous to what an individual reflective practitioner does (Schon 1983). A quality institution is one that has high level aims that it intends to meet, that teaches accordingly, and that continually upgrades its practice in order to adapt to changing conditions, within resource limitations. Reflective practice was introduced by Donald Schon in his book: *The reflective practitioner* in 1983. However, the concepts underlying reflective practice are much older. It focuses on the ways people think about their experiences and formulate responses as the experiences happen. This approach makes a clear distinction between “thinking on action” and “thinking in action”. Thinking on action is the way of analyzing experiences as they happen while thinking in action determines how responses are formulated (Krause, 2004). This whole idea is considered as “thinking on your feet”. Reflective practice leads to reflective teaching.

Reflective teaching means looking at what you do in the classroom, thinking about why you do it, and thinking about if it works or not. Reflection, according to Clarke (2007), refers to thinking about the actual teaching which involves the thought teachers have before, during and after a lesson. It is a process ‘of self -observation and self-evaluation. Self-evaluation and inquiry into one’s own practice is important for teachers especially in the developing countries like Nigeria. Where books are not available, and the available ones are beyond the reach of most citizen, in-service training for teacher are rare, teacher overworked and underpaid, large pre-service teacher ratio to the lecturer, little or no assess to professional benefit, inadequate material resources, inadequate lecture room e.t.c. The only transformation tool in enhancing quality assurance is reflective practice.

Griffiths and Tam (1992) in Problete (1999) categorised reflection into into two: reflection –in –action and reflection –on –action. Reflection –in –action refers to what happens when ones is presented with novel puzzles, the resolving of

these puzzles in the context of action, according to Schon (1983) unites means and ends, research and practice, and know and doing. This type of reflection is personal and private. It occurs as an action is going on and the reaction is rapid i.e act and react. Reflection – on –action on the other hand is seen as a procedure for studying immediate, at-hand events in order to understand them and develop a conceptual framework for useful practice. It involves recalling one’s teaching after the class. This is interpersonal and occurs after an event might have taken place. Reflection on action includes:

- Involvement in a scenario (an action);
- Recording of the scenario (for getting stable idea);
- Determinations, interpretations and evaluation;
- Formation of educational construal; and
- Confirmation to determining whether the construal has meaning to other practitioner Garman (1989) in Problete (1999).

Another type of reflection is reflection –for- action which occurs before an event is taken place. All is embedded under reflective practice

Reflective teaching is a means of professional development which begins in our classroom. It is paying critical attention to the practical values and theories which inform everyday action, by examining practice reflectively and reflexively (Bolton, 2010). Dewey (1933) in his concept of “reflective inquiry” viewed the students as an inquirer and an active participant in learning. He assumed that the interaction of subject-matters and method of inquiry could not be ignored in schooling. Following this line of thinking, the reflective teacher makes decision based on a problem-solving paradigm (Orlich, Harder, Callahn, Trivisan & Brown, 2010). Problems are not viewed as obstacles to overcome but as opportunities to be met. Teachers reflect on problems, and as part of a learning community, they call on others (i.e. their peer and senior colleagues) to reflect on identified problems. In such cases, they collectively list a series of alternatives that they can take. Ultimately, such list is narrowed down to a set of actions that are ethical, just and educationally sound. Reflective teaching can be thought about in terms of asking searching questions about experience and conceptualized as both a state of mind and an on-going type of behavior. Being a reflective practitioner at any stage in teacher development involves constant, critical look at teaching and learning and at the work of the teacher (Harrison, 2009). Reflective Teaching deals with active research, critical thinking and professional enquiry. It also deals with thinking deeply to solve a given problem and in doing this you ask a lot of thought provoking questions like: why do I teach the way I do? What principle underlining my teaching? Should I do it differently? What are the major problems that I face in my teaching? Why does a particular method work for student A or topic A but not for student B or topic B? What are my doing right or wrong in my classrooms? What made my lesson seem so successful/not successful?

2. Models of Reflective Practice

There are several models of reflection used to draw lesson some of which are presented below:

2.1 Argyris and Schon Model of Reflective Teaching

Argyris and Schon pioneered the idea of single loop and double loop learning in 1978. The theory was building around the recognition and amendment of a perceived fault or error. Single loop learning is when a practitioner, even after an error has occurred and a correction is made, continues to rely on current strategies or technique when a situation again comes to light. Double loop learning involves the modification of personal objectives, strategies or policies so that when a similar situation arises a new framing system is employed (Argyris & Schon, 1978)

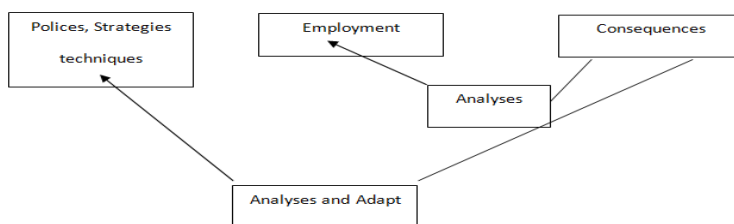


Fig.1. Adaptation of the Argyris and Schon Double loop Learning Model

Schon himself introduced some years later the concept of Reflection-in-action and Reflection-on-action the summary of which was presented in the figure below:

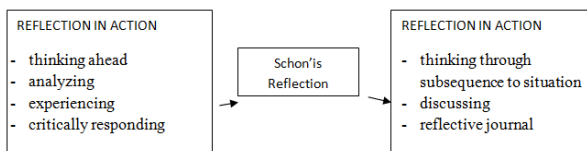
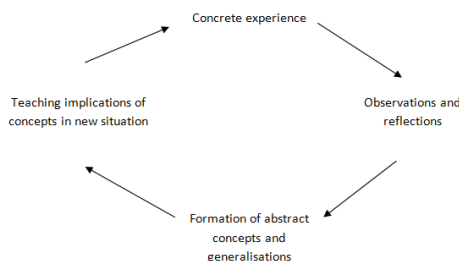


Fig. 2. Schon concept of reflection-in-action and Reflection-on-action

2.2 Kolbs' Reflective Model.

It highlights the concept of experimental learning and is centered on the transformation of information into knowledge. This takes place after the situation has occurred and entails a practitioner reflecting on the experience, gaining a general understanding of the concepts encountered during the experience and then testing these general understandings on a new situation. In this way the knowledge that is gained from a situation is continuously applied and reapplied building on a practitioner's prior experience and knowledge (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

Figure 3. Kolbs' reflective model



Source: Kolb, 1984 in Kolb and Kolb, 2005

Reflective practice occurs at all stages of the teaching process, planning, action (execution), and evaluation (Clark, 2007). That is, the thinking about teaching, which involves the thoughts teachers have before, during, and after the actual enactment of a lesson. This construct is parallel to the thinking processes identified by Polya (1945). In his concept of mathematical problem solving, there are three phases: (a) Understanding, (b) Planning, and (c) Looking back.

According to Clarke (2007), teachers should engage in similar types of thinking before they teach a lesson. To achieve desired results, teachers should reflect on their teaching goals and method and how these interface with the demographics and abilities of their students. This process would allow them to clarify their knowledge base, the content, and their students' learning styles and to crystallize the pedagogy to be implemented (Clark, 2007). Teachers must consider the challenges that students may encounter and strategies to assist students in overcoming them. Polya's "looking back" phase is the reflective thinking that teachers engage in after they teach a lesson (Artzt & Armour-Thomas, 2002). At the end of the lessons, teachers evaluate the lesson goals and the actions of both themselves and their students as well as define the points at which difficulties emerged. They must consider the strategies employed and when necessary make modifications. The self-assessment helps identify what was not addressed and the unexpected challenged of the lesson. Failure to acknowledge these challenges could impede teachers' self-improvement and their students' achievement (Harrison, 2008).

2.3 Methods of Reflection

This includes the following:

- Reflective journal
- Videotaped lesson / peer conference

- Students input and lesson evaluations
- Student can provide structural evaluations of a lesson

3. Characteristics of a Reflective Teacher

Orlich, et al (2010) lists the following as characteristic of a reflective teacher:

- Cares about students
- Understands the social context of schooling
- Questions assumptions
- Knows content
- Identifies Problems or issues
- Collects relevant data
- Constructs a plan of operation
- Uses many instructional strategies
- Practices problem-solving strategies
- Thinks prospectively and retrospectively
- Realizes that reflection is cyclical
- Evaluates the results and process used.

4. Approaches to the use of Reflective Teaching

Reflective practice occurs at all stages of the teaching process, in planning, action (execution) and in evaluation.

Leitch and Day (2000) submitted that the appeal of the use of reflective teaching by teachers is that as teaching and learning is complex, and there is not one right approach, reflecting on different versions of teaching, and reshaping past and current experiences will lead to improvement in teaching. As Larrivee, (2000) argues, Reflective practice moves teachers from their knowledge base of distinct skills to a stage in their careers where they are able to modify their skills to suit specific contexts and situations, and eventually to invent new strategies. In implementing a process of reflective practice teachers will be able to move themselves, and their schools, beyond existing theories in practice (Leitch &Day, 2000).

Some reflective question that teacher can ask himself /colleague about a lesson include:

- What did you set to teach?
- Where you be able to accomplish the set goal?
- What teaching materials did you use? Were they effective?
- What strategy(ies) did you use? Were they effective?
- What kind of interaction occurred?
- Did you have any problem?
- Did you do anything different than usual during the lesson?
- Did you follow your lesson plan or you deviate from it?
- Were your students really challenged?
- What aspect did they like most about the lesson?
- What would you do differently if given a second chance to do that same class?

Before a lesson teacher can also do a self reflection by asking questions like:

- What are my greatest strength and weakness as a teacher?
- What is the biggest problem that am facing in my teaching (e.g. materials, class size, unresponsive student, lack of good communication among fellow teachers)?
- Reflect on a recent lesson, what worked well and why? What did not work well and why?
- Is your class student centered? Do you encourage learner autonomy? How?

5. Benefit of Reflective Teaching

The following are the advantages to be derived from using reflective teaching in classroom:

- It develops the quality of teaching through continuous improvements.

- It gives educators new opportunities to reflect on and assess their teaching.
- It enables teachers to explore and test new ideas, methods, approaches, and materials.
- It provides opportunity to assess how effective the new approaches were.
- Teachers share feedback with fellow team members.
- They make decisions about which new approaches to include in the school's curriculum, instruction, and assessment plans.
- It significantly increases student motivation for learning
- It recognises individual progress
- It enhance and develop forms of collaborative learning
- It increase learner independence
- It enhance confidence Donald, (1985)

6. Conclusion

The paper has established that the Reflective teaching is effective at enhancing quality assurance in teaching and learning process. Building it into daily routine is a realistic way. It can be in form of jotting notes on daily lesson plan, keeping a teacher's journal or scheduling a weekly review over drinks with colleague, mentoring by senior colleagues. Consistent reflection will bring to light issues that need attention and provide opportunity for brainstorming with colleague for possible solution. It also bridges the gap between the micro and macro dimensions of teaching. Its use in teaching is a must and it is a necessary tool for effective and efficient science teaching in Nigeria. It is hoped that the experience shared in this paper will stimulate thoughts about the value of reflection on the STM teachers.

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Qualitative Methodology in Education: A Multi-Case Study Focused on the Formative Mediation Area in Portugal and in France

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Abstract

Formative Mediation has arisen as a new and complex area in the field of Education and is questioning the traditional conceptions of curriculum, pedagogical relationship, conflict, citizenship and autonomy. The study we have developed is related to the emerging perspectives that are associated with the field of Education and Training of Adults, where we sought to understand what are the pedagogical dynamics, the professional profiles and the practices correlated with Formative Mediation in Courses of Adult Education and Training (AET Courses) and in the process of Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences (RVCC) developed in Portugal and in the Validation des Acquis de l'Expérience (VAE) undertaken in France. To accomplish this investigation, we used a predominantly qualitative and emerging design, where inductive analysis prevailed throughout the investigative process. In this sense, we carried out a multi-case study (three cases in Portugal and three cases in France) with nine participants in the investigation: two ETA Mediators, a Diagnosis and Referral Specialist (DRS), three Recognition and Validation of Competences Professionals (RVCPs) and three Professionals working in the VAE process. Autobiographical narratives, participant observations and semi-directive interviews were the techniques used and the data obtained was processed using the emerging and inductive categorisation. In this text, we intend to present the steps and processes used in the data analysis, characterise them and discuss some of the results achieved, while seeking to reflect on the advantages and potentialities of the use of qualitative research methods in the Educational field.

1. Introduction

Mediation is a concept that has expanded in recent decades and has increasingly gained some autonomy in terms of its discourses and practices, although there are still some difficulties in its definition, due to the different areas and professionals working in this field.

The professionalization and the institutionalisation of Mediation have received particular attention in recent years, both in terms of theoretical debates and in the research field, which has already revealed positive evidence, in particular, with the approval of professional regulations and certification courses, especially in the area of Family Mediation and Postgraduate Courses - both in the legal and extra-judicial areas, such as in the social and educational domains. Nevertheless, there are still quite a few gaps, particularly in terms of labour legislation and professional/social recognition, so we should invest in its sustained professionalization, i.e. we should conceive Mediation as an independent profession (Freire, 2010; Neves, 2010), which is not "subdued" to the prescribed tasks and even the real ones of other professionals (Bonafé-Schmitt, 2010).

Our research, entitled "Figures of Mediation in Adult Education: A multi-case study, from the experience in Portugal and France", relates to the specific area of Educational Mediation and more specifically that of Formative Mediation in the field of Adult Training. Even so, in this area there is a wide variety of practices and levels of intervention, so it becomes difficult to define the profile of the mediator and his/her type of intervention, training and identity (Silva and Moreira, 2009; Silva, Caetano, Freire, Moreira and Freire, 2010).

In this context, the purpose of our study was to know, understand and analyse the profiles, practices and

meanings attributed by the professionals participating in the investigation¹ under the Mediation arising from their fields of action and the processes of Education and Training of Adults (ETA) in Portugal and France.

To meet this purpose, we outlined a set of goals, which are exploratory (descriptive) (Coutinho, 2011, p. 46-47), because we have a problem, where there are not many studies, which implies the need to identify and/or describe characteristics not yet known, to verify the regularity of social phenomena and to select problems or areas that might be the target of interest for the scientific field.

2. General Objectives

- To contribute to study and research in the field of Mediation and specifically that of the Formative Mediation in contexts related to the Education and Training of Adults;
- To analyse the real and prescribed practices of the professionals related to the field of Mediation (Formative Mediation) in contexts related to the Education and Training of Adults; and
- To reflect on the profile of the Mediation actors in contexts related to the Education and Training of Adults.

3. Specific Objectives

- To know the practices of the ETA Mediators, the Diagnosis and Referral Specialists, the Recognition and Validation of Competences Professionals and the professionals working in VAE;
- To compare the roles and the professional profiles of the ETA Mediators, the Diagnosis and Referral Specialists, the Recognition and Validation of Competences Professionals and the professionals working in VAE;
- To frame the practices of the ETA Mediators, the Diagnosis and Referral Specialists, the Recognition and Validation of Competences Professionals and the professionals working in VAE in the field of Formative Mediation;
- To identify the difficulties of the ETA Mediators, the Diagnosis and Referral Specialists, the Recognition and Validation of Competences Professionals and the professionals working in VAE in the field of the Mediation processes, as framed in the exercise of their official duties;
- To understand the meanings attributed by those professionals to their work in the field of Formative Mediation; and
- To analyse the curricular dynamics of the processes of the Education and Training of Adults within the existing curriculum theories.

In this article, we will present the methodological options that allowed us to meet these goals i.e. what methods and techniques for collecting, analysing and processing of data were underpinning all the work undertaken in relation to the Multi-case Study that was at the centre of all the investigative process.

4. Design and Paradigms of the Investigation

The design of our research was developed in an emergent dynamic (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Patton, 1990; Strauss and Corbin, 2008; Charmaz, 2009) and it was open and flexible, i.e. it was a process built during the study, marked by advances and retreats, settings, adjustments and restructuring, using a logic of progressive discovery and according to an inductive rationality (see Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Demazière and Dubar, 1997; Maroy, 2005, Strauss and Corbin, 2008; Charmaz, 2009).

This was a descriptive and exploratory research (De Ketele and Roegiers, 1999). Descriptive, since it aimed to describe, analyse and interpret/reflect on practices, behaviours, professional profiles and perspectives of actions of the professionals working in Formative Mediation, which might lead to further investigations. Exploratory, given its heuristic nature involving observation, discovery, interpretation and reflection, which allowed us to infer conclusions that could be taken as hypotheses to be verified (or not) through new, deductive, studies and with a high degree of generalisation, which were not aspects taken into consideration in this investigation.

With this study, while bearing in mind the pursuit of theoretical saturation, it was not possible to achieve this given

¹ Mediators of Courses of Education and Training of Adults (ETA Mediators), Diagnosis and Referral Specialists (DRS), Recognition and Validation of Competences Professionals (RVCPs), in Portugal and professionals that work in the Validation des Acquis de l'Expérience (VAE) in France.

the complexity of the processes involved and their different interlocutors, as well as for reasons of limited time and financial resources. However, it was possible to work the comparison of cases, the pattern discovery and the construction of theoretical contributions to the field by means of an understanding of relational, social and professional dynamics with an educational and sociological focus.

Our research has its foundations in the qualitative, constructivist, interpretive and comprehensive paradigm and in the assumptions of phenomenology, symbolic interactionism and ethno-methodology (Kirk and Miller, 1986; Bogdan and Biklen, 1994; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Lessard-Hébert et al., 2005; Coutinho, 2011). In this sense, our research focused on the interpretation of the meanings attributed by the social actors to the phenomena by seeking to describe, explore and explain processes and meanings (Bogdan and Biklen, 1994; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Haguette, 1995). Table 1 summarises the qualitative research characteristics that we favoured.

Table 1. Characteristics of the Qualitative Investigation

Item/Dimension	Characteristics
Naturalistic	Puts the emphasis on the natural environments in which the action of the social actors takes place.
Descriptive	The description and the interpretation of contexts and situations that are the basis of the qualitative research by seeking to "create" a theory.
Procedural	Focuses on social processes and on the interactions and meanings attributed to them.
Inductive	Goes from the particular to the general in order to make inferences to generate hypotheses or theories.
Critique/Constructivist	Relies on a comparison between the perspectives of the researcher and the subjects to find the most consensual vision by critical confrontation.
Holistic	Seeks to analyse the subjects and the phenomena, as a whole, in order to understand the various meanings and to build multiple realities.
Role of the Researcher	There is a closeness between the researcher and the social actors, assuming a sharing of the experiences and opinions. The investigator is considered an instrument of the investigation itself, as the construction of reality is associated with its references and conceptual frameworks, which depends on his/her posture and on the way he/she conducts the investigative process.
Valorisation of Subjectivity	This is concerned with the meanings that from the experiences that social actors attach to reality. Social behaviour has an inherent subjective part.
Design of the Investigation	The design of the research is ongoing, procedural and emergent (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper and Allen, 1993).
Collection and Analysis of Data	Relies on unstructured techniques of collection and analysis of data in order to collect as much information as possible. It is an interactive process of shuttling between collection and reflection and the analysis of data is itself descriptive and interpretive.

Source: Adapted from Bogdan and Biklen (1994)

Our choice for the investigation of a qualitative nature - beyond academic reasons and personal preferences - was also related to criteria of socio-professional relevance (Lessard-Hébert et al., 2005, p. 86-90), as we sought to understand the practices, to reflect on professional profiles and to comprehend the work of Mediation in ETA contexts, so that our considerations and interpretations could have practical utility in educational and socio-professional terms.

In summary, the interpretative, phenomenological, hermeneutic, constructivist and ethno-methodological assumptions were our basis for action in terms of collecting and analysing data, as well as on the construction of the design of the entire research project.

5. Method and techniques of data collection

According to Lessard-Hébert et al. (2005, p. 167), "qualitative methodologies emphasize two modes of investigation: the case study and comparison, or *multicase study*" - the latter being the one we used to develop this work i.e. a Multi-case Study comparing the Portuguese and French realities concerning the Mediation actors in the Education and Training of Adults (ETA Courses, process of Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences in Portugal and VAE process of France).

There are several authors, who seek to define the case study method by explaining it as a method to understand practices and to study a phenomenon in depth in the natural context in which it occurs and from a holistic perspective (Lüdke and André, 1986; Lessard-Hébert et al., 2005; Sousa, 2009; Stake, 2009; Yin, 2010; Coutinho, 2011).

Despite being a Multi-case Study, each case refers to a specific process, so we worked with several simple cases, which we sought to compare in terms of profiles and professional practices. In Multi-case Studies each case is seen as unique, singular and must be analysed in detail, so that later it can be cross referenced with other cases (Patton, 1990; Stake, 1994; Tuckman, 2000).

Our choice for the Multi-case Study was related largely with the purpose to describe and to interpret, broadly, richly and as deeply as possible, the phenomena that were the object of study.

The Multi-case Study, which is focused on creating grounded theories (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Bogdan and Biklen, 1994; Strauss and Corbin, 2008; Charmaz, 2009), aims to "discover convergences between multiple cases" (Lessard-Hébert et al. 2005, p. 170). In this regard it is pertinent to define, although in very general terms, what data to collect, what and how to observe the data and about what and how to ask. Thus, despite not having a rigid research design, we developed some semi-structured instruments that allowed us to keep focussed on the important phenomena for the object of study.

We selected representative or typical cases, where "the goal is to capture the circumstances and conditions of an everyday situation or a commonplace" (Yin, 2010, p. 72) According to the definition of Stake (1994, 2009), our Multi-case Study is instrumental, because it is not the cases in which we are interested but the phenomena that are inherent to them and that constitute our object of study about which we wanted to get more knowledge. Thus, the cases were not selected by the locality itself but because they had characteristics that were going to meet our problem and what we wanted to analyse, understand and interpret in order to refine the theory.

At the same time, we considered that it is a collective case study (Stake, 1994, 2009), as the cases have been chosen, because we believed that their study would allow a better understanding of the phenomena in question, as well as to enable a more robust and grounded theory by comparison.

Because of the limits underlying the period of the research, we chose "easy access cases" (Stake, 2009, p. 20) but we believed they would prove to be "opportunities to learn" (Stake, 1994, p. 243).

We sought the maximum variation (Merriam, 1998) using a New Opportunities Centre, an Association for Local Development and a Vocational School in Portugal and an University, an Academic Centre for the Validation of Acquired Learning and a Resource Centre for the Validation of Acquired Learning in France. The Academic Centre and Resource Centre were selected during the collection of data and the others before the beginning of the data collection.

By choosing the Multi-case Study, we identified as its main advantage the possibility of using various research techniques in order to study and to understand in phenomenological terms the interactions that developed in the specific contexts of the object of study and the practices of the professionals participating in the investigation.

In a Multi-case Study, "an essential tactic is to use multiple sources of evidence, so that the data converge in a triangular mode" (Yin, 2010, p. 22), so there were several techniques used in gathering information.

Table 2 shows, albeit synthetically, how the techniques that we chose were used:

Table 2. Synthesis of the techniques used in the Investigation

Research Techniques	Objectives and ways of use
Document Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - We researched studies on this issue; - Reading of reference works (primary and secondary sources); - Longitudinal character; - Complementarities with other procedures; - Support for evidence of data: dialectic empiricism – theory – empiricism.
Written Narratives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Complementarities with Participant Observation and the Semi-directive Interviews for data cross-referencing; - Objectives were taken from clues dropped in direct speech in order to understand (Bogdan and Biklen, 1994; Couto, 1998) the experiences of the professionals in terms of academic and professional contextualisation and to know the meaning assigned to the work, their functions, their motivations and difficulties and, ultimately, the mimetic character of the experiences (Flick, 2005).
Participant Observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Semi-structured, non-systematic (De Ketele and Roegiers, 1999; Sousa, 2009; Vilelas, 2009) using predefined locations and dates but not the existence of rigid grids - only threads to guide advisors about what to watch for, because all the behaviours and interactions were relevant ;

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Descriptive and Narrative (Evertson and Green, 1986), direct (Bogdan and Bikle, 1994) and artificial participant (Vilelas, 2009); - Objectives were to contextualise the pedagogical practices developed, the forms of interpersonal relationship, the profile of intervention, the verbal and non-verbal behaviours, i.e. the attitudes and practices of the professionals for comparison with written records for in-depth understanding and not in order to make generalisations; - Notes were transcribed soon after the sessions in order to perform a first reflection, thus seeking to ensure the validity and fidelity, checking accuracy, impartiality and objectivity within the inter-subjectivity; - Limitations: (1) many events occurred at the same time, which made it difficult to record everything that happened in detail; (2) an inability to carry out observation in France, which conditioned the comparative aspects at this level (word vs. practice; Portugal vs. France); - The duration was from March 2010 to April 2012.
Semi-directive Interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Semi-directive: Scripts were used as a guide but with some flexibility about the introduction of other issues relevant to the object of study; - Objectives: (1) to perceive and to understand the feelings, opinions and representations of the professionals; (2) to know the discourses on practices, experiences, ways of thinking, values; (3) to confront words with practices observed; - Selection of Interviewees: They came from the functions exercised in the participating bodies according to their availability and accessibility. In France, one of the interviews was not conducted, due to the lack of availability of the interviewee, despite several attempts being made; - Advantages: It was possible to analyse with relative depth the meaning given by the social actors to the experiences, practices and events of their daily lives, which enabled the creation of empathy and bonds of trust with the interlocutors and the triangulation with data from Written Narratives and Participant Observation.
Informal Conversations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Objectives: These were to listen to opinions, to perceive senses, meanings, representations and needs for comparison with other data; - Timing: This was flexible and spontaneous and it occurred at the beginning or end of the sessions or at any suitable intervals; - Allowed to establish empathy, trust and exploit additional information.
Logbook	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Notes on objective facts and subjective perceptions in relation to the professionals and the observed phenomena; - Description and reflection about the investigative path: anxieties, hesitations, expectations, fears, motivations, self-observation and self-knowledge (van Manen, 1990; Ramos and Gonçalves, 1996; Moreira, 2005); - The "Open book" was brought to life in the data analysis, thus providing clues to look beyond the obvious and manifest.
Questionnaire Surveys	<p>Professionals on ETA Courses</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do not involve generalisations (that are not representative of samples) but a complementary nature in relation to the Multi-case Study; - Statistical Treatment (SPSS versions 18.0 and 20.0 - Descriptive statistics: frequency and reliability analysis) and emergent content analysis on open questions; - Questions arranged in groups of subjects; closed, semi-open and open; nominal, ordinal, sorting and non-comparative scales (Likert Scale).
	<p>Trainees on ETA Courses</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Objectives: to compare information about the perspective of the trainees in relation to the image, posture and work of the ETA Mediators, as well as the existence of conflicts, which provided data that we compared with the oral and written discourses of the professionals (ETA Mediators); - Pre-test: two ETA Courses - no change had to be done; - Direct (<i>in loco</i>) application.

As shown in Table 2, we used several techniques for data collection, which resulted from a process of reflection about the nature of the study itself, its objectives and the information to be collected (Quivy and Campenhoudt, 2003), since "the methodological tools cannot be chosen independently of the theoretical references of the research" (Ruquoy, 2005, p. 86). Thus, the techniques selected were adapted to the object of study and to the type of information that we wanted to collect (Ruquoy, 2005, p. 86).

Therefore, we chose these techniques, because we considered that they would allow us to better meet the objectives of the investigation, that the information would be more relevant and that the respondents would respond better to the questions, because they allowed for the collection of more detailed or deeper information and because they

allowed direct contact with the actors and their respective contexts of action.

6. Data Analysis

Grounded Theory was another methodological approach in which we focused our study given its inductive and emergent character, whose theoretical contributions came from the information of the analysis and processing of data.

Grounded theory is often used to make comparisons between cases, which happened in this work and, accordingly, Lessard-Hébert et al (2005, p. 167) point out that - in qualitative terms - researchers are concerned "to describe and understand particular cases (...) to, then, formulate more general theories from the comparison of several cases" i.e. they are worried about the so-called grounded theory.

As mentioned above, it assumes an inductive nature and involves the extraction of meaning from the data in order to contribute to theory building i.e. it emerges from the data and is substantive, thus, having practical utility (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Merriam 1998; Flick, 2005; Maroy, 2005; Strauss and Corbin, 2008; Charmaz, 2009).

In fact our work was constantly shuttling between data and the theoretical referential, while being mediated by reflection and questioning about new information, since concepts that we could not foresee emerged during an investigation, (Glaser and Strauss 1967, 46) i.e. it involved a close relationship "between the collection and the interpretation of data" (Flick, 2005, p. 44) on the one hand, while on the other the very selection of the empirical material allowed us to realise the extent to which the strategies, methods, categories and theories were adequate to the object of study.

In this sense, we tried, throughout the investigative process "to be open to what happens in the studied scenes and in the interview statements, so that we can [could] learn about the lives of the participants in the research" (Charmaz, 2009, p. 15) and, thereafter, we analysed experiences, discourses and our own intuitions to create concepts.

The collected data i.e. the words of the participants were, therefore, examined in order to study the content of the messages and to check the meanings implicit and explicit in the information from which we sought to build knowledge (Quivy and Campenhoudt, 2003).

Thus, the dialectic between data and theory was constant throughout the investigative path (Lüdke and André, 1986, p. 45) and "the methods and analysis procedures were multiple" (Maroy, 2005, p. 117).

The initial categories were developed from reading and re-reading the material, which allowed dividing them into parts, by topic, subject, problematic issue, etc (Lüdke and André, 1986). Nevertheless, those categories were not regarded as watertight compartments but we related them with each other and with the sub-categories that emerged from them and which corresponded to their properties (Glaser and Strauss 1967, Strauss and Corbin, 2008; Charmaz, 2009). Moreover, these initial categories were re-calculated and sub-divided or grouped into broader concepts, thus creating in the latter case the isotopy (Hiernaux, 2005).

In summary, we have based our analysis and processing of data on an emerging and inductive categorisation (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Bogdan and Biklen 1994; Maroy, 2005; Strauss and Corbin 2008; Charmaz, 2009) but we did not reject the existence of previous questions, concepts and objectives of the research (Maroy, 2005). However, they were not local theories but questions and initial objectives and the process of data analysis was inductive, because we did not define a grid of analysis previous to the collection of data.

Therefore, we looked for the system that best suited our problems, issues and objectives of the research. That way other researchers could define other categories according to their representations, which could also happen to us at a later stage, because "you can look again at the data, having completed more research projects, and encode them differently", as Bogdan and Biklen (1994, p. 233) point out.

7. Validity, Reliability and Ethics of the Investigation

The validity and reliability were ethical concerns for us during the investigation, so we tried to maintain an objective stance (despite the familiarity with the topic and the subjectivity inherent in the methodology used), which was a non-judgmental and non-intrusive posture and proceeded triangulation.

Our study focuses more on a perspective of internal validity rather than an external one, because there are not many investigations in the area, although the follow-up and comparison with other investigators have been maintained throughout the research process to ensure the external validation.

Our triangulation involved three aspects: triangulation of sources, triangulation of data and triangulation of techniques. So there was triangulation of cases with each other and their respective information and triangulation of data

resulting from the application of the different techniques, which in turn were used in a direction of complementarity. The validity and reliability should, therefore, be considered and reflected on in relation to the paradigm in which the research takes place, the references that shape it and the objectives it seeks to achieve and these, along with the ethical issues, will define the quality of research.

Ethically, we tried to adopt by certain principles: respect for persons, informed consent, authenticity, confidentiality and anonymity, to have skills to develop the research, to protect participants against potential risks/damages, to maximise the positive results of the research and to promote justice and equity (Bogdan and Biklen, 1994; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Lessard-Hébert et al., 2005; Lima, 2006).

The research involves institutional responsibility to participants, colleagues, researchers and to society in general, hence the need to be guided by these assumptions.

In conclusion, "the important [thing] is that researchers act in a self-reflexive way and that they continuously revise their own values" (Lima, 2006, p. 156) and also that they share experiences, because the continued sharing of experiences and results is a way to verify and sustain the research (Lima, 2006, p. 156).

8. Final Considerations

The qualitative methodology involves a process of interpretation, where the objective is "to discover concepts and relationships in raw data and (...) organize these concepts and relationships in a theoretical explanatory scheme" (Strauss and Corbin, 2008, p. 24), presenting, according to Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 10), the following, as the main advantages: i) focussing on events that occur in their natural environment allows us to realise the "real life" situation; ii) it enables the understanding of latent information and, therefore, less obvious data; iii) it allows us to remain in the "field" for a long period of time, which facilitates the study of the processes; iv) it facilitates the perception of the meanings that the social actors attach to the events, processes, phenomena and structures that characterise their daily life.

In this sense, it appears that, when we fit into the educational domain, these advantages must be considered, especially, when the goals of the research involve the deep understanding of one or more educational phenomena, as in a case study or in a multi-case study, such as ours.

Our position does not preclude quantitative or mixed methodologies. They also have their advantages, as they are fundamental in certain types of studies, even in the educational field. Moreover, in our specific case we consider that the use of interpretation, comprehensiveness and direct access to social actors and phenomena, which the qualitative methodology allowed, in fact, demonstrated the potential of our work, thereby justifying our choice of this paradigm, which best suited our purposes from our point of view.

In conclusion, the most important things in an investigation are its appropriateness and consistency across all phases including the methodological options, which must constitute themselves as the guiding thread of the study in order to allow consistency between what is intended to achieve, what is realistic to achieve and, finally, what we can actually achieve.

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Building up Reflective Communities through Exploring the Perception of Adult Educators' in Actual Practise

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Abstract

This research paper intends to unravel the perception of adult educators on reflective practice; whether there is a disparity between belief and actual practice, and factors that affect their involvement in reflective practice. The purpose of the present study is three-pronged: (1) to have a better understanding of the various viewpoints on reflective practice held by adult educators; (2) to enhance my research competence through reflecting upon research practice; and (3) to foster reflective practice through forming a collaborative research community. This research paper is basically divided into three parts. The first part (Chapter 2) provides a review of the conceptual framework of reflective practice through a critical examination of the divergent viewpoints raised by various researchers and practitioners. Although it is hard to bring together the divergent viewpoints into a coherent framework, the review attempts to set the theoretical orientation to the research study. The second part (Chapter 3) is on the research study. Four research questions have been set to guide the research study. This chapter will discuss the instrument used for data collection and synthesis the findings of the research study. The third part (Chapter 4) is a summary of the insights that the researcher gained from the research study as a reflective practitioner. This chapter also highlights the merits of a collaborative research community.

Keywords: Reflective practise; collaborative research; and adult education.

1. Introduction

This research paper intends to unravel the perception of adult educators on reflective practice; whether there is a disparity between belief and actual practice, and factors that affect their involvement in reflective practice. The purpose of the present study is three-pronged: (1) to have a better understanding of the various viewpoints on reflective practice held by adult educators; (2) to enhance my research competence through reflecting upon research practice; and (3) to foster reflective practice through forming a collaborative research community.

2. The Inception of Reflective Practice in Continuing Professional Development of Teachers

In the early 1970s Argyris and Schon (1974) developed the notion of single loop and double loop learning, and emphasised the need to move from the former, in which pedagogic efforts remain at the private level, to the latter, in which thinking and practice are raised to an explicit, publicly accessible level, so as to empower growth. Since then, the nature and practice of reflection has been the subject of discussion and research, particularly by those researcher-practitioners engaged in the action research movement (Day, 1993).

Since the early 1980s there has been a great deal of discussion about educating reflective practitioners particularly in professions such as teaching, nursing and social work where field experience and academic course work need to be closely integrated (Schon 1987; Zeichner and Liston 1987; Korthagen 1988; Clift, Houston and Prignach 1990; Smith and Hatton 1993; Palmers, Burns and Bulman 1994, cited in Gould and Taylor, 1996). Such discussion has pointed out the importance of focusing on the artistry of practice and, within courses, of creating opportunities for students to engage in activities which promote reflective practice (Boud and Knights, 1996).

The concept of reflection is not a novelty in education, but the terms 'reflection' and 'reflective practice', according to Cole (1997), have gained their popularity only in the last two decades. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, in response to the movement to reconceptualise teacher knowledge and the call for the professionalisation of teaching and teacher education (Korthagen, 1993), the teacher education community started to address the notions of reflection through the works of a great number of scholars. Since then the concept has been explored in greater depth and translated into diverse theoretical frameworks, which gradually develop into a guiding principle for teacher education.

2.1 *Why Reflection/Reflective Practice*

2.1.1 *As a means for professional development*

McLaughlin (1993) maintains that capacity for reflection, feedback, and problem solving were of central importance to communities of professionals endeavouring to respond effectively to today's students, and classroom challenges beyond the capacity of an individual teacher result in collective reflection and development. He puts it:

'Effective responses to the challenges of contemporary classrooms require a spirited, reflective professional community of teachers – a workplace setting that allows examination of assumptions about practice, focuses collective expertise on solutions based on classroom realities, and support efforts to change and grow professionally.' (McLaughlin 1993: 98)

2.1.2 *As a bridge between theory and practice*

The existing experience of practitioners is an important source of knowledge, and the ability to reflect on and share experience is a powerful form of learning. It is maintained that the use of reflective practice both assists in the integration of theory with practice and enables practitioners to improve their skills of clinical reasoning (Williams 1998). In fact it is argued that professionals can be assisted to formulating theories from their practice at different levels of reflection (Griffiths & Tann 1992).

Williams (1998) notes that professionals need to retain critical control over the more intuitive aspects of their practice by regular reflection, self-evaluation and the opportunity to learn from colleagues. By these means, practice does not remain at a standstill, but is open to challenge and review. Therefore, in creating a learning environment in which reflective practice is encouraged, the gap between theory and practice can be explored and new theories developed.

2.1.3 *As an aim of education*

Van Manen (1995) stresses that teaching is not only governed by principles of effectiveness, but also by special normative, ethical, or affective considerations. As such, reflective thinking is important not only as a tool for teaching, but also as an aim of education, said Dewey (1964: 211), since "it enables us to know what we are about when we act. It converts action that is merely appetitive, blind, and impulsive into intelligent action".

2.1.4 *As an integral part of professional practice*

The concept of the teacher as a reflective practitioner is, in part, a response to the sense that a technical theory-into-practice epistemology does not seem sensitive to the realisation that teacher knowledge must play an active and dynamic role in the ever-changing challenges of the school and classroom maintains that capacity. Fox presses a similar view as that of Van Manen (1995). He maintains that classroom teaching roles and the intellectual and emotional demands placed upon teachers will become more complex as the expectations of society and the needs of learners change. Engaging routinely in reflection upon thinking and practice is, therefore, a necessity in order to sustain professional health and competence. Day (1999b: 1) further notes that "it is generally agreed that reflection in, on and about practice is essential to building, maintaining and further developing the capacities of teachers to think and act professionally over the span of their careers."

Likewise, Carr and Kemmis argue that,

"... the ideas that guide action are just as subject to change as the action itself. Therefore, only through a fundamental shift in our beliefs, values and feeling about teaching and learning, will we be effective in bringing about significant change in our practice. Creating a culture of critical reflection enhances our educative potential, and provides practitioners with opportunities to deconstruct conventional ... practices."
Carr and Kemmis (1986: 33)

2.2 *The Underpinning Conceptual Basis of Reflection / Reflective Practice / Reflective Practitioners / Reflective Process*

2.2.1 *Definitions of Reflection/Reflective Practice/Reflective Practitioner*

After sifting through the mound of existing literature on reflection/reflective practice/reflective practitioner, I found that the literature contained quite different interpretations to the concepts. In my view, it is largely due to the evolving theoretical and practical possibilities associated with the notions that have been engendered over the years.

Within the context of recent research on teacher thinking and practice much attention has been focused on the concept of reflection. Reflection as a term is used in a number of different ways by different authors. The concept of reflection is challenging and may refer to a complex array of cognitively and philosophically distinct methods and attitudes (van Manen, 1995). A number of definitions have been contributed by various researchers and practitioners, and they are highlighted as follows:

2.2.1.1 *On 'reflection'*

Reflection can be used as a generic term for those intellectual and affective activities in which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to new understandings and appreciations (Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985). A more sophisticated definition of the notion is offered by Eraut:

"... a process in which practitioners think about their experiences after the event in order to consider what had happened and why, and whether something different might have helped. The reflective process does not attempt to deroutinise, to make everything rational or to challenge every assumption; but it does enable [a practitioner] to work at their practice, modify it and keep it under critical control. At a more sophisticated level it shades into some kind of action research." (Eraut, 1989: 175)

2.2.1.2 *On 'reflective practice'*

"Reflective practice is a particularly intimate mode of research aimed at improving practice through systematic critical enquiry. The use of the term 'critical' implies review leading to a better understanding of practice and offering potential emancipation from existing traditions or established patterns of practice." (Carr and Kemmis 1986)

"In the real world reflective practice should be seen as a process whereby problems are identified and situations ameliorated through a process of pragmatic reformulation." (Golby & Appleby, 1995: 158)

2.2.1.3 *On 'reflective practitioners'*

Reflective practitioners are those who are able to investigate their teaching and to think critically about their work (Doyle 1990). Fenstermacher (1986) states that being able to establish reasons for one's action and to act in accordance with one's reasons is essential to autonomous professional teaching. Thus, the essence of reflection is the interaction of experiences with analysis of beliefs about those experiences (Newell 1996).

Copeland et al (1991) promote reflective practice as a 'process of solving problems and reconstructing meaning', and they develop four assumptions underpinning their operational definitions of reflective teachers. They are as follows:

1. Engaging in reflective practice involves a process of solving problems and reconstructing meaning;
2. Reflective practice in teaching is manifested as a stance towards inquiry;
3. The demonstration of reflective practice is seen to exist along a continuum or 'reflective spectrum'; and
4. Reflective practice occurs within a social context.

Although there are many different conceptualisations of reflection and reflective teaching, most of them seem to share the underlying assumption that teachers should use logical, rational, step-by-step analyses of their own teaching and the contexts in which that teaching takes place. Language, whether spoken or written, plays a central role in these analyses (Korthagen (1993).

2.2.2 *The Essence of Reflective Practice*

Ghaye and Ghaye (1999) bring forward ten principles that convey the essence of reflective practice as follows:

1. needs to be understood as a discourse;

2. reflective practice is fuelled and energised by experience;
3. is a process that involves a reflective turn;
4. is concerned with learning how to account for ourselves;
5. should be understood as a disposition to inquiry; and
6. is interest-serving, when we reflect we are engaging in a process of knowledge creation;
7. is enacted by those who are critical thinkers;
8. is a way of decoding a symbolic landscape;
9. sits at the interface between notions of practice and theory; and
10. is a postmodernist way of knowing.

They go on to say that becoming a teacher and continuing our professional development thereafter is a challenging and complex business. Central to this process is our ability to reflect constructively and critically on our teaching intentions, the ends we have in mind and the means we might use to achieve them. At the heart of this process is the reflective conversation, a medium through which we are able to learn from our teaching experiences and question the educational values that give a shape, form and purpose to our practice.

2.2.3 *Reflection Process*

Boud, Knights and Walker (1985) developed a three-stage model of the reflection process: returning to the experience, attending to feelings connected with the experience and re-evaluating the experience through recognizing implications and outcomes. This model is subsequently been extended into a model for facilitating learning from experience (Boud and Walker 1990; Boud 1993). The essence of this model is that learning from experience can be enhanced through both reflection-in-action, that is reflection which occurs in the midst of experience, and through reflection-on-action, that is reflection after an event. The model illustrates that reflection is grounded in the personal foundation of experience of the learner. Learning occurs through the interaction of the person with his or her learning context and is assisted through the learner his/herself giving attention to observing what is happening in themselves and in their external environment, intervening in various ways to influence themselves and the context in which they are operating and reflecting-in-action continually to modify their observation and interventions.

2.3 *Taxonomies of Reflective Practice*

During the last twenty years there has been a growing body of literature and practices which, has sought to identify different levels of reflection for the maximising of teacher growth (Day, 1993). As reflective practice denotes a wide spectrum of somewhat differing orientations and procedures, researchers and practitioners hold different conceptions of the taxonomy of the notion, depending on their own theoretical assumptions and practical applications. Some scholars assert that reflective practice develops in a sequential manner, and the different forms of reflection are thus the different levels in a hierarchy. However, some scholars argue that the different forms of reflection are only the different orientations to reflective practice; they are in fact complementary to one another, and should therefore not be placed in an order of priority or importance. In the following sections I will bring together the various viewpoints, in an attempt to understand the main line of thought of the two polarized approaches.

2.3.1 *The 'hierarchy' approach*

Handal (1990), in his *Practical Theory*, splits the concept of reflective practice into three hierarchical levels, namely, actions (P1); practical and theoretical reasons (P2); and ethical justification (P3). He speculates that given the 'busyness' culture of schools, in most situations teachers spend most of their time planning and acting (constructing practice) at the P1 level, and less on observation and reflection (deconstructing practice) at levels P2 and P3. He concludes that studying critically one's own practice is not yet established.

Hatton and Smith (1995) propose a framework to illustrate the nature of reflection, which indicates a perceived developmental sequence. It recognises that an ideal end-point for fostering reflective approaches is the eventual development of a capacity to undertake reflection-in-action, the most demanding type of reflecting upon one's own practice. The start point is technical rationality, which then moves onto reflection-on-action. They then argue that there are five distinctive forms of reflection, namely, technical, descriptive, dialogic, critical and contextualisation of multiple viewpoints.

2.3.2 *The 'non-hierarchy' approach*

Schon (1987) distinguishes between two types of reflection: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. It is maintained that reflection-in-action occurs whilst practising, and influences the decisions made and the action taken. Eraut (1994) maintains that due to time factor, reflection-in-action is best seen as a 'metacognitive process' in which there is rapid interpretation of information and decision making in the midst of action. Whereas, reflection-on-action takes place after the event, and although there may still be pressures of time, the interface between thought and action is displaced so there is more scope for trial and experiment.

Eraut, in a critique of Schon's (1983) model of reflective practice, concludes that, "There is insufficient discrimination between the rather different forms of reflection depicted in his many examples; and this over-generalisation causes confusion and weakens his theoretical interpretations (Eraut, 1994: 145)." He further argues that the concept of 'reflection-in-action' is itself now due for reframing (Eraut, 1995).

Based on specific social science paradigms, and fundamental beliefs and values about education, Wellington (1996) puts forward five orientations to reflective practice: the immediate which focuses on the immediate demands and pleasant survival; the technical which focuses on instructional methodologies for maximum efficiency and effectiveness; the deliberative which emphasises personal meaning in an educational context; the dialectic which advocates political liberation; and the transpersonal which centres on universal personal liberation. He stresses that these five orientations are interactive and interdependent, rather than competing views of what is practical, and each orientation contributes to the fully developed educator. Practitioners need to recognise their current level of proficiency and their capacity for growth within each orientation, then they could as a result use reflection as a way to improve their practice.

After going through the two different approaches, I echo with Day's view (1999b) that it is important that teachers engage in different forms of reflection variously during their career lives in accordance with their individual itineraries of professional development, and no single form of reflection is superior than others and teachers must be engaged in all. The different forms of reflection are, therefore, parts of a continuum, instead of different levels in a hierarchy.

2.4 *Facilitating Conditions/Strategies for Reflective Practice*

The encouragement of reflective practice requires more than debriefing or introducing a new topic into the curriculum; it requires finding appropriate ways to build the notions into the processes of teaching and learning (Boud and Knights 1996).

2.4.1 *Strategies / techniques*

A number of strategies have been identified as facilitative to reflection, for instance, the use of learning journals and learning partners (critical friendship), debriefing activities, critical incident analysis, autobiographical work, the creation of concept maps, action research and various forms of computer-based dialogue (Boud, Keogh and Walker 1985; Zeichner 1986; Holly 1989; Rosenthal 1991). These strategies are generally conceptualised as carrying the function of 'turning experience into learning' (Boud, Keogh and Walker 1985) or providing students with the opportunities to process their experience to generate alternative ways of viewing a situation and achieving new appreciations or understandings. Students are encouraged to return to their own experiences in class and outside and focus on what these events mean to them. (Boud and Knights 1996).

Hatton & Smith (1995) argue that although numerous approaches are claimed to foster reflection, there is little research evidence to clearly show whether they are effective or not. They identify four broad strategies, namely, action research projects, ethnographic and case studies, microteaching and other supervised practicum experiences and structured curriculum tasks. Other more specific techniques include various versions of reading fiction and non-fiction, oral interviews, and writing tasks, such as keeping journals, personal narratives, student metaphors for teaching, or reflective essays drawing on practicum experiences.

They further point out that time is required for reflective capacities to develop, so that essential metacognitive skills can be acquired. It is necessary to adopt a developmental approach in programmes of teacher education. A suitable and relevant knowledge base needs to be identified, one which helps intending teachers first understand then apply concepts of reflection to their own teaching. Student reaction to demands for reflection must be anticipated. Issues relating to the structure and ideology of total programmes need to be addressed, in order that the development of reflection might be encouraged. Assisting teachers to develop reflective skills requires attention.

2.4.2 *Climate / context*

Boud and Knights (1996) notes that it is useful to create an effective climate for reflection hinging upon learners' active engagement in learning. They suggest the following means that are necessary for establishing a productive climate for reflection:

1. Articulating an educational rationale for the process;
2. Introducing a simple exercise to illustrate reflection;
3. Providing an opportunity for students to clarify their understanding of the idea;
4. Introducing a framework or model to aid thinking about elements of reflection;
5. Modelling a reflective approach in one's own presentation of the idea;
6. Identifying areas of the process that students can make their own;
7. Providing time; and
8. Treating reflection as a normal activity.

2.4.3 *Necessary conditions*

To facilitate reflective thinking, Dewey (1964) asserts that besides knowledge of reflective methods, it is also necessary to develop certain qualities or traits of character such as open-mindedness or sincerity, wholehearted or absorbed interests, responsibility, as well as a habit of thinking in a reflective way.

Argyris and Schon (1974) suggest that theoretical ideas about teaching and learning are likely to stimulate, build and sustain reflection and professional conversations by providing a framework for dialogue.

Day (1993) argues that reflection is a necessary but not sufficient condition for professional development; it must be accompanied by confrontation either by self or others, in the form of active, planned and skilled challenge and support, if development is to occur. He also claims that as reflection is essential in the learning life of the teacher, partnerships and coalitions within collaborative cultures are necessary to support opportunities for the different kinds of reflection so as to foster professional learning cultures. He further argues that besides peer partnerships and networks, collaborative partnerships upon principles of equity with academics of higher education for intellectual, affective and practical support will make relationships between reflective practice, change and improvement explicit (Day, 1999 b).

2.5 *Impediments to Reflective Practice*

According to Jersild (1955), teachers in general are reflective practitioners who strive to develop and grow as persons and professionals. However, in day-to-day professional lives, this notion is not always readily apparent or easily realised. What makes true reflection in action difficult is that life in classrooms is contingent, dynamic, and ever-changing: every moment, every second is situation-specific. Moments of teaching are ongoing incidents that require instant actions. Hatton & Smith (1995) also remark that reflection is not generally associated with teacher's work, which is seen to be about immediate and pragmatic action.

There are thousands of publications on the topic of reflection in educational contexts variously exploring characterisations, forms, purposes, and rationales for reflective practice, and offering suggestions for how to engage in reflective practice, when, where, and with whom. However, Cole (1997) observes that there exists a theory-practice rift. She further notes that it seems that, no matter how much attention we have paid to exploring the concept, overall we have not helped teachers be reflective practitioners.

Cole's view is supported by Day. The problems in sustaining reflective practice have been well documented in research on the busyness of school work; the pressures caused by increased bureaucracy due to new forms of accountability; the difficulties of self-confrontation which challenges beliefs and practices that have become valued routines and may lead to possibilities of potentially uncomfortable, temporarily disruptive change processes (Day, 1993). In addition to these, cultures in schools which often discourage disclosure, feedback and collaboration act as potential barriers to participation in all forms of reflective practice (Day, 1999b).

Day (1999b) highlights the following factors as impediments to reflection: (1) little time is available; (2) most teachers' learning is incidental, occurring in the classroom; (3) teachers' learning lives are characterised by fragmentation and discontinuity; (4) direct classroom experience seems to be the principle means for learning; and (5) few schools or individual teachers routinely plan for intervention by others into their natural learning lives for the purpose of peer assisted learning.

2.6 Criticism of Reflection/Reflective Practice

Recent literature emphasising reflective practice spans a broad range of professions, disciplines, methodologies and applications. A lot of claims have been made on the central role that reflection plays in the professional development of teachers. However, I would say most of them are on the intellectual plane only, and basically axiomatic, instead of empirical, by nature. The scene is somewhat murky, according to Day (1993, 1999) as to how reflection may lead to change. He remarks that:

"We do not know very much, for example, about how it is that teachers make decisions based upon reflection or how to judge the quality of the decisions in action, how to ensure that the reflective process really can lead to empowerment." (Day, 1993: 90)

He further notes that,

"Whether most teachers engage in systematic reflection which contributes to their development and capacity to improve the quality of learning opportunities for students remains an open question." (Day, 1999:1)

Similarly, a number of American researchers identify reflection as being an essential part of learning which itself is under-researched. They put it:

"For all the popularity of reflection as an appropriate stance for professional educators, there is little research evidence that relates reflectivity to other conditions in teachers' professional lives. An examination of the literature reveals a general assumption that reflection in professional behaviour is desirable but very little guidance as to how confidently to determine that reflective behaviour exists." (Copeland, et al: 1991)

To conclude, reflection is a more problematic concept than is generally considered and that there is a need for critical debate about the nature of reflection, its role in learning and its inclusion in university courses. The literature on the subject is growing rapidly, but a lot more systematic work is required before we can really be confident that the particular practices currently being adopted are having the influences we desire (Boud and Knights 1996: 32).

3. The Research Study

3.1 Objectives of the Study

Although there is considerable current interest in reflective practice, the subject has thus far been under-researched, according to a number of researcher-practitioners (Copeland et al 1991; Griffiths & Tann 1991; Boud & Knights 1996; Day 1999). The objective of this research study is not to develop knowledge that can be used to theorise or make generalisations for wider applicability, but to contribute to increased understanding of the various viewpoints on reflective practice held by adult educators. According to Elbaz-Luwisch (1997), this search for a knowledge that empowers rather than making possible prediction and control, is a significant reconceptualisation of the purpose of educational research.

Four objectives are set to guide this research study.

1. To investigate adult educators' attitude towards reflective practice;
2. To investigate if there is a disparity between adult educators' attitude and their actual practices;
3. To explore factors that affect adult educators' involvement in reflective practice; and
4. To explore the problems and possibilities.

3.2 Research Questions

My survey sought to elicit adult educators' reaction to the following research questions.

Research Question 1

Do adult educators hold positive attitude towards reflective practice?

Research Question 2

How do adult educators perceive/understand reflective practice?

Research Question 3

Do they practise what they believe?

Research Question 4
What are the problems and possibilities?

3.3 Methodology and Procedure

Due to the relatively short time-scale, I had to keep the study within a practicable limit as far as possible. I adopted qualitative research method for this study, which involved individual and focus group interviews with the target group by stratified purposeful sampling.

The research site was an adult education institution in North Cyprus. Approval was obtained from the management prior to the survey. In order to enable triangulation of data sources (Denzin, 1970), two samples were drawn from the senior administrators; three from the assistant administrators; and four from the teaching personnel. The profile of the interviewees is depicted in Appendix 1.

Both the focus group interviews and individual interviews were semi-structured and guided by a framework based on four core questions (Appendix 2). Individual interviews were conducted to six of the respondents. Four out of the six individual interviews were conducted face to face and two over the telephone so as to accommodate the many different time-scales of the respondents. The telephone interviews were done upon the request of the interviewees for the reason that they could not find time to meet the interviewer. A focus group interview was conducted to three of the respondents. The original idea of conducting a focus group interview was to save time and to obtain a wider range of opinions however, it produced an effect far from its original intended purpose.

In order to make the interviews more fruitful, I conducted a pre-interview survey whereby all the interviewees were asked whether they had knowledge about reflective practice and how they learned about it. Only the two senior administrators indicated that they had come across similar terms, like reflection, reflective thinking, before. Consequently, I requested the respondents to read two articles, namely, 'The Nature of Reflection-on-practice' by Ghayee and Ghayee (1999), and 'Reflection: A necessary but not sufficient conditions for professional development' by Day (1993) so as to give them some idea about the subject prior to the interviews.

At the beginning of the interviews, the respondents were fully briefed of the purpose and value of the research study, the promise of anonymity, and the confidentiality of discussion. Considering the psychological effect of tape-recording on the interviewees (Bell, 1999) during the interviews, I employed the note-taking method for recording their views.

3.4 Analysis

3.4.1 On the understanding of reflective practice and its significance to educators:

According to the pre-interview survey, a great majority of the respondents demonstrated no or little knowledge of reflective practice. One senior administrator recalled that he came across a similar term, 'reflection', when he was at seminary [SA1]. Another senior administrator recalled that he dealt with the topic 'reflective thinking' when he was on his doctoral programme [SA2]. The rest of the respondents indicated that they had never had any systematic inquiry into the subject, but they regarded it as a generic term and a common practice shared by all educators who were serious about their work as well as the development of the profession.

Some respondents claimed that reflection was important to personal as well as professional growth.

"I taught in a secondary school before. Now as an adult educator, I have to be well aware of the difference between pedagogy and andragogy. This could only be achieved through constant reflection on my own practice. It's very important for my personal and professional growth" [T4].

The assistant administrators echoed with the teacher's view on professional development.

"There are different levels of reflection, and each of which could contribute to professional development" [AA1]. "Reflection is necessary for the improvement of practice" [AA2]. "It's a longstanding common practice for professionalism" [AA3].

Two of the teachers used reflection as a tool for evaluation.

"I think we engage in reflection every day and it is an on-going exercise for improved practice. I use it as an evaluation tool for my teaching performance" [T1].

"Reflective practice is necessary for development, and it is particularly useful for self-evaluation" [T2].

Besides as a means for evaluation, two teachers expressed that reflection should be related to research.

"In my opinion, reflective practice is not just arm-chair meditation; it should be related to action research. It is a systematic, structured, scientific activity hinging upon a strategy and with a well-defined purpose" [T2].

"Reflection is a mirror. Its images develop from other people's comments, both students and colleagues. It could further develop by using research as a means for solving the practical problems in the workplace" [T3].

The senior administrators regarded reflective practice as an important means to manage change and re-orient practice. One of them revealed that reflective practice could challenge routine practice and help us keep abreast with the rapidly changing world.

"I believe reflective practice could help us be conscious of the applicability of pre-set values and assumption, as well as taken-for-granted practices in a rapidly changing world" [SA2].

The other senior administrator held a similar view.

"At a secular level, reflective practice is a critical inquiry into our own practices as adult educators; at the metaphysical level, it is a drive for the improvement of mankind. It not only helps us confront new challenges; but we could also overcome human weaknesses through opening ourselves to critical inquiry. In the field of education, there are many conventional practices. As we move to the knowledge society, we have to respond promptly to a multitude of changes, at both micro and macro levels. In fact, success in change is inextricably linked to reflective practice" [SA1].

3.4.2 On the involvement in reflective practice:

All the respondents indicated that they engage in different forms of reflection variously in their course of career. They also note that the degree of rigorousness of the various form of reflection is, to large extent, determined by the capacities that they undertake. One teacher revealed that:

"As a teacher, I engage in the descriptive type of reflection nearly after every lesson, and the receptive and interactive types of reflection with my colleagues comes naturally whenever we have sharing about our teaching. Starting from this term, I have been seconded to the Education Department, undertaking a special research project on 'Drama in Education', which aims to promote drama education in North Cyprus. I have to design the curriculum, deliver pilot classes and conduct a survey to collect feedback. This project enables me to move from the classroom to the wider context. It's natural that more critical type of reflection will be involved" [T1].

The assistant administrators expressed a consensus view on the effect of reflection due to capacity:

"We do engage in different forms of reflection. However, we are the middle management and are expected to execute instructions only. We are not at the policy-making level, it seems that no matter how deep we involved in reflection, we won't be able to effect any changes" [AA 1, 2 & 3].

"Basically, I concern what happen in the classroom more than anything else. So I reflect a lot upon my teaching. The impact of the education reform has done me least; it doesn't affect me too much" [T3].

However, a number of respondents indicated that the recent education reform has led them to engage more in the critical type of reflection.

"As the Government invites responses to the reform agenda regularly, and the senior management demands reform-driven action plans, often we have to reflect critically on ways to improve education and how to lobby the Government in its policy formulation; how we could manage the changes that are advocated; and in what ways we could best partner with the Government" [SA1].

"The education reform has already implemented for one year. It advocates a lot of new concepts in education and pedagogic innovations. In the past year, I found myself engaged more in critical inquiry into my own practice in line with what are upheld in the reform proposals" [T4].

A teacher indicated that he has the practice of keeping a learning journal and showed his appreciation to the degree of autonomy and the support rendered by the institute.

"I write diary on my teaching every day. My motto is 'today's self is better than yesterday's, and tomorrow's is better than today's'. I enjoy recording every bit of my reflection in the diary: the students' feedback; self-evaluation; comments from colleagues; learning from various sources, etc. I do engage in various forms of reflection. I appreciate the high degree of autonomy in teaching and the support from the institute" [T2].

A senior administrator claims that reflective thinking is generated by the desire for genuine communication, and levels of reflection are related to career life stages.

"Reflective practice are both means and ends. If we look for genuine communication, it's quite automatic that we will engage in reflection thinking. According to my own experience, levels of reflection are closely linked with practice; different levels of reflection and career life stages are inter-related. " [SA1].

However, another senior administrator put forward an opposing view on whether there is a hierarchy in reflection:

"The different forms of reflection are not in a linear progression. We engage in different forms of reflection, depending on contexts and needs" [SA2].

3.4.3 On the problems and possibilities

Nearly all respondents expressed that time is a crucial factor to the involvement in reflection. Some respondents expressed their frustration that:

"I know it very well reflection carries an important impact to the improvement of the quality of education, but I always lack the time to reflect. I have to take up 24 teaching hours a week and my workload is too heavy. I'm glad that I am now seconded to the Education Department, I should have more time to reflect" [T1].

"We are always overloaded by the routines. As we expand our service due to the increasing size of the learners, we have to strive for resources and take note of the budget all the time. Whenever we gather together, we handle those immediate matters first, and reflection in the form of challenge and debate is obviously not the priority task. Time is definitely an impediment and the ever increased team size also makes opportunities for collective reflection difficult" [SA2].

"We are always occupied by a multitude of tasks, and it's difficult to set priority. Time is definitely insufficient for the completion of all the tasks in an effectual way. It seems a matter of course to put reflection aside when there is a more urgent matter to settle. Other competing commitments of life also reduce the opportunities to reflect" [AA2].

Other respondents indicated that besides time, there are other factors affecting the involvement in reflection:

"Whether reflection-on-practice works depends largely on personality maturity and it also links to life stages. I think other factors, such as resource support, opportunities available, and supportive mechanism in place, can also facilitate reflection [T2].

"There should be more dialogues within and between different levels of the staff, so that we could facilitate one another in reflection-on-practice through better communication. We have already institutionalised a number of measures, like the annual Reflection Day/Camp for the administrators and assistant administrators, and regular brain-storming sessions at all levels" [SA1].

A teacher expressed her wish for institutional support for teachers as well:

"I think it'll be great if there's a Teachers' Development Day/Camp. Just an occasion for us to gather together, share our problems and work out solutions. A chance to retreat collectively is important for development and growth" [T3].

An assistant administrator who is responsible for organising programmes for the purpose of reflection mentioned the difficulties that she encountered and expressed her view on the issue of whether these activities should be mandatory:

"The contextual factor is important to promote and maintain the spirit of reflective practice. It's also necessary to engage in some sort of research for the practical benefit of learners. I am responsible for organising the annual reflection camps and the sharing sessions on the mutual search for meaning of life, but the response is not very favourable because the participants think that these activities are not immediately useful to them. I am increasingly of the view that reflection must be spontaneous; and it cannot be imposed. We should provide the opportunities, but it should be on a voluntary basis, and it should not be mandatory" [AA1].

A teacher offers the following view, which perhaps serves as an answer to the issue of whether participation in 'officially organised' reflective activities should be voluntary:

"It's important that the Agency supports reflection-on-practice through concrete measures, like organising meaningful activities. I have to admit that I'm not too sensitive to changes in the wider context and I hope the Agency could play an auxiliary role here. If reflection-on-practice could be done in groups, it's more likely to achieve shared vision and promote mutual understanding, which will, as a result, lead to improved practice. However, the themes and tasks of these programmes must be carefully chosen. They must fulfil the needs of the participants, otherwise no significant impact will result" [T1].

A senior administrator holds a similar view:

"We do have a range of opportunities to facilitate our staff to engage in reflection. Depending on life experiences and mindset, some people may need more focused activities, whereas some favour broad-based ones. However, the focus for each activity must be clear and the process more interactive" [SA2].

A number of respondents pointed out the importance of partnership:

"I find it more fruitful if I could have support from my colleagues, and ideally, if we could collaborate during the course of reflection. I think reflective practice works best in a form of collegial partnership, and it should be much better than on individual basis" [T3].

"The presence of critical friends to challenge critically, but in a supportive manner, during the process of reflection is crucial. I wish I could have a mentor. Actually, I am trying to form some sort of informal network among colleagues. As we share a common ground and encounter similar problems, I think we could support one other in a lot of ways" [T4].

"Critical friends can play a facilitating role in reflective practice. As it is a collaborative relationship, we need interpersonal intelligence to maintain it" [SA1].

"Colleagues with shared vision and value are important stimulus and support to reflection" [SA2].

4. Conclusion

The findings of this research study indicate that all the respondents, irrespective of their positions held, have a favourable attitude towards reflective practice, despite the fact that most of them have never had any systematic inquiry into the subject. Their interpretations to the term are based on their understanding and knowledge derived from their practices. They all regard reflective practice as an important means for personal and professional growth. They also point out that it could also help us challenge routine practice and keep abreast with the rapidly changing world.

All the respondents have engaged in different forms of reflection variously in their course of career, and a particular form may be more prominent due to capacities. However, some claim that the different forms of reflection are in a hierarchy and related to career life stages, and some think otherwise. Some respondents claim that research is an effective way to facilitate reflection-on-practice.

Although the respondents are eager to engage in reflective practice, sometimes they fail to do so due to various constraints. They regard time as the major impediment to reflection-on-practice. When there are some other tasks/jobs, which are more pressing, they tend to surrender to the competing commitments at work or of life.

There are some conditions necessary for effective reflection-on-practice to take place, for example, personality maturity, life stages, resource support, opportunities available and supportive mechanism in place, etc. It is generally agreed that institutional support is essential to reflective practice, and meaningful activities with a clear focus and relevancy for the purpose of reflecting collectively, be it voluntary or mandatory, should be institutionalised. The availability of critical friendship and partnership, based on a collaborative relationship, is considered to be of central importance to reflective practice, whereby practitioners could have critical inquiries by themselves as well as others in a supportive manner. It is apparent that reflective practice is a desirable professional behaviour among adult educators, however, this behaviour does not automatically lead to improved practice. This study demonstrates that adult educators need support and guidance in developing appropriate strategies for reflective practice and transform it into a catalyst for professional growth.

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What Chinese Education Needs

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Abstract

The issue of nation building and development is cardinal among the goals of any nation. In an attempt to meet the needs of citizens and also be in tune with other developed nations in a dynamic and globalized world, China is currently grappling with a lot of challenges. The place of education cannot be overemphasized. This paper attempts to explore what Chinese education needs urgently, based on the current education situation. It concludes that repositioning the teaching profession to meet developmental challenges in China should be paramount in the mind of all stakeholders. The drive towards making China one of the top developed economies in the world by the year 2020 could be realized if education is highly recognized by the government.

Keywords: Chinese education; fair; interest; teaching; love

1. The Current Situation of Education in China

Nowadays, governments cannot afford to ignore education, including the Chinese government. In China, education is composed of a six-year primary education, a six-year secondary education and higher education. China offers the first nine years of compulsory education for free, but children need to receive high marks in order to enter into a good junior high school, and then senior high school, and finally, a top university. From preschools to universities, there are different ranks. Thus, since childhood, the sole objective of all Chinese children is to receive the highest level of ranking as possible.

2. What Chinese Education Needs

Under the birth control principle, China limits the number of children per family. Therefore, families are not allowed to exceed one child per family. Thus, children are often the focus of the family unit. As a consequence, most children have been spoiled since childhood, and are used to being waited on hand and foot. On the other hand, parents are really strict about their studies -- they care less about their character and moral compass, compared to grades. Finally, when the children leave home and enter society, many serious problems arise. For instance, 1) students are subjected to various requirements, determined by individual provinces, which maintain lower standards for students within their region. This facilitates contention between higher ranking students who quickly become frustrated with their life, their place in the university as well as in society; 2) having been used to good remarks and praise from parents or teachers, they are lost in society and grapple with the true meaning of life; 3) due to overt confidence, long term dependency, and inability to perform daily tasks independently, they are incapable of working in harmony with others. All the examples above showcase that it is vital to pay attention to the needs of Chinese education:

3. Everyone should Share the Equal Right of Getting Higher Education

The Household register principle makes lots of Chinese students lose their chance to enter into top universities. There is a well known story in China which recalls the fate of two similar students in which life dealt a very different hand. An engineer and a building worker, took part in the same college entrance examination and received the same grades. However, just because the engineer is from Beijing, and the building worker is from the Hubei province, this resulted in a different fate. The engineer entered into a famous university, while the building worker was unable to attend the same university. Household register principle has given rise to lots of such problems, but everyone should share the equal right of getting higher education.

4. Liberation of Humanity

It is reported that a Chinese team visited America in order to investigate its system of primary education. In their report, they described that there was no distinction of morality and ability between the second grade students who were still illiterate; but they took music, art, and sports seriously instead of mathematics, physical and chemical sciences; classroom discipline was lacking, and students ignored the authority of their teachers. The investigation concluded that American primary education was bad. In the same year, an American team also came to China, and reported that Chinese students were well disciplined. In classes, their hands were always behind their backs unless the teacher asked questions, they did not speak in class. Students were expected to do home work after school; students are ranked by marks. The American team concluded that the grades of Chinese students are the best, and therefore Chinese science culture might surpass America in 20 years. However, 30 years past, the conclusions of these two teams were all wrong. American -style education is increasingly admired, while Chinese-style education has become an object of public denunciation. This anecdote is a fact about the education in China. In fact, the children are being stifled by the preconceptions of family members, teachers and society. No one should force a presupposed role or expectation from them, they should be free to grow and carve their own path in society. Education is not only about knowledge, but more about the liberation of their individual interests and desires. However, our education sees knowledge and discipline as the most important aspect, which glosses over the ability to function as an individual in society.

On the contrary, a survey report shows that 80% of children are unable to do their laundry, cook or successfully complete housework. Among the young people who are under the age of 18, 17% of them suffer from emotional disorders and behavioral problems. This is especially evident within interpersonal relationships, emotional stability and adaptive ability problems. Many teenagers find it difficult to deal with adversity and disappointments in life and choose to commit suicide to end up all of them. This is the tragedy of an examination-oriented education. Due to the uniqueness of each person in this world, why is it necessary to enforce such rigid roles for children in society? If everybody could find their own interest and make a contribution to their own field, instead of blindly joining the fierce competition to reach the so-called success, then this world will be more peaceful and beautiful.

5. Give with Love

In my opinion, it is imperative to let children know the most important rule within the universe is to give with love. When people learn to give unselfishly, they will be completely free and happy. Destiny to human beings is like orbit is to planet, all of them are enclosed in a circle. Whatever we send out will definitely come back to us without failure. From what has been discussed above, we may draw the conclusion that under the condition that every citizen could share an equal higher education, helping children to find their unique interests in life as well as teaching them to learn to give and love selflessly is far more important than forcing them to always get full marks or win a prize, in this way can we change the face of Chinese education.

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The Education of the Greek Minority in Albania during Communism

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Abstract

During World War II and on, the greek-albanian relations were very tense, but as far as it concerns the situation of the greek minority in Albania the situation was quite different. This paper presents very shortly the situation faced by the Greek minority and the steps taken from the communist regime against the education of the greek minority in Albania, and it can be said that right after the war, Hoxha's government showed a special care and great attention to the education of the minority.

Keywords: *greek minority, the education, communism, Albania*

1. Introduzione

Nel secondo dopoguerra, si manifestò una tendenza contraria alla realizzazione di ulteriori forme di tutela internazionale delle minoranze, determinata dai risultati negativi tra le due guerre¹ e dall' influenza della dottrina americana del *melting-pot*. In base a questa, i diversi gruppi etnici devono rinunciare alle proprie particolarità, formando un'unica nuova nazionalità.

Questa impostazione condusse ad affermare che una volta assicurato il rispetto dei diritti individuali, non ci sarebbe bisogno di affermare i diritti delle minoranze²

Con la stabilizzazione della situazione politica internazionale e l'evoluzione del pensiero politico si diffuse anche l'indirizzo pluralistico in base al quale la coesistenza tra gruppi diversi all'interno di uno Stato è possibile e il loro sviluppo si dovrà essere tollerato, e per di più favorito. Questo ha favorito un rinnovato impegno a favore della tutela delle minoranze non solo sul piano internazionale ma anche all'interno degli Stati.

2. L'Albania del Dopo-Guerra

Nel 1945 l'Albania diventa Repubblica Popolare, proclamata da Enver Hoxha, che impose pian piano dure riforme. Dall'inizio del suo regime vengono confiscate tutte le proprietà degli stranieri in Albania, vengono statalizzate tutte le istituzioni industriali e commerciali, viene imposto il monopolio sia per il commercio interno che estero. Il governo proclama la riforma agraria, statalizzando tutte le foreste, confiscando tutte le proprietà. La costituzione approvata nel 1946 garantisce la libertà di religione, ma già dall'inizio i comunisti dimostrano la loro intenzione che in un futuro non molto lontano avrebbero impedito ogni tipo di organizzazione religiosa. Le tre principali religioni: musulmana, ortodossa e cattolica divengono oggetto di molte discriminazioni da parte del governo, che usa la violenza ed il terrore per sottometterle. Le proprietà appartenenti alle comunità religiose vengono confiscate. Agli inizi degli anni '50 molti tra gli importanti capi religiosi vengono fucilati, imprigionati o esiliati. La situazione si aggrava negli anni '50-'60 per arrivare al 1967, quando con una delibera del governo vengono chiuse tutte le chiese e le moschee, e la libertà di religione è soppressa. Questa elite è nuova e senza esperienze; con l'aggravarsi del conflitto tra occidente ed oriente, il regime di Hoxha lega col blocco sovietico distanziandosi dall'occidente e soprattutto dai paesi vicini come Grecia e Italia (Biberaj, 2000).

¹ Secondo diversi autori il sistema di tutela di minoranze etniche, creatosi dopo la prima guerra e patrocinato dalla Lega delle Nazioni si rivelò poco efficace.

² Basandosi alla dichiarazione della signora Eleanor Roosevelt, allora presidente della Commissione dell'Onu per i diritti dell'uomo.

3. La Situazione della Minoranza Greca durante il Periodo Comunista

Già dal secondo conflitto mondiale e nel periodo a seguire, le relazioni greco-albanesi diventano critiche. La tensione era iniziata già dall'occupazione italiana del 1939, ed aveva come scopo la riattivazione e la rinascita della politica dell'annessione dei territori dell'Albania del Sud, una politica uguale a quella seguita prima e durante il primo conflitto mondiale dal governo greco. A questa tensione si aggiunge, dopo il 1946, un nuovo elemento, che riguardava alla "guerra civile in Grecia" ed il sostegno del governo comunista (albanese) alle guerriglie greche. Con la fine della "guerra civile" in Grecia nell'estate del 1949 la tensione tra i due paesi è meno forte, ma i rapporti sono ancora troppo freddi. Durante gli anni a seguire la politica del governo albanese tenta ad un riavvicinamento ma senza successo, e solo nel 1971 si stabiliscono i rapporti diplomatici (Meta, 2004). Così negli anni a seguire, specialmente verso gli anni '80 molti sono gli accordi bilaterali: nel 1984 vengono stipulati cinque accordi che comprendevano; gli scambi culturali, le comunicazioni, le poste, la cooperazione scientifico-tecnologica ed il trasporto. A gennaio del 1985 viene aperto il punto doganale di Kakavija, il che dava possibilità di collegamento alla minoranza greca con la Grecia.

4. L'istruzione

In Albania, già dal 1945, per quanto riguarda l'istruzione, viene inserito nella Costituzione il diritto dei cittadini di entrambi i sessi ad un'educazione gratuita. Diverse riforme vengono poi elaborate nel corso degli anni. La riforma del 1946 - anno in cui l'Albania viene proclamata repubblica popolare (poi, nel 1976, "repubblica popolare socialista") - istituisce un sistema scolastico unico e obbligatorio. Le scuole vengono separate dalle chiese e viene decretato, per le minoranze nazionali greca e macedone, il diritto di ricevere l'istruzione nella propria lingua.

Già dall'inizio il regime aveva dimostrato una grande attenzione sull'istruzione in lingua greca. Così nell'anno accademico 1949/50 nelle regioni di Argirocastro e Saranda, dove era situata la minoranza greca, esistevano 9 scuole uniche (I-VIII) per la minoranza greca con 618 allievi e 77 scuole elementari (I-IV) con 4159 allievi, quando la popolazione della minoranza greca, in base al censimento della popolazione albanese del 1945, ammontava a 24.191 persone, 11.881 nella regione di Argirocastro e 12.310 nella regione di Saranda³.

La riforma del 1963 rafforza la dimensione politecnica dell'educazione, mentre quella del 1969 ne consolida il rapporto con il mondo del lavoro⁴.

Nel 1969, Enver Hoxha contesta in modo categorico, davanti alla Byrò Politica del PPSH (Partito del Lavoro Albanese) la proposta sulla chiusura del giornale della minoranza greca "Laiko Vima", ritenendola una decisione sbagliata e di carattere sciovinista. In questo discorso Hoxha raccomanda e chiede insistentemente la conservazione, l'appoggio ed il rafforzamento delle scuole elementari greche della minoranza, lo sviluppo della cultura greca e la conservazione della compattezza nazionale della minoranza - accentuando che nelle scuole della minoranza greca "si deve continuare ad insegnare con serietà e rigore la lingua greca" (Meta, 2004).

L'opinione degli studiosi greci era che il governo albanese aveva cercato di creare una identità diversa e nuova per la minoranza greca, criticando soprattutto il contenuto dei testi scolastici. E come afferma Evangelos Kofos (esperto greco dei Balcani), nei testi scolastici degli anni '50 esisteva materiale di carattere patriottico greco, il che influiva sullo sviluppo delle relazioni culturali e sentimentali tra la Grecia e la comunità di etnia greca in Albania. Kofos è critico, invece, verso i testi degli anni 1970-72, ritenendo che avevano perso questi valori (Kofos, 1961). Ma bisogna dire che tali misure furono prese per tutti i cittadini (soprattutto dopo la chiusura dei luoghi di culto e l'abolizione di tutti i nomi sacri ecc.) e non avevano nessun carattere o scopo specifico contro la minoranza greca. Kofos distingue un terzo periodo, quello degli anni 1973-75; in questo periodo nei testi veniva notato un modo diverso nel trattare le relazioni greco-albanesi (inizio dei rapporti diplomatici dopo 1971) riguardo a quello precedente. Oltre a quello sopra menzionato, sulla situazione della minoranza greca e della chiesa ortodossa durante questo periodo non esistono fonti o statistiche precise; con la caduta del comunismo, negli anni '90, l'Albania diventa preda di un caos totale che porta alla distruzione di quasi qualsiasi oggetto che apparteneva al regime (la maggior parte dagli stessi ex comunisti per cancellare ogni prova), perciò in Albania è molto difficile indagare o avere delle statistiche di quegli anni.

³ AMPJ, viti 1950, D.B./VII-3. Statistike mbi minoritetin grek ne Shqiperi dhe mbi çamerine. (Archivio MAE - Statistiche sulla minoranza greca in Albania e sulla regione di çameria).

⁴ La scuola in Albania : Unesco, rapport mondial sur l'éducation, 1995

5. Conclusioni

Durante il periodo del comunismo, la situazione della minoranza greca, specialmente per quanto riguarda l'istruzione, fu in grandi linee uguale a quella della popolazione albanese, non avendo subito alcun tipo di discriminazione specifica come minoranza. Anche l'esperto greco dei Balcani, Kofos, in uno dei suoi articoli affermo' che: " *l'Albania ha le problematiche minori con le minoranze in confronto a tutti gli altri paesi comunisti della penisola balcanica*".

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ELT Teacher Trainees' Reflective Feedback to Their Cooperating Teachers

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Abstract

The current study aims at exploring what teacher trainees expect from their cooperating teachers and what they really experience with cooperating teachers (CTs) in practice schools. A pre-practicum questionnaire (expectation) and post-practicum questionnaire (experience) were utilized in order to find the differences in teacher trainees' expectations and experiences in practicum. The data were gathered from 86 teacher trainees, who were in the practicum period in the last year of their education in ELT Department in a public university in Turkey. In order to triangulate the data collection, different instruments such as questionnaires, interviews and field notes were used. Both the qualitative and quantitative analyses were performed in this study. For quantitative analysis, the frequencies and mean scores for each item were taken; in addition, the T-test was utilized. For qualitative data, categories and sub-categories were formed. The areas in which help is desired and considered important by teacher trainees were analyzed under three main categories: Readiness for practicum, planning and reflection, and mentoring. The results showed that teacher trainees have considerable expectations from the CTs. On the other hand, the findings revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between teacher trainees' expectations and experiences. The level of help provided by CTs was below the level of teacher trainees' expectations. Implications and suggestions for further research were also highlighted for the stakeholders of the practicum process.

1. Introduction

How teacher trainees learn to teach has been the focus of considerable amount of research since Dewey, who emphasized learner-centered teaching. The professional growth of teacher trainees has also been an important issue for many professional organizations throughout the world such as the National Council for Accreditation for Teacher Education (NCATE), the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) and also Higher Education Council (HEC) in Turkey and groups such as The National Network for Educational Renewal, Holmes Group, and the Renaissance Group. These organizations and groups have made research and issued influential reports for the improvement of teacher education worldwide¹. Almost all of the research carried out in them has highlighted the importance of practicum period for a teacher candidate.

Among the important aspects of the practicum period, the relationship between teacher trainees and cooperating teachers is a crucial one since they are the main characters of this process. Seeing as practice teaching plays an important role in shaping teacher trainees' values, beliefs, and teaching skills, the impact of the role of cooperating teachers gain importance (Wood and Weasmer, 2003). The success of teacher trainees depends on the opportunities they have in practice schools in order to reconsider their beliefs in the light of experiences they encounter, where they will teach and with whom. During practicum, a new pattern of thinking and understanding emerges in relation to 'self as a teacher' and application and sharing what they've already learned in the assistance of cooperating teacher. Moreover, teacher trainees spend far more time with their cooperating teachers than with their supervisor in the university (Gürsoy and Damar, 2011). Therefore, the cooperating teacher has much greater influence on the outcome of this process. Throughout the literature, although there are a large number of studies emphasize the importance of practicum process, the definition of the roles of all parties in the process and the problems encountered by the parties (Fairbanks et al., 2000; Clarke, 2001; Osam and Balbay, 2004; Kiraz and Yıldırım, 2007), very few studies address teacher trainees' expectations from cooperating teachers and none their collaborative exchanges during practicum. Moreover, the aforementioned studies are mostly related to general exchanges between CTs and trainees regardless of field focus. In order to shed light to ELT teacher trainees' needs and primarily exchanges with their mentors in the practicum, the

¹ OECD Report, Muster Report

research questions are as follows:

1. What are the ELT teacher trainees' expectations from mentor teachers?
2. What are the experiences of the teacher trainees in practice schools with regard to mentorship?
3. Is there a mismatch between what teacher trainees expect and what they experience with mentor teachers in practice schools?

Therefore, this study would be of significance in that it will describe the level of collaboration between the ELT teacher trainees and mentor teachers in such a beneficial process. The study will also serve as a support the standardization of the roles and responsibilities of the parties by looking at the different mentoring procedures within the study.

2. Literature Review

In teacher education, the practicum is always considered as one of the most useful components of the programs. The practicum is also seen as an important team activity and 'a core learning experience' for teacher trainees (Wright, 2010: 282), and needs members who work cooperatively in this system. Therefore, "a three-tier system" involving trainees, teacher trainers and CTs, is essential in the practicum setting (Burton & Greher, 2007). The related research shows us that in this setting, practical aspects of the teaching preparation are more highly valued than other elements of the teacher education programs. Therefore, the importance of the support from the cooperating teachers comes out strong and loud for the teacher trainees. Teacher trainees also highlight the importance of their cooperating teachers' role and see them as the most highly valued support and resource and acknowledge as being critical to the success in their professional development (Smith & Lev Ari, 2005; Sanders et al., 2005). Despite this, there is little consensus in the literature as to the precise roles CTs are expected to fulfill during practicum. What the CTs are supposed to do and what they actually do also seem to be vague. In depth, there are different conceptions of roles identified in the literature and also there are variations within the set roles. (Hennissen & Crasborn, Brouwer, Korthagen, Theo Bergen, 2008). At the practical level, it is apparent that while there is a number of conceptualization of supervisory models for CTs, they do not necessarily match the practices and beliefs held by CTs. In the relevant research, Kiraz and Yıldırım (2007) mention that most of the CTs consider themselves as in the position of *grading* the trainees during their practice teaching. As they indicate that evaluating trainees is not the only responsibility of CTs and they should provide feedback, guide and assist the trainees during the process and also behave as a colleague for their development in the field. Bullough (2005) argues that if stakeholders of the practicum, here trainers, administrators, program developers and etc., do not pay attention to the identity formation of CTs and to the ways in which they learn about their role, the practicum will continue to be only a weak exercise in pre-service teacher education institutions.

The relevant literature has demonstrated that there have always been some attempts to define different roles of the CTs by the researchers, teacher trainers (Gürsoy and Damar, 2011; Hennissen et al., 2008). These attempts sometimes demonstrate slight differences according to the countries and their education systems. When the theoretical conceptualization of these roles of CTs are examined, it is seen that the CT can act like a *model*, *planner* of teaching experiences and *evaluator*, *observer*, *evaluator*, *demonstrator*, *conferencer*, *professional peer*, *counselor* and *friend* (Beck and Kosnik, 2000; Sanders et al., 2005; Weasmer and Woods, 2003; Fairbanks et al., 2000 and Clarke, 2001; Kiraz and Yıldırım, 2007). However the studies on the role of CTs point out that the roles are also weakly defined in diverse contexts (Applegate and Lasley, 1982; Cole and Sorril, 1992; and Grimmet and Ratzlaff, 1986). The dilemma related to the roles of CTs has been identified in Kuter and Koç's (2009) study where they indicate that the identity of CTs is unclear and, thus, they are 'struggling for something unknown during supervisions and observations' in the practicum settings (p. 420). Additionally, what is unclear in the literature, in general, is the extent to which the possible roles of CTs are expected, accepted by teacher trainees and actually practiced by the CTs in practice schools. Many cooperating teachers who are expected to take on the role of a coach or a mentor rely on craft-centered traditional approaches that favor practicing and delivering congruent with their own. Moreover, several studies indicate that lack of supportive mentoring leave both teacher trainees and novice teachers to face the many challenges of their professional lives alone (Smith and Ingersoll, 2004; Delaney, 2012).

In Turkish context, Faculty-School Cooperation Booklet prepared by the Higher Education Council (HEC) (1998) identifies the roles of the participants in the process. The roles are ranging from organizing the working schedule of the trainee, helping trainee's to plan daily activities to reflecting on trainees' practices, evaluation of the trainees. Therefore, this study aims to explore the expectations of teacher trainees in relation to the roles of CTs and the actual roles performed by CTs from the perspectives of EFL teacher trainees. Furthermore, this study could be of significance that it

will help the conceptualization of CTs roles and responsibilities in the light of the needs of 'EFL' teacher trainees in Turkish context.

3. Method

This study aims at investigating ELT trainees' expectations and CTs' competence in practicum through the perspective of teacher trainees. In order to address above issues, this study adopted both the qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. In the literature, there is little doubt that research which involves the integration of quantitative and qualitative research has become increasingly common in recent years. The present study might be attributed as quantitative in the sense that a survey will be conducted with the intention of describing a group of EFL teacher trainees' expectations. Employing the questionnaires to a large group of teacher trainees and the comparison of the results of the pre and post questionnaires on the issue held the quantitative part of the study. Although the expectations of the teacher trainees driven by a large scale focus is insightful, a need is also felt to listen the voices of the participants concerning the research issue under investigation. This need triggered the researcher to employ qualitative research procedures as well. The data that was pulled through the open-ended parts of the questionnaires, semi-structured interviews with the participants and field notes will constitute the qualitative part of the study.

3.1 Setting

The practice part of the pre-service training in Turkey is completed with School Experience and Teaching Practice courses, which have both theoretical and practical content, during the final year of the teacher education programs in the education faculties. The Teaching Practice course which was the focus of time of the current study is the last formal pre-service practice for teacher trainees. During the teaching practice course, which is completed during the second term, trainees practice in high schools to gain experience. The observation and practice period in Teaching Practice/Practicum is six-hours a week. Each teacher trainer is responsible from a group of 10-12 trainees, whereas each cooperating teacher has a group of 5-6 trainees. CTs, during the sessions with teacher trainees, are required to fulfill their roles and responsibilities defined by Faculty-School Cooperation Booklet prepared by the Higher Education Council (HEC) (1998). Accordingly, the CT,

- organizes the working schedule of the trainee together with the teacher trainer,
- enables the trainer to make observations in his/her lessons, use various teaching methods and techniques and help his/her occupational development,
- introduces the school to the trainer, provides necessary teaching aids and context,
- helps the trainer to plan his/her daily activities and lessons,
- observes and evaluates the trainer,
- doesn't leave the trainee in the classroom alone for long periods of time,
- keeps a file for each trainee that constitutes the observation and evaluation forms,
- after the observation hands out a copy of the lesson observation form to the trainee with necessary feedback,
- examines the trainee's observation file regularly with the trainer, monitors their development and help his/her development in a positive way,
- guides the trainee in out-of-class activities(Gürsoy and Damar, 2011).

3.2 Participants

The study was conducted with 86 senior ELT teacher trainees (71 female and 15 male) during their final year of study at Uludag University, Bursa, Turkey. The teacher trainees had completed almost all of the methodological courses at the department and they were almost ready for their practicum process before graduation. They participated in the study in two phases. In the first phase, they filled out the pre-practicum questionnaires at the very beginning of the semester before they went to the practice school as the questionnaires quest for their expectations. In the second phase, at the end of the semester when they completed teaching practice sessions, they were given post questionnaires and involved in the interviews.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis

Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that a triangulation of various types of qualitative instrumentation be used to validate data and provide rich descriptions of the issue and the participants. In order to get a comprehensible data and elaborate description of the research issue, the study employed a variety of research tools in a triangulative manner.

The data sources of the present study will include the following:

1. Pre-practicum Expectation Questionnaire (Teacher Trainees)
2. Post-practicum Competency Questionnaire (Teacher Trainees)
3. Semi-structured Interviews (Teacher Trainees and Mentor Teachers)
4. Field Notes

To reach the aim of the study, a five-step scale questionnaire is adapted from a scale development study by Kiraz (2003) and it is modified to get a comprehensible data on the issue. In the initial modification process, new items and an open-ended section were added to the questionnaire and some items were excluded since they were irrelevant to either the aims of the study or the participants who were ELT teacher trainees. Then, five ELT lecturers, who had taken part in the practicum process several times, were given the questionnaire and expert view was sought for content-validity. Based on the feedback received from the experts, the instrument was revised. Accordingly, in order to re-ensure the validity of the questionnaire, it was administered to a group of 17 teacher trainees who would not take part in the actual study and pilot tested. The teacher trainees were asked to provide feedback and suggestions in terms of the clarity of the items and the comprehensiveness of the whole instrument. According to the results of the piloting and the expert view, the areas in which support is desired and considered important by teacher trainees were analyzed under three main categories: Readiness for practicum (Items 1-7), planning and reflection (Items 8-14), and mentoring (Items 15-25).

The questionnaire were administered in two phases: first, at the beginning of the spring term to gather information about the expectations of teacher trainees, and secondly, at the end of the term to get information about what teacher trainees experience in practice teaching with respect to actual help given by CTs. The pre-practicum questionnaire asked the teacher trainees to indicate their expectations from cooperating teachers during practicum. The post-practicum questionnaire was delivered to the same teacher trainees during the last week of the practicum to learn about their experiences in relation to competencies of the CTs in the given domains. In both phases, the teacher trainees were asked to indicate their responses on a five-step scale both the expectations from their CTs and the level of help provided by their CTs in each area mentioned above. In the pre-practicum questionnaire, the scales were ranging from 'strongly agree'(5) to 'strongly disagree' (1) ; they were from 'definitely competent'(5) to 'definitely not competent' (1) in the post-practicum questionnaire.

The quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed through SPSS 15.0 for descriptive statistical analysis such as the frequency analysis of the items. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data collected through 25 close-ended items in the questionnaire. The means and standard deviations were also calculated in order to find out the participants views regarding the categories in the questionnaire. Moreover, in order to see whether there is a significant difference between students' expectations and experiences, *paired sample T-test* was employed.

Cohen and Manion (1998) state that interviews provide researchers in-depth information and might act as a complementary research instrument. In the present study, interviews were held with the purpose of elicitation comprehension and verification of the data obtained through questionnaires. Semi-structured interviews lasted 15-30 minutes were audio recorded and later transcribed for analysis. As interviews, field notes were also analysed by means of content analysis. First, the researcher read through all the interview data and field notes to identify meaningful units based on the research questions. Each interview was examined for themes about CTs and the level of competency at fulfilling their roles.

4. Findings

4.1 Teacher trainees' expectations from CTs and the help provided by CTs

The descriptive data indicated that teacher trainees had a higher expectation scores than experience scores, indicating a gap between experiences and expectations in the practicum (see Table 1, 2, 3, 4). This gap is supported by paired sample t-test. (See table 4). Here, the findings were organized under three main sections for each category. Initially, the analysis of quantitative data collected through pre-practicum expectations questionnaire from 86 teacher trainees was presented. Then, the analysis of quantitative data collected through pre-practicum expectations and post-practicum

experience questionnaires was provided to see whether there is a mismatch between the help expected and provided in the practicum. Finally, the analysis of qualitative data collected through interviews and open-ended questions was presented to support the quantitative results and define any other factors that might have impact on CTs' competence.

Table 1. Mean scores of the items in the category of Readiness for Supervision

<u>Items</u>	<u>Expectations</u>	<u>Competency</u>
Item01 Managing time and school environment	4.83	3.36
Item02 Being knowledgeable about the practicum	4.40	3.42
Item03 Providing information on practicum	4.62	3.69
Item04 Ready and willing to supervise	4.55	3.77
Item05 Organizing the physical environment	4.73	3.97
Item 06 Positive interpersonal skills	4.76	3.41
Item 07 Organizing and preparing materials	4.47	3.16

The preliminary findings related to teacher trainees' expectations from CTs were related to basically *readiness for supervision* (Table 1). It involves much more variety ranging from preparation of physical environment for practice teaching to becoming knowledgeable and ready for the process. In general practicum settings, administrators and CTs are informed about the rules, roles and routines in advance so that practicum program can be organized before teacher trainees' arrival. When the findings of the related items are examined, it is seen that teacher trainees seemed to have strong expectations from CTs. The same items in the post-practicum questionnaire indicated that the teacher trainees rate their cooperating teachers' readiness for supervision as only 'good'. In general, it is assumed that CTs have adequate knowledge in terms of their roles and responsibilities and the purpose of supervision. However, the results show that only 43 percent of teacher trainees rated their CTs definitely competent. Item 7 related to organization and preparation of materials in advance has the lowest mean in this category. Although teacher trainees strongly (89%) expect some necessary physical preparation by CTs in the practicum school as they are 'outsiders' in practice schools, CTs do not show the expected level of readiness for their trainees.

Table 2. Mean scores of the items in the category of planning and reflection

<u>Items</u>	<u>Expectations</u>	<u>Competency</u>
Item08 Instructional planning and strategies	4.45	2.58
Item09 Working on sample lesson plans and reflection	4.10	2.19
Item10 Giving the rationale/essential parts of a lesson	4.34	2.35
Item11 Preparing lesson plans	3.67	2.26
Item12 Lesson plan and actual practice	4.33	2.16
Item13 Reflection on lesson	4.01	2.20
Item14 Justification of specific strategies	4.30	3.05

As for the planning and reflection, most of the teacher trainees desire a certain amount of help from their CTs. The most important issues such as providing help for lesson planning and reflecting on teacher trainees' practice teaching lie in this category. The mean scores of expectation questionnaire items are between 3.67 and 4.45 indicating strong expectations on planning and reflection. CTs competency in this category is far from what is expected. Being in connection with the above finding, CTs' competency in planning and reflection is between 'poor' to 'partially competent' (mean scores 2.16-3.05). The only item trainees find CTs partially competent was that CTs' justification of the reasons behind the selection of a specific teaching strategy and intended learning outcomes. The data obtained from the interviews supported the results of the questionnaire indicating that CTs utilize their experiences within the classroom while justifying the reasons. When examined in depth, the mentioned teaching strategies were mostly teacher-led ones. The rest of the items were rated as poor in realizing the requirements for performance and objectives of the courses.

As it is seen from the mean scores of the category, the most striking results were mostly related to planning and reflection. Although the expectations scores were very high, the level of competencies of CTs on planning and reflection were around just poor. Although the responsibilities of cooperating teachers were clearly stated in the Faculty-School Cooperation Booklet prepared by the Higher Education Council (HEC), (1998), cooperating teachers seemed not to be aware of their roles and responsibilities. Lesson planning, one of the most important aspects of actual teaching, seemed to be the weak areas where trainees sought much more help from their CTs. The responses given to Items 9, 11, 12, 13

indicated that (mean scores and percentages of the items respectively 2,19/65.1%; 2,26/58.1%; 2,16/57% and 2,20/62,8%) CTs were not competent at preparing and reflecting on lesson planning.

Table 3. Mean scores of the items in the category of mentoring

Items	Expectations	Competency
Item15 Selecting appropriate strategies	4.27	2.67
Item16 Critical feedback upon improvement	4.19	2.84
Item17 Writing performance and objectives	4.35	2.51
Item18 Materials selection	4.41	2.45
Item19 Evaluating the performance	4.14	3.84
Item20 Constructive feedback	4.41	3.15
Item21 Two-way professional talk	4.48	3.20
Item22 Refraining from negative attitudes	4.70	3.77
Item23 Feedback and reflection	4.86	3.91
Item24 Behaving as a colleague	4.85	3.79
Item25 Receptive to new knowledge by trainees	4.91	3.80

In planning and reflection part, trainees' expectations clearly diverged from their experiences. Being different from the pattern in the previous category, the mean scores of the competencies of CTs with respect to mentoring are slightly higher. Only the item about materials selection seems to be lower than the others (mean score 2, 45). In this category, the highest level of competency of CTs is surprisingly related to feedback and reflection. When the data from the interviews and field notes are examined, it is clearly seen that feedback and reflection provided by CTs are mainly about the uselessness of the update techniques and materials used by teacher trainees. In some practicum settings, although the knowledge of CTs in actual teaching serve as an important benefit for teacher trainees, in many instances, CTs do not realize the real value of the teacher trainees' update professional knowledge as it is observed in the current study. Therefore, the practicum becomes artificial and teacher trainees just try to satisfy the CTs and they try to adopt what is already used by CT. In the interview data, the other reason for grading CTs as not competent and poor is claimed as that CTs establish their teaching in advance and not open to the idea of changing their existing routines.

4.2 Expectations versus Experience

Descriptive statistics indicated that teacher trainees had higher expectations scores than the experience scores. (See Table 4). The experiences of teacher trainees deviate from the expectations they had at the beginning of the practicum process. Besides descriptive statistics, a paired sample t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of students' experiences and expectations. The test results indicated that there were significant differences between all the items in pre-practicum and post-practicum questionnaires except one (see Appendix C). Item 19 did not show any significant difference. This item is related to the fairness and objectivity of cooperating teachers while evaluating the teacher trainees' performance. The Interview data revealed that teacher trainees' perceive CTs' roles as an evaluator more than a mentor. Lemlech (1995) also states that, in traditional supervision, many cooperating teachers assume a role similar to that of evaluators.

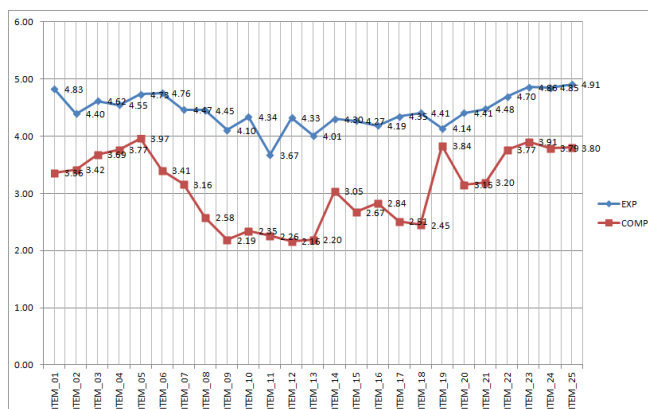


Table 4. Mean scores of the items in expectations and competency questionnaires

As for the match and mismatch between expectations and experiences of trainee teachers, interviews and other qualitative data sources in the study provided insightful results. When the responses given to open-ended questions in the post-practicum questionnaire, the interview results and field notes were analyzed according to the categories, new themes were also defined. These include 'information about the school environment', 'general techniques in teaching', 'motivation skills', 'constructive criticism' and 'tackling with the individual differences'. The followings are the extracts taken from the qualitative data mentioned above:

"...it is not hard to prepare lessons for high achievers...the point is that I don't know how to approach low-achievers and...at first sight I could not discriminate them...when I ask CT, she recommends me to use same material...is it the solution..."

"...my CT says teaching is 'sink or swim' kind of thing...one day she did not even help to find the photocopy facility in practice school. This is her mentoring perspective..."

"...only thing she said is 'good, good and good...!'...What is good? How is it done better? I need that information..."

"I am afraid of my CT...yelling all the time...everywhere... What he said in the classroom changed my perspective to the profession...He found my teaching awful and made negative comments...it [the practicum] was like a nightmare rather than a fruitful process..."

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The current study aimed at exploring what teacher trainees expect from their cooperating teachers and what they really experience with cooperating teachers (CTs) in practice schools. The results of the present study suggest that the teacher trainees rated their expectations from CTs at a higher level than their experiences. This result also indicated a significant difference between expectations and experiences indicating that CTs do not provide sufficient amount of help the teacher trainees expected. The differences between experiences and expectations seem to show the areas in which teacher trainees experience difficulties in practice schools. The areas include orientation in practice schools, lesson planning, selecting appropriate techniques and strategies in ELT, writing performance and objectives for a lesson and developing interpersonal skills with the colleagues. In the present study, the level of help provided in these areas was below the level of teacher trainees' expectations. This finding is in line with the findings of Aputhasamy's (2005) and Ok's (2005) studies where the desired help and actual practice were examined in different areas of teaching.

The level of help provided by the CTs in the areas examined in this study seems to fall short of the expectations of the teacher trainees. Even in the planning and reflection part, where mentoring plays a very important role, the trainees could not get sufficient help. The work load of CTs or insufficient knowledge in the desired area are claimed to be the reason for these inefficient exchanges among CTs and teacher trainees. Whatever the reason is does not change the fact that mentoring is a kind of profession that needs training, time, energy and enthusiasm.

As Smith & Lev Ari (2005), Sanders et al. (2005), Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin & Vasquez Heilig (2005) and Clarke (2006) state the qualifications of both the supervisors and cooperating teachers are very important to reflect on teacher trainees' not only implementation of rules and routines but also their problem solving attempts while teaching. Here, another important question arises about how to select cooperating teachers. Instead of merely making a random selection, the selection might be based on some experiences to reach the optimum conditions in the context of mentoring. The criteria for the selection of CTs are inevitably of great importance for the professional development of teacher trainees. In order to carry out the extra burden, to provide maximum help to the trainee in the course of training process (with qualified feedback and time) and to commit oneself to this work, willingness also becomes important. On the issue, Paker's (2005) study suggests that not every teacher should be assigned as a cooperating teacher and stresses the value of voluntariness.

As a preliminary attempt to understand the expectations and experiences of teacher trainees, this study certainly had some certain limitations. The results are only valid for those who participated in this study. Thus, the number of the participants can be increased to generalize the results of the study. There might be other factors affecting teacher trainees' expectations and experiences in practice schools. These are teacher trainees' achievement level, gender, types of practice school, cooperating teachers' qualifications. Therefore, these factors could be examined in further research. For further research, it would be better if all the parties, namely teacher trainees, CTs and also supervisors, are involved in a research project to analyze the mentorship from different angles.

Consequently, in order to bring closer the expectations and experiences of teacher trainees, initially informative

seminars should be arranged by the practicum coordinators of the faculties and authorities from the directorate of national education. After a reasonable selection of CTs according to the aforementioned criteria, they should be informed about the practicum and then, the teacher trainers should visit practice schools regularly to strengthen the cooperation with the CTs. CTs are also informed about the value of the CTs in the process and their effect in quality teacher education. As Beck and Kosnik (2000) suggested, the cooperation between the teacher trainers and the CTs needs to be strengthened and the teacher trainer should be supportive of the cooperating teacher. To be able to do all those things mentioned above, workload of teachers who are called upon to act as CTs should be adjusted by the principals for effective practicum.

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University Students' Career Choice and Emotional Well-Being

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Abstract

The impact of emotional well-being on one's career choice has received insufficient attention. There are both conceptual and empirical reasons to expect a positive relationship, but there is a lack of evidence directly testing this proposition. This study surveyed 137 Chinese university students' life happiness, satisfaction and hope, as well as their career decision-making. Results showed that students who reported to be more satisfied and more hopeful in their life in general were more decisive in their career choice, more aware of their strengths and weaknesses, more knowledgeable about their future career, and more acknowledged the importance of their career. As such a call is made for more research on relevant factors in the career decision-making process and implications of the potentially important relationship between one's career choice and emotional well-being.

1. Introduction

Young adults today are faced with one important developmental task which is to begin the process of making career decisions. When they first enter the university, they need to decide what major field of study to select. This is expected to lead to the occupation they wish to pursue after graduation. However, many young adults report facing difficulties in making career decisions (Gati et al., 2011). These difficulties may stem from a variety of sources, including lack of readiness, lack of information, and inconsistent information (Gati, Krausz, & Osipow, 1996). Hence, individuals who have difficulties making career decisions may have unclear goals, insufficient knowledge about possible alternative choices, lower motivation to make a choice, or may be indecisive.

Substantial research has been conducted in Western contexts which investigated certain intrapersonal and contextual factors relating to career decision-making. It is unknown whether the identified factors have a similar impact on individuals with collectivism-oriented cultural values (Brown, 2002; Leong & Hardin, 2002). The present study seeks to report on important career-related and intra-individual variables associated with career decision-making in Chinese university students. We presented a brief review of the difficulties in making career decisions to provide the context for the design and predictions of the present study.

2. Career decision-making

Making a career decision is a complex process (Gati et al., 1996). From a cognitive-behavioral perspective, career decision-making is a problem-solving process when choosing between occupational alternatives (Bethencourt & Cabrera, 2011). In order to make better decisions, individuals need to distinguish between more important and less important decisions, make more effort in the former with adaptive goals, recognize resolution options, and select the one that will achieve desired outcomes (Byrnes, 2002). An emerging body of theory and research suggests that career decision-making is often accompanied by psychological and emotional well-being. Research in the United States has found a positive correlation between emotions and career decision-making, including greater capacity to manage one's own emotional response to this process (Emmerling & Cherniss, 2003) as well as trust in one's capacity to confront career decision-making tasks (Brown, George, & Smith, 2003). Further, difficulties in career decision making are found to be associated with psychological distress and low levels of well-being (Fouad et al., 2006). The current study will focus on the latter perspective, that is, how one's emotional well-being is relevant to career choice.

During career decision-making process, career decidedness/indecision has received the most attention which is concerned with the difficulties preventing individuals from making a career decision (Kelly & Lee, 2005; Santos,

2001). Some individuals are labeled as undecided who experience only temporary or developmental career decision-making difficulties, while others are considered as indecisive who suffer from more chronic and pervasive difficulties, due to emotional or personality-related reasons (Kelly & Pulver, 2003; Meldahl & Muchinsky, 1997; Osipow, 1999). This could include the lack of information needed to make a decision, the lack of clear sense of self as to what type of occupations are suitable, the lack of motive to think it through, the lack of recognition of the importance of career, and etc.

Previous studies found that career indecision is associated with different emotional and personality factors (e.g., Fuqua, Blum, & Hartman, 1988; Santos, 2001; Saunders, Peterson, Sampson, & Reardon, 2000). In particular, negative intra-individual variables have been linked with individuals who report significantly higher levels of career indecision (Kelly & Lee, 2002). These include a negative affective disposition (Multon, Heppner, & Lapan, 1995), anxiety (Germeijs, Verschueren, & Soenens, 2006), fear of success (Staley, 1996) and lower self-esteem (Creed, Prideaux, & Patton, 2005; Germeijs & De Boeck, 2002, 2003; Staley, 1996). Saka, Gati, and Kelly (2008) explored relevant personality and emotional factors in their model, and identified three major sources of problems — pessimistic views, anxiety, and self-concept/identity. Specifically, individuals who hold pessimistic views are more pessimistic about the career decision-making process, the occupation per se, or their control over the process, the choice, or the outcomes. Those who feel more anxious were generally undecided and indecisive about the career choice. Also, those with a sense of low self-worth have difficulties in formulating clear vocational preferences, interests, aspirations, and career goals.

3. The Current Study

Although current literature suggests that a variety of emotional factors are involved in career decision-making, which may facilitate or hinder this process, only a few studies are available that investigate how positive emotional well-being relates to career choice. The general finding is that higher levels of career indecision appear to be associated with lower life satisfaction (Creed et al., 2005; Skorikov, 2007). No studies have examined how one's hope for life relates to career decisions. The present study set out to extend this evidence base by examining positive components such as life satisfaction and hope in young adults using a cross-sectional research design. This body of work will attest to and add to the myriad of variables that have been explored so far to build a clearer emotional profile of decided and undecided individuals. The goal of the current study is thus to further investigate how individual emotional well-being, as reflected by the level of life satisfaction and hope, is associated with his or her career decision-making process. More specifically, four types of reasons for making (in)effective career decisions (lack of self-clarity, lack of occupational-educational information, lack of decisiveness, and career choice importance) and two intra-individual variables (life satisfaction, hope) were examined in this study. The following hypotheses were tested:

1. Students will experience less difficulty in career decision-making if they feel more satisfied with their life in general;
2. Students will experience less difficulty in career decision-making if they have more hope for their life in general.

4. Methods

4.1 Participants and Procedure

One hundred and thirty-seven freshmen (74.5% male) who were enrolled in the computer programming course offered at a Chinese university participated in this study. They ranged in age from 16 to 20 years ($M = 18.65$, $SD = .85$). Participants were provided with a questionnaire package on hardcopies at the beginning of the session in the middle of the semester. The package contained a demographics questionnaire, Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1991), Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985), and Career Decision Profile (Jones, 1989). The researcher briefed the participants about the purpose of this study and assured the confidentiality of their responses and personal information. The questionnaire packages were immediately collected after they were completed. For the present study, all the scales were translated into Chinese, and the back-translation revealed semantically similar items with the original scales.

4.2 Measures

The 8-item Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1991) was used to assess one's affirmative beliefs about his or her ability to

accomplish personal goals. It comprised the 4-item Agency subscale (e.g., “*I energetically pursue my goals*.”) and the 4-item Pathways subscale (e.g., “*There are lots of ways around any problem*.”). Both subscales were reported with adequate internal reliability (Snyder et al., 1991). All eight items can be summed to produce a total hope score, mirroring the model of hope as a higher-order latent construct consisting of the Agency and Pathways beliefs. Items were scored on a 7-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Higher scores indicated stronger endorsement of the construct. Cronbach’s alpha for this scale in the current study was .69.

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985) assessed global life satisfaction with five statements with regards to quality of life. Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. A sample item is: “*The conditions of my life are excellent*”. Higher scores indicated greater life satisfaction. Research has established acceptable psychometric properties for the SWLS both in Western (e.g., Diener et al., 1985; Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996; Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1991; Pavot & Diener, 1993) and Chinese samples (Bai, Wu, Zheng, & Ren, 2011; Sachs, 2003; Wu & Yao, 2006; Wu, Chen, & Tsai, 2009). Cronbach’s alpha for this scale in the current sample was .58.

The 24-item Career Decision Profile (CDP; Jones, 1988) measured career decision status, with three internally consistent subscales: decidedness, comfort, and reasons. The reasons subscale consisted of lack of self-clarity, lack of occupational–educational information, lack of decisiveness, and lack of career choice importance. A 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used. The CDP has demonstrated reliability and convergent validity (Jones, 1989). To understand the relationship between one’s emotional well-being toward reasons of career decision status, only the lack of self-clarity, lack of occupational–educational information, lack of decisiveness and career choice importance subscales were analyzed in this study. Cronbach’s alpha values for lack of self-clarity, lack of occupational–educational information, lack of decisiveness, and career choice importance in the current sample were .47, .49 (with one item removed), .83, and .63, respectively.

5. Results

The descriptive statistics for all the variables are presented in Table 1. The students were in general neither too satisfied nor too dissatisfied with their life, as seen by its mean score ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 1.05$) slightly above the middle score of the scale (3.50). However, they seemed to be more hopeful for life ($M = 4.42$, $SD = .95$). With regards to their career choice, the lack of required information was reported to be the top reason for career decision-making difficulty, followed by the lack of a clear sense of self, the lack of decisiveness and the recognition of career choice importance scored lowest.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations among primary variables (N = 137)

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
1. Satisfaction	-					3.70	1.05
2. Hope	.58**	-				4.42	.95
3. Lack of self-clarity	-.32**	-.43**	-			4.03	1.24
4. Lack of occupational-educational information	-.33**	-.48**	.78**	-		4.45	1.16
5. Lack of decisiveness	-.19*	-.32**	.78**	.63**	-	3.58	1.39
6. Career choice importance	.51**	.38**	-.53**	-.37**	-.22*	3.49	1.29

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The zero-order correlations among these variables (see Table 1) showed that life satisfaction significantly negatively correlated with lack of self-clarity ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$), lack of information ($r = -.33$, $p < .01$), lack of decisiveness ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$) but positively with career choice importance ($r = .51$, $p < .01$). Similarly, hope significantly positively correlated with career choice importance ($r = .38$, $p < .01$), but significantly negatively correlated with lack of self-clarity ($r = -.43$, $p < .01$), lack of information ($r = -.48$, $p < .01$) and lack of decisiveness ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$). It seemed that if one was more satisfied with or hopeful for life, he or she would have a clearer sense of self and more knowledge about the occupation information, acknowledge more the importance of career and be more decisive in decision-making.

Next, simultaneous regression analysis was run to better understand the contribution of the two emotional variables to career choice. As shown in Table 2, life satisfaction significantly negatively predicted lack of self-clarity ($\beta = -.47$, $p < .001$), lack of career-related information ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .05$), but positively predicted career choice importance ($\beta = .60$, $p < .001$). A somewhat different pattern was observed for hope. Hope significantly negatively predicted lack of information ($\beta = -.35$, $p < .001$) and lack of decisiveness ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .05$).

Table 2. Beta-coefficients of multiple regressions testing the relations of emotional well-being to career decision-making variables

DV	Lack of self-clarity	Lack of occupational-educational information	Lack of decisiveness	Career choice importance
df	(2,112)	(2,125)	(2, 125)	(2,120)
Satisfaction	-.47***	-.23*	-.12	.60***
Hope	-.16	-.35***	-.25*	.04

* $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$

6. Discussion and Conclusion

Generally, research on career decision-making and positive emotions has been extremely limited. The present study adds to the literature by seeking to clarify whether young adults' positive emotional well-being is associated with their career decision-making. In general, the findings highlighted that career decision-making in Chinese young people was related to their emotional well-being, as reflected in their life satisfaction and hope.

Although hope and life satisfaction were both related to the difficulties to make career decisions, life satisfaction was found to be a significant predictor of self-clarity, career importance as well as access to occupational-educational information, whereas hope negatively predicted the lack of occupational-educational information and career indecisiveness. The former finding indicated that individuals who are more satisfied with life in general know more about themselves, acknowledge the importance of career, and have more access to the information they need to make a career decision. People's self-knowledge forms through experience with and interpretation of one's environment and is influenced by evaluations of others, reinforcements, and attributions of one's own behavior (Wehmeyer, 1996). When the judgment of self is evaluative, individuals' affective reactions are even more relevant (Levine, Wyer, & Schwarz, 1994). Suh (2002) found across cultures those whose self-beliefs are clearly and confidently defined were significantly more likely to experience higher life satisfaction. The current findings also lend support to the claim that such affective reactions can be used as a basis for a range of judgments, such as career decisions.

Related to self-clarity is the means to achieve one's career goals. Seeking relevant information is one of the major means. Literature shows that individuals with information deficits are not really seeking out more options (Miller & Brown, 2005), but rather to decide between several options (Brown & Rector, 2008). With the collection of relevant information, the level of satisfaction with the career, or life in general, will be increased too.

What a career choice means varies across individuals. Our results showed that if an individual feels more content with what life provides to him or her, he or she would be more likely to see the value of making a wise career decision. Past research also suggests that people who are more enthusiastic about their career tend to report to be more satisfied with their life (Bonebright, Clay, & Ankenmann, 2000).

The finding that hope negatively predicted the lack of occupational-educational information and decisiveness suggests that individuals who report to be more hopeful are prone to have less difficulty in seeking career-related information and be more decisive in their decision-making process. Intuitively, when one has more hope for his or her life, he or she is more likely to seek appropriate means to fulfill the hope. Seeking occupational-educational information is such a means through which individuals are able to collect required information to make a decision accordingly. This, in turn, reduces the indecisiveness in their decision-making.

The findings of this study are subject to some limitations. First, self-report instruments were used to measure all the variables. Self-report instruments may be susceptible to social desirability biases, thereby limiting the validity of conclusions that can be drawn with self-reported measures (Zhou & Winne, 2012). Related to this is the relatively low internal consistency (less than .50) in the subscales of the lack of self-clarity and lack of occupational-educational information subscales. This limits the interpretation of our findings to some extent, but also suggests the need to develop indigenous career scales to further investigate this construct among the Chinese people. Further, as hope and satisfaction exhibited different patterns in predicting career choice variables, it is not clear at this point how different emotions function in influencing one's career decision-making process. This warrants future investigations.

Identifying the unique difficulties that prevent individuals from reaching a career decision is an essential step in providing them with the help they need (Gati et al., 1996). In light of these limitations, our findings could be helpful in the design of career interventions. First, career interventions for improving one's emotional well-being (e.g., views/perceptions about life) might enhance the career decision-making process in terms of a clearer self-knowledge, more access to career-related information, and seeing more value of having a career. Second, there is a need to

consider one's emotion, given the direct effects of hope and satisfaction on the career decisiveness and reasons for indecisiveness. Therefore, it is suggested that interventions should provide activities to promote generalized positive emotions, and create effective means to achieve career goals.

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Implementation of the Process of Recognising Education Effects Obtained in Non-Formal and Informal Education Systems in Higher Education Institutions in Poland

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Abstract

The decision of the European Commission obliges all of the EU member states to prepare and implement the process of recognising the effects of education obtained in non-formal and informal systems in higher education. The progress is varied in different countries and Poland is preparing to create the procedures and implement the changes. The knowledge and expectations of the employers regarding this process are the subject of research and are aiming at familiarising the academic environment with the possibility of implementing the effects of education in order to make the studies more practical and prepare the graduates to actively enter the job market. The objective of the paper is to present the results of surveys presenting the knowledge, expectations and areas of industry-academia cooperation in the scope of implementing the process of recognition in higher education in Poland in the Finance and Accounting teaching module.

1. Introduction

The competitiveness on the job market is the reason why the public and private higher education institutions undertake various actions aiming at offering additional services for their students. They diversify the educational offer by creating new courses for which there is a demand on the job market (Horynia & Maciejewski, 2007). The directions of changes in the educational polity were presented by the European Commission in the year 1995 in the White Paper on Education and Training. The authors of the paper refer to the learning society and present five preconditions for the realisation of the "new education", which are: (Cresson & Flynn 1997)

1. Encouraging to obtain new skills,
2. Bringing the school and enterprise closer,
3. Limiting marginalisation (or some environments),
4. Popularising the knowledge of three languages,
5. Equal treatment of material and educational investments.

It should be emphasised that the globalisation creates new opportunities for the well-educated and simultaneously discriminates the lack of knowledge, skills and social competences. If a society does not notice those trends it pushes it to the margin of work life.

The introduction of the National Qualification Framework by the Polish Ministry of Science and Higher Education forced the higher education institutions to prepare new systems of evaluation by defining the effects of education (knowledge, skills, social competences), which the students are to acquire in higher education. This has also allowed popularising the non-formal and informal education in Poland, which has been widely unnoticed. The non-formal and informal education is defined as:¹

- non-formal education is: learning resulting from actions which are planned but not intended as obvious components of the education process (in the categories of educational objectives, the time spent for teaching or the didactic support), which nonetheless has an effect of learning. Such actions are intentional from the

¹ Terminology of European education and training policy, CEDEFOP 2008. See also: S. E. Eaton, Formal, non-formal and informal learning: The case of literacy, essential skills and language in Canada, Calgary, 2010r. s.8

point of view of the learner. Usually it does not result in a certificate being issued.

- informal education is: learning results from actions relating to work, family life or spending free time. It is unorganised, unstructured when it comes to objectives, duration time, pedagogical support. It is unintentional from the point of view of the learner. It does not lead to certification.

According to the recommendation of the Council of the European Union from 5.09.2012 concerning the validation of non-formal and informal education, all of the Member States should assure the existence of the national validation system by the year 2015, which would allow the higher education institutions to recognise the effects of education obtained outside of the formal education system. At present in Poland there is no legal basis which would allow recognition of education effects, but the works towards this aim are gathering pace and aim at complex solutions concerning legal conditions (regarding implementing uniform legal regulations destined to propagate the process of recognition with simultaneous referral to the control of education in order to assure adequate quality of education, organisational (maintaining the autonomy of higher education institutions in the area of preparing respective regulations and procedures in this area) and creating the necessary tools allowing the measurement of the education effects obtained outside of the formal education.

Dissemination of the recognition process of taking into account the education effects obtained in a system outside of the formal one will allow increasing the amount of persons increasing their education thanks to the possibilities of:

- exemption from some of the subjects/modules,
- decrease of the studying fees,
- shortening of the time needed for obtaining education.

The knowledge and expectation of the employers relating to this process are subject of research and are aiming at familiarising the academic environment with the possibility of implementing the effects of education in order to make the studies more practical and prepare the graduates to actively enter the job market.

The objective of the paper is to present the results of surveys presenting the knowledge, expectations and areas of industry-academia cooperation in the scope of implementing the process of recognition in higher education in Poland in the Finance and Accounting teaching module.

2. Characteristic and the method of the research

The research took into account the employers from the Pomorskie and Kujawsko-Pomorskie regions. The participants were the micro, small, medium and large enterprises², which expressed willingness and are the employers of students who study Finance and Accounting part time. The study was carried out between 10th and 31st April 2013 using the survey method. The surveys sent to the respondents consisted of two parts:

- The first part, consisting of 10 questions, was destined to supply the opinions of the employers regarding the possibility of recognition in the higher education of the qualifications obtained in the non-formal and informal system, especially regarding vocational qualifications.
- The second part, so-called metrics, was destined to supply the basic information regarding the companies taking part in the study, i.e. their size and legal form, and also the age and education status of the persons directly answering the questions.

The questions included in the study survey were of both open and closed character. Some of the questions required only a *yes* or *no* answer, but in many cases the respondent was asked to choose one or a few options from the presented answers. Where it was possible and seemed reasonable, the respondents were given the freedom to express their own opinions. When processing the results of the study the methods used were statistical, with a particular emphasis placed on the stratum weight.

3. Characteristics of the studied group

Hundred companies from the Pomorskie and Kujawsko-Pomorskie regions took part in the study. Each of the companies was sent one survey questionnaire with a request of filling it in. The initial analysis of the returned questionnaires showed that all of them were filled in correctly and by that were taken to the next stage of the analysis.

Out of the entities taking part in the study, the majority were small enterprises (employing between 10 and 49

²When dividing the companies to micro, small, medium and large enterprises only the criterion of the employment size was taken into account. Due to the anonymity of the survey the criterion of income was omitted.

persons) and medium enterprises (employing 50 to 250 persons) and the companies carrying out their business activities in the form of a limited liability company. Out of the persons who gave the answers the majority was 41-50 years old (42% of the respondents) and 31-40 years old (24% respondents), and persons with higher education on a Masters' level (84% of the respondents). The detailed information regarding the entities taking part in the study and the persons filling in the questionnaire surveys are presented in table 1.

Table 1. Characteristics of the respondents

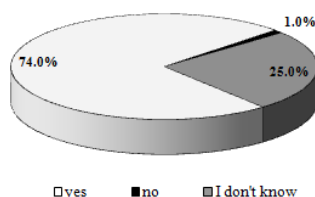
Feature		N	%	Feature		N	%
Size of the company*	micro	12	0.12	Respondents' age	Up to 30	16	0.16
	small	33	0.33		31-40	24	0.24
	medium	43	0.43		41-50	40	0.40
	large	12	0.12		above 50	20	0.20
Form of legal organisation	LLC	34	0.34	Respondents' education level	Secondary	7	0.07
	Joint stock	12	0.12		Higher- Bachelors'	9	0.09
	Partnership	20	0.20		Higher – Masters'	84	0.84
	Non-profit	7	0.07		* micro enterprises – employing up to 9 persons, small- from 10 to 50 persons, medium – 51 to 205 persons, large – above 250 person		
	PSE**	23	0.23	** public finance sector			
	other	4	0.04				

Source: own study.

4. Results of the study

The study begun by finding whether the surveyed employers are interested in the process of academic recognition of the education effects obtained in the non-formal and informal system, especially with regards to vocational experience. Such situation can occur, for example, if a company employs a new employee who intends to start academic studies or if the company sends the employee to study in order that s/he supplements his/her education needed for working at a given post or allowing him/her promotion. The obtained results (graph 1) indicate that the most of the examined employers are interested in the process of recognition of their employees' qualifications in academia. Only 1% of the respondents thought differently.

Graph 1. Interest of the employers in recognition of vocational qualification of their employees in academia.



Source: own research based on the conducted study.

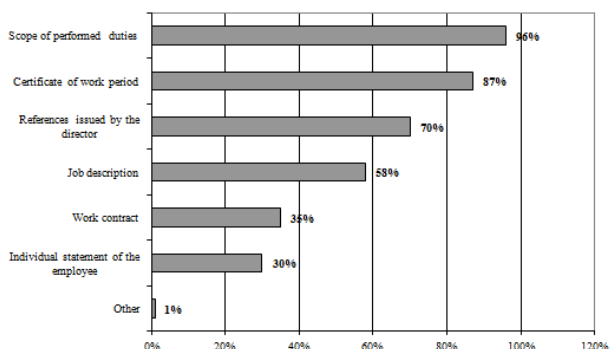
When analysing the obtained results in great detail it has to be emphasized that the highest percentage of the positive answers (as much as 81.8%) was obtained from small and medium enterprises (74.4%). The large companies were the least interested in the process of recognition of education effects (58.3%). From the respondents' point of view the most positive approach to the recognition process was exhibited by young persons (under 30 years) and the oldest (above 50 years). In the first group the percentage of positive answers was as much as 93.8%, and in the second - 80%.

What is also worth pointing out is that the problem of education effects' recognition is known to some of the examined employers, because more than one-third of the respondents (43%) confirmed that they have encountered a situation when the employee applied for being issued documents which would confirm his skills and competences acquired in the work place.

The employers were also asked if according to them the implementation of the process of education effects' recognition would be a motivation for the employees to embark on higher-education level studies. More than three-quarters of the respondents (77%) expressed positive opinions on this matter and the remaining number had no opinion. Special attention should be paid to the fact that none of the respondents gave a negative answer. What should also be pointed out is that the percentage of positive answers decreased with the age of the respondents. The percentage of undecided persons rose with their age. In the group of the youngest persons the percentage of positive answers was 93.8%, and in the group of the oldest persons (above 50 years old) it was only 60.0%. Analogically, there was only 6.2% of the youngest persons who chose the answer *I have no opinion*, and in the group of the oldest persons the number rose to 40%.

Documenting the skills and competences acquired in the work place which could be a basis for recognising the education effects is difficult. Therefore the respondents were asked to indicate which of the listed documents, according to them, can be the basis for recognising the education effects. The respondents were also given the freedom to give their own answers. The obtained results are presented in graph 2.

Graph 2. Documents which could be the basis for recognising the education effects



Source: own research based on the conducted study.

According to the surveyed employers, the basis of recognising the education effects can be: the scope of performed duties in the work place, certificate of work period on a given post and the references issued by the head of unit. What was indicated the least often was the content of the work contract and the individual statement of the employee. It is worth adding that one of the respondents indicated that the basis of recognising the education effects can be also the certificates of completed courses and trainings. It should be emphasized that the obtained answers did not differ depending on the size of the company (the scope of performed duties and certificate of work period were always indicated as the most important) and the age of the respondents.

Another question which the employers were asked dealt with the organisation and the course of the education effects' recognition. The employers were therefore asked if the final effect of the recognition should be exemption of the students from some of the modules which their higher education courses consisted of, or if it should simultaneously be accompanied by shortening of the studies' duration time. The obtained answers are presented in table 2.

Table 2. Final effect of the profess of education effects' recognition

The process of education effects' recognition should entail:	Percentage of answers
exemption of the students from some of the modules	19.00%
exemption of the students from some of the modules and shortening of the studies' duration time	81.00%

Source: own research based on the conducted study.

The dominating majority of the respondents, as much as 81% believes that as a result of the implementation of the education effects' recognition system the student should be jest exempted from some of the modules with simultaneous

shortening of the studies' duration time. Only 19% of the respondents were against shortening of the studies' duration. The employers were also asked if the process of education effects' recognition should take into account all of the students regardless of their age and the length of their work experience, or whether it should be somehow limited. The obtained answers are presented in table 3.

Table 3. Limitations in the process of education effects' recognition

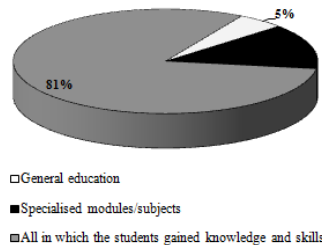
Who can be affected by the process of education effects' recognition:	Percentage of answers
Everyone, regardless of their work experience and age	62.00%
Only the students above the age of 25	0.00%
Only the students above the age of 25 who have at least 3 years of work experience	38.00%

Source: own research based on the conducted study.

According to the presented results almost two-thirds of the employers believe that the process of education effects' recognition can take into account all students. On the other hand, 38% of the respondents believe that the process should be limited to the students above the age of 25 who have at least 3 years of work experience. It should also be pointed out that the obtained answers did not differ depending on the size of the enterprise, but a significant difference was noted depending on the age of the respondents. 77.7% of the persons aged 31 to 40 believed, contrary to the other groups, that the process of education effects' recognition should be applied only to students above the age of 25 who have at least 3 years of work experience. Only 22% of this group believed that the process of recognition should not have any limitations.

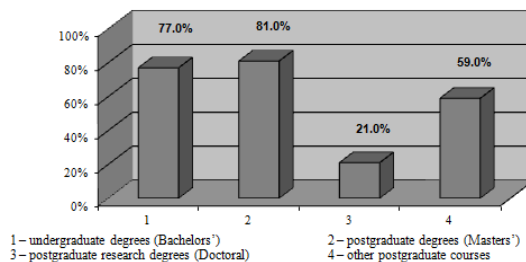
The next question was destined to deliver information whether the process of education effects' recognition should be applied to all the stages of the higher education, i.e. the undergraduate degree (Bachelors'), postgraduate degree (Masters'), research degrees (Doctoral studies) and other postgraduate courses, and also whether this process should include all the modules carried out during the studies or only a part of them. The obtained results are presented on the graphs 3 and 4.

Graph 3. Modules/subjects incorporated into the system of education effects' recognition



Source: own research based on the conducted study.

Graph 4. Stages of higher education in which the process of education effects' recognition should be implemented



Source: own research based on the conducted study.

According to the employers, the recognition of the education effects should foremost be applied to all of the undergraduate and postgraduate studies on Masters' level- such an opinion was expressed by 77% and 81% of the respondents, respectively. The types of studies least often indicated were the postgraduate research studies, which is in accordance with their specifics. Furthermore, the significant majority of the employers also believed that the process of education effects' recognition should incorporate all of the modules/subjects thought in higher education and that it should not be limited to a single group, e.g. general subjects or specialised subjects. The obtained answers did not differ depending on the size of the examined enterprise or the age of the respondents.

The final question asked of the respondents who should be making the decisions regarding recognising the competences and skills obtained in the non-formal and informal system. Whether it is the higher education institution which should be responsible, or maybe other non-governmental organisations set up especially for this purpose, who would act across the whole territory of the country, or a central unit (e.g. Commission for Recognition) created within the structures of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. The obtained results are presented in table 4.

Table 4. Institutions responsible for the realisation of the education effects' recognition process

The process of education effects' recognition should be realised by	Percentage
Higher education institutions – independently and automatically	6.00%
Non-governmental organisations act across the whole territory of the country	5.00%
A Commission for Recognition created within the structures of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education	28.00%

Source: Own research based on the conducted study.

More than two-thirds of the examined employers believed that the decisions regarding recognition of the education effects' recognition should be made independently and autonomously by the higher education institution. On the other hand, slightly more than a quarter of the respondents believed that such decisions should be taken on a central level by an institution created especially for this purpose within the structures on the Ministry of Science and Higher Education.

5. Summary and results

Based on the survey carried out among the employers regarding the possibility of recognising within the higher education the knowledge, skills and competences obtained in the non-formal and informal systems, with a special emphasis being put on the vocational qualifications, following conclusions can be made:

- the employers are interested in implementing the process of education effects' recognition – as much as 74% of the respondents expressed this opinion. What is more, 77% of the employers believe that the possibility of recognising the vocational qualifications in the higher education would be a motivational factor for pursuing an education in the formal system.
- the main documents which can constitute the basis for recognising the education effects in the higher education are: the scope of duties performed in the work place (96%), certificate of work period on a given work post (87%) and references issued by the head of the unit (70%).
- according to most of the employers (81%), the process of education effects' recognition should not only entail exempting the students from some of the subjects/modules, but also shortening the time of their studies. Furthermore, two-thirds believe that this process should incorporate all of the students, without introducing any additional limitations regarding their age or the length of their work experience.
- the decisions regarding recognising the education effects should be taken autonomously by higher education institutions. This is the opinion of 67% of the examined respondents. 28% of the employers were favouring the appointment of a central institution within the structures of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (e.g. a Commission for Recognition).

What should be emphasised is that the employers are interested in the implementation of the recognition process in the higher education, which can contribute to propagating lifelong learning and, in many cases, can lead to activation on the work market.

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Influence of Background Knowledge on Military Students' Performance in Standardized Agreement English Speaking Test

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Abstract

Since Standardized Agreement English tests 6001 (STANAG 6001) are designed to test military students' level of general English, but must have what is called a 'military flavour', heated discussions go along with each test design about the extent to which 'military flavour' should be used. The term is used to refer to background knowledge, so the question about the extent of 'military flavour' really becomes one about the influence of background knowledge on test performance. According to this research the perception that military candidates have about their performance during a speaking interview is that they generally feel they do better and are more confident when they are asked questions concerning their field of expertise. But on the other hand, results of the research concerning candidates' performance during speaking interviews conducted according to STANAG test showed that results were higher only with higher level candidates. To be noted is that 'military content' is a catchall term, and different military forces have different areas of expertise, sometimes not related to one another. So when infantry officers were asked questions about the Navy, even though the content was still military, the performance of the candidates was poorer even with higher level students. These are significant findings which will pave the way for a better understanding of this issue.

1. Introduction

English language testing has gained importance for the Albanian Armed Forces (AAF) over the years, as a country aspiring for NATO integration. Especially after the 2009 NATO accession AAF are participating in missions and filling working positions that require a certain level of language proficiency. NATO has created some international military standards (STANAGs) for trainings, procedures, tactics, etc., that contribute to a better functioning of the organization together. The standardized agreement of language testing (STANAG 6001) is one of them. STANAG 6001 is a proficiency scale that is based on general English knowledge, and it represents all four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. According to the latest edition there are five levels of proficiency and four plus levels. The plus levels were introduced as a necessity to better represent a proficiency of language which was more difficult with the previous editions.

All military members that care to engage in any NATO job position or mission must undergo English Language Proficiency Test STANAG 6001, since NATO countries refer to it to compare proficiency level of potential candidates. As stated above, rather than testing Language for Specific Purposes, STANAG tests general knowledge, but the standardization document specifies that a 'military flavour' can be added to the tasks, in order to somehow have some reference of the background knowledge of the candidates. Military contexts are specific, as are other professional fields for that matter, so military officers must demonstrate some linguistic job-related skills. For example, when probed for Rules of Engagement, they must possess some basic terminology to be able to speak about what situations to engage in. According to the standardization document, it depends on each member country's language testing section to decide on the extent to which military content will be integrated in the test tasks. Because language proficiency level has a great impact on whatever duty or mission military officers are engaged in, and because it greatly influences their job performance, this decision must be underpinned by a careful study.

As mentioned above, what we generally refer to as 'military flavour' is nothing but scant use of background knowledge in the language test. Because of this salient feature of our test, we can say that the distinction between general purpose and specific purpose in this test is a very fine line, so the discussion in our circles is about the orientation of STANAG language test towards becoming a more specific purposes test vs. becoming a general purposes test and what effect it has on candidates' performance in case we choose either way.

The general view that candidates hold is that they would score higher in the Speaking section of the STANAG test,

if they were probed for their field of expertise. One part of this study is concerned with this perception, so the research question is: what is the perception of candidates about their performance in the speaking test if this section is more field-specific related? And the second part is a follow-up: do the actual results of the speaking interview verify this perception?

2. Literature review

Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) testing has a relatively short but very intense history, full of debate and controversy. Although the first specimen date back as early as 1913, with the *Certificate of Proficiency in English* by University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate (UCLES) these kinds of tests did not truly emerge until 1975 with *Temporary Registration Assessment Board* (Douglas 2000). Despite the fact that the theoretical foundations of LSP testing are certainly much more solid today, there are those that doubt the necessity of such tests.

Many researches are conducted in the field of testing Language for Specific Purposes to shed more light on the much-debated question of whether LSP tests are necessary at all, since general purpose tests might do the same job. Douglas (2000) is perhaps one of the most ardent supporters of LSP testing. He mentions two important features that serve the theoretical foundation of LSP testing, namely: '*authenticity of task and interaction between language knowledge and specific purpose content knowledge.*' Indeed, rather than context-free language use, we are all faced with cases in which we must demonstrate understanding of the real-life situation beyond simplified linguistic features. Therefore it becomes pivotal that real life situations be integrated in the tests. This is perhaps the most important reason why integrating background knowledge in STANAG tests becomes key to test validity.

Assessment of some prior knowledge on candidates' needs and expectations about the oral test they are going to take has its own part in this debate. Underhill (1987) rightly calls them the immediate consumers of product, yet, as he points out: '*in the history of language testing... we have often managed to ignore the point of view of the test taker altogether.*' Therefore it is logical to make a survey of the candidates' opinions and expectations about the test.

Another reason why this research is important is that Speaking, by nature, is different from the other skills in terms of personal contact between testees and testers, which brings them closer to a more normal, human and realistic relationship. Because of this personal contact, the testee will feel that the tester is interested and therefore he or she will be more confident and perform better (Underhill 1987).

A third reason why Speaking interviews can become specialized more easily is because of the personal contact testees and testers mentioned above. While it is very difficult to adapt reading test tasks to the needs and expertise of all military officers belonging to different military branches that come to be tested during an open session or other, in Speaking, the interlocutor may adapt the set of questions to the candidate sitting in front of him. To illustrate this point we can say that it is penalizing for a pilot to find a reading test task based on Land Forces Tactics. While he or she may have some vague idea about the content, he or she will certainly not perform as well as an infantry officer whose area of expertise is strictly related to land forces tactics, and who in this case is at a more favourable position. Meanwhile, the Speaking interview gives the interlocutor the tool to adapt the questions accordingly, since the first stage of the interview is a brief introduction of the candidate and his or her current duty post. Thus, the pilot's unfavourable position in the Reading test can be regained in Speaking with a question about fixed wing aircrafts use in the battlefield.

But on the other hand, to some extent researchers have failed to predict the influence of background knowledge on the performance. While it is true that it has some effect, the extent or intensity differs at large according to some researches which will be elaborated below:

Researchers have a point when they all agree that LSP tests are theoretically motivated and indeed possible, and that the answer to the question whether we should have LSP tests is positive. Yet, some studies have shown that these tests do not clearly predict the performance level of candidates in a specific field (Douglas and Selinker, 1992). This may happen for a number of reasons, two of which are very significant to this research, namely, the evaluation criteria and the scoring grid on the one hand, and training of general purpose test raters for specific purpose language testing on the other.

Both reasons are indicators of a flaw in the process of testing speaking in STANAG 6001. Testers of English language in the Albanian Armed Forces (AAF) have a Degree in Linguistic studies, and an on-the-job training on military terminology and probably this is the situation in many other countries which have a test section attached to or integrated in the military structure. In the context of Specific Purpose Language testing, a problem we often face is lack of expertise when the test tasks become too technical. At this point, the issue of testing candidates' performance in a second language, when they are put in a field-expert context, turns into one of having a valid and reliable scoring grid and being able to translate it well into the level of professional capability of the candidates. When studying the effect of changing

test method facets on the performance of candidates, who were prospective international teaching assistants of chemistry, on a general speaking test and a field-specific test, Douglas and Selinker found that raters were more flexible and less conservative in rating general topic test tasks, than when scoring field-specific topics. The researchers argue that the fact that language test raters are in many cases not field specialists, but only language specialists with a sprinkle of technical vocabulary on top of their background knowledge is perhaps the main problem of LSP testing.

Another important research in this direction is that of Caroline Clapham who studied candidates' performance on reading tests of the International English Language Testing System (IELTS)(Douglas 2000). By the same token, some of her findings are worth discussing in our context; first of, variations in specificity of the texts influenced students' performance. This raises a very important question, if we all agree that field-specific texts vary greatly in their technical language: How specific should field-related texts be? A battlefield manual is way too technical compared to a text about leadership, although they are both field-specific. So the dilemma of too much or too little technical language is present in this discussion.

Another finding in Clapham's research is related to the candidates' experience, i.e. the more experience the better performance in field-specific tests. This is also the case with our research, which will be elaborated on in the discussion points at the end of this paper.

Finally, Clapham observed differences in performance based on the students' level of proficiency of: higher level students performed comparatively the same in either test, general or specific; the same thing can be said about lower level students; whereas intermediate level students' performance was boosted by job related topics.

The above mentioned discussion points are but a few of the ones that are usually found in the LSP paradigm.

3. Methodology

3.1 Type of research

The type of research employed by this study is a combination of the quantitative and the qualitative methods accordingly and was conducted in two phases with the aim of finding data that would verify the research questions.

3.2 Participants

The participants of this study were 25 students attending intensive English courses at the Foreign Languages Centre of the Academy of Armed Forces of Albania. The courses that they were attending belonged to the Standardized Language Profile (SLP) 3232, and SLP 3333 according to this order of skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, ranging from upper-intermediate, to advanced language proficiency. The main focus of this paper is to find what effect candidates' background knowledge has on their performance with particular attention to the proficiency level, so this is the reason why this pool of participants was chosen. Their main demographic characteristics are given in the table below.

Gender		Rank		Age		Average years studying English			
M	F	Civilian	Military	22-40	42-60	0-3	3-5	5-7	7-10
18	7	3	22	14	11	12	8	2	3

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of participants

3.3 Materials

The material used in the first phase of this research was a questionnaire, whereas in the second phase two sets of tasks were employed during speaking interviews, as part of the speaking test procedure.

The questionnaire was in Albanian and was organized in three sections:

- The first section gathered general information about the respondents, such as gender, rank, age and average years studying English.
- The second section's main goal was to find out the perception of candidates about their performance in speaking tests when they are asked field-specific questions. There were 5 close-ended questions asking the respondents to rank their answers according to the Likert scale in which 5=Very Good, 4=Good, 3=Satisfactory, 2=Poor, 1=Very Poor, about how they perceived their performance in the speaking test, if they

were asked questions about the military, or how difficult they found it to respond to such military-related questions in English.

- The third section was similar in aim and organization to the second one. So there were 5 close-ended questions, and Likert scale was used even for this section, but this time, the respondents were asked about how they felt their performance was when the questions in the speaking test were general purpose questions, or how difficult they found it to respond to the general purpose questions in English.

The main aim of second phase was to find out if the perception of candidates about their performance in a more 'military flavoured' speaking test was verified. To do this, two sets of five topics each were prepared;

- The first set of five topics was chosen from general purpose areas of discussion, namely Tourism, Education, Transportation, Health, and Economy. Each topic was arranged in such a way as to have two questions pertaining to Level 2 the first one and Level 3 the second according to the STANAG Level Descriptors.
- The second set of five topics was chosen from specific purpose areas of discussion, namely Civil Emergency Planning, Women in the Military, Rules of Engagement, Nuclear Weapons, and NATO's Humanitarian Role. The arrangement of questions per each topic was the same as that of general purpose questions.

Both sets of questions were scored according to the rating grid in which four linguistic areas were covered: Accuracy (grammar, time concepts), Fluency (hesitations, speed of delivery), Range of Language (vocabulary, use of register) and Interaction (coherence, cohesion). Each of these areas was scored individually, employing Likert scale in which 5=Very Good, 4=Good, 3=Satisfactory, 2=Poor, 1=Very Poor, and the pass mark per each linguistic area was 3=satisfactory.

3.4 Procedure

Each phase of the research was conducted separately in three different days. The first day, questionnaires were handed out to the two groups of students attending intensive English courses at the Foreign Languages Centre, as described above. This was done before the students started regular classes.

In the second phase of the research, each group of students was tested on a different day, with both sets of questions mentioned above. Each of the participants was tested individually by one interlocutor, while the researcher assumed the role of the observer and scored the performance of testees based on the rating grid and Likert scale described in the section of materials. Eleven students of the group named as 3232, were the first who were interviewed. Each interview lasted approximately 20 minutes and followed a similar pattern as described in Test Specifications of the Albanian Armed Forces. It started with the warm-up phase in which the candidate is asked to give general information about themselves. This phase has two potential advantages: first, the interlocutor gets the necessary information about the candidate's background, so that the second phase questions are oriented towards that professional knowledge; the second advantage is that the candidate is familiarized with the tone of voice, accent, and speed of delivery of the interlocutor. The second phase which is the most important one is the extended discourse phase in which the focus of our research is drawn. During this phase, the testee was asked about two topics per each set; each topic was extended into two questions, one for level 2, and the other for level 3, according to the STANAG descriptors. This phase started with the general topic questions: for example, the general topic for one of the candidates was tourism, and he was asked about *the things he did not like in the service offered by the hotel he spent his last summer holidays (Level 2 question)*; after his response, the level 3 question was: *'If you were in a position of power what measures would you take to improve the overall conditions and service of holiday resorts in our country?'*

The interview followed the same pattern for the military topics. For example, one of the woman candidates' military topic was 'Women in the Military'. The level 2 question was: *'How difficult has it been for you as a woman to serve in the difficult job of a military officer?'* whereas the level 3 question was: *'If you were ordered to take part in a combat mission, what would you do, would you defy that order with the pretext that you are a woman?'*

Because it would have taken too long to process the information gathered by scoring the performance of candidates for each of the questions, it was decided that they be scored about all the general topic questions together, and then for their performance in the military topics, so that in the end each student have two scores.

4. Data analysis

This section gives a summary of the data gathered through questionnaires and individual testing. The pie charts show the percentage of candidates' answers to the questions of the questionnaire which give an overview of the perception

they have about their performance when asked military-content questions. The same tool is used to show whether theirs is only a perceived advantage. These percentages are as follows:

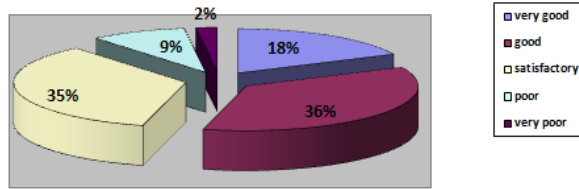


Figure 1. Candidates' perception about performance on military content speaking tests

Figure 1 shows that the percentage of students that felt that their results would be *very good* if the questions of the speaking test were based on their background knowledge is 18%; 36% believed that their results would be *good*, and 35% believed that their result would be *satisfactory*. 9% thought they would do *poorly* in such a test, and 2% thought they would do *very poorly*. The trend of the answers shows that about 54% of the students think they are at an advantage if they are asked questions about their job, thus they think they would score *very good* and *good*.

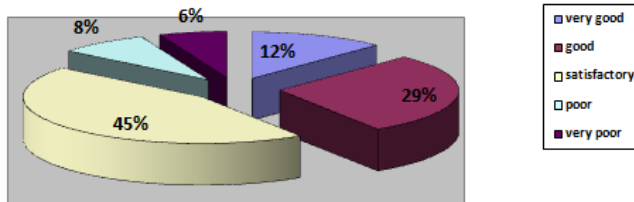


Figure 2. Candidates' perception about performance on general content speaking tests

Figure 2 shows that the percentage of students that felt that their results would be *very good* if the questions of the speaking test were based on general topics is 12%. 29% believed that their results would be *good*, and 45% believed that their result would be *satisfactory*. 8% thought they would do *poorly* in such a test, and 6% thought they would do *very poorly*.

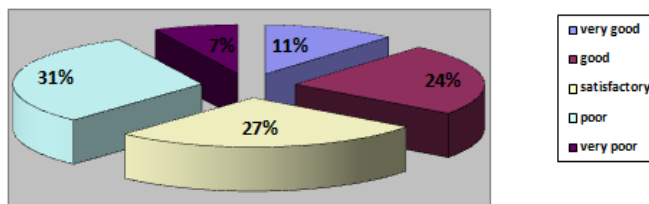


Figure 3. Candidates' performance on military content speaking tests

After the candidates were tested, the actual performance of candidates on military content speaking test is given on Figure 3 above. As shown, 11% scored *very good*, 24% scored *good*, 27% scored *satisfactory*. A *poor* performance was that of 31% of the candidates, and 7% scored *very poor*. As we have mentioned above, the pass mark for the test is *satisfactory*, so the overall percentage of the candidates that scored a passing mark was 62%.

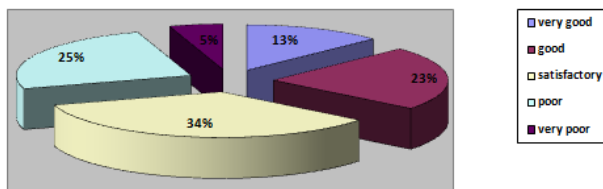


Figure 4. Candidates' performance on general content speaking test

Figure 4 shows candidates' performance on general content speaking test. 13% of the candidates scored *very good* when the questions asked were about general purposes, 23% scored *good*, and 34% scored *satisfactory*. Below the pass mark were 30% of the candidates, out of which, 25% scored *poor*, and 5% scored *very poor*.

As we can see from the results drawn from the first phase of the research, 41% of the students think they would score *very good* and *good* in a general topic speaking test, as compared to the 54%, who think that a more military oriented test would help them to score better.

The second phase of the research dealing with the actual testing of the candidates produced figures which show that 70% of the candidates scored a pass mark in the general topics, compared to the 62% of the military topics.

What we can draw from here is that the advantage of military content is only perceived, but not verified, according to this research.

5. Conclusions and Considerations

This research gives some insight on the effects that background knowledge might have on candidates' performance when they take STANAG speaking tests that are run yearly at the FLC, AAF. It certainly does not pretend to give an answer to all the issues raised when discussing this topic, since we do walk through the 'jungle' of LSP testing, as it is referred to every so often, where finding right answers is hard, and where axioms are inexistent. However, an important conclusion that is drawn from this research is that although students think that being asked questions related to their background knowledge during the speaking test would help them, the percentages of the test performance showed that there was a slight advantage of general topics over the military topics in their performance during the test. But this conclusion needs further research, as it has a number of implications which are mentioned below:

The first issue that has a direct impact on the conclusions that need to be drawn is the small number of participants, only 25. In order to have clearer conclusions about the research questions, it is important that more people be involved in the process. This way the trend of the perception and performance would be more founded and more complete.

Another important issue is the fact that test raters need a better training on professional topics that they are testing; otherwise the reliability and validity of the test itself are put into question. Research has shown that raters that are not field professionals tend to score more conservatively, and somehow demonstrate uncertainty when the questions are too technical. So the question of whether LSP testing is possible really becomes one about whether fully professional field-specific raters are indeed possible.

Another factor that greatly impacts the result of the test is the extent to which we want to go technical. By that we mean a decision must be taken about whether we should choose topics that are highly professional, or topics that are job-related but do not go too far. However, this issue needs further research, and it is not in the focus of this paper.

It is noted that students that belong to the age group 22-40 did generally better in the general topics than in the military topics, which is an indicator that shows that perhaps the experience at work helped the second age group of officers to perform better on military topics than the younger age group. This is probably because through experience they are more familiarized with and certainly more exposed to the military terminology and concepts.

While this is true, the same thing cannot be said about higher level students. Those that scored *very good* in military topics, had the same score in general topics, too. Thus, we can say that experience plays a lesser role with higher level students.

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The Development of a Children's Inventory for Language Learning Strategies (CHILLS)

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Abstract

As a widely researched area language learning strategies mostly focused on older learners (adolescents and adults). Language learning strategy research is not complete unless research direction moves towards and deepens in studying language learning strategies (LLS) of children. Previous and limited research on LLS of children focused on a group of strategies and their effects on learning selected language skills. Most of LLS research with children investigated bilingual children, children in immersion classrooms and/or those in ESL contexts. Thus, there is a need for a comprehensive study that investigates strategy use in general, including all strategy groups and their effects on learning all language skills in an EFL context. Another gap in the literature is related to LLS inventories. Some inventories and/or questionnaires that are developed so far investigated strategy use while learning a single skill (such as reading or listening); however, most of these lack reliability and validity data. Some others covered all strategies and provided psychometric information (such as SILL), but none of these are developed for children, yet for children in EFL contexts. Current study aims to develop a language learning strategy inventory for children, by using data collected from 383 fourth and fifth grade (10-11 years old) primary school children in an EFL context. Thus, the study reports on the reliability and validity processes of the instrument. As a result, a valid and reliable inventory for children's language learning strategies (CHILLS: Children's Inventory for Language Learning) is developed.

Keywords: language learning strategies, young learners, strategy inventory, foreign language learning

1. Introduction

Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL) is a still growing area. As soon as TEYL has been supported by the European Commission and Council of Europe in the 1980s and 1990s, many countries increased their attempts to lower the age for foreign language learning (FLL) (Johnstone, 2009). During the past decade TEYL has spread out to many Asian countries such as India, China, Taiwan, etc. (Johnstone, 2009). In Europe, starting language education in pre-school or primary school is supported by the EU and the governments are encouraged to do so (Enever & Moon, 2009). The interest in teaching young learners (YLs) has also triggered research into finding the most appropriate ways to teach YLs. Identification of the differences of children from adults was the starting point of methodological and pedagogical work in TEYL. Children having limited cognitive abilities, world, conceptual, and linguistic knowledge are different from adults in terms of their learning needs. In addition, children's characteristics are also one of the concerns of the researchers and educators in trying to find out the ways relevant to YL's skills and abilities.

According to Piaget, children younger than 11 lack abstract thinking as they are assumed to be in the period of concrete operations (Dworetzky, 1993). Therefore, they can reason within the "here and now" (Arıkan, 2012; Gürsoy, 2012a). Children cannot think of the hypothetical future and do not care much about the past. In addition, children learn fast but also forget fast. They can learn if the information is presented indirectly. They have lower affective filters (Gürsoy & Akin, 2013; Moon, 2000), and are enthusiastic and talkative (Halliwell, 1992; Moon, 2000). They rely mostly on adults, and like to please them (Moon, 2000). More importantly, unlike adults they do not have a reason for learning another language (Gürsoy, 2012b).

Due to some of the children's characteristics and their developmental features they need to be supported by their teachers not only to facilitate their language learning (LL) process but also to pave the way for autonomous learning. The shift from teacher-centered approaches to learner-centered approaches (Rubin, 1987; Zhao, 2009), which is backed-up by the Council of Europe (2004) has led the attention of educators to the learner.

Developing autonomous learners is one of the components of learner-centered approaches. Autonomy, as a concept, first entered to the language teaching field through a project called "Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project", which was established in 1971. "Autonomy, or the capacity to take charge of one's own learning, was seen as a natural product of the practice of self-directed learning, or learning in which the objectives, progress and evaluation of

learning are determined by the learners themselves" (Benson, 2001, p. 8). Self-directed learning, on the other hand, is defined by Cohen (1990, p. 10) as an approach in which "learners make decisions, alone or with the help of others, about what they need or want to know, how they will set objectives for learning, what resources and strategies they will use, and how they will assess their progress".

McDonough (2001) brings in a new terminology called "self-regulation", which hasn't been used in the foreign language (FL) terminology, yet related to more common concepts such as self-directed learning, self-instruction or autonomy. Corno and Mandidach (1983) argue that cognitive and affective processes, which are used to complete academic tasks successfully, are planned and monitored through self-regulation. Self-regulation can become automatic when these metacognitive processes, planning and monitoring, is well developed.

Hsiao and Oxford (2002) argue that self-regulation in psychology and autonomy in L2 is closely related. As with psychologists, FL educators see language learning strategies (LLS) as an integral part of self-regulated or self-directed learning. Accordingly, L2 learner autonomy involves: "a) willingness to perform a language task with little or no assistance, with flexibility according to situation, and with transferability to other contexts; and b) relevant action, including the use of appropriate L2 learning strategies for accomplishing the task" (Hsiao and Oxford 2002, p. 369). Using LLS is one of the steps leading to autonomy. Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (p. 8).

According to Gürsoy (2010), LLS research related to children is limited as the previous studies mostly focused on adolescents and adults (see, Halbach, 2000; Green and Oxford, 1995; Griffiths and Parr, 2001; Kirsch, 2008; Sheorey, 1999). Purdie and Oliver (1999) argue that there are social and psychological differences between adults and YLs, thus they point to the fact that the results of LLS research with adults cannot be applied to children. The limited number of LLS research with YLs is mostly conducted in ESL (English as a Second Language) contexts. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) stresses the importance of recognizing differences in SL and FL settings. In addition, in their study Green and Oxford (1995) argue that strategy use of students might show variety depending on their learning environments. Limited number of research on bilingual children (see, Purdie & Oliver, 1999), immersion (see, Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999), and ESL contexts points out to the need to extend strategy research on YLs. Therefore, there is a need for studies conducted with children in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) environments. Furthermore, earlier studies either focused on a single strategy type (cognitive, social, etc.) or strategies used while performing a single skill (reading, speaking, etc.) (Gürsoy, 2010). Hence, there is a need for a more comprehensive study.

It is no doubt that taxonomies and inventories are wonderful tools to identify LLS. However, earlier taxonomies and inventories developed so far involved older learners' (adolescents and adults) LLS. The only LLS taxonomy for children is developed by Gürsoy (2010) by collecting data from 9-11 year children in Turkey.

Many researchers have developed their own inventories for older learners (adolescence +) according to their own classification of LLS (see Bialystok, 1978; Carver, 1984; Naiman, Frochlich, Stern, & Todesco 1978; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1981; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). However, most of these lack reliability and validity tests. SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) that is developed by Oxford (1990), is one of the instruments that were tested for its reliability and validity. LLS that are in the inventory cover four basic skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The strategy descriptions used in SILL are gathered from a taxonomy, which was based on an extensive literature and research review and developed by Oxford, (1990). Strategies are grouped under two main categories as direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are those that involve direct use of language as well as affect language learning directly. Whereas, indirect strategies are not involved directly with the language learning, they support it (Oxford, 1990; Hsiao and Oxford, 2002). Each major category consists of three strategy groups: Memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies under direct strategies and metacognitive, affective and social strategies under indirect strategies. These strategy groups are composed of 19 strategy sets. As a whole Oxford's strategy system includes 62 strategies. Since this is the richest and the most detailed system of categorization current study uses it for comparison.

However, SILL is developed for and tested on adolescents and adults and therefore is not appropriate for and applicable to children for two reasons: First, the language of the inventory can be difficult to comprehend for children, even when translated and its validity and reliability is measured. Second, the inventory is developed by using previous data and research results, mostly conducted on older learners and, hence cover strategies used mostly by a specific age group. It is possible that children use different strategies than those listed in the inventory and/or they may not use all strategy types that are used by adults. Therefore, there is a need to develop an instrument to learn about children's LLS in a more practical, reliable, and valid way in order to help children become aware of LLS, enable teachers to learn about their students' strategy types, develop new methodologies or adopt existing ones, aid YLs to become autonomous and self-directed learners, increase the number of strategies that are being preferred and used by children, and implement

strategy training. Hence, the current study aims at developing a LLS inventory for children in an EFL context. The study is significant as it aims to shed some light to LLS research with children by collecting data from 10-11 year old children learning EFL. What's more, it aims to inquire LLS of YLs as a whole without any specific concentration on a specific strategy type or a language skill.

2. Method

The study aims to develop a LLS inventory for EFL children in Turkey. Unlike other inventories in the literature the item pool is formed by data gathered from children in the same context.

2.1 Subjects

The research is conducted on 402 fourth and fifth grade students (age 10-11) in four primary schools in Turkey. Incomplete data from 19 students were excluded from the study and data is gathered from the remaining 383 students.

2.2 Instrument:

In an earlier study by Gürsoy (2010) the item pool for the inventory was formed by collecting data from 54 third, fourth, and fifth grade primary school children in Turkey via data triangulation. As a result of an open-ended and semi-guided questionnaire, task-based interviews, observations conducted during task-based interviews, interviews designed according to the results of the questionnaire, and classroom observations data indicating children's LLS are collected and used to develop LLS taxonomy for children.

Each strategy identified as a result of the data collection period was put under a certain strategy group such as memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social, since it is argued by Hsiao & Oxford (2002) that six-factor strategy classification developed by Oxford (1990) is more consistent with language learners' strategy use. Afterwards, the strategy sets that these strategies belong to are decided. However, although all items are put under one of the strategy sets, it is unavoidable that there might be inter-correlations among strategies (Oxford, 1990; Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). That is, some strategies placed under a certain set may also be placed under another. As a result, 293 items are listed.

When looking at the strategies under strategy groups it is seen that there are three strategies under memory strategies and one strategy under affective strategies that children said they are using while learning a FL. Although these might be the only strategies that children are actually using there is also some possibility that other memory and affective strategies could not be identified during data collection process. Thus, by using Oxford's (1990) strategy taxonomy the researcher added items that are considered memory and affective strategies and not indicated by the students. In sum, nine memory and seven affective strategies are added and a total of 309 strategies are listed.

All items were written as they were stated by children. To avoid misunderstandings caused by an adult's way of expressing the same idea, statements were kept in their original form as much as possible, unless there were any incomprehensibility. Since the number of the items are too many for the age group of the subjects, similar strategies under the same strategy set is identified and combined to form a single item. This resulted in 109 items.

In order not to affect the reliability of the instrument, none of the strategies were excluded. If done otherwise, the decision to take out some strategies and leave others will be a subjective opinion and would conflict with the idea of data collection. As an unexplored area it is thought that it would be erroneous to make such judgments on children's LLS.

2.3 Procedure

109-item questionnaire was given to 10 experts for their opinion to test the face-validity of the instrument. Experts were chosen from the English Language Teaching and Educational Sciences Departments. Consequently, the inventory, which was initially designed as a 5-point likert scale as "I strongly disagree, I disagree, I somewhat agree, I agree, I strongly agree" reduced to 3-point likert scale and the responses were changed and shortened as "yes, sometimes and no". This change was made due to the fact that slight differences in meaning could confuse children (ages 10 – 11) who are not fully developed cognitively and metacognitively and thus, affect the reliability of their answers.

Secondly, in the initial form, the answer sheet was given at the end of the inventory and responses were written only once at the beginning of each section. Students were then asked to mark the number that fits best with their opinion

on the answer sheet. Upon experts' suggestions the responses were given next to each item as otherwise would be confusing and impractical.

İngilizce' mi iletirmek için İngilizce film yada başka programlar izlerim¹.

Evet

Bazen

Hayır

Thirdly, some statements were changed according to the experts' advice and an item was removed from the instrument due to redundancy. Thus, the final version of the instrument constituted 108 items. Lastly, some changes were made in the instructions that resulted in shorter and simpler sentences for better understanding.

The instrument was also tested for content validity. Three experts, all of which are English Language Teaching (ELT) Department professors, were asked to rate each item as appropriate or inappropriate for its strategy group (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social, and affective) and score the item as "1" for inappropriate or "2" for appropriate according to its the strategy group. Thus, content validity ratio was calculated. All items, except for four items (58, 86, 103, 107), are rated as appropriate for their strategy group. Accordingly, the content validity ratio was found to be 98,78%. The four items were not excluded from the questionnaire as their content validity ratio was 66.67%.

Before conducting the instrument it was pre-piloted on three students from fourth (2) and fifth (1) grades in different schools that carry similar characteristics with the participants selected for the study, to check the comprehensibility of the items, duration of time to finish the instrument, and to take students' emotional temperature such as boredom, confusion etc. As a result, some statements were either changed or reorganized according to these students' suggestions. It took 25-35 minutes to finish the whole instrument by these children. Considering the children's short attention span the questionnaire was decided to be conducted at two different times by dividing the instrument into two as Direct Strategies (Part A) and Indirect Strategies (Part B). Part A consists of 59 items and Part B consists of 49 items.

Secondly, the inventory was also given to an adult to compare time management and get a second view on the comprehensibility of the items. It took 12 minutes for the adult to finish the instrument, less than half the time that took children to complete the inventory, which also indicated that these three children took their time to read and answer each item.

Lastly, after making necessary changes as a result of the feedback gained in these two pre-pilot trials, the instrument was piloted on a class of 4th grade students in a primary school other than those selected for the study. There were two reasons to select this grade level: First, it is possible that they might ask more questions to clarify their comprehension as they are younger, which will enable the researcher to make appropriate changes and improvements on the inventory. Second, it could be a good indicator for the researcher that if this age group (10 year-olds) could complete the instrument and comprehend, it is more likely for an older age group (11 year-olds) to understand and finish the inventory.

2.4 Data Analysis

A series of statistical analyses were made on the data. To determine the structure of the instrument "Principle Component Analysis" was made and for this, varimax rotation technique was used. Reliability of the inventory was tested by using test- retest method with 45 randomly selected students in fourth and fifth grades. 10 days were given between first and second application. The relation between the two applications was calculated by using "Pearson Moments Correlation" coefficient for each strategy set (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social, and affective) and for the whole instrument. The reliability of the items was tested according to .05 significance level. To determine the items in the instrument item-total correlation coefficients that are above 0.20, factorial load being 0.40 or higher were used as a criteria, moreover, differences in single factor needed to be carried at least at .1 level. Internal consistency for all sub-groups and the whole instrument, that appeared as a result of construct validity analysis (factor analysis), was calculated by using Cronbach's Alpha formula. Significance level is considered as .05 for all analysis used in the study, others above this level is indicated. Analyses were made by using SPSS program.

3. Results

The initial statistical analysis for reliability was done by using Pearson-Moments Correlation technique by using the

¹ I watch movies or programs in English to improve my English. (yes/sometimes/no)

results gathered from test and re-test. As a result, the answers to 58 items were found to be reliable and 50 items were unreliable. That is, the answers for the 58 items were consistent in the test and the re-test. Therefore, 50 unreliable items were discarded from the rest of the statistical analysis. There might be several reasons for this result. First, the subject group was children who can be distracted easily and lose concentration. It is possible that some of these children might have lost concentration either during the test or the re-test, which in turn affected their choices. Second, as it was indicated by some of the children after the re-test their behaviors in some areas might have changed in 10 days' time. It is possible that the initial application of the inventory might have caused some awareness and encouraged some children to change their behavior. For instance, one student during the re-test said that she was not reading English books and films before, but she had started doing so, thus changed her answer at the re-test. Third, in the initial testing some of the children were not sure about their behaviors and gave conflicting answers in the re-test.

Afterwards, 58-item inventory was tested for construct validity via exploratory factor analysis. Construct validity is related to different traits in a scale, test, and/or questionnaire. One problem related to construct validity is whether a group of items define or comprise a construct. Different correlation techniques such as factorial analysis, multitrait-multidimensional matrix can be used to test the construct validity (Hatch & Farhardy, 1982).

Factor analysis is a multi-variable statistical procedure that aims to find new dimensions that are few in number and are independent and conceptually meaningful by bringing up number of dependent variables. Exploratory factor analysis aims to find factors by deriving from the relationship between the variables. (Büyükoztürk, 2012, p. 117).

There are several techniques in constructing factors. Principle axes, maximum likelihood, multiple grouping and principle component analysis (PCA) are examples of these techniques. Current study uses Principle Component Analysis (PCA). PCA is a multi-variable statistics that reduces variables and aims to reach meaningful conceptual constructs and it is frequently used in practice and it is respectively easy to interpret (Büyükoztürk, 2012, 118).

In factor analysis there are several criteria to take into consideration when discarding items that do not measure the same construct:

- 1) Factor loadings of items in a specific factor need to be high. If there is a cluster of items that are highly related to a factor means that these items together measure a concept or a construct. Büyükoztürk (2012), suggest that the minimum value for factor loadings must be 0.30 and that it is a good solution to choose items with factor loadings 0.45 or above. The bigger the variance ratios as a result of the factor analysis, the stronger its factorial structure. It has been suggested that in determining the factors' factorial loading that are between 0.30 and 0.40 can be used as lower limit (Dunteman, 1989; Gorsuch, 1983; Coombs and Schroeder, 1988). In social sciences it is adequate to have variance ratios that are between 40% and 60% (Dunteman, 1989; Gorsuch, 1983). Current study discarded items with factor loadings 0.40 and above.
- 2) Items' factor loading need to be high in one factor and low in the others. Büyükoztürk (2012) argues that the difference between the two factor loadings must be minimum .10. In a multi-factorial construct an item that gives high factor loading in more than one factor is referred to as a colliding item and discarded from the scale.
- 3) Communalities of items in important factors need to be high. Although Büyükoztürk (2012) claims that it would be a good solution to have communalities above 0.66, he also argues that this is difficult in practice.

Another point to realize in factor analysis is to decide the number of the important factors that the variables (items of the scale or the questionnaire) measure. Büyükoztürk (2012) lists three criteria. One criterion is to determine factors with eigenvalues 1 or above. This minimum limit can be increased by the researchers.

Another criterion is the total variance. In multi-factor scales high number of factors increases total variance, however, this time it becomes difficult to name each factor. In single-factor scales it might be enough to have a total variance of 30% or above. In multi-factor scales it is expected to have a higher variance. The bigger the total variance as a result of the factor analysis, the stronger its factorial structure. When total variance increases it means that the construct is measured well. In order to increase total variance, one can increase the number of factors or choose items with higher factor loadings.

Last criterion is the examination of the scree plot, which is drawn according to the eigenvalues. The vertical axis shows the amount of eigenvalues and horizontal axis shows the factors. High velocity decreases show the number of important factors.

The researcher can rotate the factors that s/he gets after factor analysis to interpret the results independently, clearly, and meaningfully. Hatch & Farhardy (1982) argue that varimax rotation is the most common method, thus, the present study used varimax rotation in the analysis.

In the light of these information 58 items were factor analyzed. The initial analysis resulted with 18 factors with

eigenvalues 1 or above. Total variance of these 18 factors was found to be 85.023%. As it was discussed above high numbers of factors increases total variance but makes it difficult to name each factor (Büyükoztürk, 2012).

Due to these results, and by examining the scree plot it was decided to do the factor analysis to reduce the factors. As a result of the third factor analysis total variance was found to be 46.001%. This is an acceptable percentage for a multi-factor scale. When rotation component matrix was examined 11 items (A11, B24, B26, B31, C47, C48, C51, C52, D1, D18, E46) needed to be removed according to the criteria mentioned above.

When certain items are discarded it is necessary to continue factor analysis until all conditions are met as factor analysis is a data reduction technique. After conducting the factor analysis for the 11th time total variance increased and approached to 50% with 49.871%, which is considered high. At the end of the factor analysis 30 items were left from the 58 items and these were distributed to four factors (see Appendix for 30-item CHILLS).

The items were checked for internal reliability by using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the scale was found to be high (.88). Then each factor was tested for internal reliability by using the same technique. Accordingly, the reliability of each factor is as follows: Factor 1 = .8491; Factor 2 = .8192; Factor 3 = .7752; Factor 4 = .7852.

4. Discussion

At a glance, children's inventory for language learning strategies (CHILLS) is different from adults' SILL. First of all, instead of six factors there are four factors in CHILLS. Moreover, factor names are different from those of SILL's, as after the statistical analysis the items did not group as memory strategies, cognitive strategies, etc. The first factor consists of strategies for general study habits; second factor includes strategies to improve language learning. Third factor is composed of strategies to facilitate the reception and production of the language. Fourth factor consists of strategies one use to consolidate knowledge in the target language.

First factor is mostly composed of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and two social strategies that children use. The strategies under this group mostly refer to general study habits of children, for instance, using a newly learned vocabulary in context in order to pronounce it correctly, studying ones mistakes/errors after a speaking activity, before speaking in English checking one's background knowledge by examining books, or asking others to correct one's mistakes.

Second group of strategies are mostly used to improve language learning. Although mostly cognitive, there are metacognitive, social and compensation strategies in this group, however, their common property is that they are used to improve learning in the target language. To give some examples; re-reading the books that was read before to improve one's English, using the newly learned vocabulary when speaking with native speakers, using other books or educational CD's to learn more about the language, do practice tests etc.

Third factorial group is composed of strategies that are mostly used for the facilitation of the reception and production of the target language. They are mostly compensation strategies but there are two memory strategies and two cognitive strategies as well. When statements under this group are examined it can be seen that although they call for different types of strategies they are used for the same purpose. For example, keeping new vocabulary in mind by making an association between the pronunciation of two words in English and Turkish such as snake and sinek (a fly), keeping notes of peers' questions after speaking activities, studying by writing in order to pronounce a word correctly, making use of cognates such as leopard and leopar, radio and radyo etc. are all strategies for reception. Using gestures and mimicry when speaking; drawing the picture of an unknown vocabulary when speaking or writing; switching to L1 when speaking are strategies used to facilitate the production of the target language.

The last group of strategies is common in that they are used for the consolidation of the target language. For example, listening to or reading a passage a second time, practicing new information regularly, using extra resources to comprehend, write, listen or speak in English etc. When looking at the results it is clear that children use different strategy groups for their own learning needs, which makes them unique in their strategy preferences and use.

5. Conclusions

The main purpose of the study was to develop a scale that can be used by primary school English language teachers to identify their learners' strategies in a much easy, reliable and practical way. At the end of the study a valid and reliable inventory for children's LLS (CHILLS: Children's Inventory for Language Learning) is developed. Individual attempts to inquire LLS with the use of teacher observations of students are inadequate, inconclusive, and not generalizable. Observations provide information only on the observable aspects of strategy use such as cooperating with peers, asking

questions for clarification or verification, using gestures and mimicry etc. Other techniques (such as diary keeping, interviewing, think aloud protocols etc.) used to identify strategies require a lot of time to gather information and to analyze it. Therefore, a valid and reliable instrument would save teachers a lot of time when investigating their students' strategies.

Moreover, a scale like this enables the teachers to see what types of strategies are preferred most by their group of students just by looking at the points gathered at the end of each part. Thus, this information will enable the teachers to focus and train their students on less frequently used but effective strategies and consequently increase their strategy repertoire.

In addition, by using such an instrument first steps of conducting strategy training and developing autonomous learners will be taken. Appropriate strategy training can be conducted if the learners' needs are taken into consideration to help children become more successful and autonomous language learners.

In many ways current study is unique. First of all, it is the first one that collected data from children in EFL contexts that took all language skills and strategy groups into consideration. Second, unlike others, items of the CHILLS were gathered from subjects via data collection not through literature review. Third, to the author's knowledge it is the first valid and reliable LLS inventory developed specifically for YLs.

The present study sheds some light to LLS research and encourages others to conduct studies on children in other contexts with different L1 and cultural backgrounds. In addition, the current study paves the way for strategy instruction on children and the development of specific approaches to train children learning English. The CHILLS may help ELT teachers in developing their classroom methodologies, finding ways to teach more effectively, understanding children's choice of strategies, designing lessons according to children's needs, helping children learn effective strategies other than their existing ones, implementing strategy training and helping children learn new and effective strategies, creating autonomous learners.

Further research is necessary to identify children's LLS in different EFL contexts to compare any possible strategy preferences resulting from cultural backgrounds, educational settings, educational systems, classroom methodologies etc. Identification of LLS is important to support TEYL (Teaching English to Young Learners), therefore, LLS research with children should be expanded as many countries in Europe and Asia are now lowering the starting age for language learning. Finally, comparative studies in ESL environments are also necessary to identify contextual differences.

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Appendix

Children's Inventory For Language Learning Strategies (Chills)²

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Name-surname:

School:

Date of birth:

Sex: Girl/Boy

Dear Students,

What do you when learning a foreign language? (What do you do to understand a reading text? How do you learn new vocabulary? What do you do for listening comprehension? etc.). We will be able to understand how you learn English by looking at your responses to the following statements. If you do the behaviors in the items mark "Yes", if you do them from time to time mark "Sometimes" and if you do not do it mark "No" with an "X". Make sure that you respond to every item.

Example:

Read the item below and put an "X" on the answer that represents your idea best.

I watch movies or programs in English to improve my English.	Yes	Sometimes	No
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You may move to the other items after completing the example.

² The original instrument is in Turkish. It is translated by the author to reach the global community.

Part A			
1. I try to speak in English with my teacher, friends and parents.	Yes	Sometimes	No
2. In an activity I work with a peer, I share my notes and/or ask her/him the points I don't understand.	Yes	Sometimes	No
3. After writing or saying something in English I ask my teacher, friend, or someone who is knowledgeable to correct my errors.	Yes	Sometimes	No
4. I use a new vocabulary in sentence to pronounce it correctly.	Yes	Sometimes	No
5. Before I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic.	Yes	Sometimes	No
6. I test myself to improve my English.	Yes	Sometimes	No
7. I revise the lesson, the notes I take at school, my old books and notebooks, unknown or newly learnt vocabulary by reading or writing.	Yes	Sometimes	No
8. I practice with my parents or someone else before speaking activities.	Yes	Sometimes	No
9. I study my errors after speaking activities.	Yes	Sometimes	No
10. When I think that I cannot learn I tell my parents I need help. Ex: Taking private lessons.	Yes	Sometimes	No
Part B			
11. I read the books I read before to improve my English.	Yes	Sometimes	No
12. I use the words I learnt recently when speaking with tourists and native speakers to pronounce them correctly.	Yes	Sometimes	No
13. I like to use English in fun ways. For example; I try to make jokes in English.	Yes	Sometimes	No
14. To improve my English I work with supporting materials such as books, CDs that teach English.	Yes	Sometimes	No
15. I do tests to improve my English.	Yes	Sometimes	No
16. While reading I try to guess the unknown structure by comparing it with the one that I know.	Yes	Sometimes	No
17. Before I write or listen in English I read about that topic, revise the unit, read a similar paragraph, try to find an example, prepare a draft or make sentences with the topic.	Yes	Sometimes	No
18. While speaking I coin words that might have a similar meaning instead of the one that I do not know.	Yes	Sometimes	No
Part C			
19. I try to keep the words in my mind by associating their pronunciation. For example, snake and sinek (a fly).	Yes	Sometimes	No
20. I take notes of unknown words, my peers questions and/or things that I remember after drama activities.	Yes	Sometimes	No
21. I use gestures when I have trouble in explaining meanings of things in English.	Yes	Sometimes	No
22. While writing or speaking I draw the picture of an unknown word.	Yes	Sometimes	No
23. While speaking if I do not know the meaning of a word I say its Turkish and keep on talking.	Yes	Sometimes	No
24. I repeatedly write the new word to be able to say it correctly.	Yes	Sometimes	No
25. While writing or reading I benefit from cognates to facilitate my writing and reading comprehension. For example; radio, television, leopard, chimpanzee.	Yes	Sometimes	No
Part D			
26. To facilitate my reading and listening comprehension, writing and speaking I use dictionaries, my course book, notebook or language teaching CDs.	Yes	Sometimes	No

27. I remember a word by thinking its location on a page.	Yes	Sometimes	No
28. I read or listen to an English text again after reading or listening to it once.	Yes	Sometimes	No
29. Before writing something I identify the words and structures from my bok and notebook.	Yes	Sometimes	No
30. I revise the new information with regular intervals.	Yes	Sometimes	No

**Children's Inventory For Language Learning Strategies (Chills)
Developed For Turkish Children Learning A Foreign Language**

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Directions for the Instructor:

This strategy inventory is developed for children in order for them and their instructors to learn about their choice of language learning strategies while learning a foreign language. In the following pages there are 30 statements about learning a new language. Please ask your students to read each statement carefully and mark their answers on the boxes next to the statements. Students need to be informed that the answers should be given according to how well a statement describes the person answering. Decisions shouldn't be given according to what seems to be true or what somebody else would say true.

Scoring

First of all scores from each part is calculated. Then, in order to find out the total score each point from the four different parts of the scale is added. Each "yes" is "2", "sometimes" is "1", and "no" is "0" points. Maximum points that can be gathered from the scale is 60.

<u>Part A</u>	<u>Part B</u>	<u>Part C</u>	<u>Part D</u>
1. _____	11. _____	19. _____	26. _____
2. _____	12. _____	20. _____	27. _____
3. _____	13. _____	21. _____	28. _____
4. _____	14. _____	22. _____	29. _____
5. _____	15. _____	23. _____	30. _____
6. _____	16. _____	24. _____	
7. _____	17. _____	25. _____	
8. _____	18. _____		
9. _____			
10. _____			
Total: _____	Total: _____	Total: _____	Total: _____
General Total: _____			

International Students' Views of Relationship Influences on Career Transitions

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Abstract

Little attention has been paid to the career trajectories of international students as they complete their academic programs and implement career decision plans post-graduation. The specific aim of this study was to identify what factors contributed to international students' success in pursuing employment in the destination country post-graduation. Our study examined the experiences of international students who had successfully transitioned from university to employment post-graduation in Canada. We used the Feminist Biographical Method to examine the individual stories of international students as a way of understanding the contextual influences on their lives and on their career decision-making. Individual interviews were conducted with 19 international students, two in their last semester, and 17 who had graduated and who were working in Canada. All students were graduates of one university in Western Canada. The key influences related to international students' implementing their career plans post-graduation were organized around 5 themes that ranged from macro and systems influences to interpersonal and intrapersonal influences: (1) Systemic and Institutional Barriers, (2) Employment Challenges, (3) Perceived Career Opportunities, (4) Importance of Relationships, and, (5) Personal Growth and Discovering Strengths. Relationships were the key influences for helping international students overcome perceived barriers. Relationships offered international students emotional and instrumental support in making career decisions, in gaining relevant employment experience, and in persisting with plans to implement their career goals. International students benefit from connections, networking, and learning experiences that help them to successfully implement their career plans.

Keywords: *International students, career development, cross-cultural transition*

1. Introduction

The majority of literature on international students has focused on the initial stage of cross-cultural transition as they enter the destination country and begin their academic programs in a new country (Johnson & Sandhu, 2007; Popadiuk & Arthur, 2004). As a general rule, the greater the degree of cultural differences between the home and host cultures, it is expected that international students will have greater degrees of acculturative stress, manifesting as signs of culture shock (Pedersen, 1991). International students' experiences have been framed through stages of cross-cultural transition (Arthur, 2007), and common concerns classified as (a) interpersonal influences in the home and host environment and (b) intrapersonal factors related to internal processes (Sandu, 1994). In reality, these common issues are complex and international students often experience them as interrelated (Popadiuk & Arthur, 2004).

The focus of international student research has often been placed on their personal adjustment, and decontextualized from the larger sense of culture and community, social and political conditions in both home and destination countries, and the local conditions of the culture in which they live and study (Arthur & Popadiuk, 2010). International students are often portrayed as problem-laden, with the onus primarily placed on them to adapt to the host culture of the destination country, without examining both the supportive and constraining influences in either home or destination countries. Although popular theories of acculturation have emphasized the process of adjustment in crossing culture, there are few sources that address the positive aspects of international students' experiences (Moore & Popadiuk, 2011). An emphasis on the quality of interactions with members of the destination country and opportunities for social integration are often ignored as critical aspects of cross-cultural transitions. This is an important point, because international students' academic success and future employment success are strongly shaped by their sense of positive

social interactions, sense of belonging, and support systems in both their home and destination countries (Arthur & Flynn, 2011, 2012).

2. Positioning the Current Study

Little attention has been paid to the career development needs of international student (Arthur, 2007; Singaravelu, White, & Bringaze, 2005). In past decades, due to restrictions on immigration, it was assumed that international students would return home and seek employment. However, shifting immigration policies in countries, such as Canada, have opened opportunities for international students to gain work experience post-graduation, which is pivotal for pursuing permanent immigration. Although immigration policies related to international students vary between countries, it is important to consider the career planning and decision-making needs of international students while they are students, and how institutional supports may assist them in their plans to pursue employment post-graduation.

The focus of this study was to identify the influences on international students who were planning to remain in Canada post-graduation and who had successfully made the transition to employment. Although research has substantiated the point that most international students pursue international education due to perceived career opportunities in the future (Arthur & Flynn, 2011, 2012; Brooks, Waters, & Pimlott-Wilson, 2012; Masumba, Jin, & Mjelde, 2011), the current study focuses on the actual experiences of international students who pursued employment in the destination country. There are few studies that account for how international students successfully navigate the transition to employment in the destination country, how they overcome barriers, and what helps them to integrate into local employment and community contexts (Popadiuk & Arthur, 2013; Sangganjanavanich, Lenz, & Cavazos, 2011). The current study focused on international students' perceived barriers and what they identified as facilitators of their career transition. The inquiry also focused on how relationships helped international students to navigate between academic and employment systems.

3. Methodology

In order to conduct a study on international students' career transition experiences, we selected a research approach that would uncover the nuances of social and contextual influences on their transition experiences. The biographical method (Denzin, 1989; Merrill & West, 2009; Popadiuk, 2004) was selected in order to collect individual stories that would help us to better understand the experiences of international students from their point of view of interacting with in the local culture, while maintaining their historical and cultural identities when living across cultures. The biographical method is considered a form of narrative inquiry and has been used in previous studies to explore the multifaceted phenomena in the lives of participants who are the focus of research inquiry (Denzin, 1989; Merrill & West, 2009).

A unique feature of the current study was that the design involved creating a retrospective cohort-based analysis of international students' experiences, intentionally recruiting research participants who were at various stages of the transition from education to employment. We were interested in learning more about how relationships influenced career transitions from the points of views of international students in the final semester of their academic program who were preparing to enter the employment market, the experiences of graduates who were employed for less than three years, as well as graduates who could provide details regarding the longer-term implications of their transition from higher education to employment. This design allowed us to hear the perspectives of international students who were in the process of making plans for the university to employment transition, the experiences of graduates who had successfully connected to the labour market, and the retrospective experiences of graduates who could provide additional insights into how relationships were connected to pursuing their career goals.

The participants in this study were originally recruited for a study on international student strengths and successes. Potential participants were recruited via two list-serves at a mid-sized urban university in Western Canada. The list-serves included current international students and international student alumni who had graduated from their academic program. As more students volunteered for the original study than could be included, they were invited to keep their names on a waiting list for a future research project. Permission from the Ethics Boards of the two researchers' universities was obtained to contact potential participants for inclusion in the second study. Recall that the aim of the current study was to emphasize what facilitated successful international student career transitions. Consequently, in response to the recruitment notice, the participants first identified as current or former international students, and secondly self-identified as successful. There was an intentional focus on the strengths of international students, and the key influences on their career transition from education to employment. This approach was not prohibitive of exploring

perceived challenges and barriers, yet the participants in this study were keen to discuss what helped them to overcome those barriers and successfully integrate into employment post-graduation.

Individual interviews were held with the first 18 people who volunteered for the study. The demographic information that was collected from participants included their sex, age, countries of origin, length of education in the destination country, degree status, and relationship status. A summary of the demographic information is contained in Table 1.

Table 1. Participant Demographic Information

Sex: 7 men, 11 women
Age range: 26 to 69 years (8 in their 20s; 5 in their 30s; 5 were 40+)
Countries of origin: China, Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia, Indonesia, Mexico, Chile, Germany, Ukraine, United States
Length of time studying in Canada: 2.5 to 10 years, average time 5 years
Degree status: Bachelor's degrees (13), Master's degrees (7), and post-baccalaureate diplomas (2)
Academic Major/Speciality: Gerontology, Economics, Communication, Sociology, History, Kinesiology, Biochemistry, Business Administration, Business, Geography, Political Science, Public Policy
Relationship status: 15 reported no family ties or any other connection in the host country upon arrival. Nine participants arrived single, three came with a partner (common-law or married), and six developed a partnership while studying.
Work and national status: 16 participants worked post-graduation; Canadian Citizens (7), permanent residents (9), temporary study or work permits (2).
Job and career pursuits: Investment Advisor & Portfolio Manager, Project Manager, Marketing Manager, Tariff Coordinator, Accounts Receivable Coordinator, Administration Team Leader, Case Manager, Financial Comptroller, Meteorologist, Real Estate Broker, College Instructor, Director of Research & Development, Research Technician, Research Assistant, Retired

Each person participating in the study completed a 1.5 to 2.0 hour in-depth interview with a trained research assistant, who signed an oath of confidentiality. It is noteworthy that the interviewer was also an international student in the last year of completing her Master's degree, which may have been helpful for securing the trust and detailed stories of other international students. The main interview questions focused on the transition experiences from university to employment, and international students' experiences of living and working in Canada. The interviews were transcribed by a professional who signed an oath of confidentiality. The initial transcript was reviewed by the researchers to check that the questions and probes were consistent with the interview questions developed for the study.

A second research assistant, a doctoral student trained in psychology and qualitative research methods, used NVivo qualitative software program to code the interview transcripts. The coding process involved four steps: First the research assistant initially read all of the transcripts, and made notes about initial impressions and emerging codes that would be relevant for the study (Saldaña, 2009). Next, based on the structure of these first-level nodes, the research assistant conducted a second round of open coding to create second-level nodes. The research team reviewed the coding framework and discussed any discrepancies and uncertainties until consensus was reached. Based on the discussion from this meeting, the research assistant reviewed the coded transcripts a third time to ensure that the feedback received was integrated into coding decisions and that data had not been overlooked. In the fourth and final coding cycle, the research team reviewed the second-level nodes and coded additional levels to further differentiate the coding system. The two primary researchers then met for in-depth discussions about the codes and generated the main themes that emerged from the coding framework.

4. Results

From the coded data, we developed five themes that addressed our central research question: *What are the key influences that international students identify for successful transitions from university to employment?* A major aim of this study was to better understand the relationship influences on career transitions. The key influences related to international students' implementing their career plans post-graduation were organized around 5 themes: (1) Systemic and Institutional Barriers, (2) Employment Challenges, (3) Perceived Career Opportunities, (4) Importance of Relationships, and, (5) Personal Growth and Discovering Strengths. It was interesting to see that the identified influences ranged from macro and systems influences to interpersonal and intrapersonal influences. In the following sections of the paper, a brief description of each theme is presented, along with selected quotes from the international student participants that illustrate each theme.

4.1 Systemic and Institutional Barriers

In this theme, participants talked about barriers that were encountered at systemic and institutional levels of society. These barriers include situations, policies, and practices that systematically disadvantage particular groups of people. For example, several international students expressed employer bias about Canadian experience. "If they have a Canadian applicant they might take the Canadian applicant first as opposed to international students." The systems that have evolved over time are historically built around the dominant and/or majority group who holds more power, and can be seen as taken-for-granted ways of doing business. For example, sexist and racist attitudes and practices, including a lack of cultural awareness or discriminatory practices against people who speak English as an additional language was included. From this macro perspective, issues such as immigration laws, federal government policies, and institutional hiring policies and procedures became problematic when participants attempted to gain employment, but met with unfair disadvantages.

The very question that I was asked, I bet you say I probably have applied for about 200 jobs when I finished my MBA or before I finished my MBA, and there were quite a few job I would have been qualified for it, but the very first question that they phone me and ask was, "Are you allow to work in Canada? What is your status?"—"Oh, you are on student visa—sorry, we cannot even consider you." So that was pretty discouraging.

During school I only had an on-campus work permit and at the time I graduated I was not able to get an off-campus work permit unless I had a job offer and people wouldn't give you a job offer unless you had a work permit. So it took me about a year, maybe a bit longer, to actually get a job where they could understand what I was going through and would be flexible with the waiting time.

Some of the participants noted changes in Canadian policy over time, based on world events, such as 9/11, or unnamed social shifts, such as a national economic need for foreign workers. These kind of societal level realities directly and indirectly influence policy reform that can either shut doors by clamping down on immigration and only giving international students three months post-graduation to secure a job in their field that no other Canadian can be hired into, or open up doors by providing work visas for three years of employment post-graduation.

Right after we moved to Ottawa, that terrorist attack, so that changed the whole immigration laws and everything so instead of just applying for a Permanent Resident status, my assumption was maybe we can spend like seven or eight months and then I could be a permanent resident. But the entire immigration regulations kind of changed in 2001 so I decided to go back to grad school to earn a further degree to be able to stay in Canada. I had two choices: going back to Japan or going back to grad school and earn a degree and wait for my permanent resident card.

A few of our participants worried that the government policies around international students and work visas would change for the worse during their sojourn, and thereby, significantly reduce their opportunities for staying in Canada as skilled workers after they graduated. Overall, systemic and institutional barriers largely governed the number of available opportunities for participants, and thus, luck or serendipity around the policy years in which someone studied or whether or not they found a job quickly often determined the course of their personal and professional lives.

4.2 Employment Challenges

This theme provides an elaboration of the employment challenges described by participants. The theme captures the process of trying to find a co-op work position as part of their degree and the daunting task of finding meaningful employment in the participant's field of study after graduation. Participants discussed the initial phase of job hunting, including sending out resumes and realizing that job offers were not going to be automatically offered to them.

You are sending out resumes but—I do not know the reason actually. I asked—I know why I was hired, but I do not know why I was not called for certain interviews and I mean it might be internal candidates, it might be personal references, it could be anything. I really do not have any idea what was the main reason but it is not as easy as it seems.

Thus, in this theme that focuses on job hunting, participant's stories are typically punctuated by challenges and barriers to obtaining a job or to finding a job that is a good fit for their expertise. One participant emphasized the main link between employment and pursuing immigration: "The only barrier before I can stay here is definitely to find a job."

English language skill proficiency is something that many participants noted about finding a co-op position or a job post-graduation, and stated that many Canadians are not patient with accents and language challenges.

Also, when your English is not good, like people are not patient, which I totally understand. I'm like that now too. And then sometimes you get this feeling like people think you are stupid but then I'm not stupid, I'm probably smarter than you but just because my language does not allow me to express who I am on that level yet does not make me

stupid. So that was the hardest part in the entire experience.

Sometimes there are hints of prejudice and discrimination during the process of looking for work that are often subtle and individually targeted.

You know what was actually very discouraging was when I applied for the co-op program, I could tell they didn't want me because I was international and the lady that interviewed me—there were enough spots for everyone so she knew basically they had to accept pretty much everyone that had applied into the program but she tried to dissuade me really hard. She said, "You know you are not going to get a job. You are going to have to write forty applications to get a job." And I was, "I'm prepared to do that." And she was trying really hard to tell me not to go for it.

I did not fit in at all. I was this ridiculous Chinese girl who was so ambitious and worked insane hours for no reason. I didn't even get paid that much, and I wanted to become a commercial broker. I don't think they had confidence in me, which I understand. Like I'm just this Chinese girl. Everybody is white male and oh my god, when you talk to those brokers, oh god, the jokes from their perspective they see me as this pretty Chinese girl who would not survive in such a brutal environment. It is a very brutal environment. They didn't think I would succeed, which I understood. I actually agree with them at the time, I mean looking back. But again, I understand that from their perspective but I had to do what was the best for me.

Participants found all of the challenges in finding a job concerning, given the need to find a job and start earning a living so that they could provide for themselves. Additionally, many were worried that if they were unable to find work, they would not be able to stay in Canada.

4.3 Perceived Career Opportunities

In this theme, we focus on what participants perceived their career opportunities to be at key points in the career trajectory, including the university-to-work transition. The comments centered on opportunities in Canada compared to home and other countries, job openings in Vancouver versus other major cities in Canada, the amounts of pay, status, and career progression opportunities, and the relative value of a Canadian education, in Canada and in their home countries.

I think one thing Canada is lacking in general is—more in Vancouver than in Toronto—it is going to sound strange for one of the countries that accepts the most immigrants in the world—it's not international enough meaning that if you want to be in the centre of the world either you go to London or you go to New York. Toronto is better—Vancouver is definitely far away from everything else. If you want an international career I think it is a lot more difficult to obtain that in Canada.

For us sometimes we [international students] may seem we have more options because we can stay here, we can go home, but at the same time we may seem have less options compared to local students. They might travel for a year, they might do some just non-work related stuff after they graduate. If we want to stay, we have to find a job. If not, of course we can travel but we lose substantial opportunities to continue staying in Canada afterwards.

Some participants also spoke about diversity issues, such as the glass ceiling for women, which was perceived as higher or less of a barrier in Canada, as well as the relative merits or barriers as a bi-cultural, multi-lingual citizen of the world.

So being Chinese definitely gives me a lot more opportunities than local people because of the language—not just the language 'cause in order to work with Chinese you not only have to speak their language you also have to understand their culture because it's a completely different culture. So being Chinese with what I do right now, it definitely helps a lot 'cause now it just ended up that way.

I wouldn't be able to land in a similar type of position with the same pay in Japan. First of all the money spent per capita on research is way higher here in Canada. I guess Canada spends a lot more money and that is one of the reasons why I became interested in working in the health research because in Japan it is almost impossible to get a decent life right now, even if you are a PhD, post-doc.

Whether these perceptions are or were accurate according to the situation at the time is less relevant than understanding that international students appear to be using information they have heard or believe to be true to make important career decisions that arguably impacts the very trajectory of their careers.

4.4 Importance of Relationships

In this theme, we highlight how relationships old and new, from home and the destination country, were important on

every level of the international experience, especially the transition from university-to-employment. Participants noted how important input from their key relationships was for their career decision-making.

Either I go back to China to find a job there or I stay here to try to find a job here, work a few years . . . combining all the discussions with my family and friends—well it turned out—the most supported idea was still to stay [in Canada] at least for a few years.

The range of participant responses included building a network with university and professional connections, developing peer relationships with international students and alumni, consulting with family and friends at home and in the host country, and establishing mentoring relationships throughout the duration of studies. In retrospect, the participants in this study recognized how important it was to cultivate a supportive network of relationships.

Right at the get-go. That's the thing, right. You can't think, "Oh my god, I'm in my fourth year so now I need to go make connections." No one is going to want to make connections with you and then you are going to be more stressed out."

Use your networks. Now, if you are international student in Canada, you do not have those networks. I was lucky because I managed to connect to a lot of people but I can say that a lot of international students chose to hang out with international students because it is more comfortable and you are looking for friends and they are looking for friends and you already have a common point. Whereas it is slightly more difficult to get involved with people who have been living here for a longer time because they already have established friend circles and you are going to be an addition let that be from the high school friends or childhood friends, it doesn't matter. So for an international student finding a job, it has to go through—the only way that they can find a job is through university.

Another participant noted how important it was for him to discuss career decisions with a support network: "I definitely consult with friends and colleagues and my boss and people who might know my circumstances a little bit better in terms of my options." The connection between career success and establishing relationships was summarized by participants through their recognition of the importance of networking:

Just from my impression, it's easier to create a network in Canada. You mentioned *guan-xi* is really important in China, which means, network is actually the most important thing to be successful in China. But ironically, it's hard to build that network in China because there are all blocks and set by... social standards, and those barriers are almost unbreakable but here everyone almost stands on equal grounds and you can go as far as you imagine yourself [to] go.

Every time I talked to students that are international students I told them to go do co-op, go to career services, go talk to people, go make connections . . . you need to start knowing people if you want to have full-time employment once you graduate.

University supervisors and mentors have tremendous influence on helping students transition from school-to-work, especially for their first job, due to connections and/or hiring ability, as well as developing relationships and establishing a professional identity. One participant emphasized the importance of mentoring relationships: "When I graduated, how helpful my mentor had been to me and actually gave me a job eventually. That really kick-started my career in Canada." Formal mentorship programs with international student alumni seem to be non-existent, and yet, our participants indicated that they would have found it very helpful to be mentored by these successful international student alumni. These findings point to the need for international students to establish long-term, authentic, and mutual relationships with friends, supervisors, and mentors in order to successfully transition from school-to-work.

4.5 Personal Growth and Discovering Strengths

This theme focuses on the participants' past reflections about their international experience in Canada and how they have grown and developed as a person because of it. Specifically, we highlight issues related to their philosophy, attitude, and personal characteristics, as well as how they changed, grew, and matured as persons. As one participant noted, "I have been able to grow and I feel like I am on my way to being my full potential." Another participant stated, "I think the destinations, they remind you that you're on your journey still, as opposed to, you know, I'm done, I've reached this point."

Personal characteristics and attitudinal examples sometimes touched upon the participants' roles such as adventurer, risk taker, someone who searches to learn and grow, while other times participants focused on areas of personal growth, such as increased confidence, more authenticity in relationships, capacity to relate to other people in informal and formal relationships, determination to see things through even when it is overwhelming, more of a certainty about life, competence as a leader, and feelings of accomplishment and success.

It's definitely not at the beginning. I think it's definitely after I broke out from my shell, then I realized it was a good

decision. So when you're in a learning stage, you're taking in all the information. You couldn't really see the benefit of it, and it took experience and maturity to come to realize how valuable as a whole journey it has been, including the bad parts of when I was in school and it was so tough and homesick and all that. But when you're experiencing all that pain, it doesn't seem like the right decision, right? But it's definitely when you see the fruit, and then you realize, all the hard work that I've gone through, all the pain that I've experienced, without all that, I wouldn't be where I am today and that's when I realized that it has been a good decision all along.

I think it was going through information interviews and just meeting new people, finding contacts, connections, and building my confidence in that. Just feeling that I'm more mature and I'm taking my life into my hands—to some extent. I don't believe that I'm, you know, the only ultimate decision-maker in my life

Philosophical examples included how the experience was a journey, life just fell into place, the importance of serendipity, how you have to have faith that things will work out, that you don't always know, it all just worked out, and the experience of hardship leads to strength of character and perseverance.

The accumulation of this total Canadian experience helped to make me who I am today... It wouldn't have happened if I did not have the experiences that I've had so far. Some things have been very hard to overcome or deal with but what doesn't break you just makes you stronger.

For me it was really about getting a job and knowing that I can do well enough to hold down a job. As soon as I knew that I was like, "Okay, this is going to be fine because I know I like a lot of other things already so if I can make a living here then I am going to be fine here.

Overall, participants emphasized that despite the hard work, the barriers that they had to overcome, and the emotional lows, at the end of it all, they could see and appreciate the value of their international education, and the positive ways in which they had grown and matured over time. Their experiences as an international student was a journey that contributed to their career development, not only what they were doing at work, but also who they had become as people.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The transition issues experienced by international students change from the time of arriving to campus to when they are completing academic programs and transitioning into employment systems (Arthur, 2007). Programs and services designed to support international students need to take into account the shifting nature of academic and career issues in a fuller cycle of cross-cultural transition. This study has attempted to draw attention to international students' career-related needs as they complete their educational program and pursue employment.

Educational institutions have primarily been focused on the recruitment of international students and programs and services to support their initial transition adjustment. However, immigration policies in some destination countries are shifting to provide incentives to international students for permanent immigration (Arthur & Nunes, in press; Gribble & Blackmore, 2012). International students are highly educated people and, in countries with projected labour market shortages, they are considered to be a valuable source of human capital. A key implication is that educational institutions need to devote more resources to supporting international students with skills and experiences that will help them to enter the labour market of destination countries. It is not sufficient to recruit international students and encourage them to immigrate; this study adds evidence to previous findings that there are substantial barriers to overcome in making the transition from higher education to employment post-graduation (Arthur & Flynn, 2012; Gribble & Blackmore, 2012; Sangganjanavanich et al., 2011). Future research in different countries is needed to elaborate on the university-to-employment transition experiences of international students who pursue career goals in the destination country.

The results of this study suggest that participants experienced gaps between immigration policies designed to encourage international student employment, employment policies, and employer attitudes. Several of the international students in this study felt caught between rules of being hired and rules of immigration status, and were barred from employment in specific employment sectors. They also alluded to the preferential hiring practices of Canadian employers, many of whom were uninformed about employment policies that would support hiring international students; some employers were uninformed about the benefits of hiring someone with international experience; and some employers had biases and preferences for hiring local students. Several international students were caught in circumstances of shifting immigration policies and a downturn in the local economy that impacted the viability of pursuing employment. This is a reminder that the factors leading to international students' success are not entirely up to the individual; there are many factors at the macro level that influence career success. The career planning and decisions of international students are often made through comparisons between perceived career opportunities in their home country

compared to opportunities in the destination country (Arthur & Flynn, 2011). Consequently, concerted efforts are needed by educational institutions and employers to make staying in the destination country an appealing option for international students.

At the organizational level, the interface between career services within institutions of higher education and employers needs to be stronger. Employers need to be educated about the potential benefits of hiring international students and they need to be supported with information about employment policies and standards. In turn, international students require contacts for pursuing employment and pursuing a job search. Several international students in this study outlined the importance of making contacts and networking while they were a student, as a foundation for accessing employment systems post-graduation. Programs such as co-op work terms and internships help international students to gain valuable experiences, to find mentors, and to gain references through relationships formed in the workplace. Educational institutions can foster a stronger interface with employment systems by helping international students to understanding the benefits of work-placements and helping to facilitate their placements.

The key factor that international students in this study reported as supporting their career success was cultivating relationships. We have previously discussed how relationships are embedded in career decision-making and the importance of key relationships for international student success (Nunes & Arthur, 2013; Popadiuk & Arthur, 2013). The current study builds on this discussion, showing that the informal and formal relationships developed by international students helped to navigate the barriers to career success. For example, participants discussed their career decisions with people close to them in their home country and in the destination countries; they sought advice from instructors and campus personnel; they consulted with other international students who had more experience and expertise about systems in the destination country; they established mentors; and they expressed gratitude to the employers who gave them a chance to make their career goals a reality. Relationships appeared to provide emotional support and guidance for making career decisions, instrumental help for gaining valuable work experience while a student and connecting with employers during job search, and role modelling about ways to pursue their career goals.

In conclusion, the international students in this study identified a multitude of barriers on the pathway to finding employment post-graduation. However, it was through developing relationships while engaged as an international student that they were able to overcome barriers and experience success. On the surface it may appear as if international students are independently making career decisions and pursuing their career goals. However, their success in making the transition from higher education to employment is strongly connected to the contextual influences of available opportunities and relationship support. What is striking from the stories of these participants is that the adversity they faced in overcoming perceived barriers was not defeating, but was framed as contributing to their sense of personal growth and development. They discovered personal strengths and applied them in the transition from their role as international students to finding employment and realizing their career goals to live and work in the destination country.

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Effect of Diagnostic Remedial Teaching Strategy on Students' Achievement in Biology

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Abstract

The study investigated the effect of diagnostic remedial teaching strategy on students' achievement in Biology. The purpose of the study was to diagnose and remedy identified students' weaknesses in Biology by comparing their performances in Conventional Teaching Method (CTM) and Diagnostic Remedial Teaching (DRT) strategy. A sample of 12 teachers and 427 randomly selected SS2 students was drawn from three secondary schools in each of the four selected Local Government Areas in Osun and Oyo States of Nigeria. A pretest-posttest control group design with the students randomly assigned into experimental, conventional teaching and control groups was utilized for the study. Two instruments titled Error Patterns Among Biology Students (EPABS), and Test of Achievement in Biology (TAB) were developed, validated and used for data collection. The findings of this study largely showed that the use of DRT is more effective in improving the students' achievement and retention than the CTM in Biology classroom practices. Hence, the diagnosis, knowledge and correction of identified students' weaknesses can strengthen Biology teachers with necessary teaching competence, behaviour and innovation required to rescue the students from learning difficulties.

Keywords: Diagnostic remediation, achievement, retention, biology, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Science and technology are inevitable forces in the current drive towards a guarantee of good life, peace, security and survival of mankind. This had led governments, private organisations and individuals to invest on the teaching of science and scientific researches particularly in Nigeria to promote, hold and sustain the interests, needs and aspirations of our children, youths and teachers in science (Oyekan, 1984; Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004; Gbore & Daramola, 2013). Such a hopeful desire might be hindered by the surging students' underachievement (Aghenta, 1982; Shuell, 1986; Widlake, 1984; Ibe & Maduabum, 2001), outrageous development of anti-science culture and evolution of scientifically illiterate citizenry (Ogunniyi, 1986), and despicable school and home conditions (Oyekan, 1993). With reference to secondary school science, students steadily record the worst performance in the school certificate biology (WAEC, 1982; Soyibo, 1982; STAN, 1987; Oyekan, 1995; Gbore and Daramola, 2013). The relevance of biology to the corporate existence and survival of mankind should primarily impel a firm support from educators and teachers to seek a coherent instructional intervention that can diagnose and remedy the prevailing underachievement and apathy towards biology (Oyekan, 2005; Ahmad & Asghar, 2011). Our action might be anchored on the interdisciplinary nature of biology which provides the requisite competence and experience to solve emerging problems in our living environment.

Diagnosis and remediation of students' weaknesses are the basic components of diagnostic remedial teaching (DRT). Herein diagnosis can be regarded as a technique to identify students' strengths and weaknesses in a lesson or course of study through tests, observations and projects. Data collected from diagnosis serve as the basis of an instructional needs analysis, and subsequently provide vital information which would enable a teacher to correct his/her methods, contents or presentation. Hence, remediation connotes an act of rectifying the students' learning difficulties or weaknesses which they experience with the school curriculum. This may be realized through inquiry-discovery (Bruner, 1966) and task analysis of learning experiences imbued with guidance in the planning of instruction (Gagne, 1977). It becomes imperative for the biology teacher to grasp adequate knowledge of the biological concepts and relate them with the requisite sequence, continuity and integration to the students' interest, needs and environment.

The feasibility of DRT strategy is rooted in the assumption that the achievement a learner attains might be influenced by pedagogical techniques which individual teachers use during instruction (Bekee, 1987; Bryant and Anderson, 1972). It is equally not unlikely that pupils would learn more, through enhanced learning efficiency and

outcome, if they are better taught. Perhaps a flexible teaching method that inherently tends to accommodate students' cognitive styles (Oyekan, 1984) and rectify emerging weaknesses with continual practice, feedback and remedial instruction (Bajah and Bello, 1987) could become an inducement for optimal performance among the learners and teachers of biology. This might serve as an invaluable framework to plan and implement an effective and exciting curriculum for the bright and marginal students in the same classroom. Such efforts through the use of diagnostic remedial strategies can positively influence achievement (Yeany et al, 1980), provide effective guidance of learning, and evoke memory with conceptual understanding of biology.

Hence, effective teachers should scrutinize the problems associated with curricula and evaluation, and seek the basic features of good teaching with requisite enhancement of students' interests, achievement and inclination for further educations. The interactionist view of teaching is neatly capsulized by Brophy and Everton (1976):

Effective teaching requires the ability to implement a very large number of diagnostic, instructional, managerial and therapeutic skills, tailoring behaviour in specific contexts and situations to the specific needs of the moment (p. 139).

The teacher's professional commitment, creativity and imaginative ability are all indispensable towards effective diagnosis and remediation of students' weaknesses posing as potential learning difficulties in biology. Such attributes could help to provide clear teaching, accurate assessment and useful feedback that may boost the learning morale of biology learners beyond the classroom situations. This implies a veritable avenue to cope with emerging challenges in science and technology education.

This study focused on the current steady decline in performance, interest and choice of science subjects among Nigerian secondary school students. It was equally rooted in the realization that students' weaknesses centrally appear as powerful influence upon pupils' learning and achievement in biology. The situation had also been recognised to be inimical to the nation's scientific and technological advancement (STAN, 1987). Herein lies the necessity to exercise a great vigilance in identifying the sources of learning difficulties and provide appropriate remedial instruction before the students get into academic trouble (Mc Nicholas, 1976; Mann, 1986). A complete diagnosis and remediation of students' weaknesses, therefore, demands pooling all available resources by the school to make science and technology an integral part of our educational and national development. Adoption of DRT strategy could enhance the students' interest, performance and attitudes towards learning of biology. It may stand out as a force-runner of effective science teaching and indemnity against learning failure.

The following null hypotheses were generated for the study:

1. There is no significant difference in the performance of the CTM, DRT and CG students whether they were taught with the instructional guide and their weaknesses were remedied or not.
2. There is no significant difference in the performance of CTM and DRT students when they were both taught with the instructional guide.
3. There is no significant difference in the achievement of CTM, DRT and Control Group students on the retention test.

These hypotheses shall be used to verify collected data from the study sample as regards the effect of DRT strategy on students' achievement in biology.

2. Method

The study investigated the effect of diagnostic remedial teaching strategy on students' achievement in biology. A sample of 12 teachers and 427 randomly selected secondary school two (SS 2) students was drawn from three secondary schools in each of the four selected Local Government Areas in Osun and Oyo State of Nigeria. A pretest-posttest control group design with the students randomly assigned into experimental and control groups were utilized for the study. Hence, the SS2 students were divided into three instructional groups: Conventional Teaching Method (CTM), Diagnostic Remedial Teaching (DRT), and Control Group (CG).

In a Local Government Area, schools that made use of DRT and CTM approaches were designated as experimental groups. Also a school that did not utilize either DRT or CTM strategy was labelled as control group. Schools situated in both urban and rural areas of the selected Local Government were used to ensure a broad display of students' weaknesses in biology. The selection of the schools was based on stratified random sampling variables of location, sex, age and teacher availability. These characteristics helped largely in the spread of the schools, and preclusion of interaction among the experimental sample.

Two instruments titled Error Patterns Among Biology Students (EPABS), and Test of Achievement in Biology

(TAB) were developed, content-validated and used for data collection. EPABS, a 22-item questionnaire, defined the construct of students' weaknesses in terms of observable students' behaviour (Oyekan, 1995 a, b). The students recounted some pertinent students' weaknesses that often constitute impediments to their academic progress, achievement and interest in secondary school biology (Table 1). This compendium of identified students' weaknesses served as instructional template containing the components of learning experiences and objectives the instructional guide and TAB used by the 12 study teachers.

Table 1: Error patterns among biology students

S/N	Students' Weaknesses
1	Failure to draw well-labelled /annotated diagram(s) to illustrate/answer the chosen questions
2.	Instructions are not carefully read, strictly followed, and upheld to the last letter.
3.	Failure to write correct spellings especially in labels, identifications and one-word answers
4.	Inability to interpret and apply basic facts and concepts appropriately and effectively in specific life situations.
5.	Misconception in the popular notions of scientific facts, concepts or phenomena.
6.	Careless reading and misinterpretation of the questions
7.	Inadequate and scanty description(s) that lack details.
8.	Unnecessary concentration on and repetition of irrelevant materials and details
9.	Inappropriate description of differences between organisms or specimens in tabular form with corresponding distinguishing features and functions
10.	Confusion, misconception and misuse of appropriate terms, words or expressions.
11.	Lack of thorough knowledge and understanding of the subject matter and questions.
12.	Poor linguistic competence/inability to express thoughts in writing
13.	Improper descriptions and presentations of tests, observations and inferences in experiments
14.	Lack of basic knowledge of plant and animal forms and functions (adaptation)
15	Poor drawings/representations, analysis, interpretation and application for graphical data.
16.	Inability to apply basic principles and skills of mathematics correctly due to their poor manipulative and interpretation skills in simple arithmetic.
17	Failure to distribute time well.
18	Inadequate preparation and poor learning
19.	Inadequate exposure to practical exercises.
20	Failure to write or outline correct sequence of phenomena e.g. seed germination and urine formation.
21.	Failure to represent simple characters symbolically, particularly in genetics.
22.	Poor writing

Source: Oyekan, S.O (1995 a, b)

A compendium of these identified students' weaknesses could be adopted as potential components of learning experiences and objectives in meaningful biology lessons.

Test of Achievement in Biology (TAB), with an established reliability coefficient of 0.64, was constructed by the researcher and content-validated with the senior school certificate (SSC) syllabus. TAB structurally was restricted to the assessment of biological concepts of seed germination and mammalian (human) reproduction for having empirical and theoretical dimensions. Furthermore, they were chosen because they have practical applications to quality human life and career interest to the students. The dependent variable in this study is students' achievement. Effectiveness of DRT strategy was measured in terms of the biology students' achievement using TAB. Twelve classroom biology teachers (4 for DRT, 4 for CTM, and 4 for Control Group) drawn from twelve schools in the four Local Governments were used for administering the instructional treatment and collecting data on students' weaknesses.

The DRT group teachers were familiar with the error patterns of SSC examination candidates from their teaching and marking experiences of biology. The CTM group teachers have no marking experience and were allowed to teach the students in accordance with the generally accepted instructional practices. They were not intimated with the highlighted students' weaknesses and possible examination expectations.

Control group teachers, however, did not teach but helped to administer the pretests and posttests. It implies that their students received no instructional treatment. This provided an avenue to compare and validate emerging results of DRT, CTM and CG students on TAB so as to ascertain the effectiveness of DRT strategy on students' achievement in

biology.

In the DRT group, emphasis was laid heavily on the correction of the identified students' weaknesses en block with practice questions to work upon. The students' responses were carefully guided and corrected on the basis of their emerging weaknesses. The subject matter for the CTM group was similar in content with that of DRT group. Fora for diagnosis and remediation of any students' weaknesses were tactically excluded in their instructional interactions. The selection, background experiences and learning environment of the CG were identical in all respect to the DRT and CTM groups except that their students did not receive any lesson on seed germination and human reproduction.

TAB administered on the DRT, CTM and Control groups' subjects as pretests and posttests was a composite of essay and objective test items. It was administered before and after instructional treatments in the classroom for duration of two lesson periods of 80 minutes. Analysis of collected data was carried out by using relative frequencies, percentages, t-test and analysis of variance to verify the hypotheses in the study.

3. Results

Analysis of data showed that there were error patterns depicting students' weaknesses among biology learners. It was also discovered that there were significant differences among the means of DRT, CTM and CG student on TAB; in the performance of DRT and CTM students before and after they were taught with the instructional guide; and in the achievement of the DRT and CTM students on retention test.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in the performance of CTM, DRT and CG students whether they were taught with instructional guide and their weaknesses were remedied or not.

Table 2: Posttest scores of CTM, DRT and CG students on TAB

Instructional Groups	N	Achievement Scores $\sum X$	\bar{X}	S.D.
CTM	156	4967	31.84	15.23
DRT	154	5575	36.23	13.74
Control	117	3019	25.80	10.88

The emerging groups' results show that DRT students with higher mean and lower standard deviation relatively performed better than CTM and CG students respectively on TAB. This provides explicit support for the effectiveness of progressive remediation of the students' weaknesses with the aid of DRT strategy.

Table 3: Analysis of variance of posttest achievement scores of the three groups

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares (SS)	Degrees of Freedom (df)	Mean Square	Calculated F-Value F_c
Between groups	7189.92	2	3594.96	19.20
Within groups	79406.23	424	187.28	
Total	86596.15	426		

$$F_t (df=2, 424; p=0.05) = 2.99$$

Since the critical table value F_t is less than F_c , the null hypothesis is rejected. This further shows that there was a significant difference among the group means of CTM, DRT and Control group students on TAB. As earlier indicated in Table 2, better performance was exhibited by DRT students on TAB in accordance with their higher mean score.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the performance of CTM and DRT students when they were both taught with the instructional guide.

Table 4: Relationship between the achievement scores of CTM and DRT students

Instructional Group	Posttest Scores				Gain	Scores	tc
	N	$\sum X$	\bar{X}	S.D	$\sum X$	\bar{X}	
DRT	154	5575	36.23	13.74	3496	22.70	10.2
CTM	156	4967	31.84	15.23	2313	14.83	

$$t_t (df = 308, p = 0.05) = 1.96$$

Since t_t is less than t_c , the null hypothesis is rejected. This shows that there was a significant difference in the performance of CTM and DRT students when they were both taught with the instructional guide. The higher achievement mean and gain scores coupled with the lower standard deviation in the posttest scores of DRT students upheld the relative effectiveness of DRT on CTM strategy.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the achievement of students on retention tests whether they were taught with instructional guide and their weaknesses were remedied or not.

Table 5: Comparison of the retention scores of the CTM, DRT and CG students on TAB

Instructional Group	N	$\sum X$	\bar{X}	S.D
CTM	156	4733	30.34	13.89
DRT	154	6575	42.69	14.32
CG	117	2933	25.07	10.45

The higher retention mean score achieved by DRT students showed the essence of identifying and correcting the students' weaknesses as teaching proceeds in classroom situations. It seems DRT is more effective than CTM in rectifying the learning problems and retaining more biological concepts over an instructional period of time.

Table 6: Analysis of variance of retention scores of CTM, DRT and CG students on TAB

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares (SS)	Degrees of Freedom(df)	Mean Square (MS)	Calculated F_c
Between groups	22886.20	2	11443.10	65.24
Within Groups	74367.11	424	175.39	
Total	97253.31	426		

Since F_t is less than F_c , the null hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that there was significant different among the group means of CTM, DRT and CG students on TAB. As earlier explained with Tables 4 & 5, the adoption of DRT strategy had significantly aided learning and retention of the biological concepts. This might have contributed immensely to the relative difference in the (higher) retention score attained by DRT students when compared with those accomplished by CMT and CG students respectively.

4. Discussion

The findings of this study largely showed that the use of DRT strategy is more effective in boosting the students' achievement and retention of biological concepts than the CTM in biology classroom practices. It is likely DRT provides the teacher with practical assistance to improve instruction, enhance learning, promote the actualization of unrealized human potential, and reduce the likelihood of a student failing to graduate or to further his/her education. Hence, biology teachers ought to embrace the practice of DRT strategy as an antidote to declining performance and interest in secondary school biology.

The choice of biology by students of varying abilities may demand the use of DRT strategy because of their interest in choosing it as one of the subjects for SSC examinations. Perhaps the preferential affinity for biology seems firmly rooted in the unique exploration and explanation of human life, natural phenomena and survival strategy it affords the students. This often attracts different categories of pupils choosing it just to have a credit pass or for post-secondary education in the agricultural, biological, medical, pharmaceutical science and allied disciplines. It is hoped that a biologically-literate citizen appreciate the virtues of good living, decent behaviour and sustainable environmental protection for the corporate survival and advancement of mankind.

5. Conclusion

The results of this study suggest the existence of a variety of difficulties students do have in coping with the learning of scientific facts and concepts in secondary school biology. Hence, the diagnosis, knowledge and application of identified students' weaknesses are potentially capable of suggesting effective ways of teaching learners of biology, matching them with appropriate learning tasks, and adapting instructional materials to their varying potentials.

Adoption of DRT strategy is more likely to reduce examination malpractices, promote good mental health and sustain better attitudes towards learning of biology. The increased students' achievement can provide able candidates for science and technology courses and responsible manpower to improve humanity and environment. It is envisioned that more students' interest and ability to acquire and apply biological knowledge to everyday life could improve our personal and community health for good lifestyle and healthy living, boost agricultural production for food security and industrial production, and preservation of biodiversity for a balanced living environment.

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Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices Relating to Fire Prevention among Students in the Elementary Schools of Muang Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand

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Abstract

In 2010, the department of disaster prevention and mitigation, Thailand reported that during 2006 – 2010 the statistics of fire in temples, schools and offices was increasing every year. Only in 2010, there was 80 cases. The aim of this cross-sectional study was to evaluate knowledge, attitudes and practices (KAP) of the students in thirty two elementary schools toward fire prevention. Verbal consent was taken from the students who were willing to participate in the study. Six hundred and thirty students were 359 female, 266 male and 5 not identified. The mean of age of the studied subjects was 11.09 ± 1.07 and ranged from 6 to 13 years. These students completed questionnaire which was designed by the researchers and evaluated by the institute members of occupational health and safety department. The content validity of item-objective congruence index (IOC) is 0.83 which means the consistent questions with the objectives. The collection data were analyzed by 2-independent samples test and Pearson Chi-square ($p < 0.05$). The results indicated that no gender differences were with the level of knowledge, attitudes and practices ($p = 0.072, 0.149$ and 0.235 respectively) and the Pearson chi-square showed that the level of knowledge, attitudes was not associated with practices ($p = 0.256$ and 0.572 respectively). The finding also revealed that the students who had not been trained in fire evacuation had more inappropriate behavior or practice and poorer attitude toward fire than those had the experience. Strategy planning to improve attitudes and practices through proper training for fire evacuation among students are needed.

Keywords: Knowledge, attitude and practice (KAP), Fire prevention, Primary school

1. Introduction

Education quality assurance is the main policy of the government of Thailand to develop and enhance the quality of the education system to be equivalent to international. One of the requirements for the education quality assurance of Thailand define that school need to have an environment and services that encourage learners to develop their full potential including the safety requirement (Ministry of Education, 2011). Although schools have an appropriate and safe environment. In 2010, the department of disaster prevention and mitigation, Thailand reported the statistics of fire in temple, school and official from 1989 to 2010 have totally 2,636 cases which cover all provinces of Thailand. The lowest and highest number of fire is 20 (2004 yr.) and 324 (1992 yr.) cases, respectively (Ministry of Interior, 2010). These data implied that the requirements of education quality assurance concerned with safe environment were inappropriate, improper and not clearly criteria to prevent fire. Therefore, it is necessary to set guidelines for reducing the incident and improving the human potential. Unfortunately, there are no adequate studies about fire prevention of primary school students in Thailand. Therefore, knowing the students' knowledge, attitude and practices fire prevention assist us to improve the guideline of fire prevention in primary school. The purpose of this study was to evaluate knowledge, attitudes and practices of elementary school associated with fire prevention by using method of KAP survey.

A KAP survey is a representative study of a specific population to collect information on what is known, believed and done in relation to a particular topic. A KAP survey gathers information about what respondents know, think and actually do about something or someone. KAP survey can identify knowledge gaps, cultural beliefs, or behavioral patterns that may facilitate understanding and action, as well as pose problems or create barrier (WHO, 2008). In particular, knowledge-attitudes questionnaires have been used to evaluate the effectiveness of information interventions intended to change behavior. (Headrick et al., 1992) (Superko et al., 1988)

2. Material and Method

The study was conducted using a descriptive cross-sectional approach to determine the knowledge, attitudes and practices of students in elementary schools located in Muang, Nakhon Ratchasima during the educational year 2009 - 2010.

2.1 Population and Participants

The researchers surveyed area in Muang, Nakhon Ratchasima to collect the data about the number of primary school and student. The data showed that fifty seven elementary schools were classified in four scales such as small scale (students < 120), medium scale (students = 121-600), large scale (students = 601-1,500) and extra-large scale (students > 1,500) had 22, 29, 2 and 4, respectively. Overall elementary students had 13,608 (population) which were determined sample size by Yamane (1967:886). Yamane provides a simplified formula to calculate sample sizes. A 95% Confidence level and P-value = 0.5 are assumed for Equation 1 (Glenn D., 1992).

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e^2)}$$

Where n is the sample size, N is the population, and e is the level of precision (e=0.05).

Calculated sample size was 389 subjects, so the number of samples is randomly selected from population and schools. Small and medium-sized schools for the simple random 50% of all to study a number of 11 and 15, respectively. Due to two large-sized and four extra-large sized elementary school were included all in this study. So there are thirty two schools that were selected as the study group. Elementary students were invited to participate and were explained the objectives of this study. The researcher obtained verbal consent from all participants.

2.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was created by the research team, was peer-reviewed and was tested the content validity of item-objective congruence index (IOC) by three lecturers of occupational safety and health department, Suranaree University of Technology. The average of IOC score was 0.83. These score indicated that the questions are consistent to the objectives.

The questionnaire was classified into the following four parts: part 1: demographic information such as gender, age, level of education); part 2: knowledge about fire prevention; part 3: attitudes on fire prevention; and part 4: fire prevention practices. The instrument focused on a limited set of questions pertaining to knowledge, attitudes and practices covering important basic aspects of fire prevention. The researchers distributed 640 questionnaires but were given back 630 questionnaires.

2.3 Knowledge, Attitude and Practice scale

The knowledge was involved 9 items and attitudes had 8 items about fire, fire-fighting, fire prevention. The practice of fire prevention was investigated using a separate set of 9 questions about fire prevention and 5 questions concerned with risk activity to be fire. The participants completed the questionnaires and selected the correct answers from the MCQ answers. Scoring was done by awarding marks (correct response = 1, wrong = 0, don't know = 0, and not response = 0) for each item of knowledge and attitudes. The practices scale of each item scored a value of 1 for positive practice and 0 for negative or inadequate practice. Knowledge, attitudes and practices scores were assessed as good (>mean+SD), fair (mean-SD to mean+SD) and poor (<mean-SD).

2.4 Statistical analysis

The data obtained from the questionnaires were coded, tabulated and analyzed statistically. Percent, means and standard deviation used to describe the scores from the knowledge, attitudes and practices concerned with fire prevention. Two-independent samples test and Pearson Chi-square were used to test for any significant differences and relationship among variables (95% Confidence Intervals, P-value < 0.05).

3. Results

A total of 630 elementary students participated in this study, 359 (56.98%) were females, 266 (42.22%) were males and 5 (0.8%) were not identify. The mean age of participants was 11.41 (SD=5.8) and ages ranged between 6 and 13 years. Majority of the students, 230 (36.5%) had sixth elementary school degree, 220 (34.9%) had fifth elementary school degree and 115 (18.3%) had fourth elementary degree.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of elementary school in Muang, NakhonRatchasima, Thailand.

Characteristics	n	%	Mean±SD	Range
Sex				
- Female	359	56.98		
- Male	266	42.22		
- Not identify	5	0.8		
Age (years)				
			11.09 ± 1.07	6 - 13
- 6	1	0.2		
- 7	5	0.8		
- 8	11	1.7		
- 9	22	3.5		
- 10	115	18.3		
- 11	220	34.9		
- 12	230	36.5		
- 13	22	3.5		
- Not identify	4	0.6		
Education				
			-	1 st – 6 th degree
- 1 st degree	6	1		
- 2 nd degree	8	1.3		
- 3 rd degree	17	2.7		
- 4 th degree	96	15.2		
- 5 th degree	230	36.5		
- 6 th degree	271	4.3		
- Not identify	2	0.3		

In this study, the level of knowledge, attitudes and practices divided into three level such as good/positive, fair and poor/negative. Most elementary students with knowledge, attitudes and practices level were fair as equal 361 (57.8%), 405 (64.8%) and 356 (57%), respectively. The KAP level of students indicated that the students have average knowledge, attitudes and practices. The KAP level of all, male and female students were shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The average KAP level of all, male and female students.

KAP Level	All (%)			Male (%)			Female (%)		
	K	A	P	K	A	P	K	A	P
Good/Positive	26.4	12.6	22.2	30.45	10.52	24.44	23.40	14.21	20.613
Fair	57.8	64.8	57	54.89	65.04	48.87	59.89	64.62	62.952
Poor/Negative	15.8	22.6	20.8	14.66	24.44	26.69	16.71	21.17	16.435

Students had the highest score of knowledge question about the extinguishing agents and the lowest score about fire station. The result showed that the students got information from multimedia such as television (391), teacher (326), newspaper (221), internet (162), radio (146), family (146) and placard/flap (79). Therefore, the most media have to attend for providing the knowledge of fire prevention such as television, teacher and newspaper.

Observation regarding KAP questionnaire showed that participants believed that fire is important but don't believe that they were sufficient capability to fire prevention. Furthermore, most students behave incorrectly on fire because there are only a few people (18.8%) who had practiced fire evacuation. Consequently, data analysis was separate into two groups, the first group of students through a fire evacuation and the other group not trained to indicate the level of knowledge, attitudes and practices that are likely to cause fire (as shown in Table 3).

Table 3. Data of the group of students through a fire evacuation and the other group not trained.

Parameter	1 st group*	2 nd group**
Number of student	114 (18.10%)	492 (78.10%)
Level of knowledge (avg. score)	Fair (2.09)	Fair (2.12)
Level of attitudes (avg. score)	Fair (2.04)	Poor (1.88)
Practices		
1. Smoking	7 (11.1%)	21 (3.33%)
2. Cooking	85 (13.49%)	368 (58.41%)
3. Burning trash	63 (10%)	232 (36.83%)
4. Repairing Electric Appliance	13 (2.06%)	40 (6.35%)
5. Playing squib/firework	44 (6.98%)	220 (34.92%)

Number of Missing students = 13

* group of students through a fire evacuation

** group of students not trained

Information revealed that the second group of students with the level of attitude was worse than the first group. The second group was the practices that can cause a fire, such as smoking, cooking, and repairing electric appliance, than the first group to three times.

Two-Independent samples test was used to test the different of KAP level in two gender (male, female), the results indicated that no gender differences were with the level of knowledge, attitudes and practices ($p=0.072$, 0.149 and 0.235 , respectively). Pearson chi-square test showed that the level of knowledge related with attitudes ($p<0.000$) but the level of knowledge, attitudes was not associated with practices ($p=0.256$ and 0.572 , respectively).

4. Conclusion and Recommendation

In conclusion, most participants (84.2%) showed an understanding of fire prevention. Based on our finding, gender no differences in knowledge, attitudes and practices level among elementary students were questioned. However, there is a need for improving practices on fire because there were many activities which are likely to cause fire. Therefore, changing participants' behavior in an appropriate direction is more important. The study of Kanouse and Jacoby (1988) indicated that the development of knowledge leads to new attitudes and changes practices which consistent with the approach to solve the problem for this research. Besides changing attitudes and practices, additional training fire evacuation is still necessary for students to take action for reducing the chance of fire.

5. Acknowledgement

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Are There Changes in English Learning Strategies Used by Chinese Students after They Study in Thailand?

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Abstract

The use of English learning strategies is not static, and it can be changed or developed over time. The learning environment is one of the possible factors that can cause such changes; however, little attempt has been paid in researching possible influence of the EFL learning environment on English learning strategies used by foreign learners in EFL countries. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine if there are changes in English learning strategies used by Chinese undergraduate students after they study in Thailand. This study has taken a survey research approach having as the subjects 218 Chinese undergraduate students in four private universities in Bangkok, Thailand. Chinese language questionnaires were used to collect data. Interviews were also conducted to gain insights. The Chi-square test was used to test the hypothesis, while qualitative data were analyzed by thematic content analysis. Reliability was ensured by intra-rater reliability ($r_{xy} = 0.970$). The findings revealed that the number of Chinese students who reported that their English learning strategies use change was significantly different from those who reported no such changes after they studied in Thailand ($p < 0.05$). This means that, in general, a larger number of Chinese students have changed their English learning strategies use. English learning strategies of speaking and listening skills were reported as the most frequently influenced.

1. Introduction

1.1 English Learning Strategies

Considering the role of English as a global language and a language for communication in the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) which will be implemented in 2015, proficiency in English is gaining even greater importance. In Thailand, greater awareness of the significance of English has been widely raised, especially in educational institutions which attempt to improve their students' English proficiency in preparation for the AEC.

In the context of foreign language learning, learning strategies which are extended from and are applications of the cognitive theory, have a very crucial role to play in developing communicative competence as they are steps for language learners to take to facilitate and enhance their own foreign language learning (Oxford, 1990). In addition, in the field of language learning and teaching over several decades, there has been a great emphasis on learners and their learning. Interests have been shown in how learners process new information and what strategies they use to understand, learn, or remember it.

The term 'language learning strategies' is defined in various ways by different scholars in the field. Chamot (1987: 71) defines learning strategies as 'techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information'. According to Wenden (1987), learner strategies are referred to as language learning behaviors of learners to learn and regulate the second language learning, learners' knowledge about the learning strategies they use, and learners' knowledge about other aspects of their language learning besides the strategies, and these may affect their selection of strategy used. Rubin (1987: 19) identifies that 'learner strategies include any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information'.

Language learning strategies are classified into two major types: *direct* and *indirect strategies* (Oxford, 1990). Direct strategies include *memory strategies* (assisting learners to store and retrieve new information), *cognitive strategies* (making learners able to understand and produce a new language by many ways ranging from repeating to analyzing expressions to summarizing), and *compensation strategies* (enabling learners to use the language for either comprehension or production although having no full understanding in language knowledge). Indirect strategies involve

metacognitive strategies (providing a way for learners to co-ordinate their own learning process), *affective strategies* (helping language learners control their emotion, attitudes, motivations, and values), and *social strategies* (involving appropriate interaction with other people during communication).

Oxford (1994) argues that conscious use of the strategies has a positive relationship with language learning achievement and proficiency. Language learning strategies are, therefore, good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems faced during the language learning process; additionally, they give language teachers valuable clues about how their students learn. However, use of learning strategies is not static, and it can be changed or developed over time, and the learning environment is one of the possible factors that can cause change of strategy use.

Among foreign students studying in Thai universities, Chinese students make up the largest population. The number of Chinese students in the international program has been increasing, and it was approximately 10,000 in 2012 (Naewna, 2013). These students concentrate in business administration, tourism, IT, the sciences and Thai (Xinhua News agency, 2006). Low fees, cultural similarities and the variety of courses on offer are the major reasons for the rising number, and the upward trend is very promising. In terms of research, it is unfortunate that little attempt has been paid on empirical research regarding the possible influence of learning environment on English learning strategy use (Gao, 2003). Therefore, this study aimed to examine if there are changes in English learning strategies used by Chinese students after they study in Thailand. The null hypothesis was set as: there are no significant changes in English learning strategies used by Chinese students after they study in Thailand ($\alpha = 0.05$). This was due to limited existing research findings on this particular issue: use of English learning strategies by foreign students in an EFL context.

2. Methodology

2.1 Subjects

Drawn from 1,800 Chinese students studying at the 17 private universities in Bangkok, Thailand, with the two-stage random sampling technique, the subjects were 218 Chinese students whose majors were international business, marketing, and finance at the four private universities: Assumption University (ABAC), University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce (UTCC), Rangsit University (RSU), and Dhurakij Pundit University (DPU). They took courses in international (n=98) and Thai (n=120) programs, using English and Thai as a medium of instruction respectively.

2.2 Research Design and Instrument

The study took the form of a survey research design. A questionnaire in Mandarin Chinese (Appendix) was used to collect quantitative and qualitative data. Interviewing was also employed with 8 students – 2 from each university to probe and gain insights for data discussions.

3. Data Analysis

The Chi-square test (χ^2) was applied to test the hypothesis. The qualitative data in the Chinese language were translated into English, and then analyzed using the thematic content analysis attempting to derive key words for data categorization. To ensure reliability, 'intra-rater reliability' which is one type of reliability assessment in which the same assessment was completed by the same rater or researcher was used, and a very high correlation between the two ratings was found ($r_{xy} = .970$).

4. Results

The χ^2 produced the result as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: The Changes of English Learning Strategy Use

Strategy Use	Observed n	Expected n	Residual	df	χ^2
Changed	152	109	43	1	33.927*
Not changed	66	109	-43		
Total	218				

* $p < 0.05$

Table 1 shows that $.05\chi^2_1 < 33.927$, and the hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, the number of Chinese students who reported a change in their learning strategy use is significantly different from those who reported no change of their strategy use after their study in Thailand ($p < 0.05$). This means that, generally speaking, a larger number of Chinese students have changed their English learning strategy use after they have studied in Thailand.

Cross tabulation was also run to gain further information of changes in English learning strategy use after their study in Thailand in each university (Table 2).

Table 2: Cross Tabulation Showing Changes Reported by Students in each University

University			Learning strategy		Total
			Changed	Not changed	
ABAC	inter	Count	43	21	64
		%	67.2%	32.8%	100%
UTCC	inter	Count	19	8	27
		%	70.4%	29.6%	100%
DPU	inter	Count	7	0	7
	%	100%	0%	100%	
	Thai	Count	65	30	95
		%	68.4%	31.6%	100%
RU	Thai	Count	18	7	25
		%	72.0%	28.0%	100%

According to Table 2, a higher number of Chinese students in each program of study and in each university reported a change in learning strategy use after their study in Thailand. For ABAC, 67.2% of the students reported a change while 32.8% reported no change. 70.4% of the UTCC students, 100% of the international program DPU students, and 68.4% Thai program DPU students changed their learning strategy use. Likewise, 72.0% of the RU Chinese students reported a change in English learning strategy use.

Table 3: Cross Tabulation Showing Changes of each English Skill

		English Skills					Total
		Very much	Much	Moderate	Little	Very little	
Listening	Count	56	56	30	5	3	150
	%	37.3%	37.3%	20.0%	3.3%	2.0%	100.0%
Speaking	Count	55	67	27	7	2	158
	%	34.8%	42.4%	17.1%	4.4%	1.3%	100.0%
Reading	Count	25	40	69	8	4	146
	%	17.1%	27.4%	47.3%	5.5%	2.7%	100.0%
Writing	Count	16	44	50	25	16	151
	%	10.6%	29.1%	33.1%	16.6%	10.6%	100.0%
Vocabulary	Count	21	33	57	22	13	146
	%	14.4%	22.6%	39.0%	15.1%	8.9%	100.0%
Total	Count	173	240	233	67	38	751
	%	23.0%	32.0%	31.0%	8.9%	5.1%	100.0%

Table 3 shows changes of each English skill. Since there were the frequencies of less than 5, the *Exact test* was used. The results showed that speaking and listening skills were reported as the most changed skills. For speaking, 42.4% of the students in both programs reported their change of learning strategy use as “much”, and 34.8% rated it as “very much”. For listening, 37.3% of the students perceived the changes equally as “much” and “very much”. The other language skills which are reading, writing, and vocabulary were more likely to be perceived as moderate changes.

4.1 Comparisons of Strategies Used in China and Thailand

The open-response item questionnaire asked the students to explain what and how learning strategies of the English skill they reported as the most changed. According to the quantified qualitative findings, some students reported that both

listening and speaking skills were equally the most changed. Therefore, an emphasis will be put on a report of the findings on speaking and listening skills. However, it should be noted that many students did not explain the learning strategies they used for each particular learning strategy; instead, they explained more on factors or reasons causing changes.

4.1.1 Speaking Strategies

Table 4 provides comparative details of the speaking strategies used in China and Thailand.

Table 4: Speaking Strategies Used In China and Thailand

Speaking Strategies in China	Frequency	%	Speaking Strategies in Thailand	Frequency	%
Try to speak like native speakers	6	17.6	Find opportunity to speak English	54	87
Practice speaking in class only	6	17.6	Watch movies and TV, listen to songs	8	13
Memorize	2	5.8			
Little opportunities to speak English	20	59.0			

According to Table 4, 59% reported that they had little opportunity to speak English in China, and did not mention much about speaking strategies. This is understandable. They rarely spoke English in China; therefore, it was uncommon for them to use English learning strategies in relation to speaking English.

The focus is on writing.

Teachers give handouts to study by ourselves. It's a rare opportunity to speak English.

However, 17.6% reported the speaking strategies of *trying to speak like native speakers* and *practicing speaking English in class only*. Memorizing was given 5.8%.

The occurrence of the strategy of *trying to speak like native speakers* can be explained, as individual Chinese students are typically given a course CD or cassette tape to practice listening and speaking on their own. In terms of speaking, they listen to and try to imitate the English native accents.

Listen to course cassette tapes to practice speaking.

I read the course book, listened to the tape, and practice speaking.

In Thailand, 87% reported *finding opportunities to speak* as the first speaking strategy, followed by watching movies and TV, and listening to songs with 13%.

The strategy of finding opportunities to speak included communication with their teachers, class mates in class, and Thai people outside of class. Furthermore, they made an attempt to make more foreign friends to practice speaking English.

The most different part is speaking. In china, we just speak English in class, but here I have to speak English everywhere.

Here, I try my best to speak and learn from other people. Try to understand every word which they say, then use these words for my own speaking.

We have to speak English because if we don't speak, we don't know what other people are talking about, so practice speaking English because we must do homework and assignments every day. We need to take many chances to practice by ourselves.

In conclusion, the findings showed the dramatic different speaking strategies when Chinese students came to and study in Thailand. They make an effort to find opportunities to speak English with teachers, class mates or people outside the class room. In contrast, in China they did not have many opportunities to practice speaking even in the class

room. Moreover, speaking like native speakers was the very first speaking strategy used while these students were in China.

4.1.2 Listening Strategies

Table 5 reveals comparative details of the listening strategies used in China and Thailand.

Table 5: Listening Strategies Used In China and Thailand

Listening Strategies in China	Frequency	%	Listening Strategies in Thailand	Frequency	%
Practice through media	13	39.4	Practice through media	15	44.1
Practice through course audio media	9	27.3	Listen to the teacher in class	10	29.4
Never practice	7	21.2	Talk with foreign friends	6	17.6
In class practice	4	12.1	Practice (general)	3	8.8

Table 5 shows that most (39.4%) Chinese students used media, such as radio, TV, and films to practice their listening skills.

I listened to songs. I practiced listening by myself.

I listened to the radio, watched TV and movies.

In China, practicing listening using course audio media, such as computerized lessons and conversations was reported as the second most frequent listening strategy (27.3%) to improve listening. It was noted from the qualitative findings that they received listening exposure of 'American' accents.

I practiced listening to conversations from a computer.

I listened to course conversations from a cassette tape. There are American accent listening exercises.

However, a negative comment on using the course CD for listening practice and their learning improvement was noted.

Students were given a CD by a teacher so that we practiced listening by ourselves. We practiced a lot, but we couldn't speak English. But in Thailand, teachers don't let us practice (with course CD).

In-class practice received 12.1%, while never practice was reported by 21.2%.

I memorized words, never practiced listening and speaking.

I learned only grammar.

In Thailand, practice through media channels was reported as the first listening strategy (44.1%). This included watching films, listening to the radio and news.

I will use the Internet to improve my English, such as watching English movies and listening to the radio.

Listening to the teacher in-class was reported as the second listening strategy (29.4%).

I listen attentively and think what they are talking about. Regular practice will make you familiar (with listening to English).

Talking with foreign friends or Thais (17.6%) was the next listening strategy.

I talk with foreign friends or Thai people.

In conclusion, regarding the listening strategies, students reported practicing through TV, radio, films and songs as the first listening strategy both in China and Thailand. These learning materials were chosen by the students themselves for out of class practice. However, the second most popular listening strategy in China was changed when they studied in Thailand. They no longer practiced listening using the course CD assigned by the teachers in China for their own listening practice and for acquisition of the American accent. Instead, they practice listening by trying to listen to what the teacher says in class.

4.1.3 Both Listening and Speaking Strategies

Some students reported that both listening and speaking or communication strategies were equally changed. The following are the excerpts from some students' comments.

American or English speaking TV shows may be helpful with new words and listening.

In China, I couldn't speak English. Chinese students didn't speak English that much in China. There are not many schools teaching English. Teachers taught like tutorial (to pass exams). After class, there was no opportunity to practice English. We didn't use English in our daily lives. I felt uncomfortable to speak English, but here in Thailand English is widely used. So in Thailand, in class I am attentive to what the teacher says. I study hard. When I don't understand what the teacher says, I use English to ask her. Also, we use English to do group work.

In short, practice of both listening and speaking skills is the learning strategy that some students adopt when they study in Thailand. In China, it is a rare opportunity for them to practice oral communication skills.

5. Discussions

The statistical finding revealed that generally speaking, a larger number of Chinese students has significantly changed their English learning strategy use after they have studied in Thailand. There are some interesting points worth discussing as follows.

Firstly and theoretically, language learning strategies are not static, and they can be developed or changed over time. Changes of English learning strategy use depend on a variety of factors. Among them are environment, academic culture, teaching methods, pronunciation of local people and entertainment media. These are considered as contextual factors. Additional learner factors such as learning motivation, survival necessity in a foreign country, and English proficiency of the learners themselves, also contribute to the changes of English learning strategies used by the Chinese students in the present study. Affective factors which are positive attitudes towards English, lower anxiety, self-confidence and effort to learn and use English, are other aspects which contribute to changes of English learning strategy use (Swatevacharkul, 2011). All of these factors have a casual relationship in changing English learning strategy use.

Secondly, the finding showed that learning strategies related to communication skills, speaking in particular, were the most changed. The only predominant reason was in fact provided by the Chinese students themselves, and it is related to the opportunity for language production. In China, little opportunity is afforded for speaking English as the main focus of English language learning appears to be grammar, not communication skills. When they are situated within a new learning context in Thailand, which puts more emphasis on communicative learning approach than in China and requires them to produce English in their daily lives, they need to adapt themselves to suit with the new learning process and use English to a larger extent as a consequence. English is currently more important and meaningful for them in terms of the necessity of use. This is the reason why 87% of the Chinese students pointed out that they try to find opportunities to speak English when they are in Thailand.

When they are forced to use English for communication, they need more communication strategies which involve both speaking and listening strategies. This is therefore related to compensation strategies which enable them to use the language for either comprehension or production although they do not have full understanding in language knowledge (Oxford, 1990). These findings saliently support the definition of learning strategy set by Oxford that learning strategies are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence which can be developed by realistic interaction with the target language in a meaningful and authentic context.

Thirdly, the findings on the fact that in China these Chinese students tried to speak like native English speakers (17.6%) as one of the important speaking strategies, should receive attention. The vital reason is that in China strong

emphasis has been put on a native-like accent especially an American accent. According to the findings, they were required to practice listening by themselves outside of class time with the tape cassette or CD containing English dialogues with English native accents. Therefore, they perceive that the native-like accents, especially American accent, are prestigious. As noted, "*In China, we're exposed to an American accent*". This might be due to their prior learning experience which exposed them to the native-like accents and formed their perception of the prestigious native-like accent preference. As shown by the research conducted by Moussu (Braine, 2010), the Chinese and Korean students expressed negative feelings toward the non-native speaking teachers more frequently than other students who were from Japan, Argentina, Ecuador, and Switzerland.

Lastly, in regard to the listening strategies, the findings showed that these Chinese students have practiced their listening skills by using media such as radio, TV, films, and the Internet both in China and Thailand. Being in an EFL environment in China and Thailand, these media are considered effective for the language ability development and enjoyment at the same time.

6. Implications

In terms of practical implications, three points emerged as follows. Teachers and teaching methodologies can cause change of English learning strategy use; therefore, this raises awareness to the teachers of English that they can help their students use a wider range of learning strategies. Explicit learning strategy teaching is strongly suggested so that students are aware of the learning strategies that they should use and use them on a regular basis.

In regard to a strong preference of American accent, which possibly forms a false assumption of the best, or most prestigious accent and a negative attitude toward other English accents, especially non-native accents, this point needs to be reconsidered. Taking the role of English as a lingua franca (ELF) for purposes in international business and trading and a small number of English native speakers in the world compared to that of the non-native English speakers (Crystal, 1997), it means that greater exposure to English is mainly from non-native English speakers, and the involvement of native speakers in English use is rather limited, or even does not exist, namely in the AEC. This changing phenomenon of the role of English should be explained to these Chinese students so that they can reform their perception and attitude toward English accents. Pronunciation is more important for successful communication than accents.

In addition, students reported that they enjoy using entertainment media to practice their listening and speaking skills. Integration of these entertainment media, such as English songs and movies, into an English course is recommended. Students may be assigned to perform their independent learning outside class time by using these media to improve their English ability.

7. Recommendations

1. Replication of this study is recommended using Chinese students in state universities in order to compare the research results.
2. Factors causing changes of English learning strategy use are recommended to study further in order to perceive possible causes and strengthen the existing research findings in this area.
3. Investigation of effects of changes in English learning strategy use on English learning achievement of Chinese students in Thailand is recommended.
4. Further studies should investigate the relationship between the frequency of language learning strategy use and English learning outcomes in order to strengthen the existing research findings in this area.

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Appendix

Questionnaire: Comparison of English Learning Strategy Use in Thailand and China

Please answer the following questions.

1. In general, do you think your use of English learning strategies has changed from when you were studying English in China? (Please ✓)

Yes (Answer every question) No

2. In your opinion, how much are your English learning strategies used for each skill listed below while studying in Thailand different from when you were studying in China? (Please rate by making a tick ✓ in the space provided)

	Skills	Very much (5)	Much (4)	Moderately (3)	Little (2)	Very little (1)
1	Listening					
2	Speaking					
3	Reading					
4	Writing					
5	Vocabulary					

3. Based on your answers in Question 2 above regarding the skill for which you have changed your learning strategies the most, please explain what learning strategies you used in **China** and how.

Now (in **Thailand**) what learning strategies do you use, and how do you use them for that particular skill?

4. Please explain the causes or factors for changes of your English learning strategies for that particular skill.

A Study on English as a Lingua Franca: Japanese University Students' Barriers to Communication

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Abstract

In this global society, almost all of us agree that English acts as a lingua franca. However, non-native speakers often make L1 influenced mistakes including structural or grammatical errors, or mistakes in vocabulary usage. These mistakes can interfere in communication with native speakers. In this study, a sample of 101 Japanese university students who had studied English for six years before entering university (i.e. nonnative speakers) participated in translating certain sentences into written English. Then the degree to which native speakers understood these translations was examined. Native speakers marked the data as one of three types: natural, not natural but comprehensible, or incomprehensible. Next, data that was marked as either comprehensible or incomprehensible was examined to identify the type of errors that occurred most frequently. The types of errors in students' translations of sentences were divided into three categories: (1) errors influenced by L1, (2) errors stemming from a lack of grammatical knowledge, and (3) errors which arose from a poor understanding of vocabulary. Finally, the data completed by our sample was used to find the kinds of elements that become obstacles to communication and the most difficult ideas for the students to express.

1. Introduction

In Japan English is taught as a Foreign Language, not a second language, as English learners have few chances to use it in authentic situations. This means that students learn their English in the classroom under conditions contrived by the instructor and/or the textbook that will give students practice with vocabulary and common grammatical patterns.

When students are evaluated on their understanding of English, their success or failure is measured based on their rote memorization and ability to perform well on written exams. Instructors are usually looking for just one correct answer when there are often many possible answers if the student knows English well.

English education in Japan has a long tradition of seeking "native" fluency. Students with anything less are reluctant to use their English. Even after entering university they spend much too long formulating a sentence before writing or speaking English. Moreover, their English ability is evaluated based on Standard English (SE). However, following the movement to accept English as a lingua franca, Japanese English teachers are beginning to recognize that we should accept varieties of English. As English is accepted as an international language with many non-native speakers, we need to adopt new criteria for evaluating students' English ability from the perspective of communication instead of grammar.

In this study we discuss Japanese university students' communicative ability referring to English as a lingua franca. We focus on the semantic and pragmatic content of communication rather than on external form and accuracy based on SE. By exploring the factors that may interfere in communication with native speakers, we feel we can make suggestions that will benefit both students and teachers of a Second Language (ESL) when using English as a lingua franca.

Our research has two phases. First we explored the typical errors—including structural or grammatical errors, or mistakes in vocabulary usage—in written translations. Second, native speakers evaluated translations in terms of comprehensibility. We used written translation for our research because it is less influenced by internal or external learning factors, and has a smaller set of variables than spoken translation.

2. Review of the Literature

2.1 *Research on English as a lingua franca*

When we discuss “English as a lingua franca”, we must define what this means. According to Jenkins (2010) “a lingua franca is a contact language used among people who do not share a first language, and is commonly understood to mean a second or subsequent language of its speakers” (p.1). The original definition of a lingua franca was a language that had no native speakers (NSs). However, English has gradually become accepted as a lingua franca because of the increase in the number of English speakers in the world, the vast majority of which are non-native speakers who use English to communicate with each other rather than with native speakers

2.2 *Research on Error Analysis*

Error Analysis flourished in the 1970s and 1980s as one of the first ways to investigate English as ESL acquisition. Major research on ESL error analysis undertaken until the early 1990s focused on the influence of native language (NL) on ESL and most of them are compared students’ English to native-like accuracy and fluency. In a 1974 study, Selinker reported five sources of errors: 1. Language transfer, 2. Transfer of training, 3. Strategies of second language learning, 4. Strategies of second language communication, and 5. Overgeneralization of target language linguistic material (p.9). James (1998) showed three main diagnosis-based categories of error: “1. Interlingual 2. Intralingual and 3. Induced errors” (p.178).

In Japan, the research on EFL error analysis gradually appeared. Tagashira & Yamada (2004) reviewed the previous cross-sectional studies for Japanese learners and pointed out the problems influenced by L1. However, recently error analysis has regained popularity for more specific uses. It is because “error analysis gives language teachers and learners the strategies to overcome or minimize their disabilities and the disabling effect of their ignorance” (Miyake: 1997:31). Miyake (1997) classified errors into five categories: 1. Interlingual interference, 2. Intralingual interference, 3. L2 learning strategies, 4. Communication strategies, and 5. Errors due to the effects of teaching. Matsuoka (2006) concluded his research by stating, “beginning level students make more word-for-word translation errors that are caused by the lack of the correct lexical knowledge of English” (p.107).

3. Purpose of this Study

The purpose of this study is to discuss how Japanese English teachers should teach English as a lingua franca.

1. Can native teachers understand written translations by Japanese students?
2. What kind of errors (such as structural or grammatical errors, or mistakes in vocabulary usage) are often observed in written translations by Japanese university students?
3. What errors in translations become obstacles to communication with native speakers?

4. Methodology

4.1 *Samples*

This study was completed in two parts. The first part was a sample of 101 Japanese university students from the Health Science Technology and Human Studies departments in Bunkyo Gakuin University in Tokyo, Japan. All of the students had studied English for six years prior to entering the university. These students were asked to translate four tasks from Japanese into English. The students’ translations were divided into categories based on the types of errors made. Five native English speakers who teach English in Tokyo analyzed the students’ translation errors.

Part two of this study was further analyzing of the translation errors by 13 native English speakers in Australia who teach English at Swinburne College in Melbourne.

4.2 *Survey instruments*

The questionnaire for our samples contained four sentences (listed below as Tasks 1-4) in Japanese that needed to be translated. They were allowed to use dictionaries. These sentences included words and phrases that Japanese students

tend to have trouble with as outlined in studies by Selinker (1972) and Matsuoka (2006). The sentences were taken from an English writing book by Ishi and Kito (2007).

Task 1: Sutoresu ga tamaru to okoripoku naru mono desu.

Task 2: Orinpiku no hata no itsutsu no wa wa itsutsu no tairiku wo sashiteimasu.

Task 3: Kono seihin wa karukute joubu da toiu riten ga arimasu.

Task 4: Nihongo niwa hayakuchikotoba ya kaibun nado omoshiroi kotoba asobi ga houfu ni aru.

4.3 Data Collection Procedure

First the 101 students translated the four written Japanese sentences into English and the data was collected from June 18 to June 26, 2009 by the researchers.

Second the students' compositions were evaluated by five native speakers and divided into one of three groups:

Group 1—Natural/grammatically correct

Group 2—Comprehensible/ some grammatical mistakes, or

Group 3—Incomprehensible/grammatically incorrect

Next, the researchers conducted an error analysis. The data in Groups 2 and 3 was categorized into the type of error that occurred: 1. Grammar/Word order (native L1Transfer), 2. Syntax/Grammar (L1Transfer), and 3. Lexis (i.e. The students translate word-for-word because they regard translation as a mechanical process).

Finally, based on the first step results, 84 students' compositions were selected as examples of typical errors. These were evaluated again by 13 native speakers in Australia. The native speakers who participated in this study were selected solely based on the convenience of the researchers.

5. Results

To answer research question 1—Can native teachers understand written translations by Japanese students?—the students compositions were evaluated by native English teachers from Japan. The five native speakers divided the translations into one of three groups: Group 1—Natural/grammatically correct, Group 2—Comprehensible/ some grammatical mistakes, or Group 3—Incomprehensible/ grammatically incorrect. The results by Task were as follows.

Task 1. The expected English was, "He becomes irritable when he is stressed."

According to the evaluation of the 5 native teachers, 16% of the students wrote natural English, 6% wrote comprehensible English, and 70% wrote incomprehensible English (8 % wrote nothing).

Example of the students' translations:

comprehensible	incomprehensible
When stress builds up, we become angry.	We are quickly stressful.
We get angry easily when stress builds up.	We like angry when stress built up.

Task 2. The expected sentence was, "The five rings on the Olympic flag represent the five continents."

According to the evaluation of the 5 native teachers, only 1% could write the correct sentence, 14% were comprehensible, and 74% were incomprehensible (11% no answer).

Example of the students' translations:

comprehensible	incomprehensible
Five rings in the flag of Olympic means five continents.	Olympic flag's five rings are mean five continent.
Five rings of Olympic frag designate five continents.	Five ring's Olympics flag point five continent.

Task 3. The expected sentence was, "This product has the advantage of being light and durable."

According to the evaluation of 5 native teachers, 9 % of this sample could write the natural sentences, 23% comprehensible, and 60% incomprehensible (8%, no answer).

Examples of the students' translations:

comprehensible	incomprehensible
This product has an advantage of light and strong. The product has strong point that is light and strong.	This product is light and strong about an advantage. This product have advantage light and strong.

Task 4. The expected sentence was: "In Japanese there is a lot of interesting word play such as tongue twisters and palindromes."

According to the evaluation of the 5 native teachers, 0% of the sample could write a natural sentence, 16% were comprehensible, and 73% were incomprehensible (11% no answer).

Example of the students' compositions:

comprehensible	incomprehensible
Japanese is a lot of word game, which are tongue twister and palindrome. Japanese is a lot of fun word game.	Japanese have abundant language play that tongue twister and palindrome. In Japanese, tongue twister and palindrome is interesting word play is many.

To answer the research question 2—What kind of errors are often observed in written translations by Japanese university students?—the error analysis was conducted. The results are as follows:

Errors in Task 1. The main errors were using incorrect subjects influenced by Japanese. The subject is often omitted in Japanese and so it is easy for students to mistake the topic maker, "wa", for the subject. Of the sample, 18% used we/you/he/she as the subject, 50% used stress, 30% used it, and 2% used other words as the subject. Another error was using the wrong verb such as build (up) (20 cases), pile (up) (7 cases), gather (6 cases), collect (2 cases), accumulate (1 case), get (3 cases), and no verb, etc. (21 cases).

Errors in Task 2. The main errors in this task were made by using the wrong verb and/or translating Japanese particles incorrectly. Examples of the wrong verb they used included point (at/for/to) (34 cases) /mean (17 cases) /show (9 cases) /is (9 cases) /pierce (2 cases) /suggest & refer (2 cases) /and others (no verb, etc.) (10 cases). Particles were translated as of (81cases) / on (2cases) Olympic's (8 cases) flag's (4 cases). Those are Lexis errors (i.e. the students translate word-for-word because they regard translation as a mechanical process).

Errors in Task 3. The main errors were lexis errors influenced by Japanese. In place of articles, the sample used the wrong words such as product (31 cases), goods (5 cases), article (14 cases), manufacture (3 cases), this (7 cases), and others. They also used the wrong adjectives including strong (42 cases), tough (4 cases), well (2 cases), and others (12). Structure pattern errors included there is (7 cases), have (or has) advantage/good/strong point/merit (21 cases), product is advantage (6 cases).

Errors in Task 4. They made structure pattern errors. In particular, the students used Japanese word order (S/O/V) instead of using English word order (S/V/O). They started the sentence with: Japanese is (11 cases), Japanese has (have) (46 cases), In Japanese ...there is (are) (3cases), and no answers (9 cases). They also used the wrong adjective such as a lot of (8 cases), a lot (10 cases), lots of (1 case), abundant(ly) (7 cases), many (17 cases), rich(ly) (6cases).

Results of research question 3—To find what errors in translations become obstacles to communication with native speakers, 20-23 examples of the sample's translations for Tasks 1-4 that were categorized as either comprehensible or incomprehensible (not examples of natural translations) by the 5 native speakers in Tokyo, were analyzed again by 13 native English teachers in Australia.

As the results show native teachers found many of the sentences with grammatical errors comprehensible. Errors related to plural forms, the omission of "the", or using inappropriate verbs or adjectives did not hinder understanding.

Examples: When stress builds up, I become anger.

Five circle of Olympic flag means five continent.

This product has an advantage of light and strong.

The product has (a) strong point that is light and strong.

This goods have some merits that is light and strong.

There are many interesting language game, such as tongue twister, palindrome in Japan.

However, errors such as wrong verb use and wrong word order did hinder comprehension. Examples:

Task 1: Incomprehensible translations were:

1. We like angry when stress built up.
2. We get mad, when spend stress.
3. What we become irritable, when stressed.
4. We are quickly stressful.

Numbers 1 and 2 have fatal mistakes. They use the wrong verbs. Number 3 is meaningless because it is logical from a common-sense view. Number 4 is grammatically (structurally) incorrect.

Task 2: Incomprehensible translations were:

1. Flag of the Olympic five rings aims. Five continent is.
2. Five rings of Olympics' frag point to five.
3. Olympic is in five ring. It's fie land.

Number 1 uses the wrong verb followed by an incomplete sentence. Numbers 2 and 3 have spelling errors and fatal word choices.

Task 3: Incomprehensible translations were:

1. This goods have advantage which flat and durable.
2. This product is advantage. It's light strong.
3. This product has the advantage. That's a light and strong.

Number 1 has the wrong word choice and the wrong order so that the wrong word is modified. Numbers 2 and 3 were word-for-word translations influenced by L1.

Task 4: Incomprehensible translations were:

1. The Japanese have abundantly interesting a ply language lie a tongue twister and a palindrome.
2. Japanese has many word games that like jawbreakers and a palindrome.
3. It has Japanese abundantly interesting play on word. A tongue twister and a palindrome.

Number 1 has fatal spelling mistakes. Numbers 2 and 3 are grammatically wrong and have the wrong word order and structure.

6. Discussions and Conclusions

6.1 Japanese university students' typical errors

The results of this study show that the majority of Japanese college students find it difficult to impossible to convey their ideas in English. It is lamentable to find out that only 8.5% of the students in this sample could write correct translations in natural English. This result confirms that Japanese students lack communicative English ability. Their errors were mainly caused by a negative influence from their NL, which occurs when a NL system is different from Target Language (TL) norms. The learner incorrectly brings a NL behavior in processing TL features (Matsuoka; 2006).

The clearest evidence of characteristic negative NL transfers was found in this study in the form of wrong word order. As we see in Task 1, 80% of the students used "stress" or "it" as the subject of the sentence. This is because in Japanese an initial word followed by the topic markers such as "ga" "wa" or "de wa", is the subject in many cases. What is more confusing for Japanese students is that the subject is often omitted from an English sentence. As a result, this typical error is made. One example of this mistaken word order would be, "kinou (wa) baito datta" which means "I worked part-time job yesterday" (or literally, yesterday part-time job worked). Many students translate this as: Yesterday was part-time job.

Another characteristic negative NL transfer is word-for-word translation leading to wrong word use. As we have seen in the results of Task 1 and 2, if a student translates word-for-word, the sentence ends up being awkward.

Examples for Task 1

correct translation: (he) is stressed / (he) feels stress
incorrect translation: stress accumulates, stress piles up, etc.

Examples for Task 4

correct translation: five rings represent
incorrect translation: five rings point at, pierce five continents, etc.

These poor translations occur when sentences are translated word-for-word without thinking about the context of the sentence and common usage in the TL. Their translations were similar to those done by online electronic translators.

They use the same verbs as the translators as if the students have a similar formula as the translator. Students should realize that every sentence is unique. Language is fluid and not mechanically structured, so every sentence must be translated not mechanically but in a unique manner to fit the situation. Language does not conform to a predetermined formula.

Based on the evaluations by the native speakers we can see that learning word order/structure is more important than learning grammar. English education in Japan has a long tradition of putting an importance on grammar, but there are numerous expressions which cannot be explained grammatically but are regarded as natural. Grammar focused teaching is not the best ways to teach English.

We found from the results of the error analysis that the five native speakers who are accustomed to what might be called "Japanese-English", agreed that the sentences with errors in prepositions, plural forms, and the third person singular are comprehensible for them. In other words, the omission of articles and errors with plural forms do not usually lead to the sentences becoming incomprehensible. This shows that some grammatical points, though seen as necessary for correct Standard English, are not a critical factor for communication.

Instead it is incorrect word order that often leads to incomprehensible translations for native speakers. If a sentence has the correct word order, there is a much better chance that it will be understood.

6.2 *How should we English teachers in Japan encourage the use of English as a lingua franca?*

In our study we found that native speakers could understand Japanese students' translations when they made careless errors with grammar or used words with slightly different meanings. Errors related to plural forms, the omission of "the", or using inappropriate verbs or adjectives were in many cases comprehensible.

On the other hand, native speakers could not understand when students' made structural mistakes, or when the sentences use wrong verbs or wrong subjects.

It seems that a better grasp of word order and vocabulary will help students to communicate more effectively than an emphasis on grammar. In the end, it is the meaning of the message we are trying to convey that holds importance, not whether the message follows the norms of SE.

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How to Become an Effective English Language Teacher

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Abstract

Teaching has been one of the most important issues that the researchers and educators have been working on constantly because education is the unique way that can enhance the development of a nation. The nations with a good education system and qualified teachers are more likely to become powerful and prominent nations in the world we live. Research has proven that the teacher has an important role in the foreign language learning process and the students, their parents/supervisors, the stakeholders, and the society have some expectations from the teachers during the teaching and learning process. The mismatches between the students' and the teacher's expectations can affect the second language students' satisfaction with the language class negatively and can most probably lead to the discontinuation of their second language study. Effective language teaching has become a prominent issue in the field of education as there has been a great demand on learning foreign languages throughout the world. In the process of foreign language learning, the language teacher has a very important role on the students and their success depends on the skills of the teachers. This comparative study aims to find out the ideas and views of the Turkish university preparatory school students on the effective teacher. In addition, the ideas and views of the native and nonnative English teachers are also investigated to find out if there are any differences between the ideas and views of the students and the teachers.

1. Introduction

In the age of globalization, it has been accepted that English has become the lingua franca and there is a marvelous trend in learning English throughout the world. Many institutions and language courses offer various courses to teach English and approximately 1 billion people around the world are attending these courses to learn and become fluent in this lingua franca.

Research has proven that the teacher has an important role in the foreign language learning process and the students, their parents/supervisors, the stakeholders, and the society have some expectations from the teachers during the teaching and learning process. Schulz (1996) argued that the mismatches between the students' and the teacher's expectations can affect the second language students' satisfaction with the language class negatively and can most probably lead to the discontinuation of their second language study.

Many researchers have conducted various studies on effective teaching and effective teacher and they have concluded that it is very difficult to explain effective teaching and effective teacher precisely because there are a lot of criteria that can affect the effectiveness of teaching and teacher; however, some basic points and skills have been identified from their results.

2. Effective Teaching

Effective teaching involves the ability to provide instruction that helps students to develop the knowledge, skills, and understandings intended by curriculum objectives, create an instructional climate that causes students to develop positive attitudes toward school and self, adjust instruction so that all students learn, irrespective of their ability, ethnicity, or other characteristics, manage the classroom so that students are engaged in learning all or most of the time, make sound decisions and plans that maximize students' opportunity to learn, and respond to initiatives for curriculum change so that the new curriculum's intents are fully realized (Acheson and Gall, 2003).

Murray (1991, as cited in Bell, 2005) stated that many researchers and professionals for teacher development and evaluation have been seeking to establish criteria for assessing effective teaching. While there is little agreement regarding which specific behaviors constitute effective teaching, researchers agree at least on some dimensions that describe effective teaching in general regardless of the subject matter. These include enthusiasm or expressiveness, clarity of explanation, and rapport or interaction.

Berliner and Rosenshine (1977), Blair (2000), Brophy and Good (1986), Cawelti (1999), Cotton (2000), Demmon-

Berger (1986), Good and Brophy (1997), Marzano, Pickering, and McTighe (1993), Porter and Brophy (1988), Shellard and Protheroe (2000), Taylor, Pearson, Clark, and Walpole (1999), and Wenglingsky (2000, as cited in Stronge, 2002) conducted research on effective teaching and they have come into the conclusion that effective teachers are interested in having students learn and demonstrate understanding of meanings rather than merely memorizing facts or events, place priority on reading because it affects success in other content areas and overall achievement gains, and students have higher achievement rates when the focus of instruction is on meaningful conceptualization, especially when it builds on and emphasizes their own knowledge of the world.

3. Effective Teacher

Researchers and scholars have tried for over a century to create a schema that would describe and codify effective teachers. Kratz (1896, as cited in McEwan, 2002) asked a group of students to identify the characteristics that distinguished the teachers from whom they learned the most from those whom they liked the most. Four characteristics of teachers who were successful were found out to be making greater demands of the students, more teaching skill, more knowledge of subject matter, and better discipline.

There are many ways to characterize the components that make up an effective teacher. These components include content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and knowledge of educational contexts (Clark and Walsh, 2002).

Walker (2008) found out that there were 12 identifiable personal and professional characteristics of an effective teacher in his study and these characteristics included being prepared, being positive, having high expectations, being creative, being fair, displaying a personal touch, developing a sense of belonging, admitting the mistakes, having a sense of humor, giving respect to students, forgiving, and being compassionate.

Taşkafa (1989, as cited in Telli, den Brok, and Çakıroğlu, 2008) interviewed 43 middle school students and asked them to write down their teacher's desirable and non-desirable characteristics. Giving positive reinforcement, interacting friendly with students, and understanding students' feelings were the most frequently mentioned desirable characteristics. The non-desirable characteristics of a teacher in this study were: isolating some of the students, giving specific students preferential treatment, denying students chances to perform or to talk in class, sneering at students, and demanding students to learn.

Çetin (2001, as cited in Telli, den Brok, and Çakıroğlu, 2008) conducted a study with 100 higher education students to find out the ideal teacher behaviors which were defined as understanding, cooperative, be aware of students' individual differences and general student psychology, together with having good subject matter knowledge and using different teaching methods in the class.

4. Effective Foreign Language Teaching

Brosh (1996) asked second language teachers and students to identify the three most prominent characteristics of an effective second language teacher from a list of 20 characteristics and the results of the study revealed that the students' and teachers' first and second rank-ordered items were identical which were the teachers' adequate command of the subject matter involving the teachers' mastery of the four basic skills and the ability of the language teacher to transmit knowledge in a way that is easy to understand and remember, and to motivate their students to do their best. In general, the desirable characteristics of an effective second language teacher that emerged from the study were knowledge and command of the target language, the ability to organize, explain, and clarify, as well as to arouse and sustain interest and motivation among students, fairness to students by showing neither favoritism nor prejudice, and availability to students.

According to Bell (2005), the research literature suggests that there is no single accepted definition of effective foreign language teaching. Foreign language teaching is a complex, multidimensional process that means different things to different people. An effective foreign language teacher is the teacher who is clear and enthusiastic in teaching that provides learners with the grammatical (syntactical and morphological), lexical, phonological, pragmatic, and socio-cultural knowledge and interactive practice they need to communicate successfully in the target language.

Demirel (1990) and Saraç-Süzer (2007, as cited in Arıkan, Taşer, and Süzer, 2008) studied the qualities attached to an effective foreign language teacher and listed having personal strategies to teach, creating a positive classroom atmosphere, to be able to a model teacher, being knowledgeable on target cultures, possessing positive personal characteristics, having correct pronunciation of the English sounds, teaching with effective classroom materials, and

using technology as the most common features.

5. Statement of Problem

Effective language teaching has become a prominent issue in the field of education as there has been a great demand on learning foreign languages throughout the world. In the process of foreign language learning, the language teacher has a very important role on the students and their success depends on the skills of the teachers.

This comparative study aims to find out the ideas and views of the Turkish university preparatory school students on the effective teacher. In addition, the ideas and views of the native and nonnative English teachers are also investigated to find out if there are any differences between the ideas and views of the students and the teachers.

This study aims to find an answer to the following research questions:

1. What are the most important characteristics of an effective English language teacher according to the Turkish university preparatory school students?
2. What are the most important characteristics of an effective English language teacher according to the nonnative English teachers?
3. What are the most important characteristics of an effective English language teacher according to the native English teachers?
4. Are there any similarities and differences in the important characteristics of an effective English language teacher among the Turkish university preparatory school students, nonnative English teachers, and native English teachers?

6. Participants

The participants of the study consisted of 38 students, 7 nonnative English teachers and 7 native English teachers. These students were attending the preparatory program of a private university in Istanbul, Turkey. The participants' age range was between 18 and 22. 7 of the participants were male and 31 of them were female students.

The nonnative English teachers were teaching at the preparatory program of a private university in Istanbul, Turkey. All the teachers were experienced in their field and they have been teaching English for more than 10 years. The nonnative English teachers' age range was between 30 and 36. 2 of them were male and 5 of them were female.

The native English teachers were teaching at the School of Foreign Languages department of a private university in Istanbul, Turkey. All the teachers were experienced in their field and they have been teaching English for more than 10 years. The nonnative English teachers' age range was between 30 and 42. 4 of them were male and 3 of them were female.

7. Instrument

The questionnaire consisted of 24 items on what an effective foreign language teacher should do and they were rated on a four-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= agree, and 4= strongly agree). This instrument made extensive use of Bell's (2005, as cited in Brown, 2009) questionnaire and evolved after being piloted three times with different second language learners. Participants indicated their views and ideas by using this scale.

8. Procedure

The participants completed the questionnaire which lasted 20 minutes and the results of the questionnaire were analyzed to find the answers of the research questions of the study.

9. Data Analysis

The results of the questionnaire were analyzed via SPSS 15. For the first three research questions, descriptive statistics were used to get the mean scores of the items in the questionnaire.

For the fourth research question, Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to check if the differences between the scores were significant or not. The reason to conduct Kruskal Wallis test was that two of the independent variables had a population that was lower than 30. For the significant differences, Mann Whitney U test was conducted as a post-hoc test

between the three independent variables which were the students, native teachers, and nonnative teachers.

10. Results of Research Question 1-2-3

The first three research questions of the study dealt with the most important characteristics of an effective English language teacher according to the Turkish university preparatory school students, native English teachers, and nonnative English teachers. The results showed that, an effective English language teacher should frequently use computer-based technologies (Internet, CD-ROM, e-mail) in teaching the language, base at least some part of students' grades on completion of assigned group tasks, devote as much time to the teaching of culture as to the teaching of language, require students to use the language outside of class with other speakers of the language (internet, e-mail, clubs, community events, and so on), not use Turkish in the foreign language classroom, only correct students indirectly when they produce oral errors instead of directly (correctly repeating back to them rather than directly stating that they are incorrect), be as knowledgeable about the culture of those who are native speakers of English, teach the language primarily by having students complete specific tasks rather than grammar-focused exercises, address errors by immediately providing explanations as to why students' responses are incorrect, speak English with native like control of both grammar and accent, teach grammar by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining the grammar rules, use predominantly real-life materials in teaching both the language and the culture rather than the text book, base at least some part of students' grades on their ability to interact with classmates successfully in English, and use activities where students have to find out unknown information from classmates using English. In addition, the students, native English teachers, and nonnative English teachers disagreed with the items stating that an effective English teacher should allow the students to respond to test questions in listening and reading via Turkish rather than English, not use predominantly small groups or pair work to complete activities in class, and not present a particular grammar point without illustrating how the structure is used in a specific, real world context.

11. Results of Research Question 4

The fourth research question dealt with if there were any similarities and differences in the important characteristics of an effective English language teacher among the Turkish university preparatory school students, nonnative English teachers, and native English teachers. The results of the Kruskal Wallis test conducted for the questionnaire indicated that there were significant differences in the results of the six statements. These statements were statement 5, 12, 13, 14, 17, and 18.

Statement 5 stated that an effective foreign language teacher should not correct students immediately after they make a mistake in speaking. The results indicated that there were significant differences between the students and nonnative teachers. While the students disagreed with this statement, the nonnative teachers agreed with it. In addition, significant differences were found between native teachers and nonnative teachers. Although the native teachers disagreed with this statement, the nonnative teachers agreed with it.

Statement 12 stated that an effective foreign language teacher should have students respond to commands physically in English. The results indicated that there were significant differences between the students and native teachers. The students disagreed with this statement; however, the native teachers agreed with it.

Statement 13 stated that an effective foreign language teacher should address errors immediately providing explanations as to why students' responses are incorrect. The results indicated that there were significant differences between the students and nonnative teachers and native teachers and nonnative teachers. The students and native teachers agreed with this statement, whereas the nonnative teachers disagreed with it.

Statement 14 stated that an effective foreign language teacher should require students to speak in English beginning the first day of class. The results indicated that there were significant differences between the students and native teachers. While the students disagreed with this statement, the native teachers agreed with it.

Statement 17 stated that an effective foreign language teacher should ask students to begin speaking in English only when they feel they are ready to. The results indicated that there were significant differences between the students and native teachers. Although the students disagreed with this statement, the native teachers agreed with it.

Statement 18 stated that an effective foreign language teacher should not present a particular grammar point without illustrating how the structure is used in a specific, real-world context. The results indicated that there were significant differences between the students and native teachers and students and nonnative teachers. The students disagreed with this statement, whereas the native and nonnative teachers agreed with it.

12. Discussion

The main purpose of the present study was to find out the characteristics of an effective English teacher by asking the views and opinions of the students, native teachers, and nonnative teachers. And the results of the study have revealed some important characteristics and qualities of an effective English teacher. According to the results, an effective English teacher should frequently use computer-based technologies (Internet, CD-ROM, e-mail) in teaching the language, base at least some part of students' grades on completion of assigned group tasks, require students to use the language outside of class with other speakers of the language (internet, e-mail, clubs, community events, and so on), not use Turkish in the foreign language classroom, only correct students indirectly when they produce oral errors instead of directly (correctly repeating back to them rather than directly stating that they are incorrect), not grade language production (speaking and writing) primarily for grammatical accuracy, teach the language primarily by having students complete specific tasks rather than grammar-focused exercises, speak English with native like control of both grammar and accent, teach grammar by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining the grammar rules, use predominantly real-life materials in teaching both the language and the culture rather than the text book, not simplify or alter his/her speaking of English so that students can understand every word being said, base at least some part of students' grades on their ability to interact with classmates successfully in English, use activities where students have to find out unknown information from classmates using English, not allow the students to respond to test questions in listening and reading via Turkish rather than English, use predominantly small groups or pair work to complete activities in class, not use activities that practice specific grammar points rather than activities whose goal is merely to exchange information, be friendly, creative, caring, fair, enthusiastic, have a sense of humor, give homework, take attendance, have lived in a foreign country, use pair and group work activities, using technology and visual materials, have correct pronunciation, make students feel relaxed, manage the classroom effectively, use real-life situations while explaining, and make learners discover the language. These are the important qualities that an English teacher should take into consideration so that the English lessons can be more effective and beneficial for the students of English. The results of the present study are consistent with the studies conducted by Brown (2009) and Arıkan, Taşer, and Süzer (2008).

13. Implications

The most important implication of the study is that especially the results of the questionnaires conducted to the students should be taken into consideration by the teachers of English. These questionnaires can be conducted by the head of the English departments at schools to find out the views and ideas of how an effective English teacher should be and the results of the questionnaires can be shared with the English teachers working in these schools. By doing this, the teachers will be able to know the views and opinions of the students and they can adjust their teaching accordingly.

Another important implication can be that the Ministry of National Education can conduct these questionnaires around the country and prepare INSET programs for the English teachers to inform them about the views of the students on how an effective English teacher should be.

14. Limitations

As for most studies, the present study also has several limitations that restrict the results to be generalized. First of all, the number of participants in the study was low to get more generalizable results. Especially, the number of native and nonnative teachers was very low which led the researcher to analyze the data by using nonparametric tests.

Secondly, the adjectives that described the qualities in the second questionnaire were vague terms that can cause to have different meanings for different participants.

And finally, the questionnaire could be backed up by interviews in which the participants could be asked to explain the reason of their answers in the questionnaire.

15. Recommendations for Further Research

This study can be conducted with a large number of participants so that parametric tests can be used to analyze the data and the results can be generalized. Moreover, the study can be conducted in different parts of the country and the results can be compared to see if regional differences affect the results of the study. Furthermore, by using semi-structured interviews, more data can be collected from the participants and it will be easier to generalize the results. And finally, the

results of the study can be compared with the results of the same study conducted in other countries to find out the similarities and differences in the results.

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Literary Translation, Between Loss and Compensation

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Abstract

Natural languages are perfect exactly because they are numerous, because truth is multi-faceted, whereas the lie consists in representation of truth as unique, final and indisputable. Each language represents a mirror of a tradition and history of development of the people speaking this language, and a future distinguishing it from other languages. But, language is a possibility of separation from the ones speaking different languages. The geo-political changes in the Europe of the XXth century promoted the will for the recognition and assessment of minority languages and allowed for many languages within states as a right to free expression and individual freedom. It is exactly in this moment that the urge for cultural exchange was felt, which differs a lot from assimilation and homogeneity. Therefore, the need for intermediation – that is the need for translation – has risen a long time ago

1. Historical Development of Translation and Its Role

Hermeneutics is taken as a starting point of translation, which oldest meaning is the art of interpretation (decoding) of texts. Efforts of bringing of the Homeric texts and texts from other famous personalities of antiquity in a more processed form approaching to New Greek (texts which had evolved a lot from the old Greek), can be referred to as first models of the hermeneutic work. Paraphrases, which can be regarded as a proceeding phase to translation, were used in order to provide more comprehensive texts. Paraphrasing offered summarized texts, providing a mixture of comments and translations, which required a preliminary understanding of the text that could guarantee a more accurate translation of the text.¹

The need for translation grew parallel to dissemination of Christianity, which got also dispersed in the Greek world. Hermeneutica Sacra, which dealt with the translation of the Bible and other sacred texts, imposed several difficulties, involving not a word-for-word approach, but a textual approach. A great role in defining the methodological definition of the hermeneutic approach on the religious texts was offered by Saint Aurel Agustin.

- In the Roman period translation was widely-spread and was regarded as a way for enriching the mother tongue through creation of new words via natural word exchanges. In the first century B.C. Quintilian did constantly advice by means of the translation of texts from Greek into Latin, taking into consideration development of the vivid artistic imagination of students.
- In the IXth century, King Alfred considered translation as a useful instrument to disseminate knowledge coming to the help of culturing a nation.
- In the XIIIth century, Roger Bacon 1214-1292 speaks of the loss problems during translation, and about the contrary – that is word formation.
- Sacred texts and the Bible were not allowed to be translated in the medieval times. Etienne Dolet (1503-1546)

¹In 1959, Roman Jakobson; "On the linguistic aspect of translation" classified this process as intralinguistic translation; (rewording), in one of three types of translation. He suggested that there are three types of translation; (a. Intralinguistic translation; (rewording), interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language, b. Interlinguistic translation occurs when a text is translated from one language to another, in other words, when we have an interpretation of verbal signs by means of a signs of some other language" (which is translation proper).c. Intersemiotic translation occurs when we have 'an interpretation of verbal sign by means of signs of non-verbal sign systems' for example a novel is 'translated' into a film, a poem in a ballet. Jakobson proposed the term "transmutation".

was tortured and hanged as a heretic due to the pretentious deliberate mistakes in translating Platon's dialogues, a mistake related to the distrust in the undearth of the spirit, which in fact derived from Platon being a pagan.

- At the renaissance period, translation is no longer a second-hand activity, but a primary issue and was transformed into a state and religion issue.
- In the XVII- XVIIIth century, writers turned their eyes to antiquity, augmenting the translation volume. R. Descartes, Alexander Pope, J. W. Goethe value translation and the way who it was realized.
- In the Romanticism area, when creativity did almost become a mystic art, there was a sparking individuality amongst opinions regarding translation as a thinking process, but there were also people thinking that translation was a mechanical work. For instance, Shell considered translation as an activity of a lower importance than the activity of a poet.
- Even in the second half of the XIXth century, translators were again seen as a means to communicate to the reader when the original talks could not be understood. Thus, translation was no longer considered as a means for enriching the mother language. It is enough to recall Henri Longfellow (1807-1881), who was of the opinion that the translator was not a poet, nor a commentator, but a mere technical worker.
- It was only in the first half of the XXth century that translation started to be regarded as an inter-disciplinary science.

In the current conditions, when boundaries have become totally and entirely administrative, communication has not become a pragmatic need, but a spiritual need. The number of people speaking more than a language has risen, but, no one can be proficient in all languages. As frequently as we run across something not belonging to the national literature, we come across the translation role, but we hardly mention it. It is infrequent that we appraise the translation of a book when the translated book seems nice to us. "During the reading process of works of foreign authors, the translator is a third person staying in the shadow and shedding light. A light, which is similar to the candles' light. In fact, it is the flakes of this discreet light enlightening communication between the author and the reader. It is light that is the quality of these flakes, the one that realizes a good and much-longed-for communication" (Marashi, 1996).

Albanian is spoken by a relatively small population; therefore, the number of people intercommunicating making use of this language is limited. The first translation known in Albanian is the "Messhar" of Gjon Buzuku, dating back in 1555. Messes documented in Albanian were product of the work of church servants, who, by translation in the mother tongue of some sacred pieces of writings tried to serve distribution of the religion and use of the national language.

In 1944-1990, the possibility of getting to know authors of world literature was very limited. The overwhelming part of the writers of the world literature, in particular, the writers of the XXth century, and more specifically authors of Western countries and of the U.S. literature did not allow for translation of their work, nor were they allowed to be disseminated in their original languages in the territory of Albania. Only some writers were translated at this period, who, in most of cases were Russians or writers that belonged to the previous centuries -- that is translation was allowed only for non-contemporary writers.

There were not a few cases when a translated book back then did not have the name of the translator because of the unimportance attached to the translator's job, and mainly because of the political dislikes attached to certain translators.

After the '90s, collapse of communism in Albania offered more space for inter-human communication and, thereof, inter-literary communication. At the beginning of the '90s, there was a huge wave of individuals trying to do translations and offering translations of various levels. Lack of tradition and ignorance about the profession of translation led to circulation of badly translated or highly disputable (translated) books in Albania in the period from 1990-2000. Plagiarism was also highly present. The ones dealing with translation were quite often people having a very good command of the foreign language, but not a good command of the grammatical structures and lexical wealth of the mother tongue. Sometimes, they had a very good command of the source language and of the target language, but knew nothing of the translation technique and specificities of the art of translation.

Most frequent translations are the ones resulting from the languages belonging to the same family or branch of families, because of the similarities existing between such languages. Albanian belongs to the Indo-European languages, but is a special branch of such languages, characterized of great and unrepeatable peculiarities. Peculiarity of the Albanian language is an urge for the necessity of translation of written texts into Albanian.

Every translator from Albanian or into Albanian is required to have a very good mastery of the features and specificities of each language vis-à-vis other languages. Language is a living instrument, which changes, improves in

parallel to the spiritual and the technical development of the people/s speaking it and represents unrepeatable peculiarities. If people do not talk the same language, they do not understand one-another, and if they fail to understand one-another they would be missing a huge opportunity (that is socializing). People are social human beings, and the wider the communication is, the more social people would become. Translation facilitates communication and undertakes the responsibility to overcome the separating role of linguistic diversity.

"Translation performs such a task by expressing the same thing in a different language. This is the basic anatomy of the translation process, related to accurate understanding of the notions of equivalence and identity. This anatomy obligates the translator to have a profound mastery of his/her own language, with the purpose of finding accurate equivalents for expressing exactly the same thing denoted in the other language" (Marashi 1996).

Translation undertakes to ensure intermediation between the departing language, that is the language of the original, and the destination language, that is the language of the translated document. Given that the translator deals with the final text of another person (author), he has to be loyal to the original text. But, we should also highlight that a translator's job is not mechanical, but he is, instead, an interpreter of the author of the original text. In conditions when one word has more than one meaning, in the conditions when a word can be replaced by many other words, by way of establishing synonymic networks, the translator plays the role of an artist in choosing the exact words, forms and styles that would best serve the ultimate purpose – that is representation of the original text.

The translator finds an in-between position between loyalty and understanding and freedom of choosing the right wording. Umberto Eco in *Experience in translation* draws on his substantial practical experience and he convincingly demonstrates that translation can express an evident deep sense of a text even when violating both lexical and referential faithfulness (Eco, 2001).

Trying to do the best possible with the text, the translator tries not to touch the artistic level of the original text, and manages to do so by, first, trying to have as little loss possible in the course of translation, and by, second, compensating the loss with his creative capacities. In the history of translation this is normal, but the translators should be conscious about not considering themselves "co-authors". There are translations that splendidly enrich the target language and that, in few cases, considered as miracles by many, manage to say more (in other words, provide richer texts in the target language) than in the original texts. But, in fact, these translations are usually valuable in themselves as original works of art, and not as version of a source text. A translation that manages "to say more" might be an excellent piece of work in itself, but it is not a good translation (Eco, 2001). The translator does not have to use his liberty, unless for reasons related to better putting to the fore of the idea/message of the author.

Often times, when discussions are held on the specificity of translations of the literary texts, they say that it is needed for the translator to establish an intimate relation with the text subject to translation and penetrate in the world of feelings of the poet. One should have the spirit of a poet to be able to translate an artistic work

The artistic translation is a cell shaped not in the biologist's or a chemist's lab, but in the poet's spirit lab, in the eyes' tear, in the spirit breath and in the blood, first emerging from heart, and then transformed in the energy of the pen, -- this is how Kokona, one of the greatest translators of Albania writes (Kokona, 2003).

It is often said that translation of an artistic works is facilitated a lot by translation by a person who is himself a writer. In the world literature and in the Albanian literature, there are many cases when writers are translators as well, such as Goethe, Mallarmè, Baudelaire, L. Poradeci, Fan Noli, Ismail Kadare, Mitrush Kuteli, etc. Whereas in the case of translation from writers, a remarkable feature is that usually translators prefer to translate works from which they identify something from themselves. For instance, the greatest Albanian lyric poet Hajnen, the greatest Albanian writer known for bringing the behavior of tragedy and universality of feelings in his work, has translated Eskilis. Similarity, a similar writing style of the translator with what he/she translates is not an indispensable condition, because a real translator can translate even something not falling part of his/her style, as long as he/she enters in the depth of the spirit and of the sensuality of the author.

The relationship between the writer and the translator has always caused controversies. The history of literary developments has shown great translators have proven to be not great writers and the vice-versa. W. Benjamin says: "Given that translation is a special form of creation, the task of the translator can also be regarded as special and clearly separated from the task of the poet. The task of the translator is to find the appropriate intention in the target language, so that this intention gives the spirit of the original" (Benjamin 1998, [1923]:56). When he writes, the writer is totally and entirely spontaneous, free, unreachable, whereas the translator is limited from the text in the original.

The archetype literary terms are found at any time and any century from various writers, but it is the entirely different treatment rendering them fully distinguishable. The fable of the work is one part of it, whereas another important part, and even the most complicated one, is the form and style of writing. The writer style is very individual and easily distinguishable from that of another writer. The task of the translator is to offer such a peculiarity to the readers of the target language.

While translating literary texts, the translators should not only understand the linguistic denotation, but even the specific way of its use by the author. Authors play with words, with their various forms or with the use of words, and all these maneuvers are not casual, but deliberate, and this is why it is very important for the translator to transmit such peculiarities in the translated text. The literary texts, in particular the modern ones, have a multitude of interpretations and a hidden emotionality, which can be identified and understood only by a conscious reader. The translator has to be a very conscious reader, who, by means of his/her text, manages to transmit all the meanings contained in a text in the entirety and in-between the lines.

No matter how loyal a translator is, while translating, the translator carries the text through his subjective feelings and choices. Thus, the translation does not always have a guaranteed quality, and this is why frequently the same text needs to be translated from different translators. There is no such thing as perfect translation. "Today, the translator resembles a modern syphilis" (Kokona 2003).

Translation of a poetic text is more difficult than translation of any other text. This is why poetic translations often aim at having a radical review as a challenge to the text in original, but according to the principle of inspiration, which definition depends, as seen, on the critical interpretation of the translator (Eco 2001). One should be very careful when translating poetries. Rhetoric recognizes figures of content (like metaphor, synonym, or oxymoron) in which the substance of the expression is not pertinent, but also in figures of expression like assonance, paronomasia, alliteration. The expressive substance likewise becomes fundamental with regard to phonosymbolic issues and to discursive rhythm in general. Rhyme is like wise perceptible as the substance of the expression, even if it exploits elements already supplied by the lexical system (Benjamin 1998 [1923]: 88).

The British and French, at the end of the XXth century, have shown skepticism on translation of works written in lines in their languages, and have further been in favour of a solution including poetry prose.

2. Translation and success

Stemming from the decisive role of translation for making a book known in many countries of the world, there are scholars and translators recognizing a great role to it in the route of achieving fame and success. But, there are also scholars saying that translation, no matter how good it is, cannot play a considerable role in ensuring a success to the book, if the book in itself is not successful in the original language. "It is clear that translation, no matter how good it is, has no importance whatsoever to the original" says Benjamin. Translation comes after the process of writing of the original work, and often it is said that the work finds its translator not in the era/time it is written. The work in original gets its fame because of its existence, which is separate from the existence or non-existence of a writer. The continuity of reading of books in times different from the writing time means that the work is successful. In general, translation happens when the text in the original has been successful and it is in another phase of the work existence that translation comes into play ensuring a longer useful and successful life of the book. The translator relates his/her work with the success of the work in the original, whereas the contrary is not true – that is translation can never make a book successful. Translation plays an intermediary role to fame and success of the book author. Translation is a rigorously scientific work, in which process prevalence of the text in the original is *de facto* perceived *vis-à-vis* relations to translation" (Benjamin 1996 [1923]: 52). Despite any kind of discourse, translation is a process offering a practical choice to the readers to feel and experience, via translation, the same emotions felt and experienced by the one reading the book in the original language.

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An Action Research on Developing Prospective Teachers' Inquiry Skills

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Abstract

One of the ultimate aims of teacher education programs is to equip prospective teachers with the necessary professional skills and dispositions so that they can build and maintain a philosophy of teaching and learning that is constantly reviewed based on an understanding of research and practices. Developing student teachers' inquiry skills by engaging them in research is one of the indispensable parts of teacher education programs since it provides the basis of their ongoing professional development. The aim of this study is to examine how a process-oriented instructional design helps prospective teachers develop their inquiry skills in educational research methods course. The sample of the study consisted of all forty-two student teachers enrolled in the course in the Faculty of Education. The study adopted action research as a research methodology and gathered data using qualitative data collection instruments. A process research-based inquiry environment was designated to explore the factors influencing the developmental process of student teachers' inquiry skills. The credibility and objectivity of the study was ensured through inquiry audits and data triangulation. The analysis of multiple qualitative data sources provided invaluable findings as regards the factors having impact on student teachers' development of inquiry skills. It was found out that instructional process, collaboration and instructional scaffolding are integral in inquiry-based instruction. These elements were also considered to be influential on the development of student teachers' inquiry skills. The findings of the study revealed certain programmatic implications worthy of consideration.

Keywords: inquiry-based instruction; collaboration; scaffolding; instructional design

1. Introduction

The teacher needs to be a researcher because of the nature of professional knowledge. When faith and know-how are put into partnership in educational practice, there is still a need for knowledge; and knowledge is created by research and is provisional (Stenhouse, 1983).

One of the most noteworthy themes in teacher education agendas has been the emphasis on the conceptualization of pre-service teacher education programs to equip potential teachers with the essential skills and dispositions to be able to make inquiries to develop their own teaching practice and display on-going professional development (Ball & Cohen, 1999) and to help them act as change agents for successful school development (Day, 1999). Utmost importance was placed on teacher education curricula to improve prospective teachers' "intellectual and professional stance of inquiry" to enhance their professional growth in teacher education programs (Ball & Cohen, 1999) and to facilitate their acquisition of the skills to continue to look for answers to difficult problems of teaching and learning processes and the skills to learn from practice besides to learn for practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Teachers' construction of knowledge and development, as constructivists believe, is largely influenced and shaped by the interplay between individual and contextual parameters since it is a joint socially constructed meaning making process (Fox, 2001).

1.1 Sociocultural learning theory

Sociocultural learning theory highlights the value of forming a community of learners (Kauchak & Eggen, 2003) and social interactions to assist learning. It also highlights the significance of cognitive, social and motivational factors of development (Woolfolk, Hughes & Walkup, 2008). Vygotsky believed that growth can be realized by observing directly the process of change in which collective dialogues, collaboration, cultural tools and language play central roles (Miller, 2011). In order for the experience to be transformed, one needs to be actively involved in knowledge creation process (Kohonen, 2001) which requires the incorporation of social negotiation and mediation from multiple perspectives and through dialogue (Sanrock, 2001). During co-construction of knowledge, information is made meaningful through

elaborations and the group dynamics, when formed successfully, promote motivation (Kauchak & Eggen, 2003). Also, for meaningful learning to occur, students need, first, a reason for learning; second, to engage in a set of learning activities that can help them achieve their learning goals; and third, proper scaffolding and other aids to help them derive targeted content and skills from their experiences (Lee & Kolodner, 2011, p. 6).

A number of studies in teacher education revealed the value of social interaction and collaboration (Parsons & Stephenson, 2005), the impact of teachers' feedback on pre-service teachers' readiness for teaching (Samaras & Gismondi, 1998), the power of collaboration with peers for teacher development (Warford, 2010), the importance of collaborative teacher education programs (Pugach & Blanton, 2009), teacher growth in a community of learners (Kaartinen, 2009).

1.2 Inquiry in teacher education

Education of teachers is a recursive process that depends on inquiry as a stance on the work of teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2003, p. 21). Inquiry-based instruction is a student-centred pedagogy that uses purposeful extended investigations set in the context of real-life problems as both a means for increasing student capacities and as a feedback loop for increasing teachers' insights into student thought processes (Supovitz, Mayer & Kahle, 2000, p. 332). It is a collaborative process where knowledge is constructed being involved in problem-posing and problem-solving through a process of negotiation within the curriculum (Short, 2009). In literature, 'action research', 'practitioner inquiry' (Hall, 2009), 'teacher inquiry' (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999), 'teacher research' (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Berger, Boles & Troen, 2005) are used interchangeably to refer to the research conducted in education by teachers. Stenhouse, in process curriculum, gave emphasis on practitioner inquiry and development through being engaged in systematic inquiry and reflective dialogues (Scott, 2008). Involving prospective teachers in inquiry is critical for several reasons: first, it is an effective way to teach content, increase motivation, and help students develop their analytical thinking skills. It is particularly valuable for giving students practice in defining informational questions, gathering data to solve those questions, and developing their abilities to analyse and evaluate data (Kauchak & Eggen, 2003). Next, cultivating a stance toward inquiry helps potential teachers to be change agents for the future of the society. Promoting teachers' independent learning and involving them in active engagement in inquiry is decisive in reaching this purpose (Joyce & Weil, 1996). Besides, it facilitates strategies of inquiry and the values and attitudes central to an inquiry mind including: process skills, active autonomous learning, logical thinking, verbal expressiveness and so forth (Joyce & Weil, 1996).

A review of literature on inquiry-based instruction displayed a number of empirical research findings on the importance of systematic inquiry (Schulz & Mandzuk, 2005; Van der Linden, Bakx, Ros, Beijaard & Vermeulen, 2012), providing sufficient inquiry-based learning experiences (Newman et al., 2004), the contribution to professional development (Schulz & Mandzuk, 2005; Pendry and Husbands, 2000), gaining research knowledge and skills (Schulz & Mandzuk, 2005; Sozibilir, 2007; Van der Linden et al., 2012), student teachers' developing understandings of scientific inquiry process (Haefner, 2004; Richardson and Liang, 2008), student teachers' getting motivated to do research (Sozibilir, 2007), involving student teachers in active and student-centred learning (Spronken-Smith, Bullard, Ray, Roberts, & Keiffer, 2008), the necessity of developing more collaborative research projects (Gitlin, Barlow, Burbank, Kauchak, & Stevens, 1999).

The review of literature also showed that a number of studies were conducted on the student teachers studying in the pre-service (Gitlin et al., 1999; Haefner, 2004; Joram, 2007; Newman et al., 2004; Richardson & Liang, 2008; Van der Linden et al., 2012) and elementary (Volkman, Abell & Zgagacz, 2005) and secondary science teacher education programs (Crawford, Zembal-Saul, Mumford, & Friedrichsen, 2005) and with the student teachers studying history (Pendry and Husbands, 2000), geography (Spronken-Smith et al., 2008), chemistry and biology (Sozibilir, 2007), and science (Demir & Abell, 2010).

Neither investigation of teacher education programs nor examination of prospective teachers' inquiry skills at the undergraduate level has gained much attention in Northern Cyprus. In this regard, this study is believed to contribute to the existing literature since it aims to examine how senior student teachers in Guidance and Psychological Counselling program develop their research skills in a process-oriented inquiry learning context. The findings of this study could shed light upon the reconsideration and reconceptualization of the existing program regarding its focus on teacher development through inquiry.

2. Methodology

The overall agenda of the research design was grounded on the theoretical and methodological norms that substantiate the understanding of the socially constructed nature of reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003) through the lenses of participants in actual contexts.

2.1 *Research design*

The study adopted action research as a research methodology. Action research, conducted on curriculum development, teaching strategies and so forth, when 'integrated in initial teacher education programs facilitates continual professional and educational change (Mills, 2003). The whole process throughout the study aimed to uncover the factors influencing the developmental process of student teachers' inquiry skills.

In this regard, a process research-based inquiry environment was designated. The process first started with an orientation, given by a professional librarian, to familiarize students with online full text databases in English and Turkish. Since the medium of instruction of the course was Turkish and English language proficiency level of the student teachers was low, the librarian gave more emphasis on introducing the online databases in Turkish. Then the whole process continued with the lectures which led student teachers to write their 1st progress reports including introduction and literature sections of their papers, 2nd progress reports including the revised introduction and literature sections and the new methodology section, 3rd progress report including the revised introduction, literature and methodology sections and the new findings section. The process ended with the submissions of the synopsis of an article and the final reports which had been revised upon the previous feedback given by the instructor. All through the program, instructor's scaffolding was provided when student teachers needed.

2.2 *The study context*

The sample of the study consisted of all forty-two senior student teachers in the program taking Scientific Research Methodology course offered by the Department of Educational Sciences at the Faculty of Education. It is a three-hour course offered in Turkish language in the third year in the curriculum. The students taking this course formed their project groups voluntarily. There were six groups formed with five students and one group with six students, one group with four students and one group with two students, respectively. It was the first time that all these students were involved in scientific research.

The course under consideration aims to help student teachers develop a basic understanding of the nature of social science research within education including a thorough consideration of the qualitative and quantitative designs, methods and approaches of study used in research. As a part of the course, they were required to develop the skills required to design and conduct a small scale study using quantitative, qualitative and/or mixed methods.

Within this process, to help student teachers plan and conduct research, the methodology used is as follows: the participants were requested to form their groups that were required to plan and conduct an original mini inquiry on the topic they would agree. Their development and implementation of the research was guided via the weekly conferences held between the group members and the instructor. The major aim of these conferences was to help them reflect on their projects in light of the theories studied in the class.

2.3 *Data collection and analysis*

The study gathered data via students' autobiographical reflective writings and researcher's reflective diary. Throughout the program, participants were supposed to reflect upon their retrospective 'lived experiences' through autobiographies so as to be genuinely aware of their own inner world by connecting it to genuine experiences through inquiry (Jaatinen, 2001). Subjects wrote three autobiographies - one at the beginning, during and one at the end of the program. This would enable the researcher to see the whole inquiry process from student teachers' viewpoints. In each reflective report, subjects reflected upon what they learned or did not learn within the process, the instructional factors that affected their learning, and how these factors affected their learning. A total of 126 reflective reports were collected for the investigation of the issue under examination. The researcher's own reflections on the group performances and their learning helped her/him to see the whole picture from an educationalist lenses.

The qualitative data collected were analysed through content analysis, an approach to the analysis of documents

and texts laying emphasis on creating predetermined categories so as to promote the feasibility of the replication of the study (Bryman, 2001). During data analysis, first, raw data were organized giving numbers to groups (from 1 to 9) and letters (from A to F) to each member in each group. Then, raw data from three sources were organized around predetermined and emerged codes on matrices (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Next, the data processed were confirmed by two inquiry auditors (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Finally data were verified through data triangulation

2.4 *Trustworthiness*

To ensure the objectivity and credibility of the data generated, the study integrated the phases of organizing the data, generating categories, themes and patterns, coding the data, testing the emergent understandings and searching for alternative (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). Dependability and confirmability of the data was ensured through inquiry audits (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Triangulating the data helped for the credibility of the findings by uncovering aspects that the data show convergence and divergence (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

3. Findings

The analysis of multiple qualitative data sources provided invaluable findings as regards the factors facilitating student teachers' development of inquiry skills. The major finding was that the whole instructional process promoted prospective teachers' learning and growth in inquiry. Within the scope of the whole process, the findings displayed that the inquiry-based instructional design had great effect on participants' learning as regard the following aspects.

3.1 *Students at the heart of learning process*

The findings triangulated displayed that, almost all subjects, with two exceptions, were highly satisfied with both the instructional context that aimed to equip them with the essential elements to initiate and implement the research and the process-oriented nature of the instruction. Various aspects were reported influential on the student teachers' growth of inquiry skills.

Nearly all of the student teachers reported how the entire structure of the course, from the very beginning, helped them to develop their inquiry skills gradually with hands-on experiences, in an active, interactive and motivating environment.

Being involved in an active learning process was reported as motivating and encouraging since it helped one student teacher to get new ideas (6D) and another one to get long-lasting ideas (7D). One of the student teachers (1D) also highlighted that he became aware how they had been taught in the wrong way so far and stressed upon how his motivation and learning was promoted through being involved in discovery learning techniques. He said, "We have been generally taught through direct instruction, yet the techniques like brainstorming, question-answer, discussions, group works employed in this course helped us grow better." It is important to stress that one student teacher, at the end of his fourth year, realized that theory, without application, is incomplete and useless.

The course structured with an orientation at the very beginning of the course was considered very beneficial and constructive for the inquiry process student teachers were required to develop by almost half of the student teachers. One student teacher stated how the orientation at the university library promoted her motivation and eliminated her worry in searching databases. Another student teacher (5E) confessed that, notwithstanding her level at the university, she did not know how to search reliable sources on Internet. She also added, "I now know that I am going to graduate by being aware of making and citing quotations". One of the student teachers (4D) also reported, "I learned how to search and use articles from databases and comprehended how to use articles and make a reliable and substantial research". Another student teacher (3A) stressed, "I understood that I was unaware of the researching process so far. My major fault was that, without making preliminary researching on the topic, I used to use unreliable data sources for my reports". She also added that she did not have the habit of reading articles and theses. On the contrary, two student teachers complained about the orientation because, as for them, it did not help them much to search online databases in Turkish. Another two student teachers, reflecting upon their low level of English proficiency, reported their problems in searching articles from online full text databases in English.

Besides, a significant number of student teachers underlined that their inquiry skills developed through the process oriented nature of the course. One student teacher (6A) emphasized that the whole process encouraged her to find accurate and reliable sources during researching which was positive and productive. As a result, she understood that

scientific research worked gradually and in a systematic way. While step by step instructional planning and implementation was reported as having great impact on one student teacher learning (4F), it helped another student teacher (9B) to learn how to work in a disciplined way in the light of the feedback given. One student teacher (3A) stated that doing scientific research was like rings of a chain. Steps are interrelated and you need to follow each of them to learn better.

In addition to these, few student teachers remarked that their growth in researching was promoted due to being involved in higher order thinking processes, as one student teacher (4D) reflected, "we had to be in a state of reflection, questioning and researching. This made us not to embark on ready-made information but to employ self-developing practices through searching and citing articles and writing the report". It was also highlighted that the course encouraged student teachers' questioning skills through researching. One of the essential elements here was the participants' self-involvement throughout the process, which was considered more valuable than studying theory (4E).

3.2 The role of instructional process on student teachers' growth

Almost all of the participants stressed upon how scared they felt and how difficult they found the course at the very beginning of the course. The factors that minimized their fears and facilitated their learning are as follows.

First, that the course was designed upon progressive reports and step by step submission of assignments was considered invaluable by almost half of the participants. One participant (5B) underlined that there was a very good parallelism between the in-class lectures and the application of the theory through reports all of which contributed their research process and made it concrete. One student teacher (1E) reported how the progressive nature of the course helped her to learn by accumulating the whole from the pieces, while another student teacher (3C) stressed how valuable it was that they were assigned to conduct the project in phases.

Almost half of the subjects reflected on the process nature of the course and they remarked how it facilitated their development in planning and building up their research reports. Nearly half of the student teachers also appraised the impact of progress reports on their growth. One participant (2E) reported, "I see that I am developing in every single report. My mistakes are getting fewer and fewer and I am growing. I had never searched scientific articles and cited from articles and written references."

Furthermore, more than half of the student teachers underlined how the course instructor's exemplifications in lectures helped them to better comprehend the terminology and research process which, as a result, facilitated their researching process. "During lecture, the examples given from real life to elucidate the new terminology made the lectures clear in my mind", as stated by one student teacher (5B). Power point presentation slides were also found having significant impact on students' comprehension of subject matter by more than half of the participants. Regarding the value of the overall instructional process, one of the student teachers (6C) reported, "This course raised my self-awareness. It is really very good for a person to be conscious of his/her ability, interest and gains. After this course, I became aware of how to conduct an inquiry, how to set the research design and decide upon the nature of the study."

3.3 The impact of instructional scaffolding on student teachers' growth

One of the key findings was that a great majority of the subjects underlined how collaborative dialogues they were involved during the inquiry building process boosted their joint decision making in finalizing the projects. The central attention was on peer and teacher scaffolding.

3.3.1 Peer scaffolding

During the program, intragroup dynamics were deemed to have both positive and negative impact on learning. The first point considered critical was peer feedback. While working collaboratively helped two student teachers (5C and 9B) to learn from their mistakes, which enhanced their motivation and successful completion of their work, it helped another student teacher (9B) to be aware of the importance of listening and showing respect to others. The value of group dynamics was highlighted by these participants since sharing the same or diverse views both nurtured the quality of the output they produced. Another subject (2E) stated that when each person in a group has different attitudes, beliefs and views, joint work is enriched.

Next, group cohesion was remarked as one of the aspects that influenced arriving at decisions. Almost all of the participants stressed upon the fact that they had unity among group members, which facilitated their planning and

conduction of the project. One of the student teachers (7B) reported that as a group they learned how each member contributed to the whole project. She also reflected on the value of taking responsibility since all group members inevitably contributed to each other's development in group work. One participant (5B) underlined how vital it was to move towards the target as a united group. However, it is noteworthy to underline that one fourth of the subjects complained about the irresponsible group members who inhibited building up their projects. It is also meaningful to indicate that while some student teachers underlined their happiness in forming their groups with the members they chose, nearly half of the subjects raised their problems as to the group size.

A great number of the student teachers reflected on the importance of personal and shared responsibility of the members in fulfilling the projects. One participant (5C) stated, "I believe that when our group members have self-responsibility, our team work will yield successful results. If all responsibility is laid upon one person and others dodge their responsibility, a chaos may be created." Therefore, the contribution that members make during working on an inquiry project was reported critical. Some participants attributed the success of their works to all group members' awareness of their responsibility during the inquiry. One of the student teachers (6D) touched upon how shared responsibility within the group had impact on her growth. On the contrary, some participants reflected upon how difficult people in groups gave lessons to others. One participant (3C) highlighted, "Collaboration is not confined to only projects at schools; it is lifetime. Therefore, despite the people that you cannot get along well in groups, they teach us how to reconcile diverse ideas and cope with difficult people within groups." The number of members in each group was considered having impact on the work produced. Especially it was highlighted by some groups that the more members in the group, the more problems emerge when gathering for the project. One of the student teachers (6B) complained about the difficulties they encountered to find common meeting time for all members to meet.

What is more, while nearly half of the participants stressed that peer collaboration increased their interest and motivation in planning and finalizing their project, a few of them reported that, working collaboratively, they developed responsibility. "That we did everything related to our project together with my peers boosted my motivation", was highlighted by one of the student teachers (5B). She added that learning is inhibited when you are not motivated.

3.3.2 *Teacher scaffolding*

Teacher scaffolding was underlined as a key feature promoting students' awareness as regards their own strengths and weaknesses in writing an inquiry report by a significant number of students. The value of teacher feedback was also underlined by one participant (4F), "I don't believe that such a project can be completed without teacher feedback." Another participant (6C) reported, "instead of copying and pasting, through teacher support, I learnt how to quote and cite from articles. During this process, I became aware of the fact that I was not aware of how to search and cite literature" Another participant (5D) highlighted, "it was not an easy process. We didn't proceed effortlessly. Without teacher feedback, I would complete it without being aware of what I was expected to learn. I just got the logic of inquiry." While one student teacher (4F) underlined the value of teacher written and spoken feedback, another student teacher emphasized,

"We all know the function of feedback on the quality of the output. I have heard it for years and written it in my assignments. But I really tasted how it feels like in this project. Apparently I learned that it is the raw material of learning. Teacher provides feedback, students use it and learning becomes permanent." (8B)

Almost all of the students wrote highly concerning the feedback they received from the teacher throughout the whole research building process. Nearly half of the student teachers regarded teacher scaffolding as a self-motivating factor within the research process, while a number of participants highlighted that they consolidated what they learned through teacher feedback. As one (9D) stated, "The teacher feedback is vital. I learned what my mistakes were, what I was supposed to revise, what route I should follow during my project."

4. **Discussions and Recommendations**

Professional development of teachers has been one of the most significant agendas for teacher education (Ball & Cohen, 1999). Schools have given substantial emphasis on assisting teacher-initiated research as a way of professional development (Little, 1999). In this regard, this study attempted to scrutinize how a process-oriented instructional design influenced prospective teachers' inquiry skills within an action research agenda.

The overall findings exhibited that the instructional and learning processes, collaboration, guidance, and instructional scaffolding had prominent role on student teachers' development of inquiry skills. Incorporating student

teachers in a learner-centred environment where they would be cognitively and socially active and interactive was considered one of the foundational elements of instructional design in promoting student teachers' research skills. Students can greatly benefit from inquiry based learning. When they are active in the learning process, they can have improved understanding, more enjoyable learning, a greater sense of achievement and improved preparation for lifelong learning (Spronken-Smith et al., 2008). The orientation helped most of the student teachers develop their skills in reaching scholarly articles from online full text databases in Turkish. However, due to student teachers' low level of English proficiency, most of them could not benefit from the online databases in English. Research becomes invaluable when it is linked to both theory and practice (Gitlin et al., 1999). With regard to the instructional process, the process-oriented nature of the course contributed to the participants' growth of inquiry skills and, within this process, the instructor giving exemplifications from real life supported the student teachers' development. Finally, the student teachers' collaborative dialogues with their peers and instructor supported their growth in inquiry. In line with this finding, Parsons and Stephenson (2005) highlight the importance of collaboration. Assisted learning is critical to scaffold learning (Woolfolk et al., 2008). Feedback as the dialogue between individuals for correction may lead to internalized self-regulation (Samaras & Gismondi, 1998). While intragroup dynamics, group cohesion and personal and shared responsibility were considered as the elements critical for promoting student teachers' inquiry skills, interest and motivation for research, teacher scaffolding was regarded as indispensable within the inquiry-based instructional process. For development, besides co participation, cooperative learning and joint discovery of knowledge (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996), sociocultural theory highlights the significance of cognitive, social and motivational factors for development (Woolfolk et al., 2008). The role of the teacher can be conceptualized as that of facilitator of student learning through dialogue and collaboration (Kaartinen, 2009, p. 613). The teacher educator could keep track of the progress of the group, especially on their elaboration and decision making processes (Dobber et al., 2012).

In conclusion, in light of findings, it could be said that 'unless professional development and pre-service teacher development programs include learning and practicing the appropriate scaffolding strategies, then implementation of inquiry is unlikely to succeed' (Volkman et al., 2005, p. 867). The findings revealed that a process-oriented inquiry based instruction enhanced the professional development of student teachers' inquiry skills. Due to the nature of action research, this study was only limited to the development of inquiry skills of the senior student teachers in Guidance and Psychological Counselling program. In this respect, researchers and curriculum designers should be encouraged to conduct subsequent empirical studies to explore how process oriented instructional design enhances student teachers' development of inquiry skills by involving other student teachers in other disciplines and incorporating multiple data collection instruments. Such research agenda can provide valuable insights into the contribution of this process-oriented instructional design on student teachers' development of inquiry skills and its shortcomings.

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Support for Parenting: Learning to Sustain Theories, Approaches, and Interventions

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Abstract

The qualitative empirical researches have defined the first parenting support from the sociological point of view (Di Nicola, Donati, Beck) psychological (Bastianoni, Malagoli Togliatti) and pedagogical (Pati, Viganò, Catarsi, Mortari), as well as objectives and concrete actions on the territory by the centers for families. The research question was: "After the development and progress that led to the current society from traditional to complex, resulting in the phenomenon of urbanization and simultaneous loss of strong ties, typical of patriarchal structures and community centers for families, what kind of function were they performing? What was the real motivation that drives parents to attend these services?" I focused on a case study (25 parents who attended a space family in Verona) and I used the phenomenological method to investigate the phenomenon in reality; semi-structured interviews which helped me to learn how parents perceived the service they have attended, with its strengths and weaknesses, and finally I used the Grounded Theory to analyze the data obtained. The study showed the needs to build the social network, (support and peer comparison, encourage relational networks, social needs, positive atmosphere and openness); educational needs and change (support in managing the daily educational, reassurance given by professionals in attendance, acquisition of educational skills, acceptance of its limits); relational needs with educators (personal relationship and lasting) playful recreational needs (interruption of the daily routine, time to be with his/her child).

1. Introduction

It is clear that our age is strongly characterized by the speed and dynamism of changes that have affected the family. First of all the symmetry that characterizes today, thanks to the spouses' place of education and increase awareness and women's rights, is subverting the traditional conception of the family that reigned until the fifties, that the limited within the home (Golini, 1998); also the reality of the modern family is diffused. As discussed in "Il Corriere della Sera" (1999): << The children of 2000: an increasing number of children from 0 to 13 years with both parents employed (39.3); decreases the number of children with busy father and housewife mother (41.3), increase the children without siblings (26.7) or with a sibling (52.5); decrease children with 2 or more siblings (20.6) [...]. More people sun (???) (21.3); increase couples without children (20.8); increase the families of 2 components (26.4) [...]. Introducing "the couple commuter" are 2 and a half million people, 4.5% of the population living for long periods outside their normal home, for reasons of work or study. Commuters by choice or by necessity. There are also new types of families: those consisting of single parents just do not widowers, the free unions and reconstituted families, which accounts for three and a half million families, out of 10.4% of the Italian population >>. It is essential at this point, to penetrate deep into the changing trends of the family in Italy, in order to achieve social policies specifically oriented to the family (Di Nicola, 2002). Vital consideration at this point is concrete social policies that are able to take care of the family: a social policy appropriate must move first in the direction of the promotion and compatibility between care work and productive work (Di Nicola numero monografico di *Sociologia e politiche sociali*). This latter consideration is needed to clear the field by a series of clichés, which sees any action to support parents as a response to a growing inability or difficulty of adults to achieve this task. The family should not be classified as irrelevant and incompetent compared to other educational agencies, but it is necessary to approach to parenting with different eyes and different levels of sensitivity: while in traditional society is born with certain advantages (social class, religion). Here are the benefits must be conquered individually therefore the normal biography turns into "biography of choice "in" biography of yourself " (Beck, 2000). In fact, the most common mistake that quite often you fall is that you have always thought and said that it is mothers and fathers for "nature," as if their skills were innate, biological. Instead parenting skills have always been culturally mediated, for which they required help, support are charged with meaning: it is the product that a company is asking for their constant self reflexivity. It is also to be abolished also the mistaken belief that supports the existence of dysfunctional families and unproblematic: it is a belief that families "normal", "perfect" would be devoid of problems: all of this is false. It is critical that the outcome of the

adaptive family processes is perceived not so much as the absence of conflict, hardship and suffering, but the way in which conflict, distress and suffering are negotiated and addressed (Fruggeri in Bastianoni, Taurino, Zullo 2011). In this regard therefore becomes important to give a definition of centers for children and parents, (which are different from spaces for children), so called because they provide service in the presence of parents or other familiar with the children, to share a few hours playing time or simply socializing with other children and parents outside the home, with the objective of promoting the strength of the relationship and offer to both children and parents an opportunity of social contacts, dialogue and communication (Musatti, 2005). Within these services, families can be helped in the rediscovery of their "potential parental," certainly a wealth of resources necessary for future generations: an effective intervention must therefore consider the possibility of restoring the balance essential within of his family by supporting parental action, doing what they can to help each pair to re-discover the knowledge and beauty of their resources (Malagoli Togliatti, Tafa, 2005).

To support parenting is meant the set of educational activities aimed at families who have the common purpose of accompanying families in their becoming critical in the early stages of evolution and by capitalizing on the resources, the knowledge, the ability to build meaningful relationships with the outside world (Milani, 2001). Therefore, the purpose of these services is to strengthen parents to understand that the problems with the child are normal and common. They were born as places to meet and socialize, discussion and debate, sharing of personal experiences without transpose the advice of educators and specialists in a passive way, but focusing on the mode of active confrontation with other parents who are experiencing their own doubts (Mantovani, 1999). The pedagogy as a discipline in this regard should strongly support the goal of strengthening the couple through empowerment put in the dyad condition to decide their internal rules most suitable to regulate the communication, dialogue and their life choices (Pati, 2005). Not surprisingly, its torque you are talking about: according to the latest report of CISF, 2011, following an investigation made by Istat on the Italian family, the idea of family is challenged by the new idea of torque. Based on socio-demographic data showed that there is a growing number of unmarried couples (50.5%) increase couples without children or with one child, and in general families shrink in number, are privatized more and more. The pair is definitely becoming an alternative way of life to the family (Donati, 2011). It is therefore to rethink the whole issue of parenting support, to be understood in terms of both economic and psychological training. In this regard, a commitment is necessary including financial support, which responds to the need to educate the relationship, even before the parents decide to live together and have children. The difficulties of living together in fact, should lead to the organization of training courses, which facilitate the acquisition of greater self-awareness and opportunities to learn from others (Catarsi, 2003). This suggests that family life is not static, but on the contrary it grows, changes, interruptions and undergoes crisis and is subject to revisions and adjustments, pursuant to become agents of individuals in it (Pati, 2006). Citing Winnicott, then, how to be parents, "good enough" leveraging ties with the territory? What is the role of Centers for Children and Parents? The current services that perform the function of parenting support, have gone from a welfare approach to a style cooperative, through the laws 285/1997 and the law 328/2000. First the revolution was the real sharing of functions and responsibilities on the part of educational institutions, which made the family aware of its importance, as it not only user who receives services, but it becomes an active protagonist, reaching the true activation of resources within the family. But it is also worthwhile to bear in mind that the intervention for each individual household cannot be standardized and that parents can therefore be looking for "experts" to ask for advice and places to discuss issues related to the relationship with their children. In this they can reflect on the tools they possess, but which at times are unaware of or bring into question the very existence: the intervention in this case should serve to support them, not only to adopt attitudes appropriate to the aims they pursue, but also the type of people they are (and the type of person whom the child would be); encourage them to come to an awareness and an emotional attitude which is positive for both (Malagoli Togliatti, Tafa 2005).

2. Research design

The research was conducted on the parents who attended the Spaces Family Pescantina (Verona) from May to July, 2012. These spaces used to support parents who gave birth in 1998 as a as a local services Ulss 22, on an experimental basis by the will of the town, which is interrogated to understand how to be close to the families of the area. These services have emerged as the spaces and times dedicated to adults, to get together and to discuss about child raising, making room for boys and girls with the aim of the game for them, socialization and growth. I want to emphasize that it is the particular nature of Space Family, as a place of play for children and adults, host and listening, where you learn to actually enjoy being together between parents with their child, to get out of your own four walls for open to the sharing of experiential knowledge, in an atmosphere of openness where there is a space created specifically to foster the

relationship. Briefly illustrate some goals are to:

1. offer a place suitable for physical socialization, through the involvement of parents in the discovery and management of activities and experiences that will enrich their educational strategies;
2. foster the spontaneous aggregation of families by offering a time during which we can compare the different experiences of the "parent craft";
3. Promote links between the educational, social and health care for the family and young children, for better integration and enhancement of existing resources, expanding its network of relationships and knowledge.

3. Research Question

As aforesaid, the aim of the research was to understand what motivated parents to attend the Parent Child Centers. Put it differently, after the development and progress that led to the current company from traditional complex, resulting in the phenomenon of urbanization and simultaneous loss of strong ties, typical of patriarchal structures and community, what was the real motivation that drives parents to attend these spaces? "

4. Methodology

The research that I conducted according to qualitative methods, it is often subjected to criticism, as it is considered to lack methodical principles, capable of ensuring an adequate epistemic rigor, without which it is impossible to arrive at valid knowledge. Basic becomes then define a method that can lead to the development in knowledge, which they can recognize the validity, as acquired through rigorous research procedures (Mortari, 2010). Therefore, the most appropriate method that I have adopted, which takes epistemic value is the phenomenological method, Which performs its Peculiarities on the principle of loyalty to things. The phenomenological method (Mortari 2010) can be summarized by including these features:

1. The phenomenology takes as its object of investigation the experiences, and their life experiences are at the heart of qualitative research in the social sciences;
2. Leading the phenomenology is the tension to build as a rigorous science, and this is the primary aim of the qualitative research undertaken to gain a clear scientific credibility;
3. The quality of the phenomenology, as Levinas claims is to be a philosophical method and because educational research is looking for a rigorous method, the phenomenological can be a valid point of reference.

5. Tools

Using the conversational interview, as a central tool, I submitted the sample of 25 participants in my research. Interview is a way of speaking directly to another driven by some specific questions, prepared in order to probe the research question without the other caged within well-defined patterns. It explores the world of experience which includes the so-called "practical" (parents, educators, and teachers) and the knowledge they produce is not disconnected from reality. , on the other hand, it is precisely through the story and the opportunity to tell their life experience, exposing their strategies put in place, therefore, the one that emerges can be considered valid to reconstruct the practical knowledge. For this reason, it is necessary to take care of the subjects during the search,

starting from the posture of the researcher: not to be judgmental, but cozy, but also be able to consult each other in a relaxed manner without usurping spaces. From here began my research: I have used a semi-structured interviews in which I placed under the participants. The pattern of the interview consists of ten questions that dealt with the topic under various facets. The first questions were intended to enter into with the parties a "primitive" form of contact, of relationship and to enter more familiar with the interviewee ("How old is your baby?" "How long have you attended this service? "" in what does it consist of? "" How did you learn of the existence of this service? "). Then I focused on the experiences of the subjects, the experience that this person has had from attending the Space Family ("What did you like?"). Moreover it seemed essential to demand the reason that led the respondent to take part in this type of service ("Why did you go there?") and although the attendance of this service may have been of help, enrichment ("So I help you?"). Finally, I wanted to take this relational aspect that has been created within this space family, both the personal and close relationship with the teachers present ("How was your relationship with the teachers?"), Whether overall between parents and educators ("What kind of relationship has been established between teachers and parents?"). Last but only from a chronological point of view, I wanted to change the role of parent, the interviewee. Specifically, I am referring to the fact

that if the respondent, in participating in this type of services, such as the Centers for Families, has been able to learn something ("Have you learned something as a parent?"). It should be kept in mind that what is at the basis of the analysis of the interviews, calls for absolute loyalty to the descriptions provided by the participants, the parents. It is also true that by approaching the words of the parents surveyed, the effort was to capture as much as possible their experience, although it is clear that much remains to be explored. According to the trace of the research that I have mentioned, proceeding to analyze the interviews was my job (Mortari 2010):

I have highlighted the important portions of text, meaningful units of description with emphasis, and exclude others, judged to be less relevant to the focus. Then I have given a brief description of each unit to decide the validity of the account produced, ie the meanings welded in brief descriptions although there are no procedures tested techniques: each elaborates the subjective and unique. Later, I put the first synthetic conceptualization to each unit called label (label), which should be faithful to the contents of an utterance of the source text, how about the essential quality without adding anything and without making interpretations. The next phase aims to make a comparison between these texts and to begin to single out the essential features of what has given parents, participation in the Space Family. It was made a transversal analysis of the texts, so as to be able to compare the networks of meaning that are basic in each text, in order to bring to light the extended quality of the various texts. It would be simplistic, however, to think of having caught the essential quality of the phenomenon considering only what it is extensively shared, and therefore also the so-called partial quality are thus identified and highlighted, because the meaning of a phenomenon constitutes both an essential level, and extensive quality, both meanings of the peripheral. We then move on to the analysis of labels and categories emerging through the coding system. The coding system is used to make a synthesis of the main points, calling into question the labeling process since there made. The last process involves the return on the analysis of text units, that should allow you to see what they are and then to regroup in macro categories all units of text discussing a certain topic.

6. Results

An analysis of the interviews, revealed several types of labels, which then led to a division into four main categories which I will explain below: educational needs and change, relational needs with educators, social needs of network construction and recreational needs-games.

Table 1: Educational Needs and change

Labels	Instances	Total
Support in managing the daily educational	21	
Reassurance by professional present	20	
Acquisitional of educational skills	8	
Managing emotions	7	
Problem managing	8	
Acceptance of its limitations	6	70

In this macro category I have enclosed all the labels which referred to 'help in the education of children, through targeted activities that were made within the service and especially also with regard to the acquisition of new parenting skills.

6.1 Support in managing the daily educational needs

"Not all, but speaking for myself, maybe [I] have the imagination to propose who knows what to their children, but here I learned how to do new things, take cues." (Int. 20)

Other parents, for example, after attending the Centre, were able to reproduce some activities within their home. Definitely not to be able to propose activities during that time devoted to children in the parents have aroused a strong sense of inadequacy, inferiority, for what concerns parenting skills. However, to get involved and share their views inspired by the various practices and activities according to my point of view was very useful because they felt enriched, both in terms of human relations, and educational skills. Participate in this center gained confidence in themselves and their parenting skills, for which, they felt strengthened and able to better manage their relationship with their child.

6.2 Reassurance by professionals present

"I then cut people for this job, so it was really nice, and in fact still with their mothers when we meet we remember these moments because they were things alternatives" (Int.13)

These results are also relevant meetings with specialists (pedagogists, psychomotor therapists) who were invited to participate from time to time at the Center where parents had an opportunity to learn from the professionals through observing the interaction they made with children. The experts present were some real points of reference for parents. They would rely completely, as well as advice and exchange of opinion, even with regard to the vision, they could have children: valorized their strengths, but also invited to reflect on the difficulties of the child, urging both to improve.

6.3 Acquisition of educational skills

"You always learn by talking to other people, with other mothers, see more than anything else that is not only your child who is in a certain way, and then widen your horizons" (Int. 16.);

Here it is made explicit that the acquisition of skills education has taken place within the Centre, through the comparison with professionals and educators always through dialogue and relationship. But the acquisition of such skills is also managed through the exchange of views and opinions that has occurred between the parents themselves, among peers. Therefore it became evident that especially the comparison between peers, parents instil in a feeling of reassurance and serenity. It also reiterated the expansion and enrichment of its knowledge, its points of view thanks to the comparison.

6.4 Management of emotions

"It gave me so much, to avoid anxieties, concerns, especially of not being up, they do not know enough about your child, not being able to understand, especially with the first, because of so many behaviors." (Int. 21)

Attending the center as an emerging parent as has been very positive in the first place as it represented a point target reference, and secondly, it meant a reduction of anxieties and concerns, and the birth of reassurance and confidence. This means that the parent in question certainly had the fear of not covering so its full parental role. It is known very well the insecurity of not knowing well the child and not being able to understand some of his behaviors feeling the need to support and help.

6.5 Problem Management

"He also did a period biting, pulling hair, a little 'aggressive say, and I know I was ashamed even with other moms and then he targeted a child forever. Instead of going to them that I have compared with other moms and that the other children have also passed that stage there "(Int. 22)

In these words emerge all the feelings of shame and inadequacy that characterize the experience of this mother: the aggressiveness of the child created in her discomfort. Then, attending the center, and then through, as she cites the exchange of opinions and advice with other parents made sure of being able to overcome his feelings of discomfort and embarrassment, first of all, finding solace and encouragement and a later stage, also new educational practices in the attempt. . Surely this has benefited for the personal serenity and enrichment of skills for this mom, which was not considered by the educators of the Centre, but was helped to intervene and work on the child's behavior, and to be treated as a normal phase of growth.

6.6 Acceptance of one's limits

"If you start from the assumption that you're always right because you are the parent is better that you're home" (Int. 14)

This piece of interview is particularly important because it shows that the position is wrong that very often taking certain parents of "untouchability", of absolute reason and power. What emerges is the fact that you should put yourself in the game and in discussion: the attendance of the Center has helped to consolidate a more dialogic, leaving room for

possible constructive criticism and comparisons, which were essential for all participants. In particular, the parent highlights how truly listen to the teachers has led to have a different view of things, opening the way to a new awareness and making him work on himself to improve their educational skills. Surely what the parent has been able to understand is that very often really listening to each other and confront a growing experience is that the Centre gave him the chance to live.

Table 2 : Relational Needs with educators

Labels	Instances	Total
Building a face to face relationship	20	
Construction of a long lasting personal relationship with the social worker	30	50

This macro category proved to be very important for the parents themselves because they build the relationship with the social worker in a very constructive and inspiring way. It is remarked that building a meaningful and valid relationship result in the availability of the social workers outside of working hours and facilitating continuity of the service.

6.7 Building a relationship face to face

"It was beautiful, the people are wonderful, because it was not the social worker that gives you the rules, [they] simply gave a guide." (Int.2)

These words clearly as attending the Centre has accounted for this parent a 'positive experience and how he conserves in social workers respect and trust, expanding its positive opinion to the personal as well as professional lives. It is stressed that the social workers also within the Center does not embody an authoritarian role, as holders of absolute power, but rather as they would encourage a relationship geared to growth and exploitation of participants and their individual skills. This was possible thanks to a deep mutual relationship that has allowed to work on the participants, so that they felt free to express themselves, and bring their expertise in the field. Therefore emerges as the social workers embody the role of facilitators, without forgetting that the real focus were on the participants.

6.8 Construction of a long lasting personal relationship with the social worker

"Sometimes even the confidence and friendship, [...] it's well worth going there" (Int. 7)

This parent has stressed that his personal relationship with the social workers has been very positive, as it has turned into a bond of trust and even friendship. . She pointed out that it is really "worth it" to attend the center, because the creation of these meaningful connections has contributed to the enrichment of your mother with regard to the educational skills, but because she found the people to be valid under the human and professional profile, who were able to ride it with competence and kindness, supporting it and supporting it when he needed it. To the Centre of the rest was very important to be able to support the creation of strong links, because the parents were able to find support appropriate to their needs, thanks to this long-lasting bond that has developed with the social workers.

Table 3: Need for construction of the social network

Labels	Instances	Total
Answer the needs of sociality	33	
Support and peer comparison	36	
Positive atmosphere and openness	7	
Opportunity for children to attend agemates	7	
Encouraging relational networks	12	95

This macro category got by far the largest number of occurrences, so self-explanatory function and the reason why parents attending the Spaces Family. They were very often alone and struggling with a bewildered child in front of them with great commitment. Thus, having a child need someone the people they trust, on their but only to support than to

replace.

6.9 Support and peer comparison

"With the help of everyone we talked and we were helped" (Int. 9)

Even in this interview enhancement of mutual aid that has characterized the participants of the Centre was noticed. This attitude has contributed massively to feed the network of support that parents themselves have created, to help each other, using as a primary and fundamental dialogue. Speaking honestly, exposing their doubts and problems, but also expressing curiosity or telling their experience has made us aware of each participant's strengths and weaknesses. Good cooperation where everyone is involved in an active way was emerged in the relationship. Even the fact of being all on the same level has produced a sort of equal cooperation that has led to excellent results both in the relational level and the level of acquisition of educational skills, always under the guidance of competent educators who organized these moments of meeting.

6.10 Answer to the needs of sociality

"Just being in the company with other moms, it is bad to stay at home all alone" (Int.8)

Also in this interview, we understand that it was very strong, as mentioned earlier, the need for construction of the social network. What makes you think this is just the need for companionship, spend hours together with others, the need to socialize, to forge relationships is part of the social nature of human beings. These words also underline the sadness of isolation and loneliness in the home. In this context, the Centre has indeed allowed to make a path more in-depth on awareness and on the dynamics of parenting today, but also responded to those needs of sociality that were present in the area, although often in silent form, favoring the creation of meaningful relationships Positive atmosphere and openness

"Seeing the atmosphere of openness, I was encouraged to push and I slowly began to acclimatize" (Int.8)

These words clearly show how the climate of openness paved the way to push to start a path of knowledge, which then contributed to an educational journey that ended in an authentic way for the participants. It was the climate of openness, skillfully created by the educators and other parents present to promote the integration of all parents, even the most timid and doubtful. Therefore, the positive atmosphere of openness that has characterized the meetings of the Center, it was definitely crucial to be able to gain the trust and interest of the people who wanted to fit in, motivating them to get involved, at least at this early stage.

6.11 Ability of children to attend peers

"He had done the nursery, so to make it interact and I had known of this service." (Int.23)

Another reason that led parents to attend the service was just to give an opportunity to the children who did not attend the nursery, to have them interact with their peers. Most likely the parents must have thought at the beginning that the service was aimed at children, just to take advantage of the possibilities of this place where they can do to meet their children. Only later through the association with the Centre came to understand that the activities of the service were aimed at themselves, the real beneficiaries of the interventions from the support and guidance of the social workers. However, it was decisive, in my opinion, the fact that there was adequate space and experts for the treatment and activities of the children, because, for parents, also seeing their enthusiasm and their interest in having to continue to participate, was the impetus further to the parents themselves to continue to attend various meetings.

6.12 Encouraging relational networks

"Just to experience this moment of aggregation" (Int. 5)

In this excerpt of the interview is emphasized that the primary motivation for the parents who participated in the Center was the desire to meet and be with new people with whom to share the experience of being a parent. This is

clearly motivated by loneliness or isolation that the mother is experiencing postpartum, or simply a poor social network you can rely on. Create networks of relationships was important for users to be able to have an opportunity for dialogue and exchange of advice, discussion and also of fun as well as meetings with experts.

Table 4: Needs recreation - and playful

Labels	Instances	Total
Stop the daily routine	9	
fun time to spend with his child	12	
Curiosity	3	24

Finally, in the latter macro category are inserted labels that enclose the need of parents to interrupt the daily routine, to approach the service simply out of curiosity or interest, or for wanting to spend time alone to his son.

6.13 Stop the daily routine

"You did something different from the usual routine mother and child" (Int. 24)

Here, too, is highlighted the importance of the Centre, as a promoter of activities and interventions, targeted to parents, as well as an opportunity to break the daily routine, where mothers could find social ties, exchange of experiences and peer support, as well as a moment where you can get distracted by the problems and things to do in the day. Therefore, in addition to having played a role of parenting support, the Center has also encouraged gatherings and meeting between parents, who were eventually able to find a service designed specifically for their education.

6.14 Fun time to spend with a child

"Being more formy son, I am convinced that he did very well" (Int.20)

Another element that is emphasized is the satisfaction parents derived from being with their children during the time spent at the Centre. Devoting oneself completely to the child, without interruption triggered by external factors, has been instrumental in building the relationship. The Centre has provided an opportunity for mothers to cultivate a unique way at least once a week meet and discuss with their child.

7. Curiosity and interest

Finally, we note here that the Centre has been able to be something that affects people's attention and challenging, perhaps because they failed to grasp the true heart of the needs of the parents. First of all, the support from other parents, born of the constructive dialogue between equals, was responded to the need for social networking.

In addition, as recipients of the service, parents allowed to work with themselves, with the aim to become aware of their educational practices and improve it through the mutual exchange of ideas and advice. The curiosity was given by the novelty of the service that did not disappoint the expectations of the participants: the majority admits that she finds herself very well, he had also built friendships with mothers and lasting relationships with the educators. In addition, as can be seen from the interviews, is manifested the will of the parents to attend it again if they also have children in the future. The service has therefore centered in the middle of its target.

8. Discussion, limitations and implication of the study

At the end of this work, I am aware that there would still be much to say about this issue. Supporting parents in Italy is finding fertile ground only for a while 'time now, although we are seeing a sprout more and more intense interventions on this issue. The results of the research that I have conducted have finally an answer to my research question: "Why do parents go to the Centers for families?" The result of the interviews that the information I have provided has been unanimous: first of all for the needs of parents of confrontation and encounter. As it is clear from the analysis, the comparison the common thread of all cases considered. For too long parents, once failed the strength and support that infused a community network, have suffered from loneliness, uncertainty, a sense of inadequacy and inferiority compared

to previous generations. For too long they have been convinced that they must do it alone at all costs, as not to obscure the appearance of "perfect family" who knows exactly handle problems and unexpected. All this has led to loneliness, isolation, depression, silent, being accompanied by fears of not being up to own and operate their children, not knowing who to rely on. As a future proposal certainly that of leverage on the distribution and promotion of services to support parents in the territory or in areas where it is still considered a good and interesting possibilities, such as urban areas, and in other bands, maybe provincial, where mistrust and closure are certainly still very present and high, would benefit those directly involved: the parents. The new families that are forming; parents with teenage children in whom the balances are more delicate; couples who are living the experience of a separation or a divorce behind and have to redefine the relationship with their children: are countless situations and cases for which a service of this kind could lead support. Items that are most highlighted by the parents the need for sociability, the equal interchange of advice and educational practices, the exchange of opinions and experiential knowledge, support in the management of children. All these in a context in which predominates a climate of acceptance and openness to the participants and where it is possible to build a lasting relationship with the teachers' present, promoting at the same time before the whole meeting between the parents. Great importance also took the interventions of experts, activities and workshops led by educators and child psychologists, but the real stars of the Center were the parents and their children. the support that is provided by this type of service, is not practical to replace by educators, in that role that primary education may hold only the parent: support covers only the value of help and comparison. Just starting from the awareness that the possibility of failure is always present in educational contexts, you can start a real process of growth and improvement, through a mutual enrichment derived from the comparison, much sought after by today's parents. It is also evident that the service grasp points, and upgrade their education and skills of that particular family, of those individual parents to arrive, with patience and perseverance autonomy. The dominant element should instead be the co-construction of a path, the being able to act as a guide. Therefore, since the limit of this research, based on the investigation of a single center for families, you could expand the investigation and to extend it to more services forming part of the province, or even regional.

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Conception of Integral Person as Basis of Education in the 21st Century

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Abstract

As far as modern education is concerned I agree with the statement, expressed long time ago by Hannah Arendt, that its main problem is inability to reject authority and tradition although "it has to develop in the world which structures are not defined by authority anymore and which is not integrated by tradition". The problem becomes more and more complicated, because local cultures and global culture, thanks to expansion of technology and everyday use of multimedia, undergo constant dispersion and multiplication. It deepens the process of disintegration of man. In other words, contemporary cultural experience, which has educational character, do not support development of integrated man, it means man who simultaneously acquires abilities allowing to exist in the world and value the world. That is why in my speech I express the opinion that one of the essential duties of constant education (lasting for the whole life) based on media and cognitive knowledge (useful and efficient) and on network experiences is an attempt to work out new conceptions of an integral person. I assume that the biggest challenge of contemporary education is man, who possesses numerous technical abilities but do not know how to value technology, its consequences and their own attitude towards technology. That is why I consider the role of axiology in education which shapes students' competences to develop plurality in thinking and acting and to open to dynamics of reality.

Keywords: *Integral person – cultural disintegration – ecological education – self-government*

The whole human experience has educational character and that is why the presuppositions of pedagogy change together with transformations which take place in the nearest and further reality surrounding man. In spite of the changeability, one of the most important aims of didactic and educational processes is, almost always and everywhere, an attempt to shape an integral human being - someone who is quite coherent in thinking, words, deeds and emotions. An integral human being is also distinct and definite for themselves and for other people in mental, emotional and operational aspect. Of course nobody wants the man, as a "product" of pedagogy, to be fully predictable and balanced in their thinking and behaviour, deprived of their distinctness and uniqueness. Integrity should be understood as a sense of entity, felt inseparableness, as an ability to integrate wisdom and emotionality and to complete themselves according to possibilities, needs and necessities. The weakest point in achieving this educational aim in practice is most often its association with particular political ideologies and religious doctrines. Because all institutionalized beliefs are immune to biological and cultural variety, to reaching uncertain future liberating aspirations of individuals and social groups, to everything which is not obvious or not defined. In other words, integral man is a model construction and aspiration of pedagogy to create one is an attempt to concretize utopian idea, as a rule, it cannot and should not fully come true.

Formulating such definition of human being has a big educational value in comparison to aspect definitions of man and their personality presented by various branches of knowledge. They always propose partial approaches to man. That is why such universalizing concept may be worth using especially when we think about current dilemmas and problems of pedagogy commonly experienced at the beginning of the 21st century in the whole world, regardless of the level of civilization development, political and economic systems and quality of living. I recall the concept in my discourse not in the aspect of Christian personalism or other religious or political philosophy, but in the context of general condition of contemporary man. I treat the conception of an integral human being as educational ideal which was practically destroyed in fast-changing reality. It deprives many pedagogic and educational processes of sense, it efficiently and permanently disperses systems of values, causes unknown information disturbances, cultural shocks and problems with conscious accommodation of people to new everyday reality. I practically only postulate necessity of revitalization of the idea of an integral person as educational answer to confusion of contemporary man in techno-reality. I state "that the world of technological innovations mingles with everyday reality and that full participation in the reality requires this technological instrumentation. [...] Various apparently dispersed technologies function in the frames [...] of the system, they influence and they are dependent of social reality. [...] they appear to be socio-technological systems themselves"

(Żabicki 2007, pp. 212-213). This tendency in development of our civilization became stronger at the end of the previous century when the division of technology into hard, which takes professional service, and soft, which as gadgets especially multimedia is available for everyone, became more distinct.

Basing on worldwide scientific studies concerning techno-reality it is difficult to answer the question whether development of technology so far has made them closer to man. Whether it results in the situation when technology will be adjusted to man or man will have to adjust to technology? Without doubts thanks to "technological revolution" the quality of living of many people constantly improves but simultaneously it contributes to numerous individual and social crises which were announced long time ago in numerous publications by such thinkers as Jean Baudrillard (culture of domination of technical code, which is based on rules of neutralization and indifference), Neil Postman (culture of technopoly changing people into slaves of technique), Paul Virilio (culture based on philosophy of speed, which makes life of man similar to "life of a machine") or Zygmunt Bauman (decomposing everything "liquid modernity") (Baudrillard, 1988; Postman, 1992; Virilio, 1997; Bauman, 2000). Nowadays even the biggest techno enthusiasts admit that techno-reality leads to radical disintegration of former social orders. The process became much faster when culture became more and more network-like and life of man became more and more "wired" (Jonscher, 1999). According to Derrick de Kerckhove, whose opinion is commonly shared, "Network is an extremely decentralizing force" (1998, p. 81) it disperses society in which man lives so man disintegrates themselves as well, their personality and their identity. It disintegrates more strongly than all human inventions, evoking earlier breakthroughs and technical revolutions, did.

I share well proven Hannah Arendt's statement, expressed in the publication published several years after the end of the Second World War, that education is in deep crisis because of crises of authorities and tradition - two basic sources of values which education was always based on (1994, p. 231). It is easy to prove that in the last half of century authorities less and less often guarded structural thinking and moral order, and tradition in a visible way lost its strength of uniting human cognition and activity. Technical revolution intensified the processes and cultural disintegration almost became the direction of social development. As aforementioned Zygmunt Bauman proves, contemporary order-making transforms into fabricating indefiniteness (Baudrillard adds indecisiveness) languages less and less often conduct their segregational functions, and we are surrounded by multi meaningfulness which we have to accept and which we have to learn to live with because it is indispensable (1991). Developing Arendt's thought, in reality of the 21st century we can state that nowadays one of the biggest challenge for education is disintegrating character of our cultural experience (or even more general: life experience). It is based on pro-technological attitude to ourselves and to the world, on domination of plurality and multiplication, acceptance of forms of multiplied changeability in everyday life (so called debauched proteism) and building the sense of reality on "open sources" (on constant opening to "liquid modernity").

Contemporary world do not support integrity of human being, it disturbs integrating processes because of increasing separation (dividing) of technical progress and moral progress. Simplifying the whole issue of this gap, it is enough to compare two basic competences of multimedia and the most important technologies users: technical abilities and valuating abilities. Taking into account already mentioned division into hard and soft technology it is easy to notice that contemporary man, even when they are not very talented or educated, uses technical inventions quite well, although they often do not even understand how they work they achieve great efficiency and different targets in their activities. Almost every high technology user has problems with its valuating, with valuating of their use of machines and valuating the consequences of their own interactivity, their relation to multimedia. Right now we can witness Bauman's prophecy come true, whom I recall for the last time in my dissertation. It appeared twenty years ago and concerns "thin membrane of order" which is guaranteed to man by postmodern morality, "morality without a reason or a cause (1994, p. 84).

The aforementioned gap between technical progress (today we should rather say: technological) and morality is neglected by some researchers especially by techno-enthusiasts. Sometimes it is even treated as a prize which has to be paid for expanding our own freedom and crossing former borders of human cognition. They think that real experience of everyday reality through indulging in computer games, in society of blogs, in the Internet fan groups and other virtual places, reevaluates former knowledge and deepens experience of technology users. According to Henry Jenkins participating in networks societies is a specific test for democracy, civil attitude and assemblies, because it allows for "games" about politics and elections, it teaches co-operation and mechanisms ruling virtual communities, it allows to become creative and innovative man (2006, pp.221- 227). Jenkins and other researchers sharing his opinion talk about contemporary culture as "culture of participation" in which people take multimedia in their own hands creating their own network communities, conducting dialogs with mass media and learning to process reality in new ways. They are of course right but contemporary cultural practice do not allow to perceive fully optimistically the latest technical inventions. Technology allows to commit offences (for example: giving false data about themselves or about others or performing false sales) and crimes (for example stalking or seducing minors) or even terrorist attacks, Using technology often leads

to "narcolepsy" and other personality disturbances and to disturbing interpersonal relations between people especially children (for example sexting : sex + texting - sending pictures and films showing their own naked bodies and intimate contacts). Examples illustrating moral regress connected with easy access to new technologies can be multiplied, that is why not only in colloquial discourses the phrase "man in network" does not only refer to modernity and civilization progress but it is also cultural metaphor meaning existential trap in which people get. In my opinion, which I expressed in one of the texts published recently: "in information society the most popular is the vision of a person-individualist who wants constantly broaden its territory of freedom and achieve all their needs in an unlimited way, simultaneously forcing other people to express acceptance for themselves and for everything they do. Less popular is »axiological« conception of the person saying that there is always a necessity to create a definite order of values through crossing themselves in direction of so called basic values, higher and universal, usually in western tradition associated with »humanity«" (Miczka, 2013, p. 152).

The phenomenon of disintegration of human being is the focus of interest for contemporary philosophers and majority of them propose to start the process of shaping of an integral person with close connection between human identity and moral problems. For example Charles Taylor in his fundamental work devoted to sources and character of human subjectivity says that in the era of computer it is necessary to treat identity as moral horizon of a person, which allows them to identify what is important for them and for the group (1989). Other philosophers point out important moments which are needed to build an integral person such as: differentiation between discovering values and creating values, existence of territories of storing values and community of beliefs, shaping conscience and involving the media in the process of shaping receivers who are able to formulate moral judgments and to use freedom in mature way. In philosophical perspective integral man, as a subject of pedagogy of the 21st century, appears to be "someone who can not only adopt achievements of scientific-technological civilization but they also understand them in a wider context - what we can call welfare of man. They can do it because their knowledge about moral good and evil goes beyond the area of scientific cognition, instrumental cognition in relation to human environment. Knowledge about good and evil reveals in conscience. It has been shaped in a specific dialog of generations in which passed rules of behaviour were confirmed in actions" (Klos, 2005, p.355).

As I have already mentioned, contemporary pedagogy is often not guided by authorities' opinions and it can be assumed, with much probability, that philosophy as academic branch will not be the basic source of inspiration for them to carry out reforms of upbringing and education. The most obvious reference to contemporary education is widely understood ecological attitude including everything that relates to natural environment, its connections and interactions with man and society. Because awareness of existential threat to human race increases. In this context questions about man are asked: about its ontic status, about the essence of being human, and about their future and their further development. Valuating treatment of nature becomes necessity as well as valuating treatment of technique and technology and their influence upon nature (so called axiology of natural environment). Another necessity is taking up the issues of man's attitude towards nature in categories of moral good and evil, of duty and responsibility, and also changing traditional paradigm of thinking and economic activity. In other words, today every education should be first ecologically oriented and its program must be based on technological culture researchers' conclusions. We do not have to agree with, for example, Manuel Castells' definite statement concerning changing pattern of relations between two poles of human existence: nature and culture. But making pedagogical choices one cannot ignore it completely, because it is representative for contemporary science and for the most important ecological orientations. In *The Network Society* the researcher enumerates three eras in history of both poles: the first one, in which nature dominated culture, the second one, in which domination of culture over nature started, the third one in which autonomy of culture in relation to nature (material basis of our existence) confirms (Castells, 2002, pp. 38-49). In his opinion education cannot stay indifferent to knowledge and social organization because they allow to live in cultures thanks to subduing nature to the point in which nature is artificially restored (protected, transformed, reconstructed) as an ideal cultural form. Even if Castells' conviction concerning the birth of new human existence seems to be exaggerated still the phenomenon of critical tension between nature and culture is very important for the processes of shaping integral human being.

Ecological attitude of pedagogy means attempts to understand active cohabitation of man in nature in global and local scale and respecting more and more nature-centred hierarchy of values. It must be based not on creating theoretical visions of the world but on practical methodology connecting the need of protecting and shaping of the environment with the protection of man (cf. inter alios Allen, Hoekstra, 1992, passim). What is more, ecological education must take inspiration from real scientific knowledge and take into account technical competences of people to differentiate distinctly from ecologism, from social-political movements, which are ideologically heterogenic, which popularize slogans about returning of contemporary man to wild nature and fighting with different forms of development

of technical civilization. Of course ecological awareness will efficiently serve to build an integral person when it will be shaped in frames of constant education lasting the whole life.

In the last twenty five years representatives of different sciences more and more often took up the subject which has been presented briefly in my reflections. They notice dangers which threaten man and nature and which come from technological culture. I will present only one example confirming the necessity of immediate shaping of moral aspect of the whole public sphere, which takes into account the conception of integral human being.

Michael Novak, an academic analyst of contemporary politics, postulates to create a branch of knowledge which he calls moral ecology (2004, p. 31). It would be a sum of ideas, narrations, associations, systems of symbols, dominating opinions and practices. In pluralist societies it would be a particular source of moral influences. Novak also thinks that such subordination of public sphere supports choosing by people morally correct actions and is positive for development of civil society. For both an individual, who should be an integral person, who has technical knowledge and uses moral judgment, and for community so called self-government is very important. It manifests in mature use of individual freedom which simply means its reasonable limits. People lack the maturity especially in so called epoch of info-freedom offered by the Internet and virtual realities in which a social movement called cyber-libertarianism develops. It announces possibility of almost total liberation of man out of supervision of the state, of the laws and limits of the physical world.

In other words, moral ecology would not only be an attempt of individual and group subordination of pluralist experiences but it is also an attempt to activate passive and often thoughtless users of soft technology and an attempt to create collectively the law which is morally right. It is of course an utopian conception but it is worth trying to work out positive attitude to moral ecology and first of all to self-government in frames of common, general pedagogy, binding law and various public discourses. As Michael Novak notices it is easier to complete the individual task when we are thought about it by the whole surrounding public ethos, encouraging to take it up and providing numerous examples of its completion or examples of self-destruction because of its incompleteness. That is why we can state that social ecology of freedom will encourage personal freedom or discourage its development (Novak, 1999, p.17).

To sum up my dissertation I would like to pay attention to the fact that processes of re-integrating of a person which could be supported by contemporary pedagogy, in "culture of participation" will be to some extent forms of recomposing through fragmentation. Majority of changes taking place in the contemporary world concern decomposing of former entities and again recomposing, which excludes from new entities some old elements and in return attaches new components. Jerzy Mikulowski-Pomorski developing the thought of Robert Jay Lifton about new forms of particular interpersonal ties (Lifton, 1999, *passim*), characterizes the phenomenon like that: "Processes of fragmentation burst modern society reaching the end of history. We experience it painfully because the old world that seemed to be safe decomposes into parts and their individual survival seems unlikely. Those fragments create difficult to understand »weird« entities [...] Still human sense of order connects the parts into entities and gives them new character. It is not seen everywhere and not everybody experiences it. But observed phenomena allow to assume that the world which composed itself some time ago decomposes to compose again but in different configuration" (Mikulowski-Pomorski, 2006, p.31). A person in the network faces many new experiences which evoke their disintegration but they can always stay or become again an integral person by an effort to develop their technical abilities and their abilities to evaluate. But if the aim is to be approached, education and upbringing have to be changed.

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Increasing the Internal Quality in College Schools via Democratic Dimensioning of Parent-Teacher Communication

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Abstract

Ensuring internal education quality is considered as one of the priority issues under the Albanian political agenda for integration. In college, the development of effective parent-teacher partnership is vital because optimises both teaching and learning. The level of parent's involvement depends significantly on the formats, methodology and philosophy of parent-teacher communication. An empirical survey undertaken in 2012 studied the reality family-school communication in Durrës college schools. It is oriented towards parents' perspective for explaining why parents are withdrawn. The paper explores the findings, confronts them with the empirical data of the research literature. From the analysis and arguments are generated recommendations on potential forms of treatment and management with regard to parent communication in college schools. The gathered data indicated that the parent-teacher communication reality is far from being considered consistent and its efficiency is partial. The communication is seen with darker lens from parents of female students, parents with children in the margin grades of college, mothers, parents with college education, the unemployed and those who live in Durrës from over a decade. The paper proposes a dimensioning of parent-teacher communication, which should be reviewed periodically. Despite backgrounds, positions and the limited resources can be shaped an interaction model built on strengths.

Keywords: democratic dimensioning of parent-teacher communication, college school, quality education.

1. Introduction

Albania has experienced a major transformation since the early 1990s, and the expansion of high education is one of the most substantial changes affecting the education system (UNICEF 2007). The law no 7952 date 21.06.1995 "For the pre-university education system" considers that education in Albania is realised in conformity to the sanctioned principles of the law in power and in conformity to the international treaties and agreements ratified by the Albanian Republic (Article 1). Whereas the "Normative dispositions for the public schools" (1996) legitimate the importance of cooperation of educational institutions with the parents (article 54/1), and details the involvement spectrum. Ensuring comprehensive high-quality teaching and learning are considered as priority issues under the Albanian political agenda for integration.

The European report on education indicators (2000) identified 16 quality indicators which cover four broad areas: a) *attainment levels* (mathematics, reading, science, information and communication technologies, foreign languages, learning to learn, civics); b) *educational success and transition* (drop out, completion of upper-secondary education, participation in tertiary education); c) *monitoring of school education* (evaluation and steering of school education, parental participation); d) *educational resources and structures* (education and training of teachers, participation in pre-primary education, number of students per computer, educational expenditure per student). OECD in 2005 summarized results from a survey undertaken in USA and Europe and created three main categories of school factors important in educational effectiveness: a) *resource input variables* (pupil-teacher ratio, teacher training, teacher experience and teachers' salaries), b) *school organisational factors* (achievement pressure for basic subjects, educational leadership, monitoring/evaluation, cooperation/consensus, parental involvement, staff development, high expectations and orderly climate); c) *instructional conditions* (opportunity to learn, time on task/homework, monitoring at classroom level, aspects of structured teaching, differentiation/adaptive instruction). Considering those approaches, parental involvement is a challenging piece that helps in completing the mosaic of quality in schools.

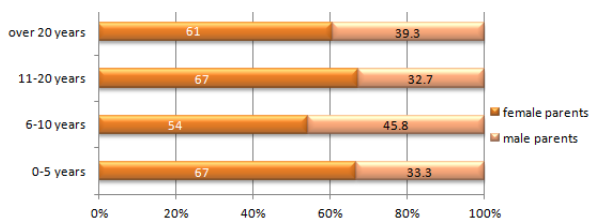
Epstein, a prominent researcher in the field of parent involvement designed a framework of six parental involvement forms which comprises communicating, parenting, learning at home, decision-making, volunteering and collaborating with the community (Epstein, J. 1995). The development of effective parent-teacher communication is vital in the high school context because optimises both teaching and learning. A few researches targeting Albania reveal that

schools collaborate with the parents, but the partnership is crushed (Pop, D. 2009; Musai, B. 2009; Boce, E. 2010; Bushi, B. 2011). Communication can be defined as the intentional or unintentional activity of transmitting information by verbal and non-verbal means of communication. An effective parent-teacher communication serves to the different purposes for which it was planned or designed, and ensures that messages aren't distorted during the communication process. Since presently a little is known about how effectively communicate parents and teachers in the pre university education reality in Albania, the empirical researches are a must. They can indicate how can be developed a democratic dimension of communication (which builds active and open schools, cultivates cooperation with parents and community as well as activates students).

In a former study in 2012 are studied three college schools from Durres city. The study was carried out with the permission, the voluntary and well-informed cooperation of the local education institutions. The survey primary goal was to explore parents' insights on parent-school communication. In each of the involved schools were randomly selected two parallels. Within grade parallels were randomly selected equal numbers of male and female students, the parents of which were invited to complete a questioner. About 180 questionnaires were distributed, but those who weren't returned within a week, were excluded from the statistical analysis of the empirical data. In addition were excluded even the questionnaires that had unanswered items. Those decreased by 18,9% the initial sample. Most of responses were given on a 5-point scale, ranging from definitely not agree (indicates a strong negative perspective) to definitely agree (indicates a strong positive perspective). In this regard, from the responses were generally considered the negative perspectives. The questionnaire ensured data about participants' behaviours, attitudes and personal background, while guaranteed the privacy.

Completed the questionnaire 62,3% mothers and 37,7% fathers. The reply was higher from the parents of female students (58,9%) comparing to the male peers (41,1%). Considering students' grade, the responses reached their peak in the XI grade for mothers and in the XII grade for fathers, while the lowest value is meet respectively in the XII and XI grade. Almost all respondents were mainstream Albanian, while a marginal of 0,7% belonged to the Egyptian community. About 95,9% reported to be married, but were limited cases of divorced (1,4%) and widow (2,7%) parents. In terms of education level, most of participants had finished the college (63,7%) and university (29,5%) while only 6,8% the secondary school. When asked for their employment status 28,1% of parents were unemployed, 70,5% employed and only 1,4% retired. The majority of respondents are adapted in Durres city, as they report to live in this area from over a decade (specifically 35,6% are living from eleven to twenty years and 41,8% from more than twenty years and as such their children can be considered "native" in Durres). Almost 6,2% live in Durres from less than five years, whereas 16,4% report that are living in this city from six to ten years.

Figure 1.Years of living in Durres city versus parents' gender belonging



The data coming from the above mentioned demographic variables show that respondents differed considerably in gender, education level, employment status, and length of self-reported time living in Durres city, while were more homogenous in sense of ethnicity and civil status. That's why when we will assess the parent teacher communication reality we will pay special focus to variables such as child gender and grade, relationship with the child, education level, employment status, and length of time living in Durres.

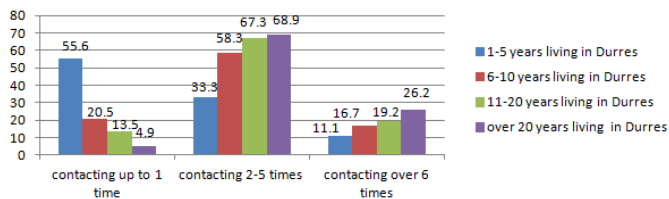
2. Results

2.1 Frequency and initiation of parent-teacher communication

The transition from secondary to the college school requires frequent parent-teacher communication for finding solutions or preventing student's problems, but the figures from the college schools under study reveal that according to parent

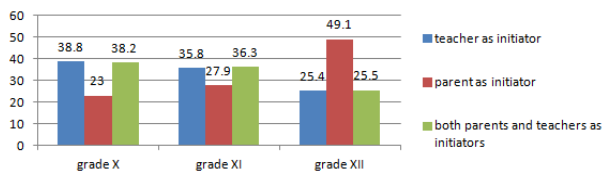
perceptions the reality is far from ensuring consistent parent-teacher communication during the school year. With the increase of child's grade, parents report to communicate more often with teachers. It is concerning that almost half of the parents which communicate with teachers maximally once a year, have their child in the first year of college. Around one in every three parents who communicate with teachers two to five times per school year has the child in the second year of college. The frequency is similar even in the case of respondents which communicate with teachers over six times per school year, but have a child in the third year of college. Even though parents of female students report to communicate more often with teachers, wasn't found significant distinction between the rates of female and male parents for each of the above mentioned frequencies of communication. The respondents who communicate up to one time per school year with teachers, are dominated by parents with secondary education (60%), compared to those with college (30,2%) and university education (9,8%). The variances between different education levels are less important if parents communicate two to five times per year (29,4% secondary, 35,1% college and 35,5% university), than in the case they communicate over six times (30,4%secondary, 50,6% college and 19%university education). The unemployed parents advance 1,5 times the rate of the employed peers which communicate with the teacher up to one time per school year. Whereas alike rates of employed and unemployed parents (47,8% versus 52,2%) affirm that have contacted teachers two to five times during the school year. About half of parents which declare that communicate with teachers over six times during the school year are unemployed, 48,5% are employed and only 4,1% retired. As Figure 2 shows, the rate of parents who report that are contacting teachers up to one time per school year is decreasing with the increase of years of living in Durres city, while is increasing in the case of the parents that report that contact the school two to five times, and over six times per school year.

Figure 2. Frequency of parent–teacher communication versus years of living in Durres



When asked which had generally initiated the communication with the school, only 12,3% of respondents (17,6% female and 3,6% male) reported that established two-way channels for communication (home to school and school to home). About 45,9% of parents attributed to teachers the first step (42,9% female and 50,9% male) while 41,8% said that have initiated the communication themselves (39,6% female and 45,5% male). As Figure 3 shows parents with children in the lower grades of college report higher rates of teachers as initiator. Whereas with the increase of child` grade the situation is reversed and parents are more based on their individual or joint parent-teacher initiative.

Figure 3. The initiative for starting parent-teacher communication versus childs` grade



Is higher the share of the unemployed parents that perceived the communication connected with tutors` initiative (63,4%), comparing to the share that recognized mutual parent and teacher initiatives (36,6%). From the employed respondents 45,4% reported to be based on their enterprise for interacting with the teacher, 42,2% were influenced by tutors while 12,4% relate it to the impulse provided from both themselves and tutors. The parents with college and university education result to be more initiative, comparing to their peers with secondary level. According to the answers provided, with the increase of the years a parent is living in Durres increases even parents` confidence to initiate on their own the communication with the tutor.

To capture some reasons that stay in the grounds of the infrequent parent-teacher communication and the low parent based initiative for starting interaction, we concentrated on parents' opinions with regard to: a) the infrastructure; b) the feeling of being welcomed and treated equally by the teacher; c) the update and communication openness; d) the consideration of parent's engagements, views and prospects.

2.2 *Perceptions on the infrastructure*

When studying the adequacy of the infrastructure, were observed complex scores in parents' responses. Within those who definitely disagree that there are adequate infrastructural conditions that stimulate the parent teacher communication the rate of mothers overcomes 4,5 times the fathers'. Even in the case of those who disagree in this respect, mothers dominate over fathers to a reduced extent (2,5 times). The share of parents with sons who disagrees and categorically disagrees that are adequate infrastructural conditions is smaller comparing to parents with daughters. The findings reveal that are evidenced small differences between the rates of unemployed, employed and retired parents who strongly disagree (respectively 27,3%, 72,7% and 0%) or disagree (respectively 30,8%, 64,1% and 5,1%). Considering the variances of the responses with regard to respondents education level, the values aren't concentrated in the extreme values, but instead are either spread in the case of those who absolutely disagree (9,1% secondary, 54,5% college and 36,4% university education) or disagree (12,8% secondary, 59% college and 28,2% university education) on the infrastructure appropriateness. It is also important to mention that those who live in Durres from over a decade report higher unconditional disagreement and disagreement rates (respectively 72,8% and 79,5%) compared to their peers living from up to a decade (respectively 27,3% and 20,5%).

2.3 *Perceptions on being welcomed and treated equally by teachers*

Overall we observed variations with regard to parent perceptions on being welcomed and treated equally by teachers. Is striking that all those who don't feel absolutely welcomed by teachers are mothers, employed, have daughters, children in the second year of college or college education, and live in Durres city from over a decade. Of those who confirm that don't feel welcomed the share is 1,5 times higher in the case of parents with sons versus with daughters, in contrast is 1,5 times minor the share of parents with children in the first versus the third year of college. We evidenced differences between the rates of mothers (60%) and fathers (40%) who negate that teachers welcome them. The rate of those who disagree that feel welcomed is four times advanced in the case of parents with college versus those with university education. From those who said that categorically don't feel welcomed are all employed parents and parents which live in Durres from over a decade. The rates of those who perceive that aren't welcomed by teachers are identical with regard to parent's employment (60% unemployed versus 40% employed) and years of living in Durres city (60% live from up to a decade versus 40% live from over a decade).

For encouraging mutual communication is important to discover if teachers communicate with all parents despite their background. The findings reveal that despite child's grade level disagree that teachers communicate with all parent very similar rates of parents, while is twice higher the share of parents with college education (66,7%) compared to their peers with university education (33,3%). It is also important to note that from those who report that teachers don't communicate with all parents, the rate of respondents increases with the increase of child's grade (16,7% in the first, 38,9% in the second and 44,4% in the third year of college), while shifts with the increase of parent education (16,7% with secondary, 61,1% with college and 22,2% with university). An overwhelming majority of parents with sons feel more experienced and confident to absolutely disagree that teachers communicate with all parents, but when it comes to disagree dominate parents with daughters. The employed parents report absolute disagreement rates which are twice higher, than those of the unemployed peers. About 66,7% of the unemployed, 27,8% of the unemployed and 5,6% of the retired peers told that teachers don't communicate with all parents. Is inferior the rate of respondents which strongly negate to have created equal communication in the case they live in Durres city from up to a decade (33,3%), comparing to their peers who live from over decade (66,6%), while the values are more extreme in the case when they disagree (16,7% for those who live from up to a decade and 83,9% for those who live from over decade in Durres).

2.4 *Perceptions on the updated and communication openness*

The parents who deny that teachers have informed them on the progress and behaviour of their child are divided in two equal shares between the respondents with children in the first and third year of college. All the parents with the child in

the first year of college agree that the info provided from the teachers cannot be understood from them is unbelievable and unclear. Less parents confirm this in upper classes (66,7%, 40% and 50% in the second year, while 33,3%, 60% and 50% in the third year of college).

No significant variance is found between the rates of mothers and fathers which intensely negate to openly communicate with the teacher, while are extreme for those who refuse to have communicated openly (respectively 81,8% for female and 18,2% for male parents). Notwithstanding the disagreement degree, the proportions of parents with female students overcome those of male peers. From respondents who affirm that don't speak openly with teachers, 45,5% have a child in the third year of college, whereas the remaining is divided in two equal shares (27,3% each) between those with children following the first and second year of college. When it comes to parents who perceive that teachers are categorically reserved in communication, the share of parents with children in the third year of college is three times higher versus those with children in the first year. Despite the disagreement degree, the reported proportions are higher for the parents with college education, followed respectively by their peers with university and secondary graduation. From those who absolutely negate that communicate openly with teachers are divided in two equal shares between the employed and unemployed respondents. While the frequency of those who are reserved in communication is much higher in the case of those who are employed (81,8%) than the unemployed peers (18,2%). Is surprising that over 75% of the parents which report that have absolutely failed in establishing open communication with the teacher are living in Durres from over a decade. The rate is even higher in the case of those who have failed to build an open communication with teachers (81,9%).

2.5 Perceptions on the consideration of parent's engagements, views and prospects

The composite score indicates that from those who strongly disagree that teachers consider their engagements in the family or work about 50% are respondents of children in third year, 37,5% in the first and 12,5% in the second year of college. We observed that the rate of those who report disagreement on this issue, increases with the increase of child's grade (12,5% are parents of children in the second year of college 40% in the second and 44% in third year). The highest rates of those who strongly negate or negate that teachers consider their schedules were found in the case of girls' parents (respectively 62,5% and 72%). According to the responses, mothers report higher rates of negative perspectives (75% and 68%) paralleling to fathers (25% and 32%). With regard to education the rates are of parents who report that definitely disagree that their agendas are considered, is higher in the case of parents which have college education (62,5%) comparing to their peers with university (25%) and secondary (12,5%) education. In the case of those who disagree on this issue, there are no differences between the parents with college and university (44% each), while their peers with secondary education don't overcome the value of 12%. There are shifts in the rate of parents who perceive that the teachers don't consider their schedules (36% unemployed, 60 employed and 4% retired) and those who definitively don't consider (62% unemployed and 37,5% employed parents). Teachers are considered absolutely insensitive towards parents schedules for 37,5% of the respondents which live in Durres from up to a decade and 62,5% of those who live in this city from over decade. Those figures are more balanced compared to their peers who simply disagree on this topic (12% and 88%).

Is twice higher the rate of parents with secondary education who categorically disagree teachers consider the views and prospects of parents (66,7%) compared to those with university education (33,3%). The rate of parents with secondary education who don't agree that teachers consider their thoughts and expectations is 14,3%, this is twice minor than the rate reported by their the peers with university (28,6%) and for times lower than the share of those with college (66,7%).

Mothers declare higher rates of categorical disagreement and disagreement (respectively 73,3% and 68,6%) than fathers (26,7% and 31,4%). Considering the variances of the responses with regard to respondents employment, the values are less spread in the case of those who absolutely reject (73,3% employed and 26,7% unemployed) than in the case of those who reject (60% employed and 36% unemployed) that teachers mirror parents thoughts and expectations. Notwithstanding the disagreement degree, the parents with daughters seem to be the most critical with regard to consideration of parent's thoughts and expectations. From those who express that absolutely disagree that teachers reflect parents thoughts and expectations the reported rates are similar for parents with children in first and second year of college (40% each) and is split in the case of those with children in the third year (20%). Similar results are obtained even in the case of parents who disagree that teachers have valued their thoughts and expectations (20% of the parents with children in the first, 40% in the second and 40% third year of college). Three to four participants who live in Durres from over decade perceive that teachers absolutely don't consider parents thoughts and expectations

during the communication, while about five to six participants in the study who live from over a decade in this city disagrees that teachers consider them.

3. Discussion

Traditionally teachers are conceived as responsible for teaching academic skills (in school setting), while parents for educating children with moral principles (in the home). This mentality can stimulate a low interaction of parents with the educational system in general and teachers in particular especially in the first years of college. In specific context settings the remoteness from school and the inadequate school environment conditions and can hamper the mutual communication between parents and teachers. Family and work responsibilities or constraints, and perceived gender roles, influence on parents' initiative to communicate with a teacher. Especially if are affected by migration, a decrease in the income, a divorce or death in the family parents can be more distant. Even though nowadays the Albanian legislation demands frequent info sharing, both parents and teacher's values can generate confusion. The restricted resources, interlinked with the low capacities can influence on the frequency and communication modes used. Especially parents with low education can face difficulties for understanding teachers messages, or can nurture the belief that what they communicate is irrelevant, unappreciated and will be opinionated. The difficult personality types and physiological conditions can also impede creation of continuous and effective interactions. The above is reflected in previous studies including: Duncan, 1992; Lewis, 1992; Wanat, 1992; LaBahn, J. 1995; Dixon, 1992; Brink, C, 1993; Vandergrift, J, 1992; Brito, J. 1994; Fryer, L., 2011. Gollnick, D..M 2002; Hislop.H., 2010; Keith, T 1998; Kratochwill, T. R. 2004; Levy, J. 1997; McNergney, R.F 2001; Twitty, J.R. 2002; Bushi, B. 2011 etc.

The findings presented in this paper, are locality and time sensitive and a modest approach to the issue of parent-teacher communication. It is certainly necessary to attempt to use systematic research and more comprehensive samples in both urban and rural areas to ensure representativeness of results. Notwithstanding the limitations it is our hope that this work might serve as a small step on the long road towards building quality education via dimensioning the communication in a democratic way. We hope that the findings of this research will act as a drive for reflection on parent-teacher communication practices for optimising adolescent students learning and development.

4. Recommendations

The parent-teacher dimensioning of communication should be seen as a holistic development approach, not as an absurd domino game which participants are forced to play in specific moments of the education. In this regard, the democratization can ensure adequate plasticity for interconnection. The improvement of policies and procedures should go along with the provision of adequate financial resources and time-devotion from main actors. With all parents despite the background should be established on time, constructive and regular two-way communication (during and after school). Considering parents' engagements and resources, in addition to traditional forms of communication (such as parents' conferences, individual meetings and information letters), can be considered the feasibility for use of e-mails, phone lines, student journals, school manuals etc. The personal growth, peer support and creation of friendly environments can generate strategic impulses. The communication practices should be creatively revised at least every school year, and adapted based on parents and teachers inputs.

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Variability of Pause Patterns in English Read Speech of Thai EFL Learners

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Abstract

Research suggests that pauses are essential in oral communication in that they render intelligibility and contribute to the improvement of speech comprehension. Unfortunately, the teaching of correct pausing has received little attention in EFL classes. As a result, many Thai learners of English tend to use inappropriate phrasing and pausing, which makes their speech sound unnatural or even hinders communication. This study investigates pause patterns in read speech of two English proficiency levels of Thai learners in comparison with those produced by native English speakers. The opening section provides a brief background of the study and terminology related to pauses in spoken language and research objectives. The second section describes the research design. The results of the study presented in the third section reveal that native speakers paused exclusively at sentence ends. Additional pauses were made at major syntactic boundaries. Inter-speaker variability existed at minor syntactic boundaries. Among Thai learners, the lower proficiency group paused more frequently and produced shorter and improper lengths of information chunks than the higher proficiency group, who read in longer, but more syntactically- and semantically-unified, units and therefore paused less. The findings support previous studies that pause is, to a large extent, affected by syntactic structures. Since correct use of pauses can make a marked improvement of intelligibility in speech production, the pedagogical implication offered from the findings is to support the importance of introducing read-aloud tasks in EFL classes.

1. Introduction

1.1 Research Background

Human speech communication contains both sounds and silence (pause). Pauses normally occur either in read or spontaneous speech in all languages. Generally, pauses of various lengths can occur at the end of the statement or between grammatical units within sentences. The functions of a pause may differ in several respects. Pauses are constrained by physiological and cognitive factors. In speech production, pauses are necessary for a speaker to regain his breath and make time available for the cognitive processes of speech planning. With respect to linguistic functions, speakers or readers can use pauses to segment an utterance into smaller stretches. Effective speakers use appropriate pauses to draw the hearer's attention to meaningful chunks of information they would like to convey. Zellner (1994) argued that pauses are essential in rendering communication intelligibility and also contribute a great deal to the improvement of the learner's speech comprehension.

From the experience of the author in teaching English courses to Thai undergraduate students in Thailand, it has been found that the problems of the students' oral production are mainly at the supra-segmental level (or prosody), which also include the use of pause. Many Thai learners tend to use inappropriate pausing. Several empirical studies of pauses produced by non-native English speakers (e.g. Riazantseva, 2001; Bada, 2006; Bada & Genc, 2008) revealed that their pause patterns were different from those observed among native English speakers. Consequently, this study was conducted to investigate the pause patterns of Thai learners of English and to compare the results with baseline data on native English speakers. Furthermore, this study also aims to highlight the importance of the teaching of read-aloud tasks in EFL classes in order to enhance the learner's ability to recognize relationships between structural parts of a sentence and to read language using appropriate pausing.

1.2 Pause, Sense Group and Syntactic Structure

The occurrence of pause is constrained by a number of factors. Numerous studies (e.g. Zvonik, 2004; Krivokapi, 2008) have been conducted in order to identify the factors that may affect the positions of pause. Beside physiological

constraints such as articulation rate and respiratory capacity of each speaker, one of the circumstances that may motivate speakers to break up a sentence into smaller stretches is the syntactic component. Sentences can normally be divided into smaller units that are grammatically and semantically related with each other. These units are called 'sense groups'. In speech, the clue to identify a sense group is the pause that occurs before and after it. In principle, no pause appears within a sense group; in other words, a sense group is usually not to be interrupted within a group. If sense group boundaries are marked inappropriately by non-native speakers (NNS), the result is difficulty on the part of the listener to follow the thread of speech (Wennerstrom, 1994). Taylor (1981) asserted that faulty division of sense groups is likely to cause uneven, jerky rhythm in speech. Additional research has shown that syntactic structure plays a role in boundary placement in sense groups and pause location (Selkirk, 1984; Truckenbrodt, 1999). Knowledge of constituent grammar or the ability to recognize relationships between structural parts of a sentence could play a part in the ability to read in appropriate sense groups.

1.3 Read Speech

Several studies (e.g. Keating & Shattuck-Hufnagel, 2002; Zvonik, 2004) report that pause patterns vary by speaking tasks and different genres of spoken language. For example, conversational speech, which is spontaneous in nature, differs in many respects from speech elicited under the constraint of reading a text aloud (often termed as *read speech*). A speaker speaking spontaneously is confronted by a great number of cognitive constraints, many of which concern the planning decisions such as deciding on a topic, selecting ways to present the topic, sorting out appropriate syntactic structures, selecting lexical items, and so on. Such planning problems result in hesitations, restarts and repetitions, which affect drastically on how boundaries and pauses are realized. As a result, many speakers may produce non-fluent speech which contains more frequent pauses than others.

Krivokapi (2008) maintained that factors determining pause patterns in read speech are fewer and can be more easily controlled than those in spontaneous speech. The reader performing a read-aloud task is not confronted by most of the planning decisions that a speaker speaking spontaneously is confronted with. Because a speaker is given the lexical items and the structure of the whole utterance in advance, "the speech mechanism is set up to make use of such information" (Keating & Shattuck-Hufnagel, 2002, p.131). The read-aloud task, thus, allows for control over the content of the reading text and the predictability of sense groups. Results from many studies (e.g. Grosjean et al, 1979; Zvonik, 2004; Krivokapi, 2008) indicated that pauses in read speech mainly coincide with syntactic structures and tend to occur at major syntactic boundaries. The process of reading aloud from text requires a division of sentences into syntactic units and the assignment of pauses between those units. Given that pauses in read speech are mainly, if not fully, influenced by syntactic structures, inter-speaker variability in pause patterns should be reduced. In other words, correct pausing should be much more well-defined in read speech than in spontaneous speech. This study, therefore, sought to examine pauses in read speech in relation to syntactic structures of sentences.

1.4 Research Objective

The objective of this study is two-fold:

1. To investigate the pause patterns in read speech of Thai EFL learners and to compare the results with baseline data on native English speakers;
2. To examine the extent to which the pause patterns of native English speakers and Thai EFL learners at high and low English proficiency levels exhibit relations to syntactic structures of English sentences.

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

The participants in the study consisted of 30 Thai EFL learners and 7 native English speakers. The Thai learners were undergraduate students in the English major program at Dhurakij Pundit University, located in Bangkok, Thailand. These students were selected and classified into 2 English proficiency groups, *high* and *low*, based on their relative English proficiency. The classification was based on their scores on an in-house test of English proficiency taken by 195 students (80 seniors and 115 freshmen). Following the test, 15 students with the highest scores and 15 students with the lowest scores were selected and placed into 2 groups: *NNS-H* and *NNS-L*, respectively. The native English speaker group

consisted of 7 English instructors at the university level in Thailand, representing NS controls. All participants in this study were not informed of the purpose of the experiment.

2.2 Instruments

This study utilized 2 instruments for data collection:

1. An Aesop fable, The North Wind and The Sun, transcribed by Dr. Lucinda Hart-Gonzalez and adapted for the purpose of this study;
2. The PRAAT sound analyzing software, version 5.1.15, for acoustic analysis of pause location and duration in individual recordings.

The Aesop fable used for the read-aloud task contained 119 words in total. Prior to the experiment, the text was analyzed by means of *Immediate Constituent (IC) Analysis* to divide sentences into successive layers and determine boundaries. Then the analyzed text was marked with the double slash (//) and the single slash (/) at predetermined strong and weak boundaries, respectively. Strong boundaries include inter-sentential boundaries, defined by punctuation such as a full stop, a semicolon and some cases of embedded clauses. Weak boundaries include most intra-sentential boundaries such as those between phrases. It should be noted that boundaries between phrases that contain a small number of words are, in most cases, less likely pause sites. Examples are those at the subject-predicate juncture when the subject is a pronoun or a simple noun phrase.

2.3 Data Collection

The data gathering process was conducted in a language laboratory. The participants were given a copy of the text and were instructed to read it silently with no time constraint to familiarize themselves with the vocabulary and structure. The purpose was to keep information load to the minimum. After the familiarization period, the participants started recording their speech read-aloud at normal speaking rate.

2.4 Data Analysis

The analysis was conducted in three stages:

1. Each recording was listened to by 3 listeners in order to identify pause locations. The symbol (/) was marked on a printed transcript where a pause was heard.
2. To support the auditory analysis, the PRAAT sound analyzing software was used to automatically detect pause locations and measure the duration of all the pauses. At the locations where inconsistencies existed among the 3 listeners in the analysis in stage 1, the PRAAT program was conducted manually to verify the results. In this study, pauses of 200 milliseconds (ms) were considered the threshold for data analysis.
3. Following stages 1 and 2, statistical analysis was performed, using descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA and the Scheffe's method.

3. Results

3.1 Number of PDU

To give an overall picture of the pause patterns, all chunks between pauses (termed as 'pause-defined units' or PDU in Luksaneeyanawin, 1988) were counted per participant and calculated for mean values and standard deviation as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Number of PDU by group

Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	\bar{x}	Std.
NS (n=7)	14	16	16	23	16	20	16									17.29	3.094
NNS-H (n=15)	24	25	24	19	24	21	22	27	22	16	19	32	23	22	27	23.13	3.852
NNS-L (n=15)	31	34	37	26	19	47	32	37	19	26	38	19	33	42	20	30.67	8.918

From Table 1, it can be observed that the number of PDU varied among the participants. The native speakers divided the 119-word text into 17.29 PDUs in average, whereas Thai learners in the high group produced 23.13 PDUs in average, and the low group read the text in 30.67 PDUs. This means that lower proficiency level learners paused more frequently than those with higher English proficiency. The statistical testing results showed significant difference in the number of PDU between the NS group and the NNS-L group, as well as between the two groups of Thai learners. The performance between the NS group and the NNS-H group did not differ significantly, as shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Comparisons of the Mean Values of PDUs across Groups

Group	Mean Diff	Std.	Sig.
NS vs. NNS-H	5.85	2.915	.149
NS vs. NNS-L	13.38*	2.915	.000
NNS-H vs. NNS-L	7.53*	2.325	.010

*p < .05

3.2 Size of PDU

The size of PDU (or the number of words per pause) was calculated as the proportion of words in total divided by the number of PDU per participant as displayed in Table 1, and then averaged to obtain the mean value for each sample group.

Table 3: Size of PDU by group

Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	\bar{x}	Std.
NS (n=7)	8.5	7.4	7.4	5.2	7.4	5.9	7.4									7.05	1.113
NNS-H (n=15)	4.9	4.8	4.9	6.3	4.9	5.7	5.4	4.4	5.4	7.4	6.3	3.7	5.2	5.4	4.4	5.28	.900
NNS-L (n=15)	3.8	3.5	3.2	4.6	6.3	2.5	3.7	3.2	6.3	4.6	3.1	6.3	3.6	2.8	5.9	4.23	1.337

With respect to the size of PDU, the analysis in Table 3 revealed that participants in the NS group read the text at the average of 7.05 words per PDU, whereas the NNS-H and NNS-L groups read the text at the average of 5.28 and 4.23 words per pause, respectively. This suggests that the high group had the ability to produce bigger or longer chunks of information and their PDU size was closer to that of the NS group than those with the lower proficiency level. However, statistical testing results revealed, as shown in Table 4, that the performance between the high group and the native speakers differed significantly. Significant difference was also observed between the NS and NNS-L group, but not between the 2 groups of Thai learners.

Table 4: Comparisons of the Mean Values of PDU Size across Groups

Group	Mean Diff	Std.	Sig.
NS vs. NNS-H	1.77*	.519	.007
NS vs. NNS-L	2.82*	.519	.000
NNS-H vs. NNS-L	1.05	.414	.054

*p < .05

3.3 Number of PDU and Size of PDU at the Sentence Level

A more in-depth analysis was further conducted to examine the number of PDU and size of PDU at the sentence level. Table 5 below shows the average number of PDU at the sentence level by group and Table 6 displays PDU size in average. The numbers in parentheses in the first column indicate the number of words in each sentence.

Table 5: Number of PDU by Sentence

Sentence	\bar{x} Number of PDU			Sig.	Scheffe's Method
	NS (1)	NNS-H (2)	NNS-L (3)		
Title (6 w)	1.29	1.13	1.07	.396	-
S1 (26 w)	2.71	4.80	6.40	.001*	(1) < (3)
S2 (22 w)	3.14	3.67	5.27	.006*	(1) < (3), (2) < (3)
S3 (33 w)	5.14	6.73	9.53	.001*	(1) < (3), (2) < (3)
S4 (16 w)	2.29	3.67	4.27	.010*	(1) < (3)
S5(16 w)	2.71	3.13	4.13	.011*	(1) < (3)

*p < .05

Table 6: Size of PDU by Sentence

Sentence	\bar{x} Size of PDU			Sig.	Scheffe's Method
	NS (1)	NNS-H (2)	NNS-L (3)		
Title (6 w)	5.14	5.60	5.80	.396	-
S1 (26 w)	9.91	5.91	4.80	.000*	(1) > (2), (1) > (3)
S2 (22 w)	7.07	6.33	5.08	.050	-
S3 (33 w)	6.80	5.03	3.95	.000*	(1) > (2), (1) > (3)
S4 (16 w)	7.24	4.66	4.62	.007*	(1) > (2), (1) > (3)
S5(16 w)	6.28	5.28	4.44	.032*	(1) > (3)

*p < .05

As displayed in Table 5, it can be observed that the average numbers of PDU in all 5 sentences, except the title statement, were linear across the groups. The number was lowest in the NS group and highest in the low group. It should be noted that the title of a text, which typically contains a small number of words, is normally intended to capture the attention of the hearer. The use of pitch and pause when reading the title may vary depending on inter-speaker variability in rhetoric and stylistic preferences. In this study, however, most participants did not pause within the 6-word title. The result showed that only a few participants divided the title into 2 chunks. With regard to the number of PDU in the 5 sentences, one may observe that the performance between the NS group and the low group differed significantly in all 5 sentences. Between the NS group and the high group, the difference was not statistically significant. The results suggest that the number of pause produced by the high group appeared to be more native-like than that of the low group.

With respect to PDU size as demonstrated in Table 6, it was found that the average ratio of word per PDU linearly increased in relation to proficiency levels. Again, except for the title statement, the NS group processed information in bigger and longer chunks among all groups. Within the 2 Thai learner groups, participants in the high group read in longer units than those in the low group. A notable point observed from Table 6 is the average PDU in sentence 3. The results show that the low group divided this 33-word sentence into 3.95 words per pause, which appears to be the shortest chunk size among all the 5 sentences. This might suggest that the lower proficiency level learners had more difficulty processing information in the sentence that is relatively longer and more complex than the remaining 4 sentences. (Refer to the data on pause locations of the low group in Section 3.4)

In terms of PDU size, statistical testing results revealed significant difference between the NS group and the low group in sentences 1, 3, 4 and 5. Between the NS group and the high group, significant difference was found in sentences 1, 3 and 4. Between the 2 groups of Thai learners, difference in PDU size shows no statistical significance.

3.4 Pause Location

As mentioned earlier, the placement of pause has been found to relate mainly to the syntactic structures of sentences. Thus, in examining pause location, it is necessary to predict the positions in which potential pause sites are likely to occur in the reading text. Accordingly, the text was initially analyzed and marked with the double slash (//) and single slash (/) at strong and weak boundaries as described in Section 2.2 above. The predicted pause sites were then used as the framework to analyze the participants' pause positions in order to identify the extent to which the high and low groups used grammatically appropriate pausing.

The data set below shows pause locations exhibited by each group of participants. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of participants producing pauses and the single slash (/) and double slash (//) indicate pauses predicted on the basis of syntactic structures. In the data set, there are 14 locations (i.e. 6 at sentence finals and 8 at major clause boundaries) predetermined to be strong boundaries and are marked with (/). Eighteen other locations, marked with (/) for weak boundaries between phrases, are potential but optional pause sites.

3.4.1 NS Group (n=7)

[Title] The North Wind (2)/ and The Sun (7)//

[S1] One day, (3)/ the North Wind and the Sun / were arguing / about which of them was stronger, (7)// when a traveler came along (2)/ wrapped up in an overcoat.(7)// [S2] They agreed (7)// that the one / who could make the traveler (1) take his coat off (7)// would be considered / stronger / than the other one. (7)//

[S3] Then (1)/ the North Wind (1)/ blew as hard as he could, (7)// but the harder he blew, (7)// the tighter (1)/ the traveler wrapped his coat around him; (7)// and at last (4)/ the North Wind (1)/gave up trying. (7)//

[S4] Then (1)/ the Sun began to shine hot, (7)// and right away / the traveler (1) took his coat off. (7)// [S5] And so (3)/ the North Wind (2)/ had to admit (7)// that the Sun was stronger / than he was. (7)//

3.4.2 NNS-H Group (n=15)

[Title] The North Wind (2)/ and The Sun (15)//

[S1] One day, (13)/ the North Wind (1) and the Sun (5)/ were arguing / about (8) which of them (2) was stronger, (15)// when a traveler came along (8)/ wrapped up (5) in an overcoat. (15)// [S2] They agreed // that (14) the one (1)/ who could make the traveler (2) take his coat off (15)// would be considered (6)/ stronger (2)/ than the other one. (15)//

[S3] Then (12)/ the North Wind / blew (1) as hard as he could, (15)// but (5) the harder he blew, (15)// the tighter (3)/ the traveler (1) wrapped (1) his coat (2) around him; (15)// and at last (15)/ the North Wind (1)/ gave up trying. (15)//

[S4] Then (10)/ the Sun began (1) to shine hot, (15)// and (1) right away (10)/ the traveler (3) took his coat off. (15)// [S5] And so (10)/ the North Wind (1) had to admit (2)// that (13) the Sun (2) was stronger (4)/ than he was. (15)//

3.4.3 NNS-L Group (n=15)

[Title] The North Wind (1)/ and The Sun (15)//

[S1] One day, (10)/ the North Wind (1) and the Sun (6)/ were (2) arguing (2)/ about (2) which (5) of (2) them (6) was (3) stronger, (15)// when (3) a traveler (5) came along / wrapped (7) up (9) in (2) an (1) overcoat. (15)// [S2] They (2) agreed (5)// that (5) the one (7)/ who (1) could (5) make (1) the (1) traveler (6) take (2) his (2) coat (3) off (8)// would (1) be (1) considered (9)/ stronger (2)/ than (3) the other one. (15)//

[S3] Then (2)/ the North (1) Wind / blew (6) as (3) hard (9) as (4) he (2) could, (15)// but (7) the harder (4) he blew, (15)// the (2) tighter (7)/ the (2) traveler (5) wrapped (10) his (3) coat (1) around him; (15)// and (2) at last (6)/ the North (2) Wind (4)/ gave (1) up trying. (15)//

[S4] Then (2)/ the Sun (4) began (3) to shine hot, (15)// and (1) right (1) away (5)/ the (1) traveler (6) took (4) his (5) coat (2) off. (15)// [S5] And (2) so (3)/ the North (2) Wind (5)/ had (6) to admit (9)// that (7) the Sun (2) was (1) stronger (7)/ than (2) he (1) was. (15)//

From the data set above, one may observe that all participants paused at sentence boundaries without exception. Variability existed in the occurrence of pauses within sentences. Among the NS controls, a uniform pattern of pause placement existed at all 14 boundaries judged as strong. Almost all cases of inconsistency occurred at weak boundaries between phrases. It is notable that 1 native reader paused at a place other than those predetermined to be boundaries between sense groups, i.e. at the subject-predicate (S-P) juncture: *the traveler + take* in sentence 2 and *the traveler + took* in sentence 4.

Within the high group, uniformity existed at 13 pause locations, 12 of which were in agreement with predetermined pauses at strong boundaries. It is worth noting that at 2 clause boundaries, i.e. junctures between the verb and the 'that-noun clause' (i.e. *they agree + that* in sentence 2 and *admit + that* in sentence 5), most NNS-H participants performed a pause pattern differently from that of native speakers. This *verb-noun clause* juncture is predicted to be grammatically appropriate for a pause because it is a point where a main clause and a subordinate clause join together. A pause should be placed before 'that' because the complementizer 'that' is considered an integral part of the subordinate clause in English and it should not be interrupted within the clause. One may observe that in these 2 environments, most participants in the high group made a pause after 'that' in both sentences; only 2 participants placed a pause before 'that'

in sentence 5. This phenomenon could presumably be hypothesized to arise from the transfer of a similar element or pattern in the learners' native language. The word *'that'* can be translated into *'waa'* in Thai. However, *'waa'* does not function as a complementizer as *'that'* does in English. In Thai grammar, *'waa'* is claimed to function as a particle attached to a verb in a Thai serial verb construction and can not be separated from the verb by a pause. Therefore, when saying a sentence with the *'waa'* noun clause, Thai speakers normally make a pause after the word *'waa'*. Likewise, in the Thai writing system in which words are normally written continuously without space except at the sentence and clause boundaries, the particle *'waa'* has to be attached to the verb; and a space is required to be placed after it. From the results of this study, the majority of participants in the high group paused after *'that'* in both sentences. It could thus be hypothesized that such a pattern is likely to be influenced by the transfer of learners' L1 to L2 English.

In the low group, a uniform pattern of pause placement was found at 11 locations: 6 at sentence boundaries and 5 at major clause boundaries. A large number of pauses occurred at locations which were syntactically less likely pause sites, many of which appeared to violate phrase structure rules. Those environments included:

1. Within a verb phrase
2. Between an adjective and the noun it modified
3. Between a noun and its determiner
4. Between a preposition and its object
5. Between a verb and its direct object
6. Between a copula verb and a complement
7. Between a simple subject and a verb
8. Before a prepositional phrase
9. After the conjunction

Another notable point was observed in the use of pause in the low group at the *'that-noun clause'* juncture. The data indicate a different pattern from that of the high group. In the low group, pauses occurred both preceding and following *'that'* in both sentences. This suggests that the theory of L1 transfer may not be used to explicate the pattern of learners with lower English proficiency. One possible explanation for this phenomenon could be attributed to the learners' limited syntactic knowledge, which may have caused them to be unaware of the syntactic similarities and differences between the two languages. As supported by the data, learners in the low group made numerous grammatically inappropriate pauses.

Comparatively, the findings indicate that participants with lower English proficiency paused substantially more frequently, and thus produced shorter size of PDU, than the higher-proficiency learners. In addition, the pause patterns of the low group were more varied; many pauses were found at locations which did not correlate with English syntactic units. This suggests that with insufficient knowledge of the syntactic and semantic ties between words and phrases, learners will face with difficulty using appropriate phrasing and pausing.

4. Summary and Discussion

The experiment using a reading-aloud task was conducted in order to investigate the pause patterns in read speech of Thai EFL learners in contrast with those of native English speakers. Additionally the experiment served to examine the extent to which the pause patterns of native English speakers and Thai learners at *high* and *low* English proficiency levels exhibit relations to syntactic structures of English sentences.

Considering the number of pauses and PDU size, the results reveal that learners with lower English proficiency read the 119-word text in more number of chunks than the higher proficiency learners, and consequently, their chunks of information (PDU) contained a smaller number of words. Native speakers, on the other hand, divided the text into longer PDUs and therefore paused less than the 2 groups of Thai learners. With respect to the number of pauses, statistical testing results showed that the performance between the NS and the high group did not differ significantly. However, in terms of PDU size, statistical testing showed that the performance of the NS group differed significantly from the performance of both the high and low groups. This probably suggests that the ability to process language in proper length of chunks could be claimed to be achieved at a more advanced level of language proficiency.

In examining pause patterns at the sentence level, the findings show that, between the NS group and the low group, the difference in number of pauses was significant in all 5 sentences except for the title statement, but the difference in performance between the NS and the high groups showed no statistical significance. With respect to PDU size, significant difference between the NS and the low groups existed in 4 sentences; whereas between the NS and the high groups, significant difference was found in 3 sentences.

In the investigation of pause locations, it was found that all NS participants paused uniformly at the 14 positions that had been predetermined to be strong boundary pause sites. Almost all cases of inconsistency occurred at weak boundaries between phrases. The results of pause position among the native readers support earlier studies which stated that pause positions mainly correlate with syntactic structures, particularly at major syntactic edges. Among the learners in the high group, the findings indicate that most pauses occurred between major syntactic boundaries—such as sentences and clauses—and were in agreement with predicted pause sites. Additional pauses were made between phrases at predicted weaker boundaries. Pauses made at grammatically inappropriate pause locations were substantially fewer in number than those made by the low group. As can be seen, learners in the low group made grammatically appropriate pauses mainly at sentence boundaries and major clause boundaries, which were signaled by punctuation. Several other pauses found in the data of the low group occurred between words or within the syntactically related groups of words that should not be interrupted by a pause. Thus, it can be summarized that learners with higher English proficiency seem to have more syntactic related pauses between sentences, clauses and phrases, while lower proficiency learners tend to make numerous pauses at word boundaries probably because they had limited knowledge with regard to the relationships between structural parts of sentences.

One point that should be noted is the learners' placement of pause in the *'that-noun clause'* structure. The results reveal that learners in the high group paused differently from the native speaker norm. Instead of pausing in front of the noun clause complementizer *'that'* in the same way native speakers did, most participants paused between *'that'* and the clause that follows it. This phenomenon is hypothesized to result from the transfer of learners' L1 to L2 English. However, learners in the low group paused differently. Their pauses occurred both preceding and following *'that'*. It could be assumed that the pattern in the low group could result from their limited knowledge of syntactic structures as discussed earlier.

In summary, with respect to the first objective of the study, the results indicate that learners with higher English proficiency produced pause patterns that were more native-like than lower proficiency learners, and that processing information in proper chunk size was quite problematic. In relation to the second objective, it was found that learners in the low group produced less syntactic related pauses than those in the high group, suggesting that acquisition of syntactic knowledge may be achieved at a later stage of second language development. With increasing proficiency, learners tended to become more aware of syntactic and semantic ties between words and phrases. As a result, their pause patterns exhibited more similarities to the NS norm in terms of relations to syntactic structures of sentences.

5. Implications

This study addressed the problems in using appropriate pausing among Thai learners in EFL contexts. The findings of this study offer some pedagogical implications. First, teachers should attempt to show their students that pause plays an essential role in oral communication. Second, the teacher's goal should also be to help students place pauses properly. It is hoped that the findings will shed some lights into the teaching of proper models of pause by integrating reading aloud as part of the EFL teaching/learning processes.

6. Recommendations

Based on the main findings of the study, the following recommendations are made for further research.

Firstly, the participants in this study were not asked to state the reason why they paused at particular locations. Therefore, it limits one's ability to explicate the patterns of their performance or provide a thorough account of what processes are involved when the participants pause. For a more in-depth analysis of the processes involved in phrasing and pausing, further research is recommended that investigates the reason why participants pause at each location whether by think-aloud protocols or retrospective interviews.

Secondly, the analyses in this study have provided an overview of pause patterns of 2 levels of Thai learners. Continued research can be conducted to qualitatively examine the characteristics of information chunks produced by Thai learners at varying developmental stages in greater detail.

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La Dimension Interculturelle d'Un Cours En Ligne De Français Aux Objectifs Universitaires

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Résumé

On s'interroge beaucoup sur les façons d'enseigner la culture, l'interculturel, en classe de FLE mais assez peu finalement sur la façon dont la culture influence les façons d'enseigner. Le Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues nous parle de compétences interculturelles très abstraites et enfermées dans des grilles quelquefois étrangères aux pratiques professionnelles. Une observation rigoureuse des façons d'enseigner dans différentes cultures et dans différents contextes, avec une méthode et un protocole spécifiques (des audio et vidéos de classe, jeu de rôle, simulation, analyse du discours) peut aider à se défaire de nos certitudes sur les bonnes façons d'enseigner ou d'apprendre.

Mots clés: *La démarche interculturelle, stéréotypes des cultures, dialogue interculturel, négociation interculturelle.*

La démarche interculturelle se propose de déconstruire certaines images excessivement stéréotypées des cultures pour découvrir leur complexité et pour établir un véritable dialogue interculturel à travers la prise de conscience de ses propres cadres de référence, la capacité d'assumer le point de vue de l'autre et le développement de compétences liées à la négociation interculturelle.

Ce type de démarche vise la capacité de décentration de l'apprenant, qui renvoie à la capacité de rejeter les préjugés, d'abandonner, pour un moment, sa propre vision du monde pour assumer celles d'autres cultures et apprendre d'autres manières de sentir, d'appréhender la réalité, de penser et d'agir. A travers la connaissance plus approfondie d'autres cultures, se développent des attitudes et des dispositions d'ouverture interculturelle ainsi que des savoir-faire en lien avec les dimensions culturelles.

Actuellement, on s'accorde à dire que l'on ne peut séparer langue et culture. L'apprentissage de la culture doit donc être intégré dans l'apprentissage de la langue, et dépasser le niveau de « civilisation », pour aborder des éléments plus profonds tels les systèmes de valeurs ou de croyances, et la vision du monde. Si la langue influence la manière dont nous nous comportons et percevons les choses, la culture est aussi inhérente à la langue même, à sa structure, à son vocabulaire, ses expressions, et peut être enseignée en même temps que la langue. Selon Lambert (1972), l'acquisition d'une langue peut être considérée comme une série de barrières à franchir, avec la langue et la culture comme barrières principales. La culture semble être une barrière plus résistante et plus difficile à franchir. L'apprentissage culturel implique que l'apprenant assimile certains aspects d'une culture différente, aspects influençant la langue et le comportement.

A l'heure où la mondialisation se généralise, les frontières géographiques deviennent quasiment virtuelles c'est la diversité culturelle qui constitue, en quelque sorte, une autre frontière, plus subtile et plus fondamentale qui continue à persister. Parfois ignorée ou négligée, cette barrière culturelle nécessite une étude approfondie, pragmatique et théorique, étant donné le fait que, lors du processus de la formation, plus particulièrement celle universitaire, tout apprenant doit être placé dans un espace interculturel et orienté vers une formation dépassant la dimension monolingue d'une société concrète. Autrement dit, l'apprenant d'une langue étrangère et d'un domaine professionnel concret, réalisé dans sa langue maternelle et parallèlement dans une langue étrangère, peut être considéré comme un « intermédiaire culturel ».

1. Le rôle de l'interculturalité dans la formation universitaire actuelle

La notion d'interculturel ou d'interculturalité est largement exploitée dans les écrits des chercheurs contemporains. Une des définitions du terme nous informe que « L'interculturalité est l'ensemble des relations et interactions entre des

cultures différentes, générées par des rencontres ou des confrontations, qualifiées d'interculturelles. Impliquant des échanges réciproques, elle est fondée sur le dialogue, le respect mutuel et le souci de préserver l'identité culturelle de chacun. »

L'implication de l'interculturalité au niveau linguistique, philosophique, traductologique et sans doute à celui didactique, suscite toujours beaucoup de questions et nécessite des interventions, des solutions (encore plutôt partielles) et des explicitations signées par des spécialistes de différents domaines. Ces recherches ont l'intention de proposer des instruments capables à faciliter, à régler, à améliorer la communication et l'intercompréhension. Sans doute, le processus de recherche débouche sur des expériences souvent enrichissantes grâce aux informations acquises qui résultent du métissage interculturel. Ce résultat répond en même temps aux attentes éducationnelles et explique la motivation et la condition de l'attribution d'un espace prioritaire à l'interculturalité dans la formation universitaire, ciblée sur la professionnalisation dans un cadre socioculturel actualisé.

On a bien raison de considérer que l'interculturalité est conditionnée par nombreux facteurs venant soit de différentes perceptions de la culture, soit des obstacles de la langue, ou encore de l'absence de politiques gouvernementales, des hiérarchies sociales et économiques. La formation axée sur une approche interculturelle a le but de familiariser les apprenants avec la problématique des échanges réalisés dans un espace de contact des langues, des cultures, des mentalités.

Le discours économique et surtout celui de droit sont porteurs d'une dimension culturelle évidente qui se reflète non seulement dans les mots ou les termes propres à un système juridique ou économique, mais aussi dans la façon de les véhiculer. La qualité de l'intercommunication des sujets appartenant à des réalités socioculturelles différentes est alors étroitement conditionnée par le volume de connaissances interculturelles qui contribuent à l'éradication des obstacles y compris dans la communication professionnelle.

Pour surgir dans la limite du possible les frontières matérielles et culturelles existant entre les sociétés on fait actuellement recours à des instruments universels qui sont inclus aujourd'hui dans le circuit de la communication via l'Internet et qui offrent différentes plates-formes destinées au de partage de connaissances et de formation, d'information, d'échanges d'idées et de valeurs etc. L'émergence d'Internet a considérablement touché la formation universitaire, car le nombre des établissements proposant des cours en ligne est de plus en plus important et leur aire géographique est actuellement bien étendue et variée.

L'Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie investit solidement dans l'espace numérique et nombreux projets qui sont en déroulement ciblent des formations des enseignants venant de différents domaines en vue de l'utilisation des TIC pour des cours magistraux ou des travaux dirigées, mais aussi pour la recherche universitaire, pour les activités individuelles des étudiants, pour la formation continue etc. En plus, cet instrument assure un solide gain financier, car il s'agit des économies importantes sur le coût du matériel utilisé pour les éditions des supports papier. Mais le plus grand bénéfice revient sans doute aux destinataires de ces élaborations en ligne grâce au fait que les cours répondent aux attentes d'un public bien nombreux mais aussi très hétérogène qui fait preuve d'une prise de conscience juste et plus profonde des facilités issues de l'application des possibilités de l'informatique.

Les conditions de la communication virtuelle déterminent le respect de plusieurs facteurs parmi lesquels la spécificité socioculturelle ainsi que celle sectorielle ou disciplinaire. Les nouveaux acteurs-formateurs tentent d'organiser les chaînes adressés à un nouveau type d'acteurs-destinataires, en faisant recours aux maximum de possibilités offertes par l'Internet : les moteurs de recherche, les moteurs de blogs, le skype, les forums de discussions, les réseaux sociaux, les plates-formes utilisées pour des formations etc. Ce nouveau principe d'organisation de la communication pousse à la réorganisation du système proprement dit, supplantant de plus en plus celui traditionnel, hiérarchisé et en le remplaçant par un autre, technologique. Avec ça, le système devient plus ouvert, ayant un nombre augmenté d'acteurs connectés, qui sont anonymes, donc indépendants. En même temps, le système de communication et de formation virtuelle a le but de stimuler la mise en application des mécanismes d'auto-organisation des apprenants.

2. L'espace interculturel d'un cursus en ligne

Les priorités indubitables de l'Internet nous ont motivé de nous organiser pour la conception des cursus en ligne ayant le statut de sources supplémentaires dans la formation professionnelle encadré dans le parcours universitaire. Vu le caractère international de l'équipe des concepteurs, on a décidé d'introduire dans chaque unité du cursus un espace ou soit placée l'information valorisant la dimension intersociale et interculturelle des sujets abordés dans l'unité respective.

Les concepteurs du cours trouvent absolument nécessaire que les futurs spécialistes en droit et en économie possèdent des informations supplémentaires sur différents aspects de la vie professionnelle dans des pays européens,

ce qui contribuera à l'élargissement de leur horizon professionnel et encyclopédique. Dans ce but nous avons élaboré des fiches interculturelles par disciplines qui figurent à la fin des unités et dont la thématique prévoit des sujets qu'on a considéré prioritaires ou, au moins, intéressants pour les apprenants. Chaque espace contient des unités qui seront réunies sur le site universitaire et déclinées par disciplines et par thématiques.

3. L'approche interculturelle abordée par le biais des registres sociaux (le langage juridique)

La comparaison des systèmes du droit français et moldave permet certainement de se rendre compte qu'ils sont bien proches, étant donné le fait qu'ils se réunissent dans la même famille de droit romano-germanique. Aussi simple qu'il soit parfois de comprendre certaines collocations, comme par exemple casser un jugement, la situation est tout à fait différente pour des unités comme dresser une minute et la tâche de l'enseignant/apprenant s'avère plus difficile. Ainsi la combinaison dresser une minute est pratiquement introuvable dans la plupart des ouvrages terminographiques traitant le domaine du droit, alors le sens de cette expression peut se révéler peu évident pour un locuteur étranger.

Dans l'actualité mondiale de notre époque, les rapports interculturels sont envisagés sous différentes formes : des conflits, contrat, mariage etc. Et il est fréquent que cette perception soit étayée et encouragée par des expériences personnelles difficiles, vécues au contact des cultures différentes. Un exemple relevant représente l'organisation juridictionnelle française qui n'est pas couverte par une même réalité dans la République de Moldova. La justice en France est rendue par des tribunaux, qui selon le droit français est une juridiction formée d'un ou de plusieurs magistrats qui jugent ensemble, alors qu'en République de Moldova la justice est rendue par l'institution nommée instanță de judecată ou judecătoria, qui est une « Institution judiciaire ayant comme attribution de base de trancher (en première ou dernière instance) certaines causes prévues par la loi ».

Une autre réalité de la vie juridique française est constituée par l'acteur connu sous le nom de huissier – Officier ministériel ayant pour charge de constater des faits, de signifier les actes de procédure et de mettre à exécution les décisions de justice et les actes authentiques ayant force exécutoire. Dans le système du droit moldave, on trouve une activité et des attributions similaires, correspondant à celles de executor judecătoresc.

Le langage juridique ne s'utilise pas en exclusivité dans des situations officielles. Les cas ne sont pas rares où l'on enregistre des mélanges des registres fonctionnels dans les textes qui foisonnent dans le domaine juridique.

Beaucoup de notions juridiques ont un équivalent dans le langage familier, surtout qu'ils sont utilisés dans des blogs personnels ou autres documents du même type. Analysons un fragment qui le prouve parfaitement :

4. L'affaire à Suivre

4.1 Justice !

Nous y sommes, mon avocat a posé mon dossier au Conseil des Prud'hommes.... le 23 juin est la date de la déclaration de la guerre... Je déclenche pour de bon les hostilités.

La conciliation obligatoire est prévue au 24 juillet... mais je ne pense pas négocier, tout bien réfléchi, je ne suis pas à vendre et on m'a pris trop longtemps pour un débile... Je reprends du poil de la bête et j'ai le temps de me renseigner...

Pour la cerise sur le gâteau, il ne faut pas se tromper... prendre un peu de sou tout de suite et être imposé sur les sommes ou attendre des mois les délibérés d'un tribunal et être exonéré....

car Le fisc admet aussi l'exonération des dommages-intérêts alloués par les tribunaux en cas de licenciement sans cause réelle et sérieuse, de licenciement abusif ou d'inobservation de la procédure de licenciement... là est la question... Suis-je à brader ? ou pas ???

Le principal maintenant n'est pas là... on m'a suffisamment dénigré et maintenant, on essaye de négocier, les dirigeants auraient-ils des doutes sur leur décision, leur comportement sûrement pas, malheureusement ils ont poursuivi et d'autres sont sur la sellette, mais il faudra qu'ils rendent des comptes... et en ont-ils les moyens ???

Je veux qu'on reconnaisse que j'ai été floué, et que JUSTICE me soit rendue.

(Source : <http://www.easydroit.fr/> consulté le 30 mars 2013)

Nous avons placé dans un tableau quelques expressions du registre familier en proposant leurs équivalents au niveau du langage standard et la traduction en roumain :

Niveau du langage standard	Niveau du langage familier	Traduction en roumain
<i>une amende</i>	<i>une prune</i>	<i>ștraf, gloabă (invechit)</i>
<i>être incarcéré</i>	<i>aller à l'ombre</i>	<i>a sta la răcoare</i>
<i>flagrant délit</i>	<i>Etre pris la main dans le sac</i>	<i>a fi prins cu mița-n sac</i>
<i>gardien de paix</i>	<i>Flic</i>	<i>copoi, sticlete</i>

Le respect de la dimension culturelle propre à chaque pays, vue dans toute sa diversité fonctionnelle, reste une condition sine qua non dans le processus d'enseignement/apprentissage du français de spécialité, y compris celui du droit ou de l'économie. Sa prise en compte est essentielle, car lorsqu'elle est mal gérée, les tensions et les frustrations qu'elle suscite peuvent conduire à l'intolérance, au repli identitaire ou communautaire, au racisme, ou plus généralement à ce qu'on appelle « l'ethnocentrisme ».

5. Conclusion

Les cours en ligne constituent des plates-formes qui catalysent la formation professionnelle et intellectuelle des apprenants. Ceux-ci sont placés dans un espace qui intègre tant les aspects essentiels de leur future profession que des situations promouvant la spécificité d'une communication qui se produit entre les acteurs venant d'une autre dimension culturelle et sociale, donc partageant des versions différentes du monde. Ces supports dotent les apprenants des outils métacommunicatifs qui pourront être mis en application dans les situations de communications professionnelle interculturelle.

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Self-Efficacy Theory and Beyond: Japanese College EFL Learners

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Abstract

The objectives of this study are twofold: (1) to examine if instruction focusing on sources of self-efficacy and meta-cognitive strategies can help Japanese EFL freshmen improve their English listening skills and enhance their self-efficacy with respect to their English listening skills; and (2) to investigate if the enhancement of self-efficacy level can lead to autonomous learning. The results of our study indicate that self-efficacy beliefs about our subjects' English listening skills and their actual listening skills are significantly related; however, Japanese college freshmen need to establish concrete and specific English study reasons in order for their self-efficacy beliefs to assist in autonomous learning.

Keywords: self-efficacy, English study reasons

1. Introduction

The affective domain such as self-esteem (Malinowski, 1923, cited in Brown, 2007), anxiety (Horwitz, 2001; Oxford, 1999; Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001), motivation (Dornyei, 2005; Dornyei & Skehan, 2003; Gradner & Lambert, 1972), and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Pajares, 2000; Cotterall, 1999; Chen and Deborah, 2007, cited in Rahimi and Abedini, 2009) has been focused upon in the realm of ESL/EFL teaching to understand inter-learner variability in L2 acquisition.

Kormos and Csizer (2008), for instance, examined the model of the L2 motivational self-system as proposed by Dornyei (2005) and Csizer and Dornyei (2005). This model consists of (1) Ideal L2 Self, (2) Ought-to L2 Self, and (3) L2 Learning Experience. Kormos and Csizer (2008), based upon their findings, suggest that teachers, materials, and activities are instrumental in shaping attitudes to learning, which leads L2 learners to shape their Ideal L2 Self-images.

A questionnaire assessing Japanese EFL learners' concept of their Ideal L2 Self and motivated learning behavior based on Kormos and Csizer' (2008) study was thus formulated and administered to 55 college EFL students in Todaka's (2009) study. It was found that the participants consider themselves to be able to become competent L2 learners because they enjoy learning English, and because they understand utilitarian benefits associated with being able to speak English. However, they indicated that *they had experienced varying degrees of anxiety in L2 communication*, and that *they do not have confidence in their linguistic abilities*. Furthermore, they also indicated that *they did not consider themselves to be diligent language learners*.

Kikuchi and Sakai (2009) investigated the external forces that reduce Japanese high school students' motivation to study English, and they reported that (1) course books, (2) inadequate school facilities, (3) test scores, (4) non-communication methods, and (5) teachers' competence and teaching styles were found to be demotivating factors for Japanese high school students. Among the factors extracted, they reported that non-communicative methods, which focus on grammar and preparation for college entrance examinations, had been perceived to be demotivating by many participants. As indicated, *there exists tremendous lack in their motivation and in their self-efficacy beliefs to carry out a task*. This is where self-efficacy theory comes in.

Self-efficacy theory describes that "people's beliefs in their capabilities to produce desired effects by their own actions" (Bandura, 1997, p. vii) are the most important to determine how people choose to engage in and how much efforts people make when faced with challenges (Maddux, 2002). Thus, Self-efficacy is not perceived skill nor simply predictions about behavior, and an intention to attain a particular goal because self-efficacy is what I believe I can do with my skills under certain conditions (Maddux, 2002). Since Bandura (1977) proposed self-efficacy theory, many articles in various fields such as psychology, sociology, kinesiology, and medicine have been published.

Bandura (1977) outlined the four sources of self-efficacy: (1) performance outcomes; (2) vicarious experiences; (3) verbal persuasion; and (4) physiological feedback. Performance outcomes denote that our positive or negative experiences can influence our ability to perform a given task. Vicarious experiences are referred to as the influence of

someone else's success or failure on one's high or low self-efficacy. Verbal persuasion means that our self-efficacy is affected by what others say to us about what they believe we can do or not. Finally, physiological feedback is described as comfortable physiological and emotional sensations that are likely to lead one to have high self-efficacy in a given situation.

Raofi et al (2013: 63-65) reviewed 32 articles published between 2003 and 2012 with regard to the effectiveness of self-efficacy theory in the ESL/EFL contexts, so that we describe the findings of the studies reviewed.

Among the 32 articles reviewed, they report that 12 articles examined the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and ESL/EFL performance based on either course grades (Mahyuddin et al., 2006; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2007; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008) or proficiency in reading (Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2007), listening (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Tilfarioglu & Cifici, 2011). They found that the findings of these studies indicated a positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance, which are in line with the findings in other research domains such as math and education in general (Dennisen et al., 2007; Multon et al., 1991; Pajares, 1996).

Furthermore, 7 articles were found that examine the relationship between self-efficacy and anxiety (Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Anyadubalu, 2010; Cubukcu, 2008) and the relationship between self-efficacy and attributions (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Graham, 2006). The findings of these studies indicate a significant negative relationship between one's self-efficacy level and ESL/EFL performance. In other words, students with high self-efficacy attribute their failure to effort, whereas low-level self-efficacy students attribute their failure to low ability.

Raofi et al (2013) also reports the findings of studies focusing on factors that influence the enhancement of self-efficacy beliefs, though the number of those studies are limited. Cakir and Alici (2009) find past successful experiences and social persuasions to be influential factors affecting learners' self-efficacy. Wang & Pape (2007) reported that the factors such as past experience, interest, attitudes toward English language, social persuasion, task difficulty, and social and cultural setting to be important for determining learners' self-efficacy level.

As shown above, many studies investigated relationships between self-efficacy level and performance, anxiety, attributions, and influential factors. However, Raofi et al (2013) indicates that all the studies except one examine short-term influences on self-efficacy, and that studies investigating long-term effects on self-study need to be conducted.

The objectives of the present study are therefore twofold: (1) to examine if instruction focusing on the sources of self-efficacy and meta-cognitive strategies can help Japanese EFL learners improve their English listening skill and enhance their self-efficacy with respect to their English listening skill; and (2) to investigate if the enhancement of self-efficacy level can lead to autonomous learning.

2. Methods

2.1 Subjects/study periods

101 students at Miyazaki Municipal University participated in our 2012 project. All the freshmen at Miyazaki Municipal University were divided into groups of 25 students in accordance with their EIKEN (Test in Practical English Proficiency) and EPEP (Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading) test results. Students whose scores were among the bottom 25 percent are considered introductory students while those among the top 25 percent are recognized as advanced students; the remaining 100 students are considered intermediate. The introductory students and advanced students were the participants of this research. In 2012, the number of students enrolled in the introductory CALL class was 48, while that in the advanced CALL class was 53. 12 sessions for this project were conducted once a week from April through July in 2012. Each session lasted 90 minutes.

2.2 Instruction

We focused on the four sources of self-efficacy that Bandura (1977) proposes. We made sure that each student could gain confidence by having him/her experience an achievement in each class period. In other words, various strategies were employed to ascertain that all the students could understand listening materials they studied in each class period so that the student could gain confidence in their capabilities for English listening skill. Furthermore, 3 teaching assistants, who were juniors at the same university, participated in class to function as role models for the participants. The instructor verbally persuaded each student in a positive way to believe in their capabilities and to engage in each listening activity. Finally, the instructor made sure to provide the participants with comfortable physiological and

emotional sensations to help them have high self-efficacy in class.

In addition, we gave lectures on the significance of meta-cognitive strategies (e.g., O'Malley et al., 1985a,b, cited in Brown, 2007), which help L2 learners raise their awareness of the learning process (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wenden, 2002, cited in Nakatani, 2005) and ideal L2 self-image since Bandura (1986) suggests that students need to be taught about the cognitive and be provided with tools necessary to learn. Therefore, various exercises specifically targeting the development of necessary English communicative skills were employed (Todaka, 2009), and advice on various learning strategies for individual student needs was given (Todaka, 2009). Since Backman and Palmer (1996) also propose the importance of goal-setting, assessment, and planning, we developed a self-assessment checklist (1) to help students fully comprehend what phonetic features they need to understand to improve their English communicative skills and (2) to provide students with concrete, pertinent study items so that students will be able to plan current and future English study in accordance to their checklists.

Lectures on important English segmental and suprasegmental features (e.g., Vance, 1987; Holmberg, E. B., Hillman, R. E., & Perkell, J. S., 1988; and Todaka, 1995) were also given, and shadowing assignments using DVD movies, and evaluation of progress, based upon the self-assessment checklist criteria, were provided.

2.3 Assessment Tools

Student improvements of English skills were evaluated utilizing the results of EIKEN (Test in Practical English Proficiency) and of TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication). The EIKEN was administered twice: (1) during the freshmen' orientation periods in April, 2012; and (2) during the final examination week in February in 2013. In addition, listening portions of two different TOEIC tests were administered during the onset and the outset of the spring semester in 2012. In addition, four¹ students (2 introductory and 2 advanced) were interviewed in April, 2013.

3. Results

First, the results of our checklist criteria were examined. 61 questions were asked of 101 students and they were told to respond to each question using 4-point Likert scale (4 equals strongly agree) indicating to what extent of agreement or disagreement with checklist criteria. Based upon the results, the scores of all the checklist criteria improved at a 99 percent confidence level, which in turn indicates a significant improvement in understanding of text materials.

Next, we examined the TOEIC test scores taken at the outset and at the end of the training sessions. 101 students (i.e., 48 introductory level students and 53 advanced students) took both the pre-and post TOEIC tests. Based upon an ANOVA analysis, the difference in scores between the pre-and the post TOEIC tests was found to be significant at the 95% confidence level for the introductory level students ($p < .011$, $F = 6.9$) and at the 99% confidence level ($p < .0001$, $F = 19.34$) for the advanced students.

Next, we examined student class evaluation sheets for both groups. Out of 6 questions, three questions were asked to examine their self-efficacy beliefs: (1) Do you now have confidence in your ability to improve your English listening skills?; (2) Do you think you have now understood appropriate ways to improve your English listening skills?; and (3) Do you think the teaching methods employed in this class help enhance your self-efficacy beliefs?.

With respect to the introductory level students, 46 students responded to the 6-point scale questionnaire. The mean obtained for each question was 5.48 for question (1), 5.61 for question (2), and 5.61 for question (3). The mean for each question in the case of the 53 advanced students was 5.64 for question (1), 5.84 for question (2), and 5.71 for question (3).

Next, we examined the listening section (30 questions) of the EIKEN tests taken during April in 2012 and January in 2013. 49 out of 53 advanced students took both tests, and non-significant result was found ($p < .96$, $F = .002$). 31 out of 48 introductory students took both tests, and non-significant result was also found ($p < .08$, $F = .06$). Thus, the students in both groups made significant improvements by the end of the spring semester, but during the academic year (i.e., from April, 2012 to January, 2013) as a whole, their listening scores did not improve or worsened.

4. Discussion

Our subjects' English listening skills show improvement during the experimental period (i.e., spring semester, 2012) and

¹ Twelve students were asked to participate in the interview sessions; however, only four students came to the sessions.

our students had high self-efficacy beliefs in their English listening skills at the end of the semester. Nonetheless, non-significant results were found in their listening skills assessed in January in 2013 when compared with their listening skills in April in 2012.

Bandura (1977:202) states that

...lasting changes in self-efficacy and behavior can best be achieved by participant methods using powerful induction procedures initially to develop capabilities, then removing external aids to verify personal efficacy, then finally using self-directed mastery to strengthen and generalize expectations of personal efficacy (p. 202).

To investigate the causes of non-significant improvements on their listening skills throughout the academic year, the interview sessions with four students (two introductory and two advanced students), who either improved or worsened their English listening scores during the first academic year, were conducted in April in 2013. Each student was asked about (1) English study background,(2) English experiences and self-efficacy, and (3) English learning environment, and each session lasted 20 minutes.

First, those two advanced students had high self-efficacy about their English listening skills, while the other two introductory level students did not like English and had low self-efficacy about their English listening skills when they were in high school. Thus, their listening test scores at the beginning of the spring semester reflect on their level of self-efficacy. In other words, the advanced students who had high self-efficacy scored much higher on the EIKEN and the TOEIC listening tests taken in April in 2012. However, the low self-efficacy introductory level students were able to have high self-efficacy about their English listening skills during the semester, which in turn improved their listening scores taken in July, 2012. Thus, the findings of the present study made at the end of the semester are in line with those of the previous studies, mentioned earlier.

However, one of the introductory students whose listening skill improved differed from the other introductory student whose listening scores worsened throughout the academic year in that she had had a specific reason to study English. In other words, even though both continued their English listening study during the fall semester in 2012, the student who improved her listening skills was able to sustain relatively high self-efficacy throughout the academic year because she had a concrete and specific reason why she wants to improve their English listening skill. On the other hand, the other student, who did not have a specific reason to study English, attributed her failure to uncontrollable factors such as learning environment.

With respect to the two advanced students, the student who improved her listening skills indeed had a concrete reason why she wants to improve her skills, whereas the other student did not. However, the advanced student who worsened his listening test scores mentioned that he would make effort to improve his listening skills during the sophomore year because he attributed his failure to lack of effort, and that he still has high self-efficacy

The above findings reconfirm the findings of the previous studies (i.e., Hsieh and Schallert, 2008; Hsieh and Kang, 2010 cited in Raofi et al, 2012) in that high self-efficacy learners attribute their failure to lack of effort while low self-efficacy learners attribute their failure to uncontrollable factors. However, it is important to note that the two students who improved their scores have a concrete and specific reason or objective of their English study when compared with the other two students. Self-efficacy beliefs are important as found in the previous studies because the advanced student who worsened his listening score still believes in his capabilities to improve his English skills. Nonetheless, it is hypothesized that the importance of concrete and specific study reasons have to be recognized by low self-efficacy Japanese college EFL freshmen to appreciate the positive effects of self-efficacy beliefs on their English listening skills. In addition, it takes more than a semester for most Japanese college freshmen to have high self-efficacy beliefs about their listening skills because of years of entrance examination oriented teaching in secondary school caused most Japanese college freshmen to dislike English, which in turn triggered low self-efficacy beliefs about their English skills.

It is important to establish learning goals and Ideal L2 Self, as mentioned earlier, however, it is extremely difficult for college freshmen to even think about their future selves, and most of them have lost their primary reason to study English, as their English study objective in high school was to pass college entrance examinations. Thus, it seems important to help Japanese college freshmen to *rethink* their specific reasons for English study along with developing high self-efficacy beliefs about their English listening skills. In other words, instructors need to help Japanese college freshmen establish specific reasons to study English, and then they help their students establish high self-efficacy beliefs about their English listening skills by focusing on the four sources of self-efficacy beliefs, which in turn helps students shape positive learning behavior. With positive learning behavior, instructors equip their students with necessary learning strategies and meta-cognitive skills so that students have a clear vision of how to improve their English skills until concrete ideal selves can be formed.

5. Conclusion and Limitations

The objectives of the present study were twofold: (1) to examine if instruction focusing on the sources of self-efficacy and meta-cognitive strategies can help Japanese EFL learners improve their English listening skills and enhance their self-efficacy with respect to their English listening skills; and (2) to investigate if the enhancement of self-efficacy level can lead to autonomous learning.

The results of our study during the experimental period confirm the findings of the previous studies, mentioned earlier. However, the results of our follow-up study indicate that our participants' English listening skills either stayed the same or worsened during the academic year in 2012. Our qualitative analysis with four participants highlights the significance of having concrete reasons for Japanese college freshmen in order for the positive effects of self-efficacy beliefs on their listening skills to last to be autonomous EFL learners.

There are, however, several limitations of the present study that need to be mentioned. First, self-efficacy questionnaires were not conducted at the beginning of the semester and at the end of January. Thus, it is still unknown as to how the participants' self-efficacy beliefs about listening skill have changed. Second, the number of participants interviewed is too small to understand the significance of objective setting for Japanese college EFL freshmen. Third, two different test results (i.e., EIKEN and TOEIC) were utilized to assess English listening improvements so that the exact nature of improvements cannot be accounted for. Nonetheless, we hope that the present study can serve as a foundation on which further studies of self-efficacy beliefs and Japanese college freshmen's English listening skills are based.

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Albanian Poetry after the '60 and Its Interrelations with Myth, History and Reality

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Abstract

The modern Albanian poetry, likewise the traditional Albanian poetry has been greatly affected by social and historical factors. In a major part, it acknowledges the historical facts, thus reverberating and eternalizing them in verses. In different stages of social processes, the excessive engagement on the poet's behalf has made possible the fact that the language of poetry does not distinguish from the political declarations. The frequent use of symbols that everyone is familiar with, has helped these poets to disengage from the straightforwardness of discourse. After the '60, a group of poets converted the artistic linguistic text from a historical fact into a mythic symbol. These poets introduced the myth in poetry and the symbol as a communication language, created a coherent symbol system, an enclosed cycle and their own symbolic system, with which the interpretive community was more or less familiar. Among them, someone like Ismail Kadare was not satisfied only with the creation of a symbolic system within poetry, thus unfolded and developed this poetic symbolic system in prose and in the meantime granted it with the attribute of universal dimension. The familiarization with their symbolic language, which initially had a simpler level of communication (due to the unknown symbols could not be identified and analyzed thoroughly), makes it already a superior level communicative language. In the '70, makes its entry one other type of language, which is defined by a modest level of communication. As a language mainly expanded in Kosovo, it introduced an odd phenomenon and had unpredictable success.

1. Introduction

The history, reality and myth are found in a continuous severe war among them, which is identified as a war between declaration and insinuation as well as between the literary myth and the historical fact. Jung asserts that: "Myth is very individual and expresses life in a more holistic manner than science, which operates with concepts of average and is far from the expressiveness of individual's life varieties"¹

Inasmuch as the myth is a framework which raises questions and give answers by posing the same question through the pattern " This is like this, isn't it" and which concurrently is considered as a perpetual contradiction of mimicry², the literature created from myth has induced in Albanian culture the imitative writing, thus overturning the kind of writing it creates.

For a long period of time, the Albanian literature should pay its dues, by transmuted it into an immense propagandistic authority of order and of the truism that characterizes it, in order to create a new independent one. Liberated from myth and transformed into a recorder of reality, of the crowd's motion and existing order, this type of literature has escaped far from its irrational and imaginative nature for a long time.

2. Albanian literature and myths

It is acknowledged, that the Albanian literature emanates with the book *Meshari* (Prayer Book), written by Gjon Buzuku, which indicates intelligibly that its beginning is closely related to the 16th century, particularly somewhere amid of this century. As a documented and well-investigated element, we may introduce the main significant authors of this literature like Buzuku, Matrënga, Budi, Bardhi and Bogdani and many others. Viewed from this perspective, the relation of literature with myth and mythology, likewise legends and legendary, viewed and handled also as an unavoidable pre-text, is that of the ethno-religious myth, even by indicating its own myth, which is tangible and presented as a triple act:

- Evidence of the written Albanian language, already with books.
- Historical evidence of the development of lexicography and historiography.
- Literary evidence through the poetry and prose creation of P. Budi and P. Bogdani.

¹ William Righter, *Myth and literature*, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London and Boston, 1975, pg 102.

² William Righter, *Myth and literature*, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London and Boston, 1975, pg 97.

M. Barleti, who has written in Latin language works concerning humanity, has also established in the meantime a literary and historic myth, based upon the historical figure of Gjergj Kastriot Skënderbeu (George Kastrioti Scanderbeg). Scanderbeg's myth is more obviously unfolded during the era of National Renaissance, of the literature that aimed the national revival, meanwhile in the Arbëresh literature the myth of "glorious year" is essential and focuses its attention on the figure of Gjergj Kastriot Skënderbeu, a thing which is also encountered in some poetic works of Jeronim de Rada, Gavril Dara i Riu (Gavril Dara Junior), Zef Serembe, Zef Skiroi, and many others. On the other hand, the myth of our national hero, that of Gjergj Kastriot Skënderbeu, as a universal and spatial myth, meets a particular way of expressiveness even in the literary work of other poets of National Renaissance, like Naim Frashëri, Andon Zako Çajupi, Ndre Mjeda and others. However, the myth of Scanderbeg, being undoubtedly the most expanded in time and space, is still ongoing and present in contemporary literature, beginning with the novels of Ismail Kadare, Sabri Godo, Kasëm Trebeshina, until that of Ben Blushi, thus converting it into a prevalent myth that is embraced by the literary creative work of Albanian writers. On the other side, due to Lasgush, Migjeni, Konica the Albanian literature had the ability to create and present new expressive ways and perspectives, with regard to thematic and literary structure, as well as in conception and literary enunciation, which was unique and independent. In the first part of the 20th century, there were many writers of Albanian literature, who re-functionalized the legend, tale and Albanian mythology; where the most predominant of this writing model are undoubtedly Mitrush Kuteli and Ernest Koliqi, the latter would write mainly on the basis of our mythology as well as of the Greek one. After the year 1945, the Albanian literature, based on the official model, followed the line of socialist realism. " *The myth's exploitation in our literature, has been considered by the official aesthetic and criticism of the communist dictatorship era, as something not only redundant but also intolerable, as far as a socialist society is under the leadership of objective rules of development, that have been discovered by Marxism. Nevertheless, regardless of many ironic and derogatory attitudes toward myths, it never hindered some pens, to activate successfully in the contemporary literature myths and mythological subjects.*"³ T.Caushi. Definitely here can be mentioned Ismail Kadare, where according to his concept, is undoubtedly one of the writers that has never hesitated to functionalize and represent in his literary works Albanian myths and legends, as well as myths and legends of other countries. Kadare, with the myth and legend, Albanian and foreign, in some occasions during the writing of long prose, always according to the scholar's viewpoint, mostly surpassed the borders of a segregated country of that time, thus transmitting universal messages, meanwhile beginning with well-known archetypes in the verbal creativity. Some of the well known myths were that of Scanderbeg and that of Arbër's resistance, precisely at the end of medieval era, as well as the myth of Albanian language (humanity religious literature). Meanwhile it was projected the myth of *Our World* and love, that led to the myth of *glorious year*, which prevalently reigned over the Arbëresh literature. To the same extent, was developed the myth of Western, which implied the detachment from the Ottoman Empire and the return in western European identity, the myth of survival and national resistance, or the myth of *another Albania*, a civilized contemporary literature and eligible to be compared to other developed European nations, as well as with the literary development itself. There is one other clear effort in the literature of socialist realism to create the myth of a *new man*, in the character's creation and conception, and this is a point worthy to discuss, but with regard to myth and mythology it was overthrown immediately after the falling of dictatorial system and that of the literary model of socialist realism. In this line stands also Sh. Sinani, who amid many things writes: "*With one foot on the ancient Albania, the verbal and legendary one, still under the Homeric shuddering, and the other foot on the most prominent and cunning modernity, Kadare is found in the amid of these two distinct worlds, and from this extraordinary situation his work creates a powerful and eminent harmony*"⁴. These lines are extracted from a writing of Dominique Fernandez. To the same extent, the mythic and legendary opus of Camaj, which acquires a particular value in poetic texts, like *Nema* (Nemesis), *Buelli* (Buffalo), *Palimpsest*, but as a nature of writing it also occupies a considerable space in the prose and novels of the author. In the writing of poetry, the presence of myth is exposed clearly, as it occurs in the volume *Legjenda* (Legend), which expresses obviously the connections with myth as a legend, but in his poetic writing one may find also occasions of the myth's presence since at the title, but its presence becomes more substantial throughout the integrity of the text, likewise in *Nema* (Nemesis), *Buelli* (Buffalo) and *Palimpsest*, which in addition reveal the myth of poetry in the eternal pursuance, as well as the poet's myth, which is culminated with that of poetic text as a writing and overwriting process, alongside with myths of classical nature, like the buffalo. The signs of intertwining prose writing with other domains of mythic and legendary, reach their climax in the novels *Karpa* (The Crag), *Rrathë* (Circles) and mainly in his masterpiece, *Dranja*, which aside from others, reformulates the literary genre, a challenge and substantial literary experiment, like no one else

³ T. Caushi, Fjalor i Estetikës, Ombra, GVG, Tiranë, 2005, pg. 297.

⁴ Sh. Sinani, "Mitologji në Eposin e Kreshnikëve", pg. 348

in Albanian literature, where poetry and prose are merged. Its sources, of literary and powerful presence and revelation, of the intertwining and mergence of the literary aspect with the mythic, mainly accompanied by a legendary nature, are displayed in the poetic volume, not coincidentally entitled *Legjenda* (Legend), which indicates obviously the relations and connections with the mythic and legendary world, and in the meantime the beginning of modern poetry cultivation on the poet's behalf.

3. Albanian poetry

The Albanian poetry has been displaced from the chains of reality and the history's hostage by Lasgush Poradeci, who presumes the mass toward the primary voice, likewise Eliot asserts, the poets talk to himself or to no one⁵. This genre of poetry, with a straightforward language, became the poster of political reality which had taken it away from myth. This language thrived for almost 50 years in Albania.

Kosovo's poets escaped from reality and rarely praised the existing order, but this runaway in the history kept the poets' language as a hostage. The poetry of this period is empathized with allegory; meanwhile allegory itself is the reflecting image of language's associative indigence. The text was guided clearly via allegory toward a single point, and regardless of the undesignated phenomenon due to the censorship, the focus of figurativeness around allegory yields the same output: a unique message and language.

Between the poetry of declaration that confronts the reality and the poetry of declaration that confronts history, poets like Ali Podrimja, Azem Shkreli, Rrahman Dedaj and others, have accomplished transference of language in the domains of literary myth and individual symbol, thus converting the literary art into a multidimensional and polysemic nature.

Kadare's myth which is related to faith, to the sublime power of the given word, to the irrational and sub rational connections by placing next to each other the world and individuals, philosophy and faith is the sort of literary myth which has allowed the reality to become a symbol.

Camaj's poetry is related to myth, not to the traditional but to the individual one, which the poet himself created over the relics of traditional myth. His poetry is symbolic and symbols themselves are individuals, in many cases constructed upon collective mythic original patterns of Albanian tradition.

The Albanian literature was established in a cultural environment that produced huge advantages in the literary creativity that echoed the reality and history. This literary output is sometimes characterized by straightforwardness and other time is allegoric. As a consequence, the linguistic and artistic expressiveness has uniformity as well as it is codified and overloaded with encyclopedic signs.

The poetry of '70, mainly expanded in Kosovo, represents an odd phenomenon of perceptiveness on the behalf of an interpretive community, who was not well prepared to communicate by means of such a language system. Kosovo's audience has perceived as patriotic poetry even those poetries that actually did not have that aim.

In parallel to this genre of poetry, is in ongoing process the poetry of a broader communication, written by Ndoc Gjtja, Ndoc Papeka, Xhevahir Spahiu, Agim Vinca and Moikom Zeqo.

Myths and symbols, that are an essential part of their language, are also the perpetual sustenance nowadays of the modern poetry around the world. The late Albanian poetry is a poetry that builds the new myth upon the old myth's relics.

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⁵William Righter, Myth and literature, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London and Boston, 1975, pg. 68.

Antonio Catiforo, Vita di Pietro and its Romanian Versions in the 18th Century

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Abstract

An interesting example of the way in which authors and translators got informed in the 18th century is represented by the book Vita di Pietro by Antonio Catiforo, printed in Venice in 1736. The author, of Greek origin, wrote his work in Italian and presented the life, activity and personality of the Russian Tsar Peter I the Great, mentioning in the foreword English, French and German sources. Cornaro's work, in two volumes (volume I, 4 parts and volume II, 2 parts), was almost immediately translated into Greek by Alexandros Kanghaiarios and published in 1737 in Venice as well. In 1749, volume I of the Greek version was translated into Romanian by the grand nobleman of Wallachia Matei Fărcășanu. His translation, not printed, was however known and circulated in several manuscript copies. The Greek version was entirely translated into Romanian in Moldavia by the clergyman Cozma Vlahul from the Iasi Metropolitanate. His work is preserved in manuscript copies. A special situation is represented by another manuscript version from Brasov (Transylvania), which includes volume I, while volume II (part 5), though it is mentioned to be part of the same work, is entirely different from Cornaro's work, including a compilation of Romanian chronicles and information regarding the situation of the Swedish and Russian troupes after the Russian-Swedish war. At the middle of the 18th century there was a Russian version of Cornaro's two volumes. Such presentation will illustrate the regime of the writings in the 18th century at European level.

1. Antonio Catiforo, Vita di Pietro e le sue Versioni Rumene dell'Ottocento

La rivoluzione intellettuale del Settecento stimolò l'investigazione della realtà e contemporaneamente gli intellettuali di tutta Europa parteciparono direttamente alla ricerca scientifica oppure cercarono di assimilarne i risultati, coscienti dell'importanza dei dati provenienti dalla meccanica e dalla matematica, dall'astronomia o dalla biologia, e individuarono nuovi settori di attività per la ragione umana. Verso la fine dell'Età dei Lumi, la scienza cominciò ad acquisire un'importanza decisiva nella vita intellettuale delle società europee e divenne un modo di pensare, cancellando i pregiudizi e determinandone il progresso. La superstizione e la paura fecero spazio alle scienze intente allo studio della natura, della vita e del cosmo. L'apertura verso una nuova forma di universalità non fu facile nelle società dell'Europa Occidentale, dove il mutamento dei concetti si accelerò bruscamente sotto l'impulso di una nuova mentalità, mentre i rinnovamenti del periodo illuminista contribuirono all'amplificazione dello choc provocato dalla istituzione di nuovi rapporti culturali.

Per le società dell'Europa del Sud – Est, il progresso delle civiltà occidentali costituì un importante riferimento, con una grande forza di attrazione. Andando da ovest a est, la struttura dei livelli culturali si presenta in movimento, ma sempre più lenta man mano che ci si avvicina al polo sud-estico. L'assimilazione delle culture occidentali si fece senza scosse violente: gli intellettuali non rigettarono le conquiste del passato, tanto da prevenire una meccanica integrazione nel mondo europeo dell'ovest, che avrebbe portato all'uniformizzazione. L'interculturalità in questo periodo, consistente nell'interesse per la cultura, la storia o la geografia di altri paesi, fu anch'essa un effetto dell'Illuminismo. Gli studiosi desiderarono conoscere sempre più cose nuove, nuovi orizzonti e appropriarsi del progresso di altre nazioni, che riguardava soprattutto la scienza, la cultura e la civiltà.

Un caso interessante per il modo in cui si informavano gli autori, ma anche i traduttori, è rappresentato dal lavoro *Vita di Pietro il Grande Imperador della Russia* di Antonio Catiforo, uscito a Venezia nel 1736. Sulla vita e sull'attività di Antonio Catiforo si hanno varie informazioni grazie all'eccellente lavoro di Margherita Losacco, dal quale riprendiamo alcune informazioni. Catiforo nacque nell'isola di Zante, territorio veneziano già da due secoli, di una famiglia borghese di origine ateniese, probabilmente intorno al 1685. Vi restò fino al 1702, quando andò in Italia, a completare gli studi a Roma e a Venezia. Seguì il Collegio Greco di Roma, periodo in cui si occupò della supervisione della biblioteca del collegio e ricoprì anche alcuni incarichi didattici. Si ritirò dal collegio prima di essere ordinato e si stabilì a Venezia, dove entrò in contatto con la comunità greca, diventando diacono. Tornò a Zante nel 1710, dove diventò anche vescovo di

Cefalonia e Zante, ma nel 1732 fu di nuovo alla volta di Venezia. Affascinato dalla personalità dello zar Pietro I, ma anche nella speranza di un eventuale sostegno dello zar per i greci ortodossi, si imbarcò per la Russia ma, a seguito del naufragio della nave, si fermò in Olanda. Ritornò a Venezia attraverso il Belgio, la Francia e la Germania e vi rimase fino alla metà degli anni Cinquanta, svolgendo attività di insegnante e predicatore. Finalmente, ritornò a Zante dove trascorse l'ultimo periodo della sua vita, fino alla morte, nel 1763 (Losacco, 2001, pp. 39-154).

Catiforo è l'autore di 3 lavori abbastanza noti. La sua grammatica del greco *Γραμματική ελληνική*, uscita nel 1734, conobbe una seconda edizione nel 1737 e ben 4 edizioni postume. Il lavoro è di carattere ampiamente compilativo, benché contenga anche innovazioni ed è rivolto ai maestri della gioventù greca. Il libro *Ιστορία τής Παλαιάς και Νέας Διαθήκης*, stampato a Venezia nel 1737 presso Albrizzi rappresenta una traduzione dal francese attraverso la mediazione italiana.

Il volume di cui ci occuperemo in seguito, è la *Vita di Pietro il Grande, imperador della Russia; estratta da varie memorie pubblicate in Francia, e in Olanda*, Venezia, appresso Francesco Pitteri, 1736. In questa prima edizione il nome dell'autore non figura, come non figura neanche nella ristampa del 1737. Solo nel 1739, la seconda edizione, riveduta ed accresciuta dall'autore, reca il nome di Catiforo. Il libro ebbe tre successive edizioni 1748, 1781, 1792. L'autore di origine greca, che scrisse il suo lavoro in italiano, professa il proprio interesse per lo zar russo Pietro I il Grande e presenta nel suo libro la vita, l'attività e la personalità dello zar, menzionando nella premessa anche le fonti inglesi, francesi o tedesche che aveva utilizzato per il suo scritto. Queste sono: B. Iwan Nestesuranoi, Friedrich Christian Weber e John Perry.

B. Iwan Nestesuranoi (pseudonimo di Jean Rousset de Missy) fu uno storico francese della prima metà del Settecento. Anche se non si crede che abbia visitato la Russia, egli utilizzò informazioni fornite dai viaggiatori contemporanei o altre fonti per compilare una vita di Pietro il Grande (*Mémoires du règne de Pierre le Grand, empereur de Russie*, Amsterdam, Wetstein e Smith, 1728 – 1730).

Friedrich Christian Weber (n.s. - 1739) fu ambasciatore presso la corte di Pietro il Grande in Russia. I dati biografici, pochi, sono stati estratti dalla sua corrispondenza diplomatica. Il suo lavoro, *Das Veränderte Russland*, uscì in tre volumi nel 1721, nel 1739 e nel 1740.

John Perry (1670-1733) entrò nella Marina Regale e, dopo una vita avventurosa nella sua carriera di capitano di nave, si specializzò in ingegneria idraulica e fu inviato come specialista e ambasciatore in Russia, che lasciò nel 1712. Ritornato in Inghilterra, costruì vari frangiflutti e dighe. Nel 1716 scrisse il volume *The State of Russia, under the Present Czar /Peter the Great/*, stampato a Londra.

Il libro di Catiforo, che comprende 2 volumi (volume I, 4 libri e volume II, 2 libri), fu quasi subito tradotto in greco da Alexandros Kangelarios e stampato a Venezia nel 1737, tipografia Zante, con il titolo *Βίος Πέτρου του Μεγάλου αυτοκράτορος Ρουσίας, πατρος πατρίδος* (Kechagioglu, 1994, pp. 139-152).

Nella lingua rumena esistono 3 versioni dello scritto di Catiforo (Cernovodeanu, 1975, pp. 86 – 90). Nel 1749 il volume I della versione neogreca fu tradotto dal grande boiardo valacco Matei Fărcășanu. La sua versione, non stampata, si diffuse attraverso varie copie manoscritte. Sempre dal neogreco fu fatta in Moldavia la traduzione integrale dello scritto di Catiforo, dal chierico Cozma Vlahul del Metropolitanato di Iasi, che si conservò sempre in copie manoscritte. Una situazione speciale è rappresentata da una versione manoscritta della Transilvania (Brasov), di cui non si conoscono le fonti utilizzate, la lingua fonte dalla quale fu eseguita la traduzione e, a nostro parere, il traduttore rumeno.

La presentazione del lavoro di Catiforo, delle fonti utilizzate, della traduzione in diverse lingue e il modo in cui si fecero le traduzioni è utile per illustrare il regime degli scritti nel Settecento, la circolazione dei libri e delle informazioni a livello europeo in questo periodo.

- I. Il primo volume di questa versione greca della *Viața Marelui Petru* è stato tradotto in rumeno in Valacchia, da Matei Fărcășanu, nel 1749 (libri 1-4).
 1. ms. miscel. 204 BAR, f. 99-241v, copia valacca di Lavrentie Dascălul, del 1749 (142 fogli, 21,5/15,5);
 2. ms. miscel. 2353 BAR, f. 134-304, copia valacca di Rafail, monaco di Hurez, 1755 (170 fogli, 20/15);
 3. ms. miscel. 2668 BAR, f. 8-175, copia valacca di Dumitru Rîmnicianu di Hurez, del 1767 (167 fogli, 22/16,5).
- II. In Moldavia sono stati tradotti entrambi i volumi (6 libri), rimasti in 4 manoscritti, di cui 3 si conservano presso la BAR:
 1. ms. 49 BAR, f. 2-211, *Viața Marelui Petru*, samoderjeț a toată Rosia, copia moldava di Gavriil, Huși, 1756 (209 file, 30/20,5);

2. ms. 122 BAR, f. 2-212, 1765 (200 file, 31/21);
3. ms. 2581 BAR, f. 2-210, copia di Toader Meican, 1799, Moldavia (208 file, 30,5/22,5);
4. un'altra copia si trova presso la Biblioteca „M. E. Saltikov-Şcedrin” di San Pietroburgo, datata 1755.

III. Traduzione di Transilvania (Braşov)

1. ms. miscel. 3161 BAR, f. 1-186, Istoria ruşilor şî viaţa Marelui Petru, monarhul ruşilor, tradotto dal ministrante Rodion Popovici, Braşov, 1785, copiato nel 1788 da Zanfir Marco a Braşov (185 file, 20,5/16); f. 187-215 Istoria a marelui cneaz Dimitrie Ioanovici, samoderjiţul a toatei Rosiei;
2. ms. miscel. 2476 BAR, f. 4-144v, Viaţa lui Petru celui Mare, copia di Braşov; f. 73: “februarie 9, 1783, Ioan Zacionea, Sfirşitul cărţii al doilea din” (140 file, 22/17); f. 320v : “1784, noiembrie 2, Braşov, Ioan Zacionea”.

I. Della vita e dell'attività di Matei Fărcăşanu si conoscono poche cose. Si sa che appartiene ad una grande famiglia nobile della Valacchia, con antenati noti sin dal Cinquecento per le loro gesta e per la loro contribuzione alla vita politica del paese. Verso l'inizio del Settecento, Matei Fărcăşanu è menzionato nei documenti come “logofăt”, e nel 1746 come “biv vel şetrar”. Era ancora in vita nel 1755, quando è attestato nei documenti come “vel serdar”. Egli ebbe un figlio. Un altro Matei Fărcăşanu, attestato nei documenti della seconda metà del Settecento, è il figlio di questo Şerban e di Maria Cantacuzino¹.

Informazioni riguardanti la formazione culturale di Matei Fărcăşanu si trovano soltanto nella parola al lettore che egli premette alla sua unica traduzione conosciuta, e cioè *Viaţa Marelui Petru*:

„Essendo io coinvolto nei problemi e nelle vane preoccupazioni del passionale e molto rattristante mondo, ed essendo io ancora troppo poco avezzo allo studio della lingua greca, visto che nemmeno la grammatica ho imparato alla perfezione, se non con la poca conoscenza presa dalla pratica, notte e giorno come un ladro ho rubato qualche ora al sonno per completare questo libro perché le muse, ossia l'amore per la scienza che scandaglia nell'anima senza tormento, e mi è impossibile raccontare in dettaglio quanto io abbia sofferto fino a raggiungere questo traguardo che altro scopo non ha se non quello di essere utile al pubblico, dato che fino a oggi al nostro popolo sono mancati del tutto questi tipi di libri”.

Non si è conservata la versione autografa del traduttore; il suo lavoro è noto tramite tre copie manoscritte effettuate in Valacchia nel Settecento.

Per il presente lavoro abbiamo studiato il ms. 2353 BAR, copiato nel 1755 dal monaco Rafail di Hurez. Il monaco Rafail, dal nome laico Radu Bodeţ, era figlio di un certo prete Dumitru di Stînceşti-Prahova. Rimasto orfano, fu preso nel monastero di Hurez dove completò la sua educazione e dove si fece notare per la sua bella calligrafia e copiò più manoscritti che firmò Radu Copilul. Nel 1754, probabilmente al compimento dell'età maggiore, diventò monaco con il nome di Rafail³. Trascorse qualche tempo anche dal superiore Paisie Velickovski di Dragomirna. Egli svolse un'intensa attività di revisore dei libri religiosi stampati a Rîmnic dai vescovi Chesarie e Filaret e continuò a copiare manoscritti dal contenuto teologico. Così contribuì alla stampa di un *Octoih* (1763), del *Libro degli Salmi* (1779) e di *Minee*, la cui edizione fu completa nel 1780, e copiò i manoscritti 2353, 5110, 2585, 2207, 2597, 2667, 3008, 2521, 2569, 2633, 2197 BAR (elencati in ordine cronologico)⁴.

Apprezzato per le sue qualità da alti fori ecclesiastici, fu nominato nel 1782 egumeno del monastero di Hurez. All'inizio del 1791, vecchio e malato, rinunciò alla carica, diventando ieromonaco, e nella primavera dello stesso anno morì a meno di 60 anni, lasciando al monastero un numero impressionante di libri e manoscritti. Dalla presentazione fatta al traduttore rumeno della *Viaţa Marelui Petru*, Matei Fărcăşanu, e da quella del copista Rafail risulta che entrambi erano valacchi di origine. I tratti linguistici del ms. 2353 BAR confermano il fatto che erano entrambi parlanti della varietà linguistica del sud (Valacchia).

Tratti specifici delle varietà del sud

Fonetica: *cocoană* 161v, *cocon* 200r; *cîini* 195r, *mîini* 154r, 202v, 280v, *pîine* 236v, 254r, 299r; *ajutor* 166r,

¹ Per l'attività di Matei Fărcăşanu e *curseus honorum*, si vedano Lecca, 1899, pp. 215-223 e Rădulescu, 1972, p. 453.

² Il testo rumeno del ms. 2353 BAR, f. 133v è: „Fiind împleticit întru neaşeazările şî deşartele griji ale pătîmaşei şî mult necăjitoarei lumi încă prea puţin fiind la învăţătura limbii elineşti, de vreme că nici gramatica desăvîrşit n-am învăţat, cu puţină cunoştinţă numai din praxis luînd, noaptea şî ziua ca un fur am furat cite un ceas de somn ca să săvîrşesc această carte pentru că muzele, adică iubirea de învăţătură ce o şî caută de la suflet fără de turburare şî preste puţină este a-ţî povesti cu amăruntul cît am răbdat pîn am cîştigat scoposul acesta carele la alt nu caută numai la cel de obşte folos, de vreme că pîn astăz neamul nostru să află lipsit de tot de acest fel de cărţi”.

³ Per il nome di Rafail e dettagli sulla sua vita, si veda Dima, 1986-1987, pp.52-53.

⁴ Per la loro descrizione, si veda Ştrempele, 1978, pp. 23, 41 e 1983, pp. 321, 250.

judecător 180v, *mijloc* 186r; *genuche* 214r, 249v, *îngenuchia* 214r

Morfologia: formele variabile ale articolului genitival: *vicleșug al cazacilor* 266r, *împărați ai Moscovei* 161v, *colibi ale unor săraci* 135r, *luni ale verii* 140v; identitatea formei de pers. 6 cu pers. 3 la prezent indicativ: *vămile aduc [...]* *cîștig* 212v.

Lessico: *ginere „mire”* 214r, *zăpadă* 140r, 153v, 222r, adverbul *acolea* 150v, 162v, 265r, 287v.

Il testo che si trova nel ms. 2353 BAR presenta particolarità specifiche del rumeno letterario della metà del Settecento, caratterizzato dalla presenza di alcuni aspetti che hanno a che vedere con l'antica lingua letteraria, accanto a innovazioni più numerose nei settori della fonetica e del lessico.

I neologismi esistenti nel lavoro di Matei Fărcășanu confermano la sua affermazione che era conoscitore soltanto della lingua greca. I prestiti dal turco, come *caic* 199r, *calmuc* 234v, *conac* 247v, *farfurie* 268v, *sarai* 192v erano conosciuti e avevano una grande circolazione nella lingua dell'epoca. La maggior parte dei neologismi sono provenienti dal greco o sono di origine romanica, presi dall'originale greco. Tra i neologismi greci o romanici introdotti dalla lingua di partenza notiamo: *amazoane* 142r, *amiral* 238v și *amiraliu* 204v, 215v, 239r, *armadă* 135r, 186r, 203v, 269r și *armată* 171r, 245r, *canțelar* 291v, *cardinal* 138v, 156v, 227r, *climă* 139r, 141r, 283v, *cliros* 135v, 137v, *colonel* 253v, *comedie* 147v, *deputați* 202v, *diamanturi* 148v, 204v, *dogmă* 143v, 154r, *elcător* 197v, 253r, 260r, *evghenicesc* 278v, 213r, *familie* 164v, 172r, 193r, 299r, *gheograf* 298v, *gramatică* 132v, *idolatri* 137v, 298v, *ighemon* 288r, *imperator* 145v, 166r, 206r, *madamă* 204r, *manifest* 151r, 281v, 293r, *monarh* 134r, 195v, *musicici* 206r, 290v, *ofițeri* 163r, *palat* 144r, *patoș* 136v, *patrie* 134r, 173r, 252r, 261v, *pălărie* 206r, *politic* 134v, *pompă* 149v, 163v, 226v, 292v, *prințip* 161v, 166r, 295r, *protimie* 250r, *psifos* 210r, *resedent* 137r, 300r, *rigă* 207r, *scop* 214v, 232v și *scopos* 132v, 134v, 167r, *schimata* 204v, *tagma* 158r, 162v, 205v, *titlu* 271r, *tom* 134r, *vițăcolonel* 277v.

Anche se alcuni neologismi conservano l'aspetto fonetico dell'etimo o hanno un valore morfologico specifico per la lingua letteraria antica, la lingua dello scritto di Fărcășanu è leggera e offre al lettore, insieme alle informazioni contenute nel lavoro, anche una piacevole lettura. La semplicità e la scorrevolezza dello stile, determinate in grande misura dall'influsso dell'aspetto parlato della lingua rumena, portarono alla diffusione della traduzione di Fărcășanu tramite copie manoscritte. Dal punto di vista del periodo quando fu scritta e delle particolarità linguistiche, *Viața Marelui Petru* collega la prima metà del Settecento, che è ancora segnata dalla cultura rumena antica, a quella della seconda metà del secolo che, per la lingua e la cultura rumena, rappresenta l'inizio della modernizzazione.

II. La versione moldava è stata anonima fino a quando se n'è occupato N.A. Ursu, che ne ha stabilito la paternità (Ursu, 2002, pp. 54-61). Supponendo che, durante gli otto anni trascorsi presso il Metropolitanato di Iasi, il giovane ieromonaco Cozma Vlahul avesse fatto anche altre traduzioni, sia per il tipografo Duca Sotiriovi, sia per ordine del metropolita Iacob Putneanul (1750-1760), lo studioso ha comparato la lingua di alcune traduzioni anonime elaborate all'epoca a Iasi con la lingua della traduzione di *Cîrja arhierilor* e ha constatato che lo ieromonaco Cozma aveva tradotto, sempre dal greco, *Viața Marelui Petru, samoderjeț a toată Rosia*, rimasta in copie manoscritte, e dal slavo *Alfavită sulfetească*, stampata nel 1755, e *Sinopsis adecă adunare de multe învățătură*, stampato nel 1757. Il testo della traduzione effettuata in Moldavia della *Vieții Marelui Petru, samoderjeț a toată Rosia* si è conservato nei seguenti tre manoscritti: 49 BAR (datato 1756), 122 BAR (datato 1765) e 2581 BAR (datato 1799), nonché in un manoscritto della Biblioteca "M.E. Saltîkov-Șcedrin" di San Pietroburgo (datato 1755) (Cernovodeanu, 1975, pp. 86-90).

Il traduttore in Moldavia della *Viața Marelui Petru* non è menzionato in nessuna delle quattro copie conosciute della traduzione. Dalla pagina-titolo della copia di San Pietroburgo risulta che la traduzione fu eseguita su iniziativa del metropolita Iacob Putneanul.

N.A. Ursu (2002) ha esaminato dal punto di vista linguistico e filologico i tratti della traduzione della *Viața Marelui Petru* contenute in un misto di particolarità linguistiche valacche e moldave, queste ultime dovute soprattutto ai copisti moldavi della traduzione. Lo studioso analizza attraverso metodi contrastivi le particolarità linguistiche comuni della *Cîrja arhierilor* della *Viața Marelui Petru* e giunge alla conclusione che entrambi i testi contengono elementi definitivi per la lingua e lo stile dello ieromonaco Cozma Vlahul e che possono anch'esse essere invocate come prove del fatto che *Viața Marelui Petru* è stata tradotta dallo stesso Cozma.

III. A seguito di alcune note di copista, nella storia culturale rumena si è stabilita l'esistenza di una terza versione dello scritto di Catiforo, tradotta in Transilvania, a Brașov. In queste note si menziona che il testo è stato tradotto dal russo da Rodion Popovici: f. 1r del ms. 3161 BAR: *Cartea politiei rusești și vitejile rușilor, a monarhului Petru și alți împărați și stăpînituri. Istoriile acestea sînt scoase de pe limba muscălească pe limba rumânească de domnia lui chirio chir Rodion Popovici, dascalul orașului cetății Coronii...* [copia del 1788 di Zamfir Marco, in Brașov]. A f. 187r si trova la nota seguente: *Tălmăcitu-s-au această istorie din limba rusească pe limba rumânească de dumnealui chir dascalul Radu Popovici în Brașov, la anno 1785, martie, 12. Și s-au scris iar de... smeritul Zanfir Marco, în Brașov, la anno 1788,*

april 29.

In effetti, verso la metà del Settecento c'è stata anche una versione in russo dei due volumi di Catiforo con titolo *Zitie Petra Velikago, Imperatora i Samoderzca Vserossijskago, otca otecestva*, traduzione di Stefan Ivanovici Pisarev et all., San Pietroburgo, 1772.

Investigando il ms. 3161 BAR, siamo giunti alle seguenti conclusioni. Il manoscritto è un miscelaneo che comprende: *Viața Marelui Petru* (ff. 2r-186v), *Istoria a marelui cneaz Dimitrie Ioanovici, samoderjițul a toatei Rosiei* (ff. 187-215) e *Începerea și istoria războiului de la cetatea Beciului* (ff. 216r-279v), mentre la fine manca.

Il primo testo è una traduzione parziale dello scritto di Catiforo, *Vita di Pietro*, e comprende i libri 1-4 del tomo I. Nel manoscritto segue un altro frammento, intitolato libro 5, ma il quale, anche se viene menzionato come appartenente allo stesso lavoro, è completamente diverso dal testo di Catiforo e contiene l'interpolazione di un inventario delle truppe svedesi e russe dopo la guerra tra la Russia e la Svezia e della cronaca di Nicolae Costin sul il periodo 1709-1711 (Dima, 2012, pp. 75-86)⁵.

Percorrendo i primi quattro libri della traduzione del testo di Catiforo del ms. miscel. 3161 BAR, abbiamo costatato che nel testo non si ritrovano lessemi presi in prestito dal russo, come sarebbe stato naturale nella relazione tra la lingua di partenza e la lingua d'arrivo, ma numerose parole che hanno o l'origine nel greco o forme e pronunce caratteristiche per la lingua greca. Nella cultura rumena, l'influsso greco era forte, soprattutto a livello ufficiale, politico e amministrativo, ma anche culturale, potendosi parlare di un bilinguismo greco-rumeno nel periodo fanariota. Gli esempi che faremo non fanno parte delle parole di origine greca frequenti nell'epoca, ma rappresentano forme rare per le quali bisogna trovare una spiegazione. Per questo abbiamo intrapreso una comparazione linguistica e testologica tra la versione italiana del 1748, disponibile online, quella greca di Kanhellarios, tomo I⁶, un numero di pagine della versione russa, che si trova presso la biblioteca di Berlino⁷, e le versioni rumene.

Utilizzeremo il metodo contrastivo e le abbreviazioni: it. per la forma presente nel testo italiano, ngr. per la forma della versione greca, rus. per la forma della traduzione russa, Val. (ms. 2353 BAR) per la forma della versione di Matei Fărcășanu, Mold. per la forma della versione di Cozma Vlahul (ms. 49 BAR) e Trans. per la forma della versione transilvana, copiata a Brașov (ms. 3161 BAR), facendo in seguito alcuni esempi da questi testi:

it. p. 17- *balena*, ngr. p. 4 - βαλαίνυν, rus. p. 4- *kitovom*, Val. f. 141v-*valena*, Mold. f. 3r, manca dall'elenco, Trans. f. 4r- *valena*;

it. p. 15- *geografi*, ngr. p. 4 - Γεωγράφοι, rus. p. 2- *zemleopisateli*, Val. 140r- *cergreafia*, Mold. f. 2r- *gheografi*, Trans. f. 2r- *gheografii*;

it. p. 17- *martora*, ngr. p. 7- Σερνταβάδες, rus. p. 4- *bealok*, Val. f. 141r- *jderi*, Mold. f. 3r - *dihori*, Trans. f. 3v - *zerdavale*;

it. p. 19- *Damigella*, ngr. p. 9- Δαμιγέλλα, rus. p.6- *slujitelnitza*, Val. f.142v-*doamnă*, Mold. f. 4r- *fată în casă*, Trans. f. 4v- *Damighella*;

it. p. 16- *Sicilia*, ngr. p. 5- Σικελίας, rus. p. 3- *Sitzilia*, Val. f. 140v- *Sichilei*, Mold. f. 2v -*Sicheliei*, Trans. f. 2v- *Sechellei*;

it. p. 17- *Thubal*, ngr. p. 7-Θοβέλ, rus. p. 5- *Thovelem*, Val. f. 141r- *Thovel*, Mold. f. 3v-*Thovel*, Trans. f. 3v- *Tovel*;

it. p. 18- *Rurich*, ngr. p. 8- Ρουριχος, rus. p. 5- *Riuric*, Val. f. 142r- *Rurih*, Mold. f. 3v- *Rurih*, Trans. f.4r -*Ruritos*.

A pagina 19 nel testo italiano si ritrova un paragrafo in cui si parla delle memorie di Nestesouran, il compilatore di una vita dello zar Pietro stampata in Olanda, e dove si fanno alcune considerazioni riguardanti la conversione di Vladimir al protestantismo. Il frammento manca nella traduzione russa, essendone eliminato (si veda p. 7), ma si ritrova nella versione della Transilvania (f. 5r), della Valacchia (ff. 143r – 143v) e della Moldavia (f. 4v).

Attraverso gli esempi dati, in cui abbiamo presentato alcuni lessemi che nominano animali, funzioni, antroponomi, toponimi, abbiamo mostrato le differenze testologiche tra le varie versioni e possiamo trarne le seguenti conclusioni:

1. La versione della Transilvania non ha avuto come lingua di partenza il russo, come si afferma all'inizio del testo, ma il greco. Il fatto che sul frontispizio si menziona che il testo sia stato tradotto dal russo è sicuramente un errore del copista, la confusione essendo dovuta probabilmente al fatto che nel manoscritto miscelaneo si trovano anche altri due testi che riguardano la storia della Russia, il che ha portato all'idea che tutti i testi fossero tradotti dal russo.
2. Le tre versioni rumene hanno come fonte la traduzione greca di Kanhellarios.

⁵ Abbiamo descritto il contenuto del libro 5 e la paternità del testo interpolato.

⁶ Abbiamo ottenuto una copia dalla biblioteca dell'Università Aristoteles di Salonicco, grazie all'amabilità della direzione della biblioteca.

⁷ La copia è stata ottenuta per la gentilezza del prof. Andrei Hoisie, del drd. Markus Winkler e della bibliotecaria Camelia Boca, ai quali esprimiamo anche in questa occasione la nostra gratitudine.

3. Dalla investigazione del testo russo e dagli esempi presentati si osservano alcune forme che provengono dal greco o alcune pronunce influenzate dal greco, più precisamente dalla traduzione di Kanghellarios, dunque la traduzione russa è stata fatta dall'intermediario greco e non direttamente dal testo italiano di Catiforo.
4. Dato che il protografo non si è conservato, i manoscritti citati rappresentano copie di date non concordi e le informazioni sul traduttore della versione transilvana sono confuse, questa rimane ancora nella nostra attenzione per stabilirne la paternità.

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Internet Practices of Turkish Youth

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Abstract

Turkey ranks 7th in Europe and 13th in the world in Internet use. As a non-hierarchical realm, internet, instead of enabling individuals a limitless space for movement, has become an area where surveillance and supervision have become obvious and freedoms are constrained. The first section of this study examines the Internet experience in Turkey where users are aware that they are being monitored and have feelings of dismay while browsing the Internet. It will address the reason of delay of the arrival of communication technologies to Turkey, starting from the printing houses operated under the governance of government 200 years after the West, the relation to this situation of surveillance and with Turkey's tradition of democratization and politics. The second section deals with the emergence and legitimatization of Internet in Turkey as an underdeveloped country. Arguing that the Internet and new technologies encompass utopian and dystopian aspects in one pot, the last section will point towards a survey on attitudes of university student users. Thus, Turkish people's opinions on surveillance and prohibition will be manifested. The the study will strive to provide insight to the dilemma between Internet's liberalization, democratization and surveillance potentials within the context of Turkish society.

1. Introduction

Many authors today stress that internet is the most powerful tool with the potential to change the way the democracy is implemented thanks to its nature open to participation and interaction. Moreover, the interaction feature of internet provides the opportunity to emerge as a new "public sphere" suitable to the public sphere of 18th century as stated by Habermas. Indeed, internet provides direct socialization for all citizens, enabling them to establish relationships within the public sphere, ensuring them to be creative and providing them with the opportunity to focus on their own areas of interest. In this regard, internet is considered as the new power of democratization. Therefore, internet as an advanced mass communication form used by the highest number of participants is a kind of medium deserving to be protected against governmental interventions.

Today, generally speaking the youth receives better education compared to prior periods, particularly, it has more technological opportunities compared to before. Thanks to the transformation of virtually all parts of daily life by new communication technologies, today's youth are called the Net Generation. Turkey has a large young population, which correspond to 50% of its entire population, Turkey's population in 2007 was 70 million 586 thousand 256, is in the age group of 28 and younger. Findings in 2007 showed that young people preferred reading books in their leisure times, however, in 2009, this study shows that they prefer to spend time in their rooms, on their computers, connected to online social networks. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute, in 2007 only 18.94 % of the young population had the opportunity to access internet from their home. The highest group of internet users is between 16 and 24, which roughly constitutes Turkish youth. This study seeks to determine how and for which purposes Turkish young people are using these rapidly developing new technologies and what is their opinion about them.

The first section of this paper will address the reason of delay of the arrival of communication technologies to Turkey, starting from the printing houses under the government 200 years after the West.. The second section deals with the relation between internet and young people in Turkey. And finally, with an empirical study which consists of a series of open ended individual interviews conducted with 24 university students sharing their internet experience, it attempts to understand how and for which purposes Turkish youths use the internet.

2. A Brief History of Communication Technologies in Turkey

The printing press was established in 1450s in Europe. In 1500, after 50 years, the number of printed books in Europe reached around 40 thousand. However, in the Ottoman Empire at that time, the sultan Sultan Beyazıt II in 1485, prohibited the practice of printing. Selim I imposed this prohibition again in 1515. The first books in Arabic were

published in early 16th century, not in Ottoman Empire, but in Europe. The founder of the first official printing press and the first person to publish in the Ottoman Empire was Ibrahim Müteferrika. He could only start to operate his printing house in 1729, nearly 281 years after its invention, upon the fatwa of Sheikh Al-Islam and royal decree of the sultan. (Belge, <http://www.radikal.com.tr/haber.php?haberno=10966,28.06.2010>).

Thereafter, the Jewish having escaped from the persecution and being accepted to the Ottoman territories in 1492 by Sultan Beyazit II, introduced the printing technique to the Ottomans. David and Samuel ibn Nahmias, two brothers, founded the first printing house in Istanbul only one year after their arrival in the Ottoman Empire. However, they only obtained consent for printing the Old Testament and religious books and thus, the books printed in the Ottoman Empire in this period were just the Old Testament, prayer books and books on history of religions. Even some Muslims attempted a number of times to establish printing houses in the Ottoman Empire but they were always rejected and it was stressed that even the uran should be written manually as in old times. (<http://www.sirince.net/modules.php?name=News&file=article&sid=725,29-06.2010>).

Like the establishing of printing houses, processes leading to the realization of media in Turkey differ from those in the Western world. Advancements in Turkey were realized through political dynamics and governmental initiatives contrary to the Western world where economical and social dynamics had a prominent role. The first newspaper in Turkish was published by the state in order to act as a method leading to the Westernization of society. That is why Turkish media has a unique nature when compared with similar organizations of the West and the impact of the state felt at the time of its emergence has always followed the Turkish media throughout its history. In 1930s Turkey witnessed the strict ideological practices of single party regime while totalitarian regimes ruled the West. In the 1950s and afterwards, the Western world experienced the reime of liberal democracy and also Turkey enjoyed more liberal regulations and practices. Freedom of the press also took on different shapes within this framework. New conservative policies were implemented in the USA and Europe during 1980s and 1990s coinciding with the fall of socialism. During these same years in Turkey, political, economical and social impacts of this change were felt and commercialization in media witnessed its strengthening. (VedatDemir, <http://www.koprudergisi.com/index.asp?Bolum=EskiSayilar&Goster=Yazi&YaziNo=956>).

Unlike the advancements regarding the printing press introduced to Turkey almost 280 years after its invention, radio broadcasting was not very late when compared with the rest of the world. First radio programs were broadcasted at the beginning of the 1920s in the world and on May 6, 1927 in Turkey. The Television, just like the radio, was introduced in Turkey at an earlier time. TRT Ankara Television performed first test broadcasts on January 31st of 1968. State monopoly dominated the development of radio-television broadcasting in Turkey for a long period just like the media. In this regard, the model of radio-television broadcasting in Turkey had been just public broadcasting until 1993. Monopoly of radio and television broadcasting in Turkey maintained as a monistic model was abolished with a Constitutional amendment in 1993, a Law No. 3984 passed in 1994 and instead a "competitive model" was adopted. A number of private radios and televisions were established (Isbir 2007: 820) and today television is the most common medium across Turkey with 97% of households.

It was, on the other hand, in 1993 when internet was introduced to Turkey. Turkish Universities and Research Institutes Network founded under the leadership of Ege University were the first to introduce internet technology in 1987. Turkey became acquainted with internet on April 12, 1993 thanks to the connection established between Ankara and Washington with a line rented. Thus, April 12 was declared as the birthday of internet in Turkey.

ODTU (Middle East Technical University) and Bilkent University launched the first Turkish websites in the same year and in 1994, organizations and firms were granted with internet accounts. In 1996, first internet infrastructure of Turkey - TURNET - became operational. As late as 1997, it was estimated that nearly 30,000 PCs had internet connections in Turkey. Internet became widespread in 2003 and number of internet users reached 30 million in 2009 from 7 million in 2003 (<http://www.internetarsivi.metu.edu.tr/tarihce.php>, 30.06.2010). In 2013, %47 percent of Turkish population has internet access.

3. Internet and Turkish Youth

Many new scholars interested in media today share the same opinion that internet is the most appropriate medium complying with the definition of public sphere by Habermas. These scholars mention that interaction feature of internet and uniqueness of hypertext feature render internet as a "public sphere" complying with the public sphere model of 18th century. So much so that internet is considered as the new power of democratization in this regard. Indeed internet may provide direct socialization for all citizens, enabling them to increase the number of their relationships within the social

sphere, ensuring them to be creative and providing them with the opportunity to focus on their own areas of interest. Thus, internet considered as an advanced mass communication form used by the highest number of participants deserves protection against state intervention. (Hirschkop, 2003:246).

According to optimistic accounts, the internet provides new opportunities for self-expression, sociability, community engagement, creativity and new literacy. Critical theorists argue that youth content will oppose and reverse the traditional dominance of consumers by producers and will facilitate a new 'peer culture' among young people, both locally and globally (Livingstone, 2008:394). Sonia Livingstone's recent studies on the relationship between youth and internet argues that children spend less time in front of the television than before and they use internet for playing, learning and consuming. As far back as 1999 two-thirds of UK children and teenagers had a television in their bedroom and over half of UK homes with children had at least one personal computer with Internet access. Overall, 6 to 17 years old individuals were spending some five hours per day with the media. In the United States, she obtained similar findings of five and a half hours per day with the media. To these figures it must be added the introduction of faster internet connections which improved the performance of personal computers. This is a considerable investment of time, indicating children and young people's priorities and preferences, as well as the limits of the leisure choices available to them (Livingstone and Bovill, 1999:154).

According to the Research for Use of Information Technologies by Households in 2009, conducted by the Turkish Statistics Institute, 40 % of the houses have the facility of internet access. In the period between January and March 2009, computer and internet usage rates of household members in the age group between 16 and 24 was 62.2%. In the same period, of the household members using internet, 25.50% used it at least once a week whereas 61.11% used it almost everyday. The age group with the highest rate of computer and internet usage is 16-24. This group is followed by the age group of 25-34. The highest computer and internet usage rates by educational status is in higher education school and above with 88.5% and 72.4% of the students using a computer and the internet. (http://www.tuik.gov.tr/VeriBilgi.do?tb_id=60&ust_id=2, 09.09.2009).

In Turkey, a great proportion of the youth goes to internet cafes. What is interesting is that more than half of those going to internet cafes have computer or internet connection at home. Many researches have revealed that the young users in internet cafes comprise mainly the segments with low socio-economical level. However, young people prefer using computer in these places rather than in their homes because they are together with their friends and because it is more convenient. According to a research conducted by Sakarya University, a great part of the internet café users are males aged between 12 and 25, including high school and university students. In the interviews conducted to identify what was behind using internet cafes they mostly used words "habit", "seeing friends", "a place for meeting", "fun", "enjoyment". They expressed that they mostly go to play games on the internet, secondly for using MSN and e-mail, the third for research, and the fourth as chat and doing homework (<http://www.ensonhaber.com/Teknoloji/29288/neden-internet-cape-tercih-ediliyor.html>, 14.09.2009).

4. A Qualitative Research on Turkish Youth Internet Practices

Results of a digital survey conducted in 2009 with the participation of 1948 people providing information on the status of internet users in Turkey revealed that 49.5 percent of the participants spent each day over 5 hours in average on internet and 25.1 percent were online for more than 50 hours a week. Out of 91.3 percent of internet users being online mainly for chatting, 48 percent stated that they made use of this service when they had the opportunity, 20 percent in the evenings and 16.6 percent continuously. According to the results of the survey, internet was not just used for chat but used also for homework, listening to and downloading music, downloading and streaming movies and making new friends. (<http://www.marketingturkiye.com/yeni/Haberler/NewsDetailed.aspx?id=14532>, 29.11.2009).

According to results of the "Research on Use of Computers and Relevant Behaviors in Turkey", users made use of internet primarily for the purposes of "listening to/downloading and purchasing music". Same research also revealed that internet was used for "sending and receiving e-mails", "surfing on the websites" as the third preference and "chatting" as the fourth preference. Individuals not using computers, on the other hand, stated that if they were to have computers one day, they would attach same levels of importance to education (59.7%), music (61%) and photographs/videos (62.4%). (<http://www.digitalage.com.tr/Haber/turkiyenin-dijital-gundemi-egitim/3d50174f-fa62-4286-8f11-134c06d222f7.aspx>, 06.11.2009). However, in Turkey, internet is restricted by laws, in other words, controlled by state just like the other mediums in their first years.

A part of the study, the purposes of internet usage of Turkish youth are being determined through the use of focus group discussion which is a qualitative research method. The main group is composed of students of communication

which most probably will be the employees of media industry in the future. Sample group forming the focus group is designated to be 2 groups consisting of 12 students from the students of Marmara and Istanbul Universities. But the results of the focus group cannot be attributed to the whole main group due to the insufficient numbers as in quantitative studies. The research, carried out under the supervision of a moderator, took 2,5 hours. Following are the conclusions within the scope of the research.

The purpose of this study is to reveal internet practices of Turkish youth. This study covers 12 female and 12 male students from the faculty of communications at the age of 18 to 22. They all have internet access at home. These youngsters stated that they used internet for social relations, chatting, listening to music, playing games and doing their homework as suggested by them in the order of priority.

- They also told that they were subscribers of 1 to 3 different social websites and in parallel; they had different profiles as many as their number of subscriptions. They mentioned that they visited these social media at least once a day and spent 3 to 5 hours on these media.
- According to these youngsters social media is their first habit of spending their free times and among these networks they used Facebook, Twitter and YouTube the most and these networks provided them with personal areas and that was primarily why they were interested a lot in these networks.
- Furthermore, they told that they mostly chat, looked at other profiles, shared the things they liked, played games, sent each other messages, and communicate with people they had common areas of interest as suggested by their order of preference.

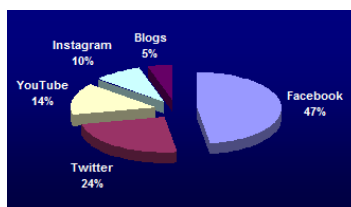
Graphic 1:



The interviewees stated that they use the internet for social interaction, playing games, listening to music, help with their homework, and finally, for shopping.

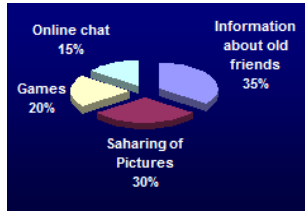
According to the research findings, the social network mostly used is Facebook with 47%. While twitter is second with 24%, YouTube is the third with 14%, Instagram is the fourth, and Blogs are the fifth. They use internet mostly for social relations.

Graphic 2:



When it is asked why they preferred the sites involving social interaction such as Facebook and Twitter, they indicated that they regard Facebook as “a social friendship site”. They tell that they socialize with these sites, get information about their old friends, share photos, and playing games. What’s more, in Turkey, Facebook, with about 45 million users worldwide, has turned into a virtual identity data, as the interpreter of the relations which the young people could not establish and the words which they cannot say in daily life. In other words, Facebook has been defined as a space helping young people to say “I’m here, too” and a space for “being able to socialize in virtual world”.

Graphic 3:



5. Conclusion

As we see from this study, all students have computer and internet connection in their rooms. When considered from the aspect of having internet facilities, it wouldn't be wrong to say that Turkish youth adapt the information age in a short time. The subjects spend most of their times on the internet for social networks like Twitter and Facebook rather than doing research or getting information. While the virtual media comes into prominence as a research and information tool, unfortunately, it is rather preferred for chat and games in Turkey.

From a competitive capitalism age theorized by Marx, a monopolist capitalism age criticized by Frankfurt School in the 1930s, we entered as Dauglas Kellner pointed out into a "techno-capitalism" age which incorporates the capital, technology, information and entertainment industries. In this techno-capitalism age, we live in technology gradually gains importance for the youth, just like for virtually everybody. However, the youth use the technology as social interaction tool rather than an opposition tool against the imposed system. The internet which provides an unlimited action opportunity to the youth as a space without hierarchy is unfortunately used as a "un-memorization and oblivion" tool for the young'.

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Education and Family Ties in Italy, France and Sweden

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Abstract

Education is actually a crucial element of social stratification. While research has often focused on education's effect on labor market opportunities and intergenerational class mobility, it has seldom been analyzed its association with the structure of family ties. However, as a consequence of unprecedented demographic changes, multigenerational bonds are becoming increasingly important for the solidarity within families and the future sustainability of welfare state. The main argument underlying this study is that individuals' level of education is likely to affect both the preferences and the structure of restrictions and opportunities. First, higher educated individuals are expected to acquire more individualistic values, and thus to be less oriented toward family issues. Second, the higher educated individuals are more likely to look for job opportunities in specific and selected areas, and thus to loosen family ties because of a greater geographical mobility. Moreover, the association between education and family ties is likely to be affected by the peculiar combination of institutional and cultural features. The country-specific context is, indeed, likely to pattern the structure of costs, opportunities, and individual preferences related to the maintenance of more-or-less strong intergenerational relations. Using data from Share 2004-2007, this paper assesses the effect of education on the relationships between family members in Italy, France and Sweden. In particular, empirical evidence is provided for parent-child geographical proximity and frequency of contacts.

1. Introduction

Sociological research has mostly focused on the effects of education on labor market opportunities and intergenerational class mobility. The existing literature shows that the higher the level of education, the higher is the probability of being employed, of finding better jobs, of earning higher wages, and of undertaking a process of upward mobility (Hout 2012). Far from eroding the family's cohesive role (Parson 1942), this process of class mobility does not seem to diminish the importance of intergenerational relations in the so-called 'modified extended family' (Litwak 1960). Indeed, a large strand of the literature has pointed out the enduring importance of intergenerational relations in contemporary societies and beyond the nuclear family (Kohli 1999; Bengtson 2001).

However, some scholars suggest the so-called hypothesis of 'family decline', according to which individualistic behaviors tend to prevail over the attitudes toward family (Inglehart 1977; Popenoe 1988). On the one hand, the increasing variation in family structure – i.e. the increasing rate of divorce, the growing female participation to the labor market, and the decrease in fertility rate – seems to reflect the changes in values and in intergenerational solidarity. On the other hand, at the micro level, this process of individualization is thought to be largely driven by the increase in educational attainment, which would trigger a substantial emancipation of the individual from his strongest ties (Beck 1986).

The empirical implications of this thesis have not been widely studied. The aim of this paper is to fill this gap, by analyzing the association between education and family ties. In particular, using data from 'Share' 2004 and 2007, this study analyses the influence of individual level of education on parent-child frequency of contacts and geographical proximity in three European countries, namely Italy, France, and Sweden.

These three countries differ in terms of both the institutional asset and the prevailing kinship tradition (Kalmijn and Saraceno 2008). Sweden is characterized by inclusive welfare state, flexible labor market and individualistic culture. At the opposite side, Italy has a sub-protective welfare state, a quite rigid labor market and a well-known familialistic tradition. France is representative of the continental welfare regime, but shares with Italy a quite strong familialism. Thus, we may expect to find different effects of education on family ties in the three countries, since the country-specific context

is likely to pattern the structure of costs, opportunities, and individual preferences related to the maintenance of more-or-less strong intergenerational relations.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: the next paragraph outlines the theoretical framework and the main hypotheses concerning the effects of education on family ties, with particular emphasis on the frequency of parent-child contacts and on the geographical proximity between family members. Section 3 is devoted to the data and methods used for the analysis; in section 4 results are presented, and section 5 concludes.

2. Theoretical framework and hypotheses

The existing literature basically distinguishes between two possible mechanisms through which education may affect the strength of intergenerational ties (Klein Ikkink *et al.* 1999).

First, structural explanations focus on the structure of restrictions and opportunities for family interactions. One important factor which, according to this approach, is likely to influence the maintenance of close parent-child relations is represented by job opportunities. Some studies emphasize that the higher educated individuals are more likely to move in order to find better jobs; the labour market offering them more opportunities is, indeed, smaller and geographically circumscribed. On the contrary, unskilled workers are supposed to be able to find a well-matching job almost everywhere, that is to say without the necessity to move from their initial location (Litwak 1960a; Shelton and Grundy 2000). Thus, the cost-opportunity of geographical mobility is likely to significantly differ between the higher and the lower educated individuals.

Second, cultural explanations focus on the system of individual preferences, values, attitudes, and internalized norms, which is likely to be significantly shaped by education. According to this approach, the higher educated individuals have a different value orientation toward family, and they develop individualistic attitudes. In other words, the higher their levels of education, the more the individuals value their self-achievement, autonomy and independence. Thus, family ties are likely to be weakened by the tendency to substitute family-oriented attitudes with individual-oriented ones (Thornton and Young-DeMarco 2001).

A more recent strand of the literature suggests that education may have not only an absolute effect, but also a relative one, on family ties. This means that children's education plays a role not only *per se*, but also in relation with the parental one; in other words, differences in educational attainment within families are likely to influence the strength of parent-child relations. Again, this effect may be driven by both the value orientation and the structure of opportunities. On the one hand, parents and children with similar education more often share interests and values, and thus have closer relationships. On the other hand, family ties are likely to be strengthened by educational homogamy, because it favors the process of status achievement and reduces the cost-opportunity of maintaining closer relationships (Kalmijn 2006).

According to both the structural and the cultural approaches, we may expect that education has a positive effect on the distance from the parental home (H1). This may occur because higher educated individuals are more likely to look for a job in a geographically specific labor market, or because of their individualistic values and attitudes.

The diffusion of individualism is also likely to affect the intensity of child-parent relations, since – as we have previously argued – it implies a prevalence of individual-oriented behaviors over attitudes toward family. Thus, we may expect that the higher the level of education, the lower is the frequency of parent-child contacts (H2).

Moreover, education may have an indirect effect on the frequency of parent-child contacts, via distance: the more individuals are educated, the more distant they live from their parents, the less frequently they contact them (H3). This hypothesis is supported by the existing empirical evidence, showing that proximity and frequency of contacts are strongly correlated (Greenwell and Bengtson 1997).

Finally, according to the last presented approach, we may expect parent-child differences in educational attainment to have a negative effect on contacts (H4): this may be due to the fact that, as suggested by the literature on assortative mating, individuals tend to structure their relationships according to the homophily principle (McPherson *et al.* 2001). This means that personal networks are homogeneous with respect to many individual characteristics, such as education. The literature presents a lot of empirical evidence of the existence of this phenomenon in the choice of the partner and in friendship networks (Mare 1991; Kalmijn and Flap 2001). Nevertheless, it is not clear whether this mechanism is at work also in 'innate' relationships, such as the ones with family members.

It is worth noting that the suggested explanations do not take into account the institutional and cultural context, which plays an important role in shaping individuals' behaviors toward family. First, the traditional distinction between "weak" and "strong" family ties draws a line between northern and central Europe on the one hand, and Mediterranean countries on the other hand (Reher 1988). As a result of historical processes, in northern and central Europe

individualistic values have the priority over the family group, family members leave early the parental home, adult children tend to live rather distant, and parent-child contacts are more sporadic. In contrast, in southern European countries familistic values are widespread, individuals postpone the leaving of parental home, adult children tend to live close to their family, and parent-child contacts are more frequent (Kohli et al. 2005; Tomassini et al. 2004).

Second, in the North of Europe the welfare state provides an extensive assistance of elderly in need, and promotes the independence of young people through various forms of public financial transfers. These institutional incentives favor the autonomy of older and younger generations, thus promoting geographical distance between parents and children. On the contrary, the Mediterranean welfare state hardly provides adequate services for elderly, young people and children. This lack of public incentives enhances the intergenerational dependency of family members; thus, adult children are incentivized to live nearby in order to help their parents and receive support from them (Daatland & Lowenstein 2005).

Third, job opportunities significantly differ according to the peculiar labor market's structure. Especially the level of labor market rigidity is likely to affect both the availability of vacancies and the wage distribution. In more regulated labor markets, as the Italian one, lower wage incentives and more stable employment relations do not promote individual geographical mobility. Labor market flexibility, in contrast, augments job and wage opportunities related to geographical mobility (Alesina et al. 2010).

In this scenario, we may expect that education plays a different role in shaping attitudes toward family across analyzed countries. In particular, we expect educational differences to have a lower effect on intergenerational distance and contacts in Italy, whereas the association is expected to be positive and higher in Sweden (H5). This may occur because in Scandinavian countries flexible labor market promotes geographical and occupational mobility through the provision of higher economic incentives. On the contrary, in Mediterranean countries, the lack of economic incentives to mobility interacts with a familistic value orientation, which promotes the closeness between generations, regardless to the individual level of education. France is likely to fall in between since, as we have previously seen, it shares some institutional and cultural features with Mediterranean countries and others with the Scandinavian ones.

3. Data and methods

The analysis is based on data from *Share* (Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe) 2004 and 2007, which is a cross-national database of micro data in health, socioeconomic status and social and family networks of more than 85.000 individuals from 19 European countries aged 50 or over. We select individuals residing in Italy, France and Sweden. The analysis is carried out on parent-child dyads in which the children, aged 18 or older, has already left the parental home and is not a student. It is important to note that the proportion of adult children living with parents significantly varies across the three considered countries, going from the 4.8% in Sweden, to the 12.4% in France, to the 30.2% in Italy. It is widely acknowledged that the timing of leaving the parental home significantly differs across European countries, but this topic overtakes the focus of this paper: the analysis of parent-child distance and contacts is indeed meaningful only when looking at children who have already left the parental home¹.

The Italian sample includes 7,211 dyads and 2,595 individuals (parents); the French one is composed by 9,975 dyads and 3,239 individuals, and, finally, for Sweden we have 10,725 dyads and 3,229 individuals.

The two dependent variables are based on parents' answers to two questions, which respectively ask how far do their children live, and how often do they have contacts with them². The first variable is recoded in kilometers, while the second in days per year.

Tables 1 and 2 report, for each country, the distribution of the two variables, according to children's level of education.

The two main independent variables included in the model are children's level of education and parent-child educational difference. They are both measured in (required) years of schooling.

Controls are also provided for some children's characteristics, namely sex, age, occupational status (employed, not employed, not in the labour market), and marital status (married, divorced, never married).

Table 1 summarizes the association between education and parent-child distance separately for the three countries. In general, we observe that the higher the education, the more distant children live from their family. This holds

¹ It is worth noting that differences in the country-specific rate of individuals leaving the parental home may introduce a selection bias which we are not able to take into account.

² The variable refers to every kind of parent-child contacts: it is not possible to distinguish between face-to-face, telephonic and mailing contacts.

especially in Sweden, where the difference between the lower and the higher educated individuals living more than 100 kilometers far from their parents is almost 20 percentage points. In Italy this difference is quite smaller (10 percentage points), while France falls in between (15 percentage points). Moreover, it is clear-cut the difference in the overall level of parent-child proximity among the three countries, with Italy registering a substantially high proportion of individuals leaving less than 5 kilometers far from their family of origin.

Tab. 1. Parent-child geographical distance (in kilometers) by children's years of education and country.

	Italy			France			Sweden		
	Years of education			Years of education			Years of education		
	0-9	9-14	14-20	0-9	9-14	14-20	0-9	9-14	14-20
<1	33.7	29.6	24.6	12.4	13.0	7.5	12.4	11.5	6.2
1-5	24.2	21.9	21.1	17.3	16.7	11.0	20.0	19.6	14.7
5-25	21.8	25.6	16.7	25.3	26.3	21.2	25.2	26.8	20.3
25-100	7.0	8.9	14.2	18.0	19.3	18.4	18.5	18.6	17.7
+100	13.3	14.0	23.4	27.0	24.8	41.9	23.9	23.6	41.0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
N	3,078	2,914	1,382	1,713	4,044	4,432	1,582	4,671	4,532

Similarly, table 2 shows that Italy significantly differs from the other two countries for the overall higher frequency of contacts: individuals contacting their parents daily are 50% or more in all the considered educational groups. On the contrary, in Sweden and in France only one over five adult children has daily contacts with his parents, regardless of the educational level. However, from these preliminary descriptive results, it is less clear whether education has an effect on frequency of parent-child contacts. For instance, focusing on the daily contacts' category, we observe a positive influence in Italy, zero effect in France, and negative association in Sweden.

Tab. 2. Frequency of parent-child contacts by children's years of education and country.

	Italy			France			Sweden		
	Years of education			Years of education			Years of education		
	0-9	9-14	14-20	0-9	9-14	14-20	0-9	9-14	14-20
Daily	49.9	59.5	59.2	21.0	22.7	21.0	21.1	22.0	13.9
Several times	25.9	25.3	26.9	25.7	32.1	25.7	30.2	38.3	42.2
Every week	13.5	9.2	8.1	19.0	23.3	18.9	25.9	22.6	28.7
Every 2 week	4.6	2.3	2.0	9.3	7.9	9.3	7.6	7.6	7.3
Less often	6.1	3.8	3.9	25.1	13.9	25.1	15.2	9.3	7.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
N	3,078	2,914	1,382	1,713	4,044	4,432	1,582	4,671	4,532

In order to better understand whether it does exist an association between education and intergenerational relations, despite the unclear descriptive results, we carry out multivariate analyses adopting the so-called 'within family' approach. This consists in comparing parent-child dyads within the same family, by means of fixed effects models. This strategy produces more robust results, since it allows to eliminate the bias deriving from observable and unobservable families' characteristics (Henretta et al. 1997, Kalmijn 2012); these features, such as all the parents' variables, are constant (fixed) between children within the same family, and are therefore removed. This strategy is based on differences between siblings; thus, only families with at least two children and with variation in the outcome variables are included. Table 3 reports the number of individuals and dyads that respect these two conditions.

Tab. 3. Number of dyads and families included in the analysis by country.

	Italy	France	Sweden
Number of dyads	4,816	6,615	7,320
Number of families	2,470	3,131	3,360

4. Results

Table 4 and 5 (a, b, and c) present the results of the multivariate analysis. Geographical distance and frequency of contacts are treated as continuous variables, as suggested by the literature (Kalmijn 2006; Leopold 2012). This analysis is based on the comparison between siblings, and thus the reported coefficients have to be interpreted as the variation in the outcome variables associated with the variation in siblings' characteristics.

Table 4 shows a positive association between children's level of education and their distance from the parental home in Sweden and France. In the first case, one more year of schooling produce an increase of the distance of more than 3.6 kilometers; in the second case, the distance augment of about 1.7 kilometers per year of additional education. In contrast, the coefficient is not statistically significant in Italy, suggesting that residential proximity between generations is not affected by children's education. These results support our first hypothesis only for Sweden and France. As previously suggested (H5), though, it seems that the institutional and cultural context does play a role in shaping the structure of costs and opportunities related to geographical mobility.

Moreover, the results suggest that distance from the parental home is likely to be affected by different individual characteristics in different countries. In Italy, female tend to reside closer to parents than their brothers: this may reflect a well-known gender gap in care responsibilities and provision (Saraceno 1994). In France, one important variable is age: older children are more likely to reside nearer the parental home. Finally, in Sweden we observe that unemployed children live significantly closer to their parents than their employed siblings.

Tab. 4. Models of linear regression on parent-child geographical distance, fixed effects.

	Italy	France	Sweden
Years of education	0.958 (1.472)	1.722* (0.749)	3.606*** (1.094)
Female	-24.299*** (6.162)	0.601 (5.233)	-1.457 (4.468)
Age	-0.482 (0.680)	-1.334* (0.658)	-0.854 (0.505)
Unemployed	-33.434 (17.129)	-4.786 (12.601)	-30.554* (12.438)
Not in LM	-9.350 (8.476)	0.861 (8.450)	16.025 (9.205)
Never married	16.487 (9.947)	3.042 (6.532)	4.226 (6.000)
Divorced	16.262 (18.025)	-17.194 (10.535)	-1.026 (9.304)
Constant	1,045.685 (1,335.544)	2,730.482* (1,292.617)	1,744.225 (992.039)
Observations	4,816	6,615	7,320
R-squared	0.014	0.004	0.006
Number of families	2,470	3,131	3,360

Note: Standard errors in parentheses

*** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Tables 5a, 5b and 5c report the association between the frequency of child-parent contacts and a number of individual characteristics, education above all. For each country, we implement three models: the first includes adult children's years of education, in the second child-parent proximity is added and the third shows the effect of educational homogeneity.

Focusing on Italy, table 5a does not show any significant effect of children's years of schooling (model 1). Education is not significantly associated with contacts even when controlling for distance from the parental home, which on the contrary is negatively correlated with the dependent variable (model 2). Moreover, we do not find a significant effect of parent-child educational difference on contacts. While we expected a little association between education and the frequency of contacts (H5), Italy presents a widespread closeness between generations. These results (see also table 4) depict Italy as a country largely dominated by familialistic values and attitudes, where also the higher educated

children tend to remain close to their families and to maintain strong ties with parents. Moreover, in Italy the costs of moving in order to find better job opportunities overwhelm the benefits deriving from staying close to the family and accept the vacancies in the initial location.

Tab. 5a. Models of linear regression on frequency of parent-child contacts in Italy, fixed effects.

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Years of education	0.689 (1.171)	0.926 (1.113)	
Distance		-0.248*** (0.016)	
Educational difference			0.633 (1.237)
Female	30.047*** (4.904)	24.027*** (4.676)	30.140*** (4.894)
Age	1.852*** (0.541)	1.733*** (0.515)	1.851*** (0.542)
Unemployed	10.927 (13.630)	2.644 (12.966)	10.621 (13.604)
Not in LM	12.323 (6.745)	10.007 (6.413)	12.192 (6.730)
Never married	-36.315*** (7.916)	-32.230*** (7.528)	-36.360*** (7.923)
Divorced	-3.673 (14.343)	0.355 (13.636)	-3.620 (14.347)
Constant	-3,447.996** (1,062.759)	-3,188.939** (1,010.291)	-3,439.805** (1,063.965)
Observations	4,816	4,816	4,816
R-squared	0.040	0.133	0.040
Number of families	2,470	2,470	2,470

Note: Standard errors in parentheses

*** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Table 5b shows a similar pattern in France, where education does not seem to have a significant effect on the frequency of parent-child contacts (model 1), even when controlling for children's distance from the parental home (model 2). In France, however, we find a statistically significant and negative effect of parent-child educational difference, in accordance with our fourth hypothesis: the higher the difference between the years of schooling of children and that of parents, the less frequent are their contacts. According to the literature, this may be due to the fact that people with different levels of education develop a different system of preferences and interests, which may affect the type and the strength of their relationships.

Tab. 5b. Models of linear regression on frequency of parent-child contacts in France, fixed effects.

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Years of education	0.433 (0.509)	0.668 (0.500)	
Distance		-0.136*** (0.011)	
Educational difference			-1.359* (0.588)
Female	25.381*** (3.558)	25.462*** (3.487)	25.544*** (3.547)
Age	2.473*** (0.447)	2.291*** (0.439)	2.480*** (0.447)
Unemployed	23.689** (8.569)	23.037** (8.396)	22.769** (8.543)
Not in LM	14.079*	14.196*	12.359*

	(5.746)	(5.630)	(5.702)
Never married	7.141 (4.441)	7.555 (4.352)	7.134 (4.436)
Divorced	15.981* (7.163)	13.638 (7.022)	14.989* (7.149)
Constant	-4,770.291*** (878.970)	-4,398.228*** (861.817)	-4,771.891*** (878.336)
Observations	6,615	6,615	6,615
R-squared	0.031	0.070	0.033
Number of id	3,131	3,131	3,131

Note: Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Finally, table 5c shows a strong and negative effect of years of schooling on contacts in Sweden: this indicates that, according to our second hypothesis, individuals with a higher level of education have less frequent contacts with their parents than their less educated siblings. This negative association holds even when controlling for the distance from the parental home (H3), even though part of the education's effect seems to be absorbed by distance. It is possible to interpret these findings as the result of a complex mix of labour market opportunities and individualistic value orientation. On the one hand, education indirectly affects the frequency of contacts through the distance from the parental home: higher educated individuals are more likely to move in order to catch the job opportunities offered by a geographically-delimited labour market, and thus they have less intergenerational contacts. On the other hand, education directly affects contacts by spreading individualistic attitudes and behaviors: the higher educated individuals are less family-oriented than the lower educated, and thus they have less frequent contacts with their parents.

The educational difference between parents and children, in contrast, is found not to have a statistically significant effect on contacts.

Tab. 5c. Models of linear regression on frequency of parent-child contacts in Sweden, fixed effects.

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Years of education	-2.173** (0.767)	-1.486* (0.740)	
Distance		-0.191*** (0.011)	
Educational difference			-0.892 (0.813)
Female	34.645*** (3.133)	34.367*** (3.016)	33.895*** (3.123)
Age	2.192*** (0.354)	2.029*** (0.341)	2.170*** (0.354)
Unemployed	25.861** (8.722)	20.039* (8.401)	27.488** (8.709)
Not in LM	9.409 (6.455)	12.463* (6.215)	11.985 (6.385)
Never married	9.164* (4.207)	9.969* (4.050)	9.678* (4.206)
Divorced	4.479 (6.524)	4.284 (6.279)	4.946 (6.530)
Constant	-4,191.891*** (695.642)	-3,859.544*** (669.814)	-4,173.410*** (696.503)
Observations	7,320	7,320	7,320
R-squared	0.046	0.117	0.045
Number of id	3,360	3,360	3,360

Note: Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05

5. Conclusions

This paper has focused on the effect of education on the strength of family ties, measured through parent-child geographical distance and frequency of contacts. The maintenance of close intergenerational relations is a central topic in the actual sociological research, especially because of the process of ageing which is nowadays affecting the developed western societies (Bengtson 2001).

The literature pinpoints two main channels through which education may influence the strength of intergenerational ties. On the one hand, structural explanations focus on the system of constraints and opportunities especially deriving from the labour market and the welfare state. On the other hand, cultural explanations focus on the system of values and attitudes towards family.

We have argued that these two explanations are more-or-less consistent with country-specific contexts; this hypothesis is confirmed by the results, which suggest the existence of different patterns of association between education and our dependent variables in the three considered countries. In Italy, where the well-known predominant familism combines with a few labour market opportunities and a sub-protective welfare state, we observe frequent intergenerational contacts and closeness to the parental home, regardless of the individual educational attainment. In Sweden, on the contrary, a widespread individualism makes the intergenerational bonds weaker, especially among higher educated individuals, who also have more job opportunities in (geographically) specific labor markets. As hypothesized, France falls somewhere in between, with a small effect of education on distance, and only a weak association – not found elsewhere – between parent-child educational difference and frequency of contacts.

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Word and its Origin: The History and Evolution of Fjalëzës in Albanian

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Abstract

The problem of nodes in the English language is one of the fundamental issues that 'the historical grammar and take into consideration a node respectively. General fetures detection mini word a helpful collection of information at Linguistic sector that 'makes Possible the Recognition and analysis of this mini words from genesis to this day. Principal issues that Gives "identity" and association mini words a language Will Be the object and the point of reference of study. Aims achi a genuinely Linguistic Interpretation through historical genesis of the "Missal" Buzuku. Multifunctional dimension of mini word a wide range of its use as a Numeral, Such as joints, and even indefinite pronoun, behave through use contextual and concret. The examples of recent Attention Will Be paid to Linguistic Ability wordformation mini word a part and an object of study morfo sintax. Through a literature study distant decade have tried "dare" somehow to enter addressing nodes, there is a Tudy and Linguists own w eight, but Also Recognize English language qualification level. Necessaty studies and we w interpretations directly related nodes, Which Can Be Brough with arguments that 'further studies the pronlem of English nodes behore more clear.

Keywords: *problem miniwords, a, language nodes*

1. Introduction

Word a is minimum unit formally, but it carries a historical genesis of the formation, there is a polarity of understanding and functioning. For genuinely linguistic treatment will be referred to as the scientific personalities: E. Çabej, Sh. Demiraj, S. Reese ES, E. Lika, K. Topalli., Who interpreted cast big ideas about the problem of joints. The problem of the joints has been one of the really controversial issues although there are historical grammar resources Albanian linguistic systems. Through dressed thought in scientific dimensions, these personalities have shed light on the serious character problems affecting the grammar of the English language. Augmenting character interpretation has thrown prof. Shaban Demiraj at article "The Problem of the joints of the Eagle", which is addressed the issue of front and rear joints. According to prof. Demiraj must take into account the specificity of Eagles nodes that have penetrated deeply into its morphological structure whom language. This issue have paid special attention to many linguists, Albanian and foreign, still do not have a common position not only to specific secondary issues, but also for the core of the problem. Beyond this, by prof. Demiraj will be handled node function of the front and the back node from the beginning of creation. Çabej in the article "About some questions of the history of the English language" has given an additional material, crowned so a language decent work and, being superposed affordable works linguists Selman Riza, Faith Bokshi Shaban Demiraj. This problem obviously requires reliability, precision, depth linguistic thought and strenuous efforts that were made by the scientific contributions of our linguists.

Various problems arising in the historical study of treatment of joints such as: what is the source, as they are formed, what functions they perform. Regarding to this important issue, not exempt the opinions of scholars' compilation of dictionaries, and Albania specialists Indo-Europeans. All these questions raised from the ordinary reader and to receive response linguists not rigid, dry, but with a background etymological based on linguistic examples argument, which is a type of certificate issues, will take into consideration.

About basic issues of handling special problems of joints will be referred to a language-based analysis, interpretations and attitudes against word a.

2. What does word *a* at Albanian language?

Word *a* has a multifunctional use in Albanian. Finds use as a numeral, such as joints, as indefinite pronoun. Given Dictionary of Language ES 1980, word used within certain contexts with linguistic descriptors overtones adjectival function. Also finds use as word pattern, as numeral liner, as a basic numeral as conversational adverb, as joints joshquese, as pakufishmëri and *a* first numeral of all numbers.

3. Diachronic linguistic interpretation of the historical genesis of word *a*

Diachronic reading of numeral *a* in Albanian language has long attracted the attention of historians whom her language. Numeral along with the class of pronouns, names of body parts, kinship attachments ... etc.. form a basis for diachronic linguistic comparison in the area of vocabulary. ** / *Oinos* / (: * / (H) O-no-s /) cf.: Gr. *Oivn*, lat. Attire phonetic <një>, formed in Albanian literary language, this numeral has darkened etymological connections with themes adjectival evidenced in different languages *UNUS* indoeuropiane (/ *oinos* /), ir. vj. *oēn* got. *ains* "a". [1] This has resulted in diachronic interpretation of this numeral different linguists, Albanian studies and Indo-European, holding various positions. "Diachronic research of this numeral hindered some unresolved issues in the comparative internal, which are related to functional diversity and formal unit in the English language as well documented today in the dialects of the Albanian diasporas dialects" [2]. For example: this unit is used as appropriate to the function of numeral pronoun undefined node joshquese. It also comes in a number of forms that have the grammatical indicators. As the needs of first-hand, as etymological interpretation question the resolution of the following issues:

- a. Definition of *a* unit source function, from which trickled other functions;
- b. Reconstruction of a common platform English, from which are derived the other variants, as well as the reasons for their acquisition;
- c. Establishing the relative and absolute chronology for the acquisition of phonological structure [nə] together with the corresponding function.

Diachronic into language review shows that *an* English language unit has functioned as genuine numeral. As such, it regularly went proklitik position within the cluster *numeral + name* (/ *word named*). Initial function and topic allow the variety of forms today dialect, separating *a* reduced vowel forms as representative form (paradialektore) unit under review. Reading further diachronic as well as basic shape reconstruction protoshqipë directly related etymological interpretation numeral *a* in Albanian. "Etymological so-far studies in the field of Albanian, followed methodological criteria to establish direct etymological ties to one of the topics that demonstrate the various Indo-European languages: * / (H) O-no /, * / (H) O-uo / * / (H) O-ko / * / SEM / * / sm /" [3].

4. Treatment at the semantic level of grammatical word *a*

To talk about the use of the word, can not escape its setting as part of the lecture, because its lexicon-grammar evaluation has led to a wrong use may be consequences for the structure of the Eagle. "In our tradition a word grammar *bashkëvjajje* with a name is kept as a numeral and a knot undefined" [4]. Such an approach may be seen in the first edition of morphology and FGJSSh, 1980, which in this case has followed the morphology. In the second edition of a treatment morphology as undefined node is removed, i know what ur worth përemërore. It seems that the separation from previous treatment is not complete, because it is there stated: "In this use the word a meaning and function answers undefined node of those languages that are equipped with the knot. M. Celiku firmly held its treatment as knot joshquese, as he kept the handling of words: *some few*, as Node joshquese plural, treatment is long suppressed Albanian Grammatology. This thought he was trying to argue the article *contribution for two problems of today's Albanian language morphology*, has defended the papers "On several problematic issues of today's Albanian language morphology" and has applied to *practice English language Grammar works* [5].

In the first article M. Steel creates a complex system knots present knots zero on one side, and endings knowledge on the other hand, which is not argued theoretically satisfactory and there is plenty of controversy, appearing in ot terminology used. He sees this possible link system nodes Eagles:

1. zero knot + singular name (son),
2. node joshquese + singular name (a son),
3. the name singular + definite article (son), item
4. zero node + name amount (boys),

5. node joshquese + plural name (some / some boys)
6. the name of the amount + definite article (boys) item (SF, f.159).

Examples such as: "I have no daughter," the girl's name node zero, zero endings (SF, p. 159), while examples: "The teacher put his hand in his pocket" (SFG, p. 161); and "Here was held the event" (SF, p. 162), names: *pocket and termination events shquese zero*. Is not the place here to deal with this CE Issues. At this sense see two connectors: a) *jack* and b) *a son*.

M. Celiku claims that *guy with zero knot*, "a person (in the broadest sense spiritual) abstract thinking", while a boy's name, node, comes the idea of a person among people similar "idea According to him, provided by to node joshquese a flame joshquese the bending pashquar (in the given case is zero). This opposes grammatical meaning of meaning *guy* form the "node joshquese", which is incorrect, because, otherwise, we must recognize that *guy* in the link form (2) has no grammatical sense." In fact, the meaning of "node" *an* indelible as opposed to node zero, but comes in contradiction with vector pronouns *it, this*, so either these words should be kept as node shquese, or a word is not a knot" [6]. *Son* form, does not say which kind of counters: *boy* form, "form" *a guy* or two. It is not hard to understand that there's nothing we traverse knots endings, present a zero, but opposed nominative forms, and that this complex system of connections, endings knots, it helps to better understand who its contents easily category.

5. Treatment of word *a* as a numeral in Albanian

Regarding the phonological structure of the unit should be noted that in today's Albanian literature is a form generalized in all grammatical functions, among them the numeral: Examples: "What do himself *a r* Kunda three!No, no; *an* anti four all Skënderi to. *A* window to the front, *a* trapeze and five chairs ... etc.." [7]. 1. Meanings of pointer *a* as numeral:

- a) In relation to a name that names numerical items, such as a limit generic sense (Traverse) name to mark a copy of a class of things. In this case used as a numeral, the meaning of which is clear in Traverse quantitative or note the amount: (*How many apples in the basket church?*) - *Had a basket of apples.*; But maintained even when there is no opposition: *down, across the plateau, flew a falcon, who lost a black ball away from Nome* (F.Ballanca).
- b) In negative sentences numeral *one* is synonymous with the pronoun *none* can be replaced by him: *During all night was thinking and didn't say a word.*
- c) Numeral *a* can win even at adjectival sense, entering into relationships synonymous with the family name / the same: *Take a song, both men said the master of the house, - highland fielders of a blood have the same enemy press us* (S.Krasniqi).
- d) Near names that do not have separate plural form, using numeral is necessary to update the number of the name, which without this will be interpreted as plural. Let us compare the name *houses* in these two phrases: *Behind the hill was home*, where *home* name has partial understanding of, and *behind the hill had a home* [8].

An English language unit followed *proper numeral functional chronological line* → *indefinite pronoun* → *knot joshquese*. Through this side of time, it being genuine numeral first, used sintaksorisht with a function përcaktori pavetëmjaftueshë m, ie. In any case, as the accompanying names or other parts of speech, krhs.: *A man not two men*. In these piles of words she has always had a weak emphasis, what tumiret of Tosk form buzukjane a reduced vowel.

6. Thoughts on this treatment reports about using word *a* numeral

A diachronic interpretation difficulties conveys that explains numeral *a* thesis as a formative version of the database * / (H) O-no- / [9]. Mention here Meyer's opinion, which accepts the approach previously made by Stier-ind. vj. *anya*-*other*" and gr. "Eviói some" rebuilding for all three variants common formative language * / enios /, but without providing for additional explanations. Pedersen adds comparison with tissue. vj. *anya-arm*. ayn "he", rebuilding a basic form * / an-ios / formation Indo-European comparative scale * {-ios}. As we have seen, this group linguists tend mainly to clarify problems phonology character off. Reconstruction of a form basis * / vnio- / motivates both as qiellzorizimin hundores * / n / (→ Al. / N / | _ * / i /) as well as early coming initials of the unstressed vowel of the unit. Resolving this issue in favor of topic adjectival * / h₂ en- / enables the etymological explanation numeral *an* Albanian. "Within this framework, numeral *a* readily explained as a form of extended * /-io / (pp * /-ieh₂ - /) subject përemërore * / h₂ en- /: *a* <protoshq. / AniV- /: m. * / H₂ en-io- / f. / H₂ en-ieh₂ - /" [10].

7. How is treated Albanian word *a* as node

As known, the English language, like most languages i.e. equipped with the node, node joshquese created only for the same number of *s*. Even this number of use of it has some limitations. But mentioned cases where the general name used generalized sense, node joshquese *a* commonly used not as concise names, subject headings and abstract, if these are not followed by percaktor. Use of node joshquese *a* in this case has prevented known fact that names of this type, when used in the singular pashquar have a *partial* understanding (Power set) indefinitely. Therefore, when there is a need *q* they be accompanied by a pre-established determinant indefinite sense, then usually placed before the indefinite pronoun *some* or [11].

Albanian today using this link with names generalized sense is much more limited than that of node shquese. And this is understandable, but keep in mind that node joshquese *a* phonetically both semantically has not cut off all ties with basic numeral source from which it is derived.

In Albanian node is obtained through the use of numeral *a* indefinite pronoun before a name general. For the form it does not differ from basic numeral, being presented with the same composition phoneme. But differs from it by the lack of emphasis. Only by emphasizing distinguish it from the indefinite pronoun when it is not followed by a name. But by understanding *a* distinguished node numeral *one* because it has a lexical meaning very pale, that amounts to a full çsematizim when used before a name with sense generalist.

Node *a* in Albanian today is used before any form of racist content name. But the language of *s* old author shows us that before a name (of any gender) in Rasa gender dative singular *rrjedhore* she used to tour with a distinct form, taking ending racist content, characteristic for male names first *lakimit*, should be extended by analogy way, as the name query *where j (t)* (eg *X / 82*). Here are some examples:

Buzuku: "I was *afro* *same* generosity of *qytets* *s* father earth why was *urdhënova* *same* *gruo* *s* widow with *fed* ... led *djerje* atop *same* mountain ... *Klau* *Exekia* *n* *same* *vai* big ... And there *n* *h* *ditëtë* *kun* advice *same*. ... Turned his flesh like a flesh *same* little boy *d* ... Who let nuke *shkuom* *njaj* the old word for the right to ... [12] ("*Missa*" f.149, 137, 155, 115, 65, 153, 65).

Budi: *Sod* relate *njaj* long time a week or a *muoi* *njaj* another man; ... Another *njaj* *t* teen ... another *njaj* *girl*. (SC 6, 19).

White: (*palmarium*) *njaj* *pëllambe* (f.82), (*parilis* the *uguale*) *njaj* *mass* (f.83), (*pedalis* :) *njaj* *legs* (p. 86), etc..

8. Treatment in linguistics contemporary word *a* as node

Group toe joints, as well as functions as grammatical features, show great interest for general linguistics. Suffice to mention here the dual role that plays the front hub surnames *smart type*, where it not only serves as a composite element of the surname, but also plays a role similar to that of pins racist content, that plays both a role word pattern and shape forming. As can be seen, *n* *h* this case we are dealing with a grammatical tool *sui generis* [13], who has no partner in any other language ie. It is true that the Romanian has created a tool grammatical similarity *m*. But between Albanian and Romanian at this point there is a change. At Albanian "front knot" is an integral part of adjectives knotting, who form a separate group as opposed to group of adjectives *panyjshëm*. P. sh.: *compare*: *good*, *smart* and *brave*, *loyal*. Courses in Romanian there two groups of adjectives: structurally distinct among themselves through the presence, or lack of "node front." "I *n* the language every adjective can *paranyjëzohet* only if the decision after a distinguished name. Elsewhere, the same adjective used *paranyjëzuar* [14]. P. sh.: *compare*: *un om bun* "a good man", *omul cel bun* "good man".

The same remark applies to "the front node" gown *s* gender. At Albanian language that has become part integrante *gjinore*, [15] and in Romanian this gown *paranyjëzohet* only if there comes *pandërmjeshëm* after prominent surname. P. sh. *t* *h* compared *o carte a elevului* "a book of students" and *cartea elevului* "student book."

Between front joints of Albanian and Romanian there are other important changes in morphological and syntactic character. As front nodes of adjectives and gender race Albanian formally leave the same and their use is not restricted by syntactic certain circumstances, in Romanian "front hub" of adjectives is formally different and used in different syntactic conditions by those "node front" gender race (see the examples of the above r). In that language, as it is known, "the front hub" of adjectives, called "article demonstrative (adjectival)" [16], *del cel* format (nj.), *cei* (eg) for masculine and *CEA* (nj.) *cele* (eg) for women, these forms related to those demonstrative pronouns *ACEL*, *acei*, *acea*, *ACEL* [17]. And front node of *gjinore*, called "article possessive (gjenitival)", comes with format *al* (nj.), *he* (eg) for masculine and *a* (nj.), *ale* (eg) gender female of natural. Obviously, *k* these nodal forms have a different source from node the front of

adjectives. [18] Also keep in mind that as the front hub of adjectives as well as that of gender race, being used only in certain syntactic conditions are not transformed into pamungueshme then integrate, adjectives, namely gender race, as they are made in the English language. As a result, the front hub of adjectives in Romanian plays a dual grammatical role word pattern and shape pattern, just like in English.

9. Thoughts on this treatment reports about using word a as node

With all the differences between the front nodes and gjinore adjectives in Albanian and in Romanian, the fact that in these two languages in addition to back shqese joints are acquired these front hub is a linguistic phenomenon that catches the eye and therefore has fair attracted the attention of a number of researchers. K ETU has a range of difficult issues that have not yet been fully clarified, such as the ratio between the chronological back joints and toe joints, the origin function of the joints of the front and is there any historical connection between Albanian and Romanian in the development of a nodal system such similarity. This issues, are related between them, so that their explanation can not be done only by examining together. But ,automatically understood that a work such presents a number of difficulties partly unbiased up today. Therefore, here will stop at the beginning in some more or less general considerations.

First, keep in mind that it is impossible to explain to the chronological relationship between the back and front joints without first explained the origin of the latter function. In the case that those in English and in Romanian did not have sometimes seconding function, which is the origin node function in all languages equipped with a nodal system, then the issue is resolved respectively chronological report. And t h does not really like to think that back nodes that play a setter, get out of the front nodes, if these have not ever had such a feature.

Such a function node can not perform except in the class names, because only names could be developed to oppose *certain sense ~ undefined sense*. Also, given that even name node (shqese) n h very beginning can not be displayed in a gown, such as gender, which ie languages served (and serving) express përcaktorin. "As a result, it is implausible as Graurit opinion RRL 1, 1967, 16 Romanian and Albanian node in beginning have been paranyjëzuar". [19]

10. Using word a as indefinite pronoun

Nonuse or use of the indefinite pronoun before an impersonal name it according to certain rules that must be followed exactly known, if we want to think of writing slip. Pashqar name from pronoun a prihet not in these cases:

1. "Where is the extender of the verb *am* and generic sense. Coherency of the object q expresses the subject and the object that said kallëzuesori, connection type ~ genre: *apple trees*; *Man is a being with reason*; or object ~ type: *Sun is the planet*; *This is home*; *This is a book*; *This is this pen is a pen*. In these cases the use of the pronoun would narrow generic sense dh name coherency ~ ~ genre or type item type would break, which would be unacceptable in this context " [20] .
Examples: "The dream that told him her husband was not already a dream (Gazette Century date. May 10, 2000); *Losing elections is not a tragedy* (VAT); *You're a professional* (film); *Loss of support, there is a reality, as some see it* (Gazette Century, 13 May 2000) a; *This man can not be a beggar* (S.Godo, Sk ënderbeu, 236), "are not in accordance with the regular rate would be without a. For example: Was it not, indeed, this good news? (press), it seems that ërdorimi p is justified in order to avoid the interpretation determinant note name. In fact, even here it is not necessary, but avoiding a will require pronoun setting *this* in another country, apart from the name: *This is not really good news?* or *A is not really good news this?*
2. When is the extender of some other verbs and functions as a determinant kallëzuesor kryefjalës or kundrinorit: "When he grew up, he became a good guy; eldest son became a teacher; remained good man" etc.; Examples: " If they do not I am a groom, I would like to remain a man Gega said, "(Z.Ç ela snow Bulletin, p.225); "This mospërkim hours can constitute himself a conflict?"(Ce decolage horaire Serai-il a lui seul un conflit?) " {0}i{0} {0} {/0} Kadare, "Ra this mort eu saw", p.183); gym teacher says that, with the stature that I can become a good basketball player, (T.Lac o, "A Night with the sh", p.17); I do not know any other language that its first phrase have a baptismal formula, (I.Kadare, "Call in the studio", p.277); Athosi is a long time considered a holy place (the press), the use of one is not in line with the norm, is the impact of other languages should be avoided.
3. When used in incomplete sentences, with function kallëzuesori (the so-called nominal sentences), eg: "Around any suspicious noise. **Night.Silence.** {0}i{0} {0} {/0} Kadare, South City, 77) **afternoon.** Tanush Martini sat in the same place and smoked tobacco (S.Drini, Martini Tanush, 102). "Uses such an impact or

- translations from Western languages, that are not in accordance with the norm: **"One morning all** (VAT, the title of a show); **A general realization Albanian Television** (VAT); (Anywhere from right were gathering people). - **A quarrel, said astronomer** (I.Kadare, "Castle", 44); **A holy mountain monasteries** "(print).
4. Do not use a pronoun before a meaningful name in the generic function of an isolated ndajshimi. Use of pronoun *a* example: the problem is how to connect around the world with the words of this language, which can called world fjalësimit process, a term that we have already used in the sense ... (text) is not regular.
 5. For the same reason had not a pronoun used in the following examples, where the name of pashquar works as fair kundrinor or kundrinor preposition: "No man who was carrying **a** gun, would not escape the army (S.Godo *Skanderbeg*, 228); "Right now their position is unfavorable for **an** attack" (I.Kadare, "Castle", 149). "N both names phrases: *assault weapon*, generic sense, which can not be realized in this context in the presence of a word.
 6. When used as a synonym of pronoun *each*, a pronoun is not common in the English language, especially spoken language. It is natural, when the name is followed by a subordinate clause qualifiers, but does not seem pëlqyeshë m and strongly regular when no extender name. Use of name in outstanding form with generic meaning is in these cases more regular [21]: "Stood in front of **a** gate and press the alarm button ...") *I fell in mind that **an** alarm can be terminated and the best was knocking ...* (T. Laco, "One night the rain", 3); *He, a little later, said murimi **a** man really weakens **a** wall* (I.Kadare, "bridge with three arches"); *Seven years are not a little to test **a** man* (Dh.Shuteriqi); *Some say that it was about finding water, but as they themselves were not able to explain what fellowship can have **a** hidden vent fence deep under ground water* (I.Kadare, "Castle", 154). Using such a construction, development seems to be influenced by foreign languages, but sometimes these can be justified, as in the example above, the need to avoid ambiguity: *fence* outstanding forms and water forms can be understood even as uses anaphoric.
 7. In other cases, when the phrase is characterized by suspicion mode that assumption, the use of *any* use in a country will be more acceptable, as it seems clear in the following examples: "In this way must surely have **a** hotel" (N.Lera, "The night of the premiere", 4); "would give the invitation ..?. But whether it was true or invitation was **a** toy, behind which hide **a** trap?" (Mr. Ç ela, "Bulletin of snow", 233).
 8. pashquar name cuts by a pronoun, when characterized by a pronounced qualitative trait and is followed by a subordinate sentence descriptors, which contains a situation is a consequence of this feature and expresses its high level, amplifies it.

Building a pronoun expressed in this sub-species and a certain sense, for example: "There was **a** strong eye to kill tration with a view" (M.Kuteli); "It was **a** steep city had broken all laws of architecture" (I.Kadare). Feature name can be given by a përcaktori, usually qualitative adjective, eg: "It was not really snow," "It was **a** light rainfall that soils have absorbed quickly" (Mr.Ç ela, "Bulletin of snow"); "It was **a** rock teeth that strike fear" (T.LACO). But the trait can be given with the lexical meaning of the name, usually figurative sense: "It was **a** fox not had friend"; or in other cases, it is the subordinate sentence descriptors, which makes clear the feature and scale of him: "He was **a** man who had compassion" (V.Koreshi, "Balada of Kurbin", p. 24); "On Sunday, to walk late at night to zallshtja the wilderness, I felt **a** consumption that I had never experienced" (I. Kadare); "She was a young girl, thin and weak, but with **a** charm that getting dizzy" (V.Koreshi); "Fate had called him to lead such **an** army which I had friend in the world" (S.Godo, "Skanderbeg").

Often subordinate sentence descriptors may not be present, but it is implied by the context or discourse situation: "It was **a** scary dance and monotonous" (I.Kadare, "Castle", p.43); "Rina was **a** very pretty girl. K Ete felt it itself" (V.Koreshi, "Balada of Kurbin", p.239). In all these cases, a pronoun reinforces the idea of sub-species, has the function of certain sense, characterized as popular spoken language, literary language, and is the standard language norm.

11. Thoughts on this treatment reports about the use of word *an* as indefinite pronoun

In connection with the report chronologically between the functions ~ numeral indefinite pronoun, English language data and Indo-European lead to acceptance of the earliest appearance of a unit numeral function. Indefinite function of pronoun is the result of using numeral *one* with a sense (general) indefinite, where the idea of quantity passes into the background [22]. In this case, it should be noted that the use of a unit as indefinite pronoun belongs to later periods of various Indo-European languages and is not related to Indo-European pronoun bases (demonstrative reflexive), from which is derived the numeral in these language [23].

About phonological structure of this unit, it should be noted that in today's eagle is generalized forms a grammatical function as indefinite pronoun, eg: "I met with **one** of which I had ever seen. It's **one** of mine ... "and so on.

Unit faces as members of particular sentences, so when it is used as indefinite pronoun: *a coming of a heading*: or as numeral named, with the value of the entire cluster numeral + name: cf.. *Came one (man) and not two*. In this syntactic function she carried necessarily focus on them. At this situation would be quite normal in Tosk dialect, it can not be preserved as such in Geg dialect, phonological system which vowel / ə / pronounced missing. In this way a final explanation gege a secondary variant, analogical appear

fully stars. Conversion of analogical dialectal / rĭə / → g. *Couple* must have started before the century.XVI (Buzuku). Budi his face er trace the earliest linguistic situation Geg dialect, where a unit in this idiom yet retain phonological structure / rĭə / when used as a main limb in the sentence.

12. Intangibility in other languages and in Albanian language

Receiving word a node undefined a joshëuese or acceptance of node zero is, no doubt, influence of west language grammar. In these languages the meaning of uncertainty Words placed before the name, which are necessary to show a degree of uncertainty item by name. These words, called node, object node non defined and defining node. Each of the this language has its features using nodes, for example: English has not knot non defined to plural and, in certain cases, even non defined node of the singular is used, while in French, which also non defined knot plural, only in exceptional cases can not used non defined node. For some of these special cases can not used non defined node. For some of these cases, in those languages it comes to zero kanot.

N English language situation is different. In this language name has two synthetic forms, which oppose indefinite form (there is no specific marker, therefore endings joshqese zero node are meaningless) and prescribed form (which has a special marker, which in some racist content forms are merged with suffixes racist content).

This two forms realize the meaning of undefined terms of designated. Understanding the non defined displayed as *generic sense*, which means more opposition (when we say: *Swimming is taught in the water, implicit opposition not to the ground*), as *partial sense* when said mass or unspecified quantity: *rain; Collect olives*. Defined meaning emerges as individualization: trgim of an object defined in different ways (anaphoric, cataphoric a situative), or as a generic sense, when classes denominated items is known or given discourse situation as such. Implementation of generic meaning t h an unspecified name and a defined name can be clearly seen in the use of rrjedhores gjinore a name as a determinant of a different name: *olive oil ~ oil Olive*.

Autonomous use (with or without preposition) undetermined name in Albanian can achieve or generic sense, or partial understanding, but led by defining words (numerals or pronouns) carries only the generic sense, but, of course, without opposition, because it neutralized the defining words.

13. Albanian features compared to other languages: English, French, Italian ... etc..

Despite the similarity that category determination in different languages, can not be the same as the use of tools that mark the internal logic that characterizes any language.

a) In French, for example: partial understanding expressed *du* partial nodes (<de + le), *de la, des* (<de + les), which are formed by the preposition *de* (which has lost its meaning as the preposition in this use) and by defining node, whereas in English is expressed in the form of unspecified name: *Je bois du vin ou de la Bier*. "Drink wine or beer." In French the name preposition expressing local circumstances, turns out to be associated with the specified node, while Albanian indefinite form: *Je vais à la maison*. "Go home."

Indefinite pronoun a Eagles and undefined node of the French, who comes also from numeral, is also the hub of English that no about ancestry with numeral, are similar in their uses but not like idea. Albanian pronoun like to use with the knot of these languages, when it expresses the meaning of vetësisë, but not used in the English language, the name of pashqar express gender (sex-type connection). Such translations found in bilingual dictionaries French-English, Italian-English, English-slip etc., Finds in fiction translations from these languages, but especially in the daily press and in methods for teaching these languages States. Dog of these languages taught in our schools and in different courses, understand how much damage done Albanian language. I give my few cases with relevant examples of a method of English and an Italian-English dictionary:

a) Constructions and idiomatic expressions

This is a *room*. This is a *room*.

That's a *wall*. It is a *wall*.

That's a *window*.

A no is a *window*.

This is a *lamp*. This is a *lamp*.
This is a *pen*. This is a *pen*.
And this is a *pencil* and this is a *pencil*.
This is a *book*. This is a *box*.

(D. Hick, *English for all*, Tirana, 1993, p.[23]

b) Uno as knot joshqese, (masch. femme.): 1) un *quaderno-a* notebook; una mela *measured-a* baked apple; ha avuto una Paura had a fear (F.Alexander Z. Simon, Dictionary Italian-Albanian, Tirana, 1988). In all these cases the use of a word in the translation is wrong, the meaning is not clear, nor precise, if we consider the linguistic contextual explanation above.

14. Functions syntax of word a as node

When accompanied by a node, the name used in the form of pashqar: *As soon as he had opened a mënjollë little toward the sun; After a few days a Rustic set up a songs; Lead ciflosi a stone in the wall of a house*. When the name of a node is defined by an inclined possessive, can be used in the form of distinguished and pashqarën.

1. Name used in outstanding form, when determined by a possessive pronoun: "My friend, your brother.", Eg: *Then came a letter from a friend of mine; From our man found out that kryekapedani us love with a shot somewhat arnautkë; There he met a friend of his*.

2. The name used in the form of pashqar when pronori used emërzuar: *a friend of mine, a friend of ours, your brother, a saji man, a girl of his own.*, Eg:

"A machinegun ours i stopped advancing Nazis; There was one of our batteries; your church under the pillow of the hotel an English newspaper that contained a poem of mine; Our Party has today a thought sajin, clear, well defined, on all major issues, domestic and foreign; Skënderbeu like to see among them a man of his own; Just in this novel have internal enemies physiognomy of their own" [24]. **Functions of morph – syntax of word a** According to tradition grammatical English, nodes are distinguished as separate parts of speech. *"In this class are usually involved nodes back a shqese and called the front nodes, and in some grammar node pashqar domed a"* [25]. Against such treatment may be asked a series of remarks like:

- i. Including of the so-called front hub in a class with the back nodes can only be justified by relying on historical consideration, viz. the fact that, historically, they have a common source, which stands out in the formal similarities between them. But draft-that they are different functions altogether. While back nodes play primarily a role shques a *individualizues.*, The so-called front hub, perform very different functions, which generally ot not comply with the function of the joints. In most cases (eg: surnames nyjshëm), they play a similar role to that of a morpheme. Of a particular type, that performs both function *word pattern and shape forming*.
- ii. Back nodes or shqese, dogs that are prapangjitur long name, lost their independence as separate words and are transformed into morpheme word pattern category shqarsisë.
- iii. Front nodes, when playing the role of a morpheme of a particular type, not autonomy as separate words, they do not exist in isolation from the word where they belong. K është example, the front hub surnames nodes type paranyjëzuar names: *Monday, hard-pressed, speak-it* etc.., Or some pronouns such as: *such, his, who* etc. ., is an integral part of the word, and not separate words. As for less can be taken as separate parts of speech hub on the front of the race equality. *"Regarding word accepted as pashqar domed knot, it basically is an indefinite pronoun is used before a name pashqar"* [26].

The form of a word in the broadest sense of the term is not only conditioned by morphological circumstances, but there are also links to a large extent with conditions morph syntaxes. "In accordance with this principle, there are words that so methodically right must be viewed in a non-isolated in itself, but in ngërthim sentence. Syntactic Phonetics of Albanian Geg tells us. A, which does not prevail in the old literature of the north, so it is a relatively new form has emerged in paratheksor position, or at proklizë, in composites, such as: *twenty, a hundred* or sandhi, according to a phonetic rule holds especially in this dialect." [27].

"Slate indirect pointer, which is characteristic of the male names first bending, which is attached form Petrous / couple. As such he can not rrjedhohet pandërmjetshëm of racist content eptimit indicators përemëror indoeuropean: cf.. lat.(E.) *Unus*, (Gj.) *Unus*, (dh.) *uni*. In endings racist content {i / j} of the unit Demiraj explains the action analogical class male names first bending, as happened interrogative pronoun *whom* (: where jt). A similar effect appears to be obtained even with surname function përemëror (i) the same (: j-), (Buzuku) (i) *njaj* (: couple j) "only; the same" and forms

buzukjane the pronoun that: () *sejtë* (: j), *n total of* " [28] .

"As stated above, the grammar rejects grammatical English tradition, not accepting node joshquese a separate part lecture s. This state is held, obviously contradicts what has been achieved in our grammatical tradition. Now known that node joshquese basic numeral source. The numeral on the other hand has gone indirectly knot, but through its use as an adjective undefined " [29] . To fully prove that the node can be treated and reviewed in function of part lecture, apply more advanced studies in linguistic level, specifically in it morfo-syntactic, grammatical system approach of other European languages.

15. Results

Using a language worthy material in different vocabularies examples entirety Eagles meet extensively with multi-functionality and semantic value word carries. In this short paper modest, Aiming to bring clearly aspects of the chronology of the birth, evolution and development numeral a linguistic unit. Decades of the twentieth century scholars both domestic and foreign, have sufficiently addressed issues related to the development of this unit in the course of comprehensive studies of various parts of speech. These authors have treated word a different point of views. The treatment of the subject corresponds to undergoing word a change in the structure of the sentence in the English language. We presenting word a numeral one time, how adjective non defined and knots joshquese. Word characterized by variability. This type of variability it appears depending on its position in the sentence, and depending on the role it plays in the sentence context. In this perspective, we can say that:

Images before the form and number, written in the stone age, numerals are understood as one of the properties of objects. This unit, the first born is abstract mathematical needs further use of function as a linguistic unit, explaining thus en language links with other sciences.

Its use among older authors Eagles (Buzuku, Budi, Bogdani Matrënga), reflects again the fact that phonological evolution here has not deviated historical laws development Albanian linguistic system. Joining with the opinion of many prominent linguists, we can say that his abstraction in use following line: *numeral indefinite pronoun - knot joshquese*, where the latter seems to be more recent.

Fellowship and appeared particularly interesting use of this unit bashkëvajtje with the aforementioned units. Distinguishes here the phenomenon of emërzimit numeral. Also, as a word that shows the amount as opposed to other numeral, he gains the sense of an indefinite pronoun used as adjective, etc. For this word have recognized its ability word pattern and its syntactic functions. Given all of this material and linguistic basis of analyzed in detail word a question: Should treated word a category nodes context lexicon-grammar? We can say that this topic is treated extensively by Sh.Demiraj. Can not give a definitive answer, because it is a broad topic and widely as linguists weight remains to restore, reconceived reconsideration. Remains to be made more detailed studies and comparative approach, then by analogy with other European languages. In particular, the more complete will be when we bring analyzes the function specification of sintagmës head of this word structural syntactic constructions. In conclusion, we can say, that the specificity of linguistic diversity in the use of this unit seems to be special, unique and with a special contribution in the use of grammatical structure function of Eagles.

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- [7] B.Demiraj, "counting system ..." *Acts. cit.*, p.19.
- [8] M.Totoni, language Our, 1-2/2000 ..., *art. cit.*, p.63-64.
- [9] B.Demiraj, "counting system ..." *Acts. cit.*, f.27-28.
- [10] B.Demiraj, "counting system ..." *Acts cit.*, p.29.
- [11] But when considering names are followed by a determinant, then a node is quite possible, as it is quite possible its use before a name generalized sense. Eg I bought a *cheese* (*flour, butter*, etc.) *very well*. It is a *good man* etc.. Using node in compound words such makes it possible that in this case created a contradiction between a part of the object (or class) characterized by a given quality and the rest of the same thing (ie the same class) , which is not characterized by this quality.
- [12] As can be seen, in this case Buzuku used form - a -, as opposed to the ordinary - h -. Form - a-, in this capacity he has used in

other cases (for example: on p. 265), but this form he uses regularly in function *përemëror*, such as: buying a piece *dhō n njai qi ban urcoj*. (p.209).

- [13] Sh.Demiraj, Historical Grammar of the Albanian language, "The *problem of the joints of the Eagle*", Tirana, 1985, p.306.
- [14] Regarding Numeral *rreshtorë*, these, with the exception of *rreshtorit intiul* "first" regularly used "front knot" *al ~ he, ~ ale*, that is even before the race equality. Therefore "the front hub" *rreshtorëve* in Romanian, as in English, has become part of their integrante and plays a dual role, *fjalëformues* and *trajtëformues* along *fundores-lea* for masculine *and-a* for women (see: GLR I, 196).
- [15] Regarding compound words *wheat bread* type, where the second limb plays a defining characteristic of gender *Rasen*, sh. remarks ... *System*, p. V 28.; Sh. *edheV / 16-21* work present.
- [16] Sh.GLR 107 v.
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The Socio Cultural Background as Semantic Implication: How to Identify it Within a Literary Text

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Abstract

All linguists and literary critics are aware of the complexity of a literary text. The complete interpretation and understanding of such a text definitely requires some extra linguistic knowledge. According to the Reception Theory, a crucial element that defines the reception of the meaning of a text is the socio cultural background of the text itself. This article considers the socio cultural background as a kind of semantic implication. It aims at presenting a theoretical approach of this theory as well as introducing some ideas on how to identify it. It will also explain and analyze some very important notions relevant to the theory, such as the notion of the text, meaning, semantics etc. The examples provided to support the theory are taken from the work in prose of Martin Camaj. Camaj is well known for the vivid descriptions and representations of the northern Albanian lifestyle and costumes. In order to completely embrace the meaning of his text, the reader must firstly identify and analyze the socio cultural background.

Keywords: *implication, semantics, text, socio cultural background, entailment*

1. Introduction

The origin of the artwork is art. Art is real in the artwork. (Heidegger, 2000, p. 19) Literature is considered as being a work of art and as such it has the duty to express the truth. However, a literary text is far more complex than that. Which is the truth of a literary text, the one stated by the author or the one perceived by the reader? The text is destined to be read and only after being read does it acquire its real meaning. The meaning may be explicit, easily understood by everyone, or implicit, impossible to be embraced by the reader. The implicit meaning of a text is known in modern linguistics as semantic entailment. That suggests that the reader must firstly acquire some extralinguistic, socio cultural background knowledge in order to fully master the understanding of text. The text is a linguistic entity that carries multiple interpretations. The Reception Theory considers the reader as the main actor in the realization of the text's aim. However there is a bridge that links the author and the reader and that is the identification of the implied meaning through the analysis of the socio cultural aspects of the work.

2. What is a "text"?

The text is generally defined as a linguistic entity that provides communication, whether in a spoken or written form. Linguistics has a different view on this category. From the linguistic point of view, a text is an entity made up of linguistic signs and characterized by cohesion and coherence. So, according to Werlich a text is an extended structure of syntactic units such as words, groups, and clauses and textual units that is marked by both coherence among the elements and completion.... A non-text consists of random sequences of linguistic units such as sentences, paragraphs, or sections in any temporal and/or spatial extension. (Werlich, 1976, p. 23) De Beaugrande and Dressler define the text as a naturally occurring manifestation of language, i.e. as a communicative language event in a context. The "surface text" is the set of expressions actually used; these expressions make some knowledge "explicit", while other knowledge remains "implicit", though still applied during processing. (De Beaugrande, Dressler, 1981, p. 63) The literary text is a specific kind of text. It does not contain one specific meaning but offers a variety of meanings. The perception of different readers may be different and also differ from the aim of the author.

3. Reception theory and Hermeneutics

The reception theory pays great attention to the role of the reader in a process of literary experience. According to Jauss literature is a dialectical process of production and reception (Jauss, 1982, p. 15). He holds the idea that a literary text acquires its real value when the interaction of the author meets the interaction of the public. Another prominent figure in Reception Theory is Iser. He also considers the reader as the main element in the realisation of the meaning of a text. According to him the work is more than the text, for the text only takes on life when it is realized, and furthermore the realization is by no means independent of the individual disposition of the reader...the convergence of text and reader brings the literary work into existence. (Iser, 1974, pp. 274-275) This clearly proves and suggests that literature is a process where reader and text interact with each other and complement each other. This is a hermeneutical approach. According to de Man, hermeneutics is the process directed towards the determination of meaning. He holds the opinion that there are some important extralinguistic factors that contribute to that. (de Man, 1982) Therefore, the notion of hermeneutics is a key element in Reception Theory since the reader's interpretation is part of the literary process. However, in order to completely embrace the meaning of a text the reader must be equipped with some extralinguistic background knowledge. This can be difficult and it may not occur in cases when:

- The text in native language involves a temporal distance
- There is an ideological difference between the reader and the text
- The text is translated, thus being produced in a completely different cultural atmosphere. (Teichman, 2010, p. 68)

In these cases the reader is helped by his extralinguistic knowledge such as the historical and socio cultural background. This is due to the fact that despite its explicit information, a text carries implicit information too. The later is encoded in between the lines.

4. The socio cultural entailment

So, which is the meaning of the word "implicit"? The definition of this word according to the Oxford Dictionary is "suggested though not directly expressed" (Dictionary, 2013). Linguistics uses another term to refer to implications: entailment. This is a term derived from formal logic and now is used as part of study of semantics. Lyons gives a logical definition of entailment "a relation that holds between P and Q where P and Q are variables standing for propositions such that if the truth of Q necessarily follows from the truth of P, then P entails Q". (Lyons, 1977, p. 85) What we are interested in is the socio cultural entailment. This category involves an extralinguistic, cultural context that is crucial for the understanding of a text. When defining the elements of meaning Lyons states that there exist descriptive, social and expressive elements of meaning (Lyons, 1997, p. 50). With this division, he points out how these social factor influence meaning.

The socio cultural entailment belongs within the domain of semantics, because it is an element that defines meaning. It involves a complex knowledge of the world and is mirrored inside the semantics of the linguistic items of the text. The presence of entailments can be discovered in different ways:

- The socio cultural entailment is part of the word lexemes.
- The socio cultural entailment may be separated or connected to the referential (connotative) meaning.
- Entailment is a result of the blending of socio cultural and denotative aspects.
- Linguistic entailment is realized within the text. The relations of lexemes form the lexical field.
- The activation of a lexeme in the conscience of the reader is determined by the socio cultural experience. (Pohl, 1991, p. 243)

However, it is very difficult to scientifically find out which part of the lexicon carries semantic entailment. That is why it is placed in between the linguistic knowledge and the extralinguistic one. It is part of a general empirical knowledge but on the other hand it is closely connected with language. Thus, the socio cultural entailment may be defined as an essential part of the referential meaning.

5. Socio cultural entailment in Camaj's "Dranja"

Now, let's focus on the actualization of the theories about the socio cultural entailment in the analysis of a literary text. The chosen text is "Dranja" written by the Albanian author Martin Camaj. Camaj is well known for the vivid portrayals of the Albanian life and culture which he achieves by an excellent description of characters and setting. There are various

socio cultural elements in his texts and knowing and identifying those elements is crucial for the complete understanding of the texts. This is also the case of "Dranja". The title itself encodes some implicit information. "Dranja" is the name of a female turtle, which at the same time happens to be the name of a beautiful girl from Dukagjin, the author's birthplace, as well as a dialectal form of the noun "drande", meaning "rose". Thus the title could be read as "the woman- turtle" or "the turtle – rose". (Pipa, 1991, p. 142) This work is considered to be an autobiographical account of the author's life with the turtle being his alter ego. When analyzing the text of Camaj from the linguistic point of view, we cannot pass it on without noticing some orthographic mistakes. This may be interpreted as a sign of seeking for imperfection, according to what the author states at the very beginning: "on the destiny of a non perfect being" (Camaj, 1981, p. 4) Thus, there are words such as: *i panjoftum* (unknown) and *njohë* (known); *ngritem* (arise) instead of *ngrihem*; *ndoj* (some) instead of *ndonji* and there is a word that is impossible to be found in any Albanian language dictionary: *bulshanë*. In order to understand the meaning of these words the reader must not only be a fluent speaker of the Albanian language but he must also speak the Gheg dialect.

Even though there is not a specific lexical category that encodes semantic entailment useful for embracing the meaning of the text, there are some constituents that tend to carry connotations embodied with implicit information. These generally denote objects of the material culture and the Albanian tradition. So, there is great usage of phraseology, mainly oral idioms that have been elaborated by the author and completely melted within the text. There are idioms that are used to describe physical appearance such as: *bukuria e lypun tepër i del për hundësh*; *vajzë picak, e marrshme*; behavior such as: *si zorra në prush*; *u suell rrakel si i dekun*; *fle si kali në kambë*; *su bie hana e dielli kurrë mbrapsht*; and other categories such as: *uji lane edhe murtajën*; *u këllat në ujë*; *here të ambla, here të njelme*; *ora e gurit tone*; *lëpushka e lalnës së huej*; *si keza nuses etc.*

In order to give a clear portrayal of the characters the author has made extensive usage of literary and stylistic figures. Their main aim is to provide specific information on the characters, mainly, through the comparison with elements of nature, animals and sounds such as: *si pela ime Dranja, e unë mbi të kaluer*; *të ndulkuna mirë e mirë në dushk*; *se mjellaza e ndritun e rrezeve*; *fjala e tij vetëm tinguj ndër dhamë të thyem për të mos lanë kund hije në rrasë*; *ngjau si me qenë gur në syte e çdo kalimtar*; *nuk ishte edhacake por dhease*; *vetëdija ashtë një shkëputje e dhemb si ndamja e mishit prej ashtit*; *nuk ka hyllësi në qiell me emnin breshkë*; *kur një brezni apo popull i tanë humb drejtimin, ska zot që e ndih*; *si vargje me masa të përkryeme safike etc.*

Another interesting aspect of the lexicon of Camaj in "Dranja" is the presence of some original words that might be a creation of Camaj or part of the oral speech of Northern Albania. Inside the text they acquire a stylistic and emotional value that goes beyond the art of speech. Words such as: *dushkaje*, *mjellaza*, *shkundullima*, *lagshtima*, *krekcare*, *rangatore*, *brashkanit*, *mendulla*, *paduresa*, *rrakel*, *ngulshueshëm*, *brakesha*, *kashnjet*, *bujena*, *buknor*, *shqimthi*, *breshkujza*, *kryeshpatuke*, *sherrie*, *skapullue*, *karajeli*, *lotore*, *gizhla*, *gazakeqas*, *jeh*, *pezulin*, *lemazë* etc, give a great contribution to the artistic enrichment of the text and to its complexity as well.

6. Conclusions

A text may be considered as an endless source of information about the culture of the society of the language in which it was written. This article was focused on the importance of the socio cultural background the interpretation of a literary text. It pointed out that it is a kind of semantic entailment that carries referential meaning. There is implicit information encoded within the lines of a text. Even though there isn't a specific lexical category where it might be traced it is present in a lot of idiomatic expressions, as well as stylistic figures. Camaj is a writer whose work is full of entailments. Their identification is crucial for the interpretation and understanding of his work, which are like an encyclopedia about the North of Albania. In order to completely embrace the meaning of his texts the reader must firstly acquire some background knowledge about the Albanian customs and traditions. Only when doing so will he be able to master the text.

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Mind Your Grammar! – Learning English Grammar the Fun Way

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Abstract

English has complicated sets of grammar rules, which make it a challenging language to master. Many non-native learners struggle with these rules and encounter difficulties in understanding them. Malaysian students, in particular, are unable to apply the different parts of speech and types of tense in English accurately in their speaking and writing. Hence, using the right approach to teach grammar is essential to help the students learn it effectively. This paper presents a survey study of an innovation project titled *Mind Your Grammar!*. It is a language board game, designed specifically for the beginner-level learners of English, both in schools and higher learning institutions. When learning grammar becomes a game, it takes away the monotony that appears to associate with it. Instead, the game aspect comes to the foreground where the learners believe that they are playing a game; thus, this will enable the language teacher to retain their interest without making them bored or anxious. The board game is a useful tool for teaching and learning the English grammar items, which could help reduce the learners' anxiety and motivate them in the learning process. Based on the survey conducted on the students' feedback after playing the board game, a huge majority of the participants responded that it is a useful, practical and fun tool for learning English grammar.

Keywords: English language teaching, grammar, board games

1. Introduction

English language learning can be a dreary and frustrating task, where constant effort is required to understand and apply this target language in order to master it. For weak students, learning the English grammar is even more daunting due to the complexity of grammar rules. Therefore, it is important that the right teaching approach is adopted so that grammar lessons can be effectively taught to the learners. For this reason, language games can serve as a way of teaching grammar, which can be incorporated as one of the activities in class. Language games are an invaluable tool as they offer the elements of fun and meaningfulness in language learning. They are also a means of motivating students to learn, as well as sustaining their interest and focus in the learning itself. When learning grammar is formatted into a game, it removes the monotony that seemingly relates to it. Instead, the game aspect comes to the forefront where students believe that they are playing a game. While engaging in the game, the teacher succeeds in getting them to learn without making them bored, hence, this could help reduce their anxiety levels. Krashen (1982) states that a learning situation that has a low affective filter can lessen anxiety and make the learners more comfortable. This encourages them to use language while playing the game, and thus, making learning more effective and meaningful (Littlewood, 1999).

2. Problem Statement

English grammar has its sets of complicated rules which present challenges for learners to master them. A large number of students struggle with these rules and could not completely understand many of the principles on their first or second

reading. Most non-native students, such as the Malaysian students, are unable to apply the different parts of speech and types of tense in English accurately in their writing and speaking. In their attempt to apply the language skills, most grammar rules are normally confused, leading to common occurrences of erroneous structures in their speaking and writing. Therefore, it is essential to adopt an effective pedagogical approach in order to teach grammar effectively to the learners, especially those of the beginner or low proficiency level.

3. Objective

The main objective of this innovation project is to offer a creative and fun tool for teaching grammar to the beginner-level of English language learners, both in schools and higher learning institutions. For this reason, we have come out with a language game called *Mind Your Grammar!*. It is a board game that exclusively focuses on English grammar components, tailored for the beginner or low proficiency level of language learners. This is an innovation project that integrates fun, simplicity and practicality in order to motivate the students to learn grammar in class. We believe that by employing this game in English grammar lessons, it will create a platform for a meaningful exchange of communication for the students. Besides, using only the lecture style English materials in teaching grammar in class has quite a low effectiveness. When learning English grammar involves long hours of lecture in explaining grammar rules followed by completing the drills, the learners tend to lose their interest along the way. Hence, the *Mind Your Grammar!* board game can possibly offer a better option for motivating the students to learn.

4. Literature Review

According to Chang and Gogswell (2008), board games are a versatile asset in the classroom due to several benefits. They can be used to teach specific language forms and functions for diverse ESL/EFL contexts, age groups, proficiency levels, and content. In addition, they can also be adapted as a communicative activity in the classroom and applied as a concept for making one's own educational board game. Skehan (1998) also mentions that language board games promote communicative language learning through task completion, where the activities have some relationship to real-world contexts. Moreover, the use of games during teaching and learning helps the teacher to uphold the students' interest and focus during the class lesson. Games enable the teacher to create useful and meaningful contexts in language learning. When learners can react to the activity of the language game through their emotional expressions, the context clearly gives them a meaningful reason to learn the language (Wright, Betteridge & Buckby, 2005). Dalton (n.d.) states that "Activities structured as games can provide concrete practice for learners, while reducing the tension and anxiety often encountered during the learning process." The author further argues that games can be beneficial for language learning in which they are normally designed in accordance with real-life activities. They offer the students with an opportunity to exercise real and meaningful language contexts while interacting in the game with others involved. Language games perform an immediate practical function where the teacher can set the embedded tasks which are interesting to the learners. Furthermore, Granger (1982) mentions that games enable the learners to participate in lively activities in class. Instead of just listening to the teacher explaining grammar rules during the class lesson, the students will do most of the talking while completing the tasks and interacting with others. Likewise, Clark (1982) asserts that games can be utilised as a means to assess and rehearse language lessons in a fun and entertaining atmosphere. By employing games as a pedagogical approach, the learners are often more motivated as compared to doing the desk tasks. While playing the games, the students' attention can be focused on the game activity, whereby subconscious learning of the language items will take place in them. Thus, this enables the learners to review and reinforce what they have learned in class.

Previous studies on the use of games for teaching grammar in class revealed the versatility of the language games and positive acceptance of the respondents on the subject matter. Besides, using games in language activities had been proven to produce positive results among the participants. For instance, Tengku Nazatul and Rahmah (2013) carried out a study involving 115 pre-TESL students of UiTM Pahang, Kuantan Campus, which aimed to investigate the advantages of employing board games to teach grammar. Utilising the experimental method for collecting data, the students were divided into two main groups: the control and experimental groups. The authors also used the survey method to elicit the responses on the treatment given to those in the experimental group. The results showed that the mean score for the experimental group was higher than the control group. It was revealed that the incorporation of board games in the treatment showed a significant difference between the two groups. The authors concluded that board games serve as a useful teaching tool that can be employed in grammar lessons as they offer various positive results in

learners. In another research study conducted by Lawrence and Lawrence (2013), the authors examined the attitude of student teachers towards using grammar games for teaching English. The study employed the survey method for data collection, involving the student teachers doing their B. Ed. degree course in the Colleges of Education in Tirunelveli District. The study results revealed that a majority of the student teachers displayed a favourable attitude towards the utilisation of grammar games in teaching English at the secondary level. In another study done by Yolageldili and Arıkan (2011), the authors looked into the efficiency of employing games in teaching grammar to young learners. In the study, the perceptions of 15 Turkish EFL teachers working in primary schools were gathered using the questionnaire method. The findings revealed that the Turkish EFL teachers acknowledged the important contribution of language games in classroom teaching. They also agreed that using games as a means of instructional approach is advantageous for teaching young learners.

5. Methodology

This innovative project employed the survey method for collecting data from the participants. The participants were comprised of the students taking the English proficiency courses at pre-diploma level in the MDAB programme of Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Sarawak Campus. Precisely, there were 81 respondents in total, selected from the Pre-Diploma Programme of Business Management Faculty from Part 1, Session 2013/2014. Briefly, the MDAB programme (in its full term— *Mengubah Destinasi Anak Bangsa* Programme) is a programme inspired by the current Prime Minister, Datuk Seri Najib Razak. It was first established in UiTM in 2010 to provide educational opportunity for the qualified poor Malays and other *bumiputeras* from rural areas as well as urban areas, whose parents' monthly income is less than RM2,000. The programme is also offered at other UiTM branch campuses, namely, UiTM Sabah, UiTM Johor, UiTM Kelantan, UiTM Kedah, UiTM Negeri Sembilan, UiTM Pahang, UiTM Perlis and UiTM Terengganu. The students embarking in the programme have to complete the English proficiency courses, which will qualify them to proceed to the diploma level upon getting a pass of at least a C grade. The student selection for this study was based on the fact that their competence of the English language is generally low or at the beginner level, in which the board game is specially tailored for these target learners.

6. Research Instrument

A set of questionnaire was used in this survey study of the innovation project, which is divided into two parts: Section A and Section B. Section A consists of the respondents' profile (i.e. gender, age, mother tongue, hometown, and the SPM English result), while Section B comprises their feedback on the board game in accordance with 10 items stated in the questionnaire (see Table 1). The selected students were requested to play the game and give their responses by indicating their feedback in Section B of the questionnaire.

7. Data Analysis

The participants' responses on the language game's effectiveness and other attributes related to it were measured using the 5-point Likert scale (i.e. *Strongly Agree*, *Agree*, *Neutral*, *Disagree*, and *Strongly Disagree*). After playing the board game, they were given the questionnaire for them to indicate their responses. The results of the survey were analysed and converted into percentages, as shown in Table 1.

8. Descriptions of the *Mind Your Grammar!* Board Game

This language game comprises a game board, 500 cards marked with '?' (see Figure 2 for a sample of the card) that consist of grammar questions with multiple options, four game pieces (movers) representing the players, a dice, and an answer booklet with brief notes on grammar components. The board game illustrates a spiral comprising 100 spaces marked with numbers from 1 to 100 (See Figure 1). The spaces in the spiral consist of colourful images of rockets, comets and question marks (?), which we believe are appealing to the learners.

9. How to Play the Game

The students were briefed on the purpose of the survey and how the game is played. The game can be played by 2-4

players. To start the game, each player takes turn to roll the dice, where the highest score will go first. Whenever a player lands on the space marked with '?', he/she needs to pick a card and answer the question on it (note: all the questions are related to grammar items for low proficiency level). If the answer is correct, the player will have a chance to roll another dice, however, if the answer is incorrect, he/she will miss a turn. If the player lands at the bottom of a rocket, he/she will move upward. On the contrary, if he/she lands at the tail of a comet, he/she will go downward. The game is similar to the concept of snake-and-ladder game, in which the player who reaches the space marked '100' first is the winner. It takes approximately 15 to 30 minutes to finish the game depending on the players' speed in answering the questions or reaching the winning space.



Figure 1: The game board



Figure 2: A sample of the question card

10. Results and Discussion

The findings from Section A of the questionnaire revealed that the respondents were comprised of 59.26% female and 40.74% male, and all of them are Sarawakian *bumiputeras* (i.e. Malays, Ibans, Bidayuhs, Kayans, Kenyahs and Kelabits). The respondents' ages ranged between 17-22 years old. In addition, a huge majority of the selected students were from rural areas, namely, Sri Aman, Mukah, Bintangor, Limbang, Belawai and Belaga. The findings also showed that a majority of the respondents acquired low grades in their English for Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM), either grade D or E.

On the other hand, as presented in Table 1, the findings from Section B of the questionnaire revealed that all the students enjoyed playing the board game, whereby 51.95% agreed and 48.15% strongly agreed on this survey item. As for survey item No. 2, 48.15% of the students displayed their strong agreement. Likewise, the same percentage of the students (48.15%) also revealed that they liked the colourful and fun features of the game. However, 3.7% of the respondents were neutral on this survey item. For survey item No. 3, a majority of the students (55.56%) agreed that they had learned something new when playing the board game, followed by 44.44% who strongly agreed on this item. In addition, for survey item No. 4, a majority of the students (55.56%) agreed that the board game could improve their grammar skills, while 44.44% expressed their strong agreement. As for survey item No. 5, a majority of the students (59.26%) revealed their agreement that the board game had encouraged them to communicate with their friends in English. Meanwhile, 40.74% of the students strongly agreed on this item. For survey item No. 6, a majority of the

students (55.56%) stated that they agreed that using the board game was a fun way of learning English grammar, while 44.44% of the respondents displayed their strong agreement. With reference to survey item No. 7, a majority of the students (51.85%) strongly agreed that the questions in the board game are clear and can be easily understood, whereas 48.15% of the respondents agreed on this matter. For survey item No. 8, a majority of the participants (55.56%) expressed their agreement that they would play the board game with their friends and family members in class or at home. Meanwhile, 37.04% of the students strongly agreed on this survey item. Nevertheless, 7.40% of the students were neutral on this matter. For survey item No. 9, a majority of the students (51.85%) agreed that the board game is a practical and meaningful way of learning grammar items, whereas 48.15% of them expressed their strong agreement. Finally, for survey item No. 10, a majority of the students (51.85%) stated that a grammar lesson should include grammar games as part of the activities, while 48.15% of the students agreed on this matter.

The results from the survey generally reveal the positive acceptance of the respondents to the board game. Students tend to regard learning English grammar as a difficult and boring subject due to the complexity of the rules. However, with the right approach adopted, the teaching of grammar can be made fun and effective, such as by using grammar games. The students in this survey study of the innovation project clearly expressed their recognition of incorporating games in grammar lessons as a means of motivating them to learn. The activities in the game encourage them to interact with others in English, as well as improve their grammar skills while having fun with the language. The board game (i.e. *Mind Your Grammar!*) gives them a platform to review what they have learnt in their grammar lessons (Sultanova, 2011). Furthermore, the use of board games is more pleasurable and meaningful as learners can practise their grammar skills in their interaction with others. By using games in classroom lessons, "language use takes precedence over language practice, and in this sense games help bring the classroom to the real world, no matter how contrived they may be" Celce-Murcia and Macintosh (1979, p. 54). Besides, they provide students with an entertaining and relaxing learning atmosphere, and thus, this may reduce their stress and anxiety in learning grammar (Krashen, 1982).

Table 1: The respondents' feedback on *Mind Your Grammar!*

No	Survey Questions	Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
1	I enjoy playing <i>Mind Your Grammar!</i> .	39	48.15	42	51.85	0	0
2	I like the colourful and fun features of the board game.	39	48.15	39	48.15	3	3.70
3	I learn something new when I play the board game.	36	44.44	45	55.56	0	0
4	I can improve my grammar skills when I play the board game.	36	44.44	45	55.56	0	0
5	The board game encourages me to communicate in English with friends.	33	40.74	48	59.26	0	0
6	Using the board game is a fun way of learning the grammar items.	36	44.44	45	55.56	0	0
7	The questions in the board game are clear and can be easily understood.	42	51.85	39	48.15	0	0
8	I will play the board game with my friends and family members in class or at home.	30	37.04	45	55.56	6	7.40
9	The board game is a practical and meaningful way of learning the grammar items.	39	48.15	42	51.85	0	0
10	A grammar lesson should include grammar games as part of the activities.	42	51.85	39	48.15	0	0

Note: The total number of respondents was 81. The results for 'Disagree' and 'Strongly Disagree' are not displayed in the table above as the responses to these scales were all nil.

11. Conclusion

Languages games, such as the *Mind Your Grammar!* board game, are indeed a useful and practical tool which can be integrated in grammar lessons to assist language teaching and learning. They motivate learners and promote meaningful language use in a fun-filled environment. By using grammar games in language activities, teachers can improve their pedagogical approach and offer an effective strategy to the learners in teaching grammar.

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Representatives of Verism in the Albanian Prose Issued in Totalitarianism in Albania

Dr. Luljeta Bora

Abstract

The only written model framed among the features of the verism in the Albanian literature is the Teodor Keko's (1958-2002) work as a prose, a literature now ended with the author's death. When Teodor Keko started to give to his prose full verist features, the Albanian literature was still facing problems with its development in the branch of the realism-socialist method, a method which forcefully got trumpeted from the politics of the time. We think that T. Keko could have had knowledge on the Italian Verism of the end of the XIX century, that comes as a branch of naturalism, but what we believe and verify in his art is that this literary direction does not come to Keko as something looked for, or as an ordinary imitation, but as an urge, an initiative that could be defined as a revolt, an artistic challenge of his toward the false spirit of the art of that time. But which are some of these original features of his work that bring it so close to the Italian verist art? Firstly "the surveillance camera" of Keko looks for the unclean and his art is "uncombed", with lots of street subjects. Keko's heroes represent with themselves the model of an anti-hero. Deepen in the apathy of life and the wrong choices they have nothing to be commented about, to be taken as an example, nothing heroic. They are characterized as marginal, suburban characters. Secondly: They (the characters) and the subject lines, mainly aim the lively truthfulness. They are as real and reliable just like Kapuna's, Verge's characters that they seem as if they have been taken out of a same reality, it looks like these kind of people came into you on the street. Thirdly: Their language is that of the street that ensures the truthfulness and Keko, just like the verist writers, is seen nowhere, it seems like the characters speak themselves as taken out of the real life.

The Albanian literature has got representatives of different literary directions, but a little seen in it is the representation of the verism feature and this work aims surveys upon this feature in the contemporary Albanian prose.

The author, who could for sure be considered as a rare representative of verism in the Albanian letters (if not the only one) is Teodor Keko (1958-2002).

Various scholars¹ acknowledge that it has never happened that the Albanian literature lead literary directions that have not bloomed yet in other countries. On the contrary, many literary directions have not reached to bloom at all, whereas others (classicism, romantism, realism, modernism...) have sprung very late. On the other hand based on the conversations with the author's friends and scholars it has been given evidence that Teodor Keko was not aware of Verism as a literary direction and nonetheless had pure knowledge on the literature of all the authors part of this direction.

The question arouses naturally: How come that full features of this direction are seen in the author's prose? Which were the consequences that brought so naturally the art of this author next to Verism during the years of dictatorship?

Son of two moviemakers, graduated for literature in Tirana University, journalist in profession, Teodor Keko everyday touches the poor Albanian reality. He is not attracted to the swollen model of the socialist literature of that time and feels the need to make part of his prose exactly this sad and empathic reality.

The scholar Floresha Dado notices that '*The history of the literary development has witnessed that a literary direction arouses in a specific period of time, blooms according to the social cultural circumstances and it is replaced from another direction because of changes that happen in the spiritual life of the society*' (Dado 2010)

Having in mind the author's words in interviews we judge that Verism has come up naturally in his prose as an artistic revolt.

When we set this author apart as one of the unique representatives of verism we firstly have in mind that the feature of belonging to this literary direction in him is very prominent and it does not appear as something asked for, as an imitation, but as an unrepeatable art, first created from an individual prospect melted with a content, and with a very special object construction, that is at the same time a very special way of making art.

Before we move on with arguments about his art concordance with that of the verism needs to be pointed out that it is not easy to categorize his art as loyal to an only literary direction, for he penetrates through some literary schools by so being a very original art for the Albanian letters.

¹ Look at Academic F. Dado "Non-interpreted literature", Albanian world, Tiranë 2010, Ymer Çiraku "Critical examinations from the history of the Albanian literature", Albas, Tiranë 2011

Firstly: he reflects nothing from the method of the socialist realism even though he wrote at a time when this method was widely used. So we find in him neither a positive hero, nor an ideological spirit, neither a popular spirit, nor a reflection of the revolutionary development of life or other principals that in the end destroyed art. T. Keko's art comes as a full opposing conscience, testimony that we get from the data that are found from the interviews he had from the press of that time or from testimonial facts of the life shown in the work of art 'Ditet e jetes sime' ("The days of my life"), of the film producer Xhanfize Keko (his mother).

Secondly: Keko's art has got realistic inclination². He is distinguished about a reflection with loyalty to the Albanian reality of the 80's-90's; two systems, two different worlds with the abyss of total bewilderment in the middle, people in need, anger of discontent. His confession makes an autopsy to the reality of the time. If we refer to the work of art "Sociologia della letteratura", he becomes a social thermometer "(Alfredo Luzi, *Lecture critiche*, "Sociologia della letteratura", second edition, "Mursia", pg 109...the narrative results as an efficient thermometer, sometimes even from its own shape, to understand the spirit that circulates the social net; a sustain of the imaginary univers upon the sociologic researches that would be needed to search in the real univers.....On the other hand literature as an autonomous work of the individ and the individ as an expression of a social group welcomes totally the affective and intellectual life of the writer and the social group in which the writer as part of it is an element of the readers(my translation. L.Bora)". So they are the features that hold works of realism of the XIX century. Indeed when the author focuses deep in psychological analyses as in the story 'E huaj'("Stranger"), or his narrations 'Lumturi me vel te zi' ("Happiness with black veil"), 'Lajmetarja e vdekjeve' ("The death messenger") etc, which are rich in social analyses, the realism shown there gets the features of a psychological realism.

About his first work with stories 'Lajmetarja e vdekjeve'("The death messenger"), Keko says that it comes as a combination of realism and romanticism³. Perhaps when the author defines the romantic nature of the work has in mind some prose (a small number in fact), mainly short where you find happy endings, where the main character develops by greatly improving in a negative way, or where it is clearly seen the moral character for example at the ends of the prose in which they show a cliché(fixed shape) of the triumph of good upon evil, but in the shape of an ending where everything goes as it should which we find in the prose: 'Karamellet'("The candies"), 'Kepuca e zgjidhur' ("The untied shoe") or the story 'Shtepite ne oborr' ("The houses in the yard").

Thirdly: Teodor Keko's art, apart from an effort to take the subject from the reality, leans toward a simplified reality through a detailed description, almost in scientific details of the psychological world and frame of mind, of a specific culture of the Albanian of the period of time during 80's-90's, which would match with the explanation of human beings in a triple unity: race, environment, moment that we would find at the naturalists of the XIX century like Flöber, Dickens, etc (but at T. Keko we don't find anything from the perspective of the positive hero facing the negative, or Dicken's moralizing tendency).

The naturalists' art, influenced by the positivism was about a necessity of the objective reproduction of life, among a severe implementation of the non-interference of the observer in the objects of the artistic observation. The naturalists prefer the presentation of the non-typical characters, unimportant, in a very spontaneous mood, occasional scenes filled with incorrect grammatical usages and with trivial expressions.

It is very obvious in Keko's prose his attention toward the suburban society, the invisible man in the hectic swirl of life, known differently as the 'marginal man'⁴. This attention is an early one and should be understood as a fatigue from the heroes of the works who followed the flow of the method of the socialist realism (that in fact there is no realism at all, but only artificial artistic spirit blended with meaningless ideology). Keko appraised the Albanian novel of that time as 'empty and without life' and his character 'bird of incubator'⁵. He looks somewhere else, at the streets, in the neighborhoods, at the corners where another life rushes, naked, far away from the 'positive hero', far from the polishes and overstatements for the intellectual hero, who 'engages in abstract speculations and sits idle on an empty stomach'⁶

The work as a journalist gave Keko the opportunity to get to know with many people from different levels of the society, among them ordinary people, to whom not only paid his attention but also the his human respect. All of his life

² Realism - literary direction, predominant in the XIX century literature. Object of the work of art became reality. Everything was taken from the real life and resembled it. The realist writers treated the reality with the preciseness and the objectivity of the positive sciences and in many occasions they illustrated the ideology and philosophy of the time with their works.

³ "R,D" newspaper, 22 March 1998

⁴ Philosophy dictionary, "Toena", Tiranë 2007, Marghine-marginal (margo-end, side) Marginal, what is found in margins, at ends, aside, as unimportant and not essential, secondary, peripheral

⁵ "Shekulli" newspaper, 11 July 1999, pg 18, With the reader you should be real

⁶ "R,D" newspaper, 22 March 1998.(Today we are still in the Medieval, interview)

experience, as well as these ordinary men became part of his work. If you look at it in a specific point of view it seems as this inclusive phenomenon in Keko impoverishes the literary, but in fact it does not. Through that another color of the literary is profited, a totally different literary model, which he creates consciously aiming the vitality and the separation from the inanimate person of our literature until then. Following this logic, the interpretation and the treating of the values of his art form us will be upon this coloring of a new reality to the majority of these human beings, a literary reality different for the time being.

Keko's art does not find spots of meeting in a horizontal plan with the literature of the prose writers, but in a vertical plan, the only written literary model with which you can find common spots is the model brought by Migjeni⁷ with his fatal literature in prose and with the attention toward the suffering individual and in the reality of the bewilderment of the values of a lying moral of the 30's. Keko's eye notices the hidden corners and nooks of the city, usually the 'unclean', what is not noticed, sometimes the ordinary in human beings, a multiple tiny things, that surprises you how someone can make art with them.

Keko's hero (that in fact is an antihero) is not commendable in values and virtues. There is nothing of heroic within the characters of his prose. This kind of character is not prominent and there is nothing obvious to be taken as an example. He is a model who fights the hero and the values. The characters recognize the mistake, submit to the temptation of the habit, many of them are portrayed 'as a black catalogue of definitions' (if we would use a categorizing of the author). These characters do not change the reality. They are weak even if we would not want this. They try to survive with less pain in a baffled reality. One thing is certain. This prose overfilled with marginal types would not be able to ever be published in that system that fearfully aimed heroic and muscular types of the volunteer work.

A very good number of T. Keko's characters are characterized as illustrations of workers or unemployed people, youngsters who spend their time in vain, waiters, barmen, students in search of a seasonal job, abandoned elders that mainly get angry rather than being touched from each-other's death, abandoned grandparents, failed parents, desperate widows full of sensuality, ordinary women exploited by criminal males, villager women who dread themselves all day long in the fields, thirsty provincial for noisy life, lying children, physical handicapped people, unimportant civil employees, journalists, unskilful doctors, prostitutes (in spirit and because of problems), immoral men, drunk men, refugees and so many more characters, who you can see on the street in a very ordinary day.

".....miserable period for the four of us that are resting on the banisters of the big bridge, where a series of roads are crossed..... There will be no walking today and stupid women who pretend to have gone out for fresh air up and down the boulevard and they merely breathe with all of their lung capacity the cancer air provided by the oil-fired boilers full of coking coal smoke of the ministers' cars. Filthy period for Kol the dental doctor, that time after time yawns with sleep, the same for Tur the plumber, who sniffs like a hunting dog those disoriented junior students who spends the half of the day at the beginning of school seasons sat at the pavements of the addresses office, bad for me, the student of the last year for linguistic and literature, with no expression for Gon the economist, permanent autumn...." (Keko 1991)

Keko introduces the characters very simple and accepts them as they are. In the narrations that refer to a reality of the dictatorship period, you find some peripheral figures dressed in remote brutality, types in whose mouth he mocks the socialist reality and the ridiculous ideological manner in which the things work.

Some comic figures are interesting, in the limits of caricature, and moreover characterized in the street slang that insert in certain fragments expressions with which it is impossible to not laugh. They are so exaggerated and natural at the same time. A density of this kind of characters was not preferred to be inserted in art not only in the socialist realism of literature but even later in the Albanian literature. His characters are mainly found amid the detailed descriptions of the moods, moments, empathies, sacrifices, facing of the reality, of thousands unimportant pettiness. Keiko's work deeply leads the naturalism toward verism.

The Italian verism, a literature school of the late XIX century that comes as a branching of naturalism, also has elements of the critical realism. Its representatives like Verga, Kapuana and Maxoni tried to picture the reality with all its ugly and banal aspects.

"According to Verga, the artistic performance should have 'the power and value of being like that'. It should give to the narration the intonation, expression, style and the shape of an event which really happened. It should bring human documents for this, so, evidence of the events. But on the other hand it is not enough for the event to be told and documented, it should be real. It should be narrated in that way that the reader faces the clear fact without connotations and not to have the impression that he/she is seeing the event through 'the writer's lenses'. To fulfill this, the writer

⁷ Migjeni (Milosh Gjergj Nikolla (1911-1938), wrote the realistic literature. His characters are very simple people in existential sufferings, in dilemma, with no choice.

should 'hide', which means he/she should not be appeared in what he narrates in a subjective manner...." (Talka 2011)

If the Italian verists reflected the southern reality through their art, poor, characters in enormous economical-moral dramas, Keiko tried to reflect a urban society, (where the toponymy of Tirana and its surrounding is mainly seen) in everyday living style, by artistically fulfilling fates and frames of mind to a multiple unsatisfied characters.

Just like the verists in their works even Keko gives the view of an ignorant reality, left aside from the political sphere. As a scientist he searches consequences that bring ugly features or features of the fates and the frames of mind to a series of separate characters, by giving an important contribute to the direction of the observing eye upon these people within who you find no optimism. His prose, as well as in the verists', moves with agility within the master combination of dialogues with high and simple tones that characterize the thoughts of a series of peripheral figures which are often found within the expressions of the comic situations.

*"Go wash your hands for you make me sick!- says Cesku whispering. -and don't steal the soap!- he warns him
- Eat- he courteously pleads to Xhavit
Xhavit is wiping off a spot of fat that was dropped from the spaghetti on his filthy trousers.
- Unlucky was I all of my life- he says- I always keep being spotted
Xhavit keeps staring at the fatty spot that has added nothing to the amount of filthiness of this trousers
- What day is it today?- he suddenly asks
-Tuesday!
-Ah if it was Saturday!-he whispers
-And what difference does it make to you whether it is Tuesday or Saturday?-asks Francesko
-I was wondering if I could have a shower....
The spaghetti comes out of Cesku's nostrils because of the laughter
But you are so great, Xhavit brother! The words spring out of Cesku's spirit..⁸*

Sometimes the readers are faced to fatal situations, or to extreme sufferings, like for example in the prose 'Qiejt e vetmise' ("The skies of loneliness"), or 'Muhamedi' ("Mohamed") typical of the skapilaturists' art, but in Keko's we do not find the combination with the fantastic and at the same time we do not see the narration in the first person as a tendency.⁹

Keko introduces very simple his characters and he accepts them as they are. He puts his readers in front of truthful situations, which he judges with his characters' mouths, with a logical reasoning that perfectly fits them, 'gets in the skin' of their lively experience and points out through a popular and slang language simple judgments and conclusions that often become simplified philosophical thoughts that come as a result not only to a lively experience but even to a very sharp observing eye. These characters become more attractive to the reader where the life conclusion comes up from a 'catastrophic' dictionary that works in double meanings.

'...the pleasure wants the stomach full. I am not hungry anymore'; says a cleaning lady implying the sexual desire that passes with the age. 'In this shitty world where nothing ever changes, where you precisely know what tomorrow is going to happen, you have lost nothing!'; philosophizes an alcoholic patient who has spent all of his life in the prison of communism.

The simplified speech, defined as 'vulgar', deforming, degraded, destroyable to art, unacceptable for the literature, in Keiko's prose, it only becomes a mean that emphasizes the truthfulness of the character, an expressive mean of originality color of the art and the meaningfulness of the word. So in T.Keko the slang turns into an artistic typically mean.

The language of Keko's characters is the conversational one and it is impossible to not notice that this author will definitely master of the slang speech¹⁰ in the Albanian literature. This pure slang language ignores the official literary and it is not a coincidence, but a fact of the author's choice for a social truthfulness and a sound coloring that would perfectly fit the type of his peripheral characters.

⁸ T.Keko, 12 saints, one profet and some people, the narration "Always on 28 November", pg 151-152

⁹ Dictionary Itaian-Albanian, shb "Eurolindja", Tiranë'96, pg 969. Scapigliatura-shtyrje, hideous life. Scapigliaturisti- skapilaturistët, milanist, deep realists, individuals who lived in black people gettos. They reflected realistic backgrounds, passionat stories are alternated with fantastic extraordinary confessions upon evil subjects, scary, within extreme situations, extraordinary, sensual and destroying passions, diseases, delir.

¹⁰ Explaining dictionary of the literary expressions, Tiranë 1972, pg 152, ZHARGON(fr.jargon)- popular speech, original speech, conventional, group of words and special expressions which are used by a social group, or mob of people(slang of bricklayers, thieves, aristocracy.....the slang makes the language a bastard, its usage in an artistic-literary work is justified only in those occasions when it is useful to give the characteristic speech of the character.

The spotting of the characters, among all other things, is made upon this language, which sometimes is intertwined with a poetic speech of the author, which is prominent through a slang description and sometimes slips in speech formats that would be defined as shameful. Starting from the second work in prose 'Lajmetarja e vdekjeve' ("The death messenger"), Keko's characters use slang. We see the street slang, the lexicon of an untamed brutal, of the drunk, of the street wanderer, of a prostitute, of a student, etc. etc. Keko himself declares in an interview that in the work 'Lajmetarja e vdekjes' ("The death messenger") for the first time teems the way of speaking in '80¹¹

The characters' speech is within a typical slang by setting it aside as a character model. It is exactly the worker's and the intellectual's language, which differ from one another from the stages of inserting ordinary daily words in their speech. The characters' speech is what we usually hear. It becomes so clear through a verist tendency that it looks like as the narrations are self-made, like the characters are taken out of lively situations, and behind them it does not stand the author but themselves. From the other hand, this speech option fits to the dimness of the reality colors and Keko's unwillingness to look at it differently as many other authors did at his time. In fact this tendency has been a missing value in the Albanian literature. We define it a value, because in the role of the value we find it in T. Keko. It gives to its art the truthfulness and the original. This slang, part of his art, created by street subjects filled with vulgarism, makes the character as one apart from the reality. These characters mainly have something of gypsy in the banal way how they ignore the reality and fit to the situation. Such a way of treatment gives them the strength to survive and makes them totally confident. But the fulfillment of the speech in the simplified way of speaking does not simply understand the banality of the street subject, because in this speech you notice the text and the subtext. There is art in finding the proper word in order to give shades of meanings.

In the idiolect word we find two realities: that of the main understanding and that of the coloring. This coloring put on a slang bed is distant with the metaphorical coloring in the literary speech, so it is not that obvious, but it is felt. So the idiolects create a new reality of the word and they become influencing to the reader's reality. In the characters' speech and that of the narrator's we find endless shapes of these kinds of words (among them even some Turkish words), idioms, characteristic of the slang speech: "çorbë derrash" ("pigwash"), "medemek" ("which meand"), "with his vocabulary "allah-allah" ("oh my goodness"), "lëng groshe" ("worthless"), "e kishin kapur gafil" ("caught in the action"), "u këputa në mes" ("worn out"), "një më hu një më kërcu" ("wandering around"), "pykë në diell" ("in vain"), " nuk më bën fajde" (doesn't work for me") etc, etc.

At the first observation it looks like there is no artistic function, as we have to do with a conversational language and has no literary value in it, but within this text the literary, that is not representative, exists, but it exists in the liberation giving as well as in the fulfillment of that empty feeling that the author aims to present with its help. It looks like Keko is in love with the street language and conceals a new speech as an intertwining of the simplified speech and less literary charm.

The simplified speech turns in Keko into magic that we would consider as an undisputable flow and his whole prose (especially his short narrations with which he made his entrance) is the fact of the overturning, the destroyal of the speechful way with which the Albanian literature was used.

For what was said above the literature of the author Teodor Keko, makes it a representation of the written verist model in the Albanian letters.

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¹¹"R.D" newspaper, 22 March 1998, "...Today coldly judging this book, as if I was not the author, I guess it was there where the Albanian way of speaking of the 80's entered for the first time."

Developing the Directional Abilities through Individualization of the Educational Process

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Abstract

Each person is a unique individual - having different capacities and needs. We have to remember about it especially if we work with children in early education. The aim of this paper is to present the opportunity to develop the directional abilities of children through individualization of educational process. It will show examples of programs and projects that can serve as a model to follow. Its task is also to popularize model of education which is based on the theory of multiple intelligences by H. Gardner. The author of this theory has identified eight intelligences: linguistic intelligence, logical-mathematical intelligence, spatial intelligence, musical intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, naturalist intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence. Most people can develop each intelligence to an adequate level of competency and this paper contains examples of how we can do that. Gardner's work on multiple intelligences has become an important topic of discussion in many corners of educational profession. The theory of multiple intelligences was an inspiration to the research project "Individualization and effectiveness of the education process and the directional abilities of students in an integrated early childhood education "(project tutor prof. S. Juszczak.) The text contains reflections after the project.

Keywords: *individualization, individual differences, educational process, directional abilities, theory of multiple intelligences by H. Gardner*

1. Individual differences

Plato argued that no two people are largely similar to each other. Each person is different with individual characteristics and behavior (Lewowicki, 1977, p. 12). Differences between people are common, meaning that there is not such a physical feature, way of behaving or psychological feature in terms of which people would differ from each other. J. Strelau believes that individual differences is the phenomenon that individuals belonging to the same population differ from one another in terms of physical and psychological characteristics (2006, pp. 23-24). According to B. Hornowski occurring individual differences among people depend on four factors: the influence of heredity, environment, education and teaching system and the activity of the body itself (1985, p. 29). This highlights and fully realizes the responsibility which rests on teachers who direct the activities of students, implemented in the learning process. The optimal educational approach should take into account the individual differences that occur between students.

According to E. Piotrowski, to effectively support students to develop their own individuality and provide them with harmonious development, individualization of the educational process is necessary. It should take into account individual student's capabilities, which include: the level of intelligence, creative possibilities, the dominant cognitive style influencing cognitive functioning (2008, p. 425). Equally important to the effective implementation of learning is considering individual differences in the directional capabilities or interests of students.

2. Individualization of the educational process

According to J. Bałachowicz, in the modern pedagogical considerations, we find an almost complete acceptance of individualization in education. Individualization is however understood differently once in the category of ideas, sometimes in terms of instrumental activities. Individualization includes ideas and educational objectives related to the development of an individual, but sometimes it only refers to child's individual characteristics and learning opportunities, or it refers to the teaching content and how to make it accessible. The issue of individualization refers to the accuracy of organizing the learning process, and at other times it refers to the correct learning (2011, p. 9). E. Skrzetuska also notes that individualization in the process of teaching and learning can be considered from different points of view, both from the theoretical and practical considerations of research on this issue, the opinion of people who carry it out in practice. The modern understanding of the term *individualization* in teaching-learning arose in the discussion on the effectiveness

of the education system and therefore mainly refers to organizing work on lessons and methods of student assessment (2011, p. 42). One of the dictionary definition defines this term as the adaptation of teaching to the possibilities, interests and needs of individual students, in which is taken into account: students abilities, the time they need to master specific subjects or topics and pace of learning in children and adolescents (Kupisiewicz, 2009, p. 65). S. Palka explains the term *individualized education* as the adaptation of content, methods, forms, educational source, requirements, pace of work, monitoring and evaluation for the individual characteristics (eg. the level of intelligence and aptitude), physical abilities of students (eg. microdeficiencies in development). It is to be implemented in order to give a chance of success to each student (2003, p. 120). However W. Okoń briefly summarizes that the purpose of *individualization in education* is to provide maximum opportunities for students of different abilities (2007, pp. 136-137).

As noted by E. Skrzetuska, individualization is the idea of a flexible designing of learning, teaching and education, going deeply though the entire process, including its various ranges, taking into account all the participants (teachers and students), place of education implementation and its surroundings. Diagnosing and promoting individual skills, recognition of cognitive capabilities, existing knowledge and experience, considering ways of learning and developing them, stimulating and directing interests and including self-discovery and tend to stimulate the multiple development of the students in the educational process (2011, p. 57). The great diversity of students shows the need for proper planning of the educational process, taking into account different levels of students' abilities.

3. General and directional abilities of students

J. Freeman and co-authors report on global solutions for the education of talented, show that in the world today there are about 100 definitions of the concept of student ability and capability (Dyrda, 2012, p. 60). Such a wealth of definitions poses many difficulties.

T. Lewowicki has written about the division of abilities into general and special. He noted that about general and special abilities Ch. E. Spearman has spoken as one of the first. He uses the name *central factor* or *general factor*, as well as *special factor*. Separation of special abilities, related to specific areas or forms of activity indicates that there is - apart from the general ability - the ability to do something, the ability to perform certain activities. And therefore we meet classifications of special abilities modeled on a accepted divisions of human actions. In case of a child it is said, for example, about the language, mathematical, musical, artistic and technical ability, etc. Special abilities are associated with specific business, which is why they are called directional abilities (1977, pp. 95-97). According to W. Limont education of gifted children should be based on the use of all their strengths and weaknesses, the information which is obtained through the analysis of each individual case (2012, p. 101). Further information concerning levels of ability in various areas should provide a multifaceted diagnosis of students.

4. Theory of multiple intelligences by H. Gardner in the context of diagnosis and support of the development of the directional students' abilities

In terms of psychometric intelligence is defined as the ability to solve tasks included in the intelligence tests. Noticeable correlation of results among different age groups and different tests confirms that general intelligence does not change much with age and is slightly dependent on education and experience. Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences disputes the traditional approach. Intelligence is here resulting from human biology and psychology, some sort of processing capacity information. The theory of multiple intelligences shows any ability to solve problems in the light of its biological origins, but it deals only with those skills that are universal and characteristic of the human race (Gardner, 2009, pp. 17-18). H. Gardner singled out a set of eight intelligences, which include: linguistic, logical-mathematical, visual-spatial, musical, kinesthetic, natural, interpersonal and intrapersonal. The author of the theory has repeatedly stressed that he used the term *intelligence* in plural deliberately to emphasize that intelligence is more than linguistic or mathematical-logical intelligence but it is possible to be intelligent in many ways. H. Gardner notes that putting logic and language on a pedestal reflects the values of western culture. In a more impartial approach all intelligence is treated as equally valuable. According to H. Gardner naming some of these talents and other intelligences showed some prejudice. According to the theory of multiple intelligences, you may call them all talents, because the name does not matter, if only to refer to all of these abilities (2002, pp. 63-64).

According to H. Gardner, any form of assessment of children should meet three criteria:

- It should be fair to the intelligence - presented in such a way as to be able to observe the potential of the intelligence directly, rather than through the prism of logic and mathematics;

- It should be appropriate to the level of development of the child - use technology appropriate to its level of development;
- This should be combined with the recommendations - each result and the description should be accompanied by a list of actions or steps that are recommended for a child with a particular profile intelligence (2002, p. 110).
- Identifying characteristics of children's ability is to:
 - Obtain information about the strengths and weaknesses of the intellectual processes on the basis of the job, and observation of respondents;
 - Development of appropriate exercises that can improve mental functioning of specific students;
 - Education management in order to improve intellectual capacity and personal characteristics of the respondents (Eby, Smutny, following: Czelakowska, 2007, p. 167).

H. Gardner at the end of one of his books wondered how it will look to use of the theory of multiple intelligences in 2013. He thought that probably it will change in the years taken in the spirit of educational activities. Rightly he predicted that many attempts will be made to create educational programs that will be taken seriously in multiple intelligences. He believed that one of the areas where progress needs to be made is to develop curricula that will prove to be suitable for people with different profiles collar. He also pointed out that the idea of multiple intelligences should become part of teachers training programs. H. Gardner also emphasized the great need for a thorough investigation of how intelligence is used in various places of work and how it will be used in the future. Tracing the development of a hypothetical picture of the work on the theory of multiple intelligences in 2013 he mentions a numerous possibilities of scientific, educational, institutional and its aftermath possibilities (Gardner, 2002).

In the context of allegations spun by H. Gardner it is worth to mention a realized in a number of Polish school project called "First students experience the way to knowledge". The time frame of the project covered the period from October 2008 till December 2011. It was a project funded by the European Social Fund and the state budget and implemented by the Educational Group S.A. from Kielce. Theoretical base of the project was the theory of multiple intelligences by H. Gardner. His aim was to implement a model of early childhood education that will create a strong foundation for a career as a school and child's life. The project was aimed at about 130 000 students from first grade of 2 700 schools. At each of the schools involved in the project created the so-called. Interests centers. Children were able to realize the educational activities planned by their teacher responding to their possibilities, abilities and students' interests. This way allowed to carry out a demand of individual training and also opened up space for demonstration of purposes and children's talents (www.pierwszaki.com). The aim of the project was to work with children conducted during leisure activities. A trained teacher diagnosed the students, and learned their profile intelligence. With his knowledge and based on its copyright ideas chose the best scientific methods tailored to the needs and potential of children. The summary of the work on extra-curricular activities were demonstrations of skills of project participants. Of great importance was the collaboration of teachers with parents. Thanks to the collaborobotion parents learned how to support their children in learning at home Educational Group S.A., 2011). Such projects provide great opportunities for a great support of the development of students. All effort should be put to ensure that activities in this area going to be continued in subsequent years.

The theory of multiple intelligences of H. Gardner finds its practical application within the activities of universities for children. The first such initiative was developed at the University of Tübingen in 2002 and University in Vienna in 2003.

In 2009 its activity started Silesian University of Children. This initiative was born out of the belief that all children want to learn and take the joy of learning in different ways and that learning does not have to end when you exit the class. The aim of the Silesian University of Children:

- The development and enhancement of existing interests, knowledge and skills, cognitive arousing curiosity and inspiring to discover new areas of interest, development of the intellect, enthusiasm for learning and personality of its students;
- Showing the benefits of a university education, help children exploration, discovery and starting their own path to success;
- The presentation of diversified educational, open to all abilities and allowing each child discover his talent;
- Ensure that students are exposed to modern science and great research laboratories in Poland and in Europe;
- To develop students' language skills and provide a link to children university students in other countries;
- The development of self-knowledge, interests, sports, mobility and manual skills of students;
- Cooperation of the University of Silesia and its research institutions with the community of the region,

providing intellectual potential, knowledge and experience of the academic staff of the Silesian University of children.

Students in the age from 5 to 15 years (divided into four age groups) are given where they collect grades.. Lectures include topics such as: *Your personal laptop - how to operate a computer in your head*; *Secrets of view*; *Fairytale world of puppet theater*; *Physics of a balloon*, *The world beneath our feet, which is what whistles in the grass*; *Colorful world of percussion instruments*; *Bulb Edison - if everyone can be a genius?*, and many others. Children participated in activities in a wide range of excursions, such as the Silesian Zoological Garden. Lectures are also organized for parents, such as *Mind map - creative record in memory*. In 2011 Students also created the Children's Choir of the Silesian University Children whose repertoire is diverse and includes Polish and foreign children's songs, Polish folk songs, carols (www.dzieci.us.edu.pl). The activities of the Silesian University for Children is very popular, as evidenced by students full of small classrooms.

5. Our results

As noted by I. Czaja-Chudyba analysis capability allows the teacher for the student's individualized work, helps in making contact, overcoming the stress of the first day of school. It is a major factor in deciding whether the school will be a place where the student survives intellectual or artistic adventure (2009, p. 13). In practice, pedagogical and psychological diagnostic capability are most commonly used:

- tests to assess intelligence, skills and educational attainment or tests of creative thinking;
- competitions;
- observation methods: questionnaires and letters behavioral characteristics of gifted children;
- analysis of the products of children (eg. their drawings, essays, etc.).

Observations should begin in the earliest period of life. They can be run by parents, teachers, and experts. In assessing the ability of children to be further analyzed their interests, learning styles, portfolios recording the development and achievements of the students and the nature of self-evaluation tools (Czaja-Chudyba, 2009, pp. 39-42).

The copyright diagnostic research was conducted in the first two years of primary school. They have been implemented as part of the doctoral thesis entitled "Individualization and effectiveness of the educational process and the directional students abilities of integrated early childhood education" (the promotor is prof. S.Juszczuk). A total of 47 students, their parents and teachers took part in it. One the purpose of this study was to answer the question:

Whether and what relationship exists between the three diagnoses directional abilities of the first grade in the study, created on the basis of information obtained from three sources: parents, teachers, and the observer - the researcher?

Diagnosis of students included:

- Fill in questionnaires for the first grade parents participating in the study;
- Filling in the questionnaires relating to individual teachers of the first grade students participating in the study;
- Conducting observations enabling the researcher to determine the directional abilities of students - observations made during diagnostic activities carried out by the first grade teachers participating in the study;
- Research of interests and abilities of students using the directional abilities of students using the authorized tool "Historyjki".

Statistical analysis takes into account three diagnoses - from the perspective of parents, teachers (based on data obtained from questionnaires) and the observer (based on data obtained from observations), since the results were expressed in a spot.

Analysis of variance indicated a lack of equality of means scoring by the researcher, parent and teacher. Average scores directional abilities of students from three different perspectives are included. This shows that the full and valuable diagnosis must take into account a different research perspectives, based on different methods and forms of data collection.

In order to obtain information directly from students about their interests and abilities we have used a tool called "Historyjki" It aims to fully involve students in the process of diagnosis of their interests and the directional abilities. It acquaints the students with the concepts present in the stories. It teaches cooperation within a group and joint decision-making. It improves your concentration because of listening to the text, as well as perception, logical thinking and creativity. Students are asked to listen to the stories of children representing eight types of abilities and adjusts to them appropriate illustration. On the basis of the students' answers, perform additional commands and create an artwork, which helps us to identify their interests and abilities. With children performed tasks focus attention on the characters of

individual stories. The main goal is to create a tool for children's reference point to themselves, help them to present their interests and abilities. For children it is difficult to directly assess and determine whether an area is their strength capacity or the weaker party. This is often dependent on their sense of self-esteem and their abilities, feedback received by persons significant to the child, such as parents, teachers. The tool allows you to get information about a child through the choices he made, indications, which tends diagnostic classes.

Students participating in the study often communicated a greater capacity. It should be a signal for teachers and parents to provide the child with the conditions in to fully developed interests and athletic ability. A good opportunity to meet the children's needs are activities organized outside the school building - during physical education classes, breaks, walks or hikes. Following the example of the Nordic countries should provide students with more opportunities to learn the fresh air in an all made in the author's research project, diagnoses, regardless of their perspective (parent, teacher or observer - the researcher), was repeated a large number of people having a greater ability to visual- space, which in many cases was associated with artistic abilities. Visual-spatial abilities of children is an area sometimes little appreciated by parents and teachers treated less seriously than the language skills or mathematical logic. This creates a need for continuous push for actual homing in implementing the child's learning abilities, without classifying the important or less important.

Information obtained from a parent, teacher, student and researcher evaluation findings often vary significantly between. It can be affected by many factors. Parent-teacher relationship can not be limited to mutual seriously, respect and recognize the participation in education and socialization of the child, it must first of all mean working (Karowska-Struczyk, 2007, p. 42). It is the parents of the child that are a valuable source of information on the strengths and weaknesses of a child. Parents have the greatest contact with the child in its natural conditions, however, often do not have a reference point - the comparison operators in the form of other children - so it may be a problem with an objective assessment of your child's ability level. Sometimes, unconsciously or consciously to determine the child's ability as higher than actual. The teacher assesses with a reference in the form of other students, but his observation error may occur as a generalization of the results. If your child has a higher level of capacity in one area, it can also be assessed above in other capacities. Copyright in the present study, a teacher's diagnostic questionnaires completed restoring its previous observations and knowledge of the students, so they can escape the memory of some important facts. It is therefore essential diagnostic tools that help systematic information on individual students, orient the observations. It may also be running portfolios of student work that can illustrate their development, the progress achieved. It should also work with specialists who can help diagnosing students. Remarks investigator should be the most objective and accurate because they were based on deliberately structured diagnostic situations, structured by means of appropriately selected diagnostic tools. The observer did not know the children, which could both facilitate and impede the diagnostic task. Researcher drew conclusions based on observation of specific, deliberately organized situation, yet they accounted for only some selective parts of reality, in which student behavior can be changed with. Due to various factors, such as half-hour classes perform more sophisticated, bad weather, bad mood or mood students. Information obtained directly from the students an invaluable complementary to diagnose the level of their ability and direction possible inclusion in a more complete way the students themselves in for the diagnostic process.

6. Conclusion

Among the important tasks of the teacher are to develop the ability of all students, regardless of their level, keeping the diagnosis of students with special talents, identify their special needs and conducting activities to meet these needs and providing students the fullest possible development (Jablonowska, Lukaszewicz-Wieleba, 2010, p. 278). H. Gardner emphasizes wit, that it is vital to identify and cultivation of various kinds of intelligence, and their various combinations. We differ so much among themselves in large measure due to the fact that we all have different combinations of the various intelligence. Should try to use the full range of human capacities so that everyone can get involved in working for the common good (2009, p. 41). Therefore, it is necessary to undertake research trials, so you can constantly improve ways of diagnosing profiles of multiple intelligences. Dissemination of diagnostic tools and take care of teachers preparation for their proper use. It is also appropriate to organize the school environment and extracurricular and support the learning process of principle of treating each student as a unique individual. might be favored by an university activities for children, as well as the implementation of educational programs in schools, with an emphasis on individual upgrading the educational process.

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A Platform for Partnership: Preparing Student Teachers for Parent-Teacher Participation

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Abstract

If student teachers are not made aware of and are not given an opportunity to experience the fundamental connection between teachers and parents, their professional development during the training years is actually incomplete. Preparing student teachers for parent-teacher participation is, however, not a straightforward process. Getting student teachers involved in this unique relationship is challenging and can even be stressful for them. Student teachers should be equipped with the necessary skills, knowledge and strategies during their training years to be able to recognise and encourage the benefits of home-school participation (Van Wyk & Lemmer, 2009:14). Student teachers do not only need opportunities to prepare and present lessons during their teaching practice periods at schools. They also need learning experiences that would help them to encourage, promote and show consideration for parent involvement. Therefore, the specific aim of the research under review focuses on identifying possible learning opportunities for student teachers during their teaching practice at schools that will enable them to acquire the ability to respect, value and admire parent participation. This paper addresses the following research question: What challenges with regard to engaging student teachers in parent involvement do mentor teachers experience and what learning opportunities can be provided to student teachers to enable them to manage parent-teacher partnerships? In order to answer this question a qualitative research approach was used. Both the socio-constructivist learning and Lave and Wenger's situated learning theory were used as theoretical frameworks. A maximum variation sampling technique was used to purposefully select 10 mentor teachers from functional urban schools as participants who viewed themselves as role models for student teachers. The findings suggest that practice should be viewed as activity embedded in theory. Findings also indicate that the preparation of student teachers for parent-teacher partnership demands systematic action and thoughtful, coordinated planning. The research concludes with suggestions for ways to provide learning opportunities for student teachers that could play a significant role in guiding and preparing them to respect and promote home-school partnership.

Keywords: Home-school relationship, parent involvement, student teachers, teacher-parent relationship, teaching practice

1. Introduction

Teacher training institutions should determine whether they are producing appropriate made-to-measure skills that will enable student teachers to educate learners to internationally competitive levels when entering the teaching profession. Teaching practice (also called cooperative education, extension service placements, field education, internships, and practicum), is an essential component of teacher training programmes. Research done by Du Plessis, Marais, Van Schalkwyk and Weeks (2010:336-338) determined that teaching practice activities need to address all aspects of teaching in order to train competent teachers for the teaching profession. During teaching practice periods student teachers must experience numerous situations in which they engage with teaching activities in order to understand the real exercise of reflecting rationally and displaying the skills, knowledge and attitudes required for the teaching profession. Therefore they need to also deal with the challenges of parent involvement. Being engaged in parent involvement during teaching practice periods at schools will help them to acquire the necessary experiences, knowledge and attitudes to appreciate and respect as well as manage parent involvement for the benefit of the learner, the parents and the teacher.

For the purpose of this research project the teaching practice component of the BEd (Intermediate Phase) at an open distance learning institution in South Africa was used to gain information from mentor teachers regarding parent involvement of student teachers. Teaching practice in this BEd qualification consists of four year-modules which each require five weeks of teaching practice. This means that a student has completed 20 weeks of teaching practice in schools by the end of the BEd programme and thus on his/her entry into the teaching profession.

This research was driven by the following research question: What learning opportunities can be provided to student teachers to enable them to effectively manage parent-teacher partnerships?

As far as could be determined, research which addressed this issue has to date not focused on ODL students. This study hopes to fill this gap in research by identifying activities to promote student teachers' ability to engage in parent involvement during teaching practice periods at schools. If this gap is not addressed, ODL student teachers may remain unaware of their responsibility to engage in and reflect on parent involvement. On the other hand, appropriate learning experiences during teaching practice periods will enable student teachers to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills as well as a positive attitude towards parent involvement. Thus, the aim of this research was to identify learning opportunities that can enable student teachers to engage and manage parent-teacher partnerships during their teaching practice periods at schools. This research addresses the following: the conceptual framework of the study; a literature review of parent involvement; the research design of the investigation, the findings and lastly the conclusions.

2. Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

Two learning theories supported this study namely, the socio-constructivist learning theory and Lave and Wenger's situated learning theory and its value is being explained according to the theme of this research. The socio-constructivist viewpoint on learning refers to learning as an on-going, energetic process of learners (student teachers) in constructing meaning and transforming understandings (about parent involvement and parent partnerships) while interacting with the environment (the school as a teaching and learning environment and reality). This is an active responsibility in constructing knowledge (about dealing with parent involvement). Moreover learning is collaborative and learners (student teachers) learn from their mentors (mentor teachers) and one another (other student teachers). Socio-constructivists also argue that the individual (student teachers' own) construction of knowledge (in this case, about parent involvement) always occurs in social contexts (in the school or community), because learning activities are socially and contextually bound. There should be a continuous reciprocal interaction to ensure that the learning process is productive and successful. Clearly, this theory is in favour of student-centred teaching and learning and places the learners' (student teachers') own efforts to understand (the phenomenon of parent partnership) at the centre of educational events (Woolfolk, 2007: 481).

Furthermore, socio-constructivists believe that learners (student teachers) should deal with complex real-life situations (problems, concerns and needs of the learners and their parents/caregivers). They need ample opportunities to engage in meaningful, problem-based activities. Student teachers therefore need sufficient time and mentoring during teaching practice periods to address the reality of parent involvement in a significant way during teaching practice periods. Their ideas should also be elicited in respect of the above (Collins, Brown & Holum, 1991:38-39). When engaging with parents, student teachers are asked to apply knowledge in diverse and authentic contexts, to interpret attitudes and problems and to construct arguments based on evidence. They continually need to articulate their knowledge and understanding and consult various resources. Student teachers should also work collaboratively and support one another when dealing with parents' concerns, problems and needs. Supporters of the socio-constructivist approach emphasise that mentors (mentor teachers) make their own thinking processes explicit to learners (student teachers) and encourage them to do the same.

The second theory that supported this study was the situated learning theory of Lave and Wenger (1991). Lave and Wenger (1991:32, 59, 70) view learning as a social process where uniqueness, membership (a need to belong in order to learn) and inter-personal relationships are significant. This theory is based on two inter-related beliefs. The first is that learning takes place in accordance to context, culture and the activity in which it occurs, and the second is that learning is a process that occurs in a participatory social context. The two parties involved in situated learning are the "master teachers" (mentor teachers) and the "apprentices" (student teachers). Learners (student teachers) acquire the knowledge and skills (about parent partnerships) that is required from them to perform in the classroom by engaging in the school situation (which includes participation in parent involvement). They have to apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes by engaging in real-life situations (the reality of parent partnerships).

Two concepts are relevant for situated learning theory, namely, "community of practice" and "legitimate peripheral participation". Learners (student teachers) develop and identify with the practices appropriate for a specific community (parents). Wenger identifies three elements that define a community of practice, namely, mutual engagement of participants in action, negotiation of a joint enterprise and development of a shared repertoire. Student teachers are legitimate peripheral participants in the practices of the teaching community during their teaching practice periods under the supervision of experienced mentor teachers. The two theories, discussed above together with the literature study will be used to interpret the findings.

The following section contains a brief review of relevant literature. The focus is on the benefits and challenges of

parent involvement for the learner, parent, and student teacher.

2.1 *The importance of parent involvement*

The most effective teaching and learning take place when parents and teachers, thus families and schools work together. The learner always was and is still the most important person in education and every teaching and learning activity circles around the learner.

Parent involvement in early childhood education not only influences positive cognitive and social development but also helps young children to achieve their full potential (Driessen, Smit & Slegers, 2005). Learners who receive parental attention and support in the early years of learning are more able to deal with school work independently later. Parent involvement leads to greater academic success. Children are usually keen to participate in activities when their parents are involved (Singh, Mbokodi & Msila, 2004:305).

Lemmer (2009:12) indicates that children benefit significantly in all aspects of school life when their parents are involved in their education. Gordon and Brown (2011:263) agree. Young children whose parents choose to become actively involved in school activities, reap the rewards and share in the success of their children (bonding experience). Clearly therefore, educational goals for young learners can be best achieved if parents are involved in their child's pre-school years (Gordon and Brown (2011:263).

2.2 *The need for student teachers to participate in parent involvement*

Many teacher training programmes at universities include either a separate module on parent involvement or as a part of another module. Unfortunately these modules are not always incorporated into the teaching practice component of the training programmes, and student teachers do not learn to communicate and engage with parents. To teach student teachers to address the needs of school learners from diverse cultural backgrounds is a challenge that cannot be underestimated. Not only are some school learners the children of immigrants, but in many cases English is not their mother tongue and, moreover, the learners also come from various religious backgrounds. Therefore training institutions should invest in the strengths and motivations of student teachers during their teaching practice periods at schools in order to best prepare them to participate in parent involvement (Caspé, Lopez, Chu & Weiss, 2011:1).

Parent involvement can be seen as a partnership between school and home and must be embedded in as system of training for professional development. According to (Caspé et al., 2011:2) five fundamental elements in the system are the following:

- *Standards for family engagement:* National professional standards that define what educators should know and be able to do when involved with parents must be in place. Currently the knowledge, skills and attitudes taught in teacher training programmes are left up to the discretion of each teacher training institution.
- *A curriculum that teaches the skills, knowledge and attitudes that teachers need to engage with families:* According to Caspé et al. (2011:3), numerous ways to prepare student teachers for engagement with families have already been identified. Most universities give lessons in parent involvement through coursework, or via field experiences with families. Thus the message is clear: a curriculum that advances teaching skills regarding practical family involvement during the training years is critical.
- *Collaborations among the various stakeholders:* Training of student teachers with regard to the engagement between school and home requires involvement among various stakeholders, namely, the service providers for teacher training in higher education, school districts and schools, community-based organisations and parents. Collaboration between the training institution and schools is needed so that student teachers are placed with schools that will allow them to engage with the parents of learners in their classes. Furthermore, support systems must be offered at universities to conduct research in order to suggest best practices and strategies for family engagement with curriculum committees.
- *Continuing professional development around parent engagement:* Student teachers' experiences during teaching practice periods are not enough. Educators, such as practising teachers and faculty members at post-secondary institutions, must continue researching and thus expanding their knowledge and skills about the effect that parent engagement has on student success. To strengthen the parent engagement skills of both student teachers and teachers, they can be encouraged to become partners in community outreach projects.
- *Evaluation for learning and continuous improvement:* Evaluation of parent involvement is important because it

provides knowledge of how prepared student teachers and other educators are to partner with families. It informs higher education institutions about the areas of parent engagement where student teachers and teachers are doing well and also about where they require support. Such information is useful in order to adapt and improve the relevant curriculum that deals with teacher-parent partnerships. According to Caspe et al. (2011:3) some teachers are not trained in dealing with the problems, needs and challenges of families of learners in their classes. To assign tasks during teaching practice, student teachers can be trained to do this.

According to Caspe et al. (2011:1), student teachers are concerned that they start their teaching career without the necessary skills and knowledge regarding parent involvement and these students identified practical experiences of parent involvement during teaching practice periods as one of the top strategies to improve teacher training programmes. Against the background of the theoretical framework and the literature review, the following methodology was deemed suitable for investigating the views of mentor teachers regarding the matter of preparing student teachers for parent-teacher participation.

2.3 Research design

The research employed a qualitative research approach using a phenomenological research design to obtain an understanding of the views of mentor teachers in the matter of preparing student teachers for parent-teacher participation. Purposeful sampling was used to select 10 information-rich mentor teachers as participants. These participants were selected because they identified themselves as role models for student teachers in a questionnaire which was inserted in one of the teaching practice workbooks and also because they teach in four functional urban schools which are usually selected by quite a number of student teachers for their teaching practice. One focus group interview was conducted at one of the schools. Written consent was obtained from the Department of Education and also from the school principals of the 4 schools where the teachers teach. Individual oral permission to audiotape the interview was obtained from all the participants. The interview was conducted in a conversational manner and began with an explanation of the purpose of the interview, a promise of confidentiality and a reassurance that there were no right or wrong answers. Only two questions were asked, namely: (1) *What are the challenges you are currently experiencing when students participate in parent involvement?* and (2) *What learning opportunities do you provide to help student teachers acquire the ability to respect, value and manage parent involvement?* Different tactics were used to eliminate bias. These included a mechanically recording interview and transcribing it verbatim. Member checking was also done after the study by sending the results to the participants so that they could determine whether their contributions had been interpreted correctly.

3. Findings and Discussion

The findings fell into two main themes according to the two questions asked in the focus group interview, namely, current challenges experienced by mentor teachers regarding student teachers' participation in parent involvement and learning opportunities for student teachers suggested by the mentor teachers

3.1 Current challenges experienced by mentor teachers regarding student teachers' participation in parent involvement

The first question was intended to determine the current challenges experienced by mentor teachers regarding the participation of student teachers in parent involvement. The participants were in agreement that the parents had doubts about student teachers' ability and knowledge to engage with them, the parents. Two of the participants also pointed out that they, as teachers, actually do not have enough time to promote and support student teachers' involvement with parents. One 40-year-old participant also pointed out that the student teachers are not always interested in participating in parent involvement. She maintained that the student teachers only wanted to present lessons in order to complete their teaching practice workbooks. Another participant, a 35-year old female, confessed that she feels uncertain of how to mentor student teachers in the matter of parent involvement. The following are the actual statements made by the participating mentor teachers in this regard:

- *One student teacher had to deal with a parent who had doubts about her abilities. This problem was not one I had anticipated and felt unprepared to reassure this mother.*
- *I did not know that student teachers are allowed to talk to parents*
- *I do not have time to involve student teachers when I work with parents.*

- *I think that parents might be doubtful of a student teacher's experience. Parents prefer to talk to me.*
- *Student teachers only want to present the required lessons and are not interested in dealing with the parents*
- *I think parents might be doubtful of a student teacher's experience*

From the findings above it is clear that the current challenges regarding student teachers' participation in parent involvement during teaching practice periods at schools involve all three parties: the mentor teachers, the student teachers and the parents. Two participants thought that the parents were hindering and obstructing the involvement of student teachers because they did not trust the student teachers and they accused the student teachers of incompetency. Ignorance and unawareness of the responsibilities of a mentor teacher were also problems that emerged from the answers.

A serious problem that the mentor teachers pointed out was the fact that some student teachers do not want to get involved in anything other than completing their assignments as set out in the workbooks and are not interested in activities that are not required by the training institution. From the answers of the participating mentor teachers, it seems as if some students want to avoid activities that are not set out in their teaching practice workbooks. This is most unfortunate because student teachers who do not want to be involved in experiences with parent partnerships deprive themselves of valuable learning opportunities that will ultimately improve their ability to support the learners in their care. It is a teacher's duty and calling to put the learners in the centre of all activities and it is for the learners' benefit to strengthen home-school relationships.

In terms of the socio-constructivist theory on learning, interacting with the social environment is an important part of knowledge construction. The school as a teaching and learning environment is the heart of a community and student teachers need to take responsibility for constructing their own knowledge during teaching practice periods. Furthermore, socio-constructivists believe that student teachers should deal with complex, real-life situations, thus with the problems, concerns and needs of the learners and their families. These aspects should be part of student teachers' experiences during their training years.

The reports from the participants regarding the student teachers' reluctance to be involved in parent partnerships also runs counter to one of the previously mentioned guidelines of Caspe et al (2011:3), namely, that the teacher training curriculum should include activities that teach students the skills needed to engage with parents during the teaching practice periods. A curriculum that advances the skills, knowledge and attitudes of student teachers by including compulsory assignments during teaching practice periods will contribute towards and advance the professional development of student teachers.

As the mentor teachers pointed out, parents are actually also to blame for the fact that students are not involved in engaging with parents because they, the parents, prefer to engage with the teachers. It could be that parents underestimate student teachers' insight and their ability to show understanding. The fact, however, is that student teachers have chosen to become educators and it is part of their training to become problem solvers in the life of every learner. Under the careful guidance of mentor teachers it is possible that student teachers can provide valuable support to parents.

3.2 Learning opportunities for student teachers provided by mentor teachers

The object of the second question posed to the participants was to determine the learning opportunities provided by the mentor teachers. Although all participants acknowledged that they do not go to a great deal of trouble to promote parent involvement with student teachers, they nevertheless recommended the following:

- *I will provide clear guidelines for communication with parents.*
- *I will motivate student teachers to attend parent/teacher meeting.*
- *Teachers need to inform parents about the student teachers who will be doing their teaching practice in the class.*
- *I will help parents to understand the responsibilities of student teachers.*
- *I will focus on the importance of communication with parents, such as weekly class newsletters, e-mails, and sms messages.*
- *I will observe student teachers cooperating with parents and discuss their input afterwards.*
- *I will guide the student teachers to write a letter to introduce herself to the parents*
- *Mentor teachers need to be concerned with student teachers' ability to work with parents from different cultural backgrounds*

The suggested learning opportunities identified by the participants can be categorised into 4 aspects, namely,

giving information about the student teachers to the parents; providing clear guidelines to student teachers about activities that promote parent involvement; explaining ways of communication with parents; and motivating student teachers to get involved with parents and to acknowledge the needs of parents from different cultural backgrounds.

Only one participant identified the need for mentoring student teachers in the skills of working with parents from different cultural backgrounds. In South Africa it is imperative for teachers to be able to be unbiased and to have respect for diversity. The situated learning theory lends itself well to teaching practice because it recognises that learning can be a social process where uniqueness, membership and inter-personal relationships are significant and where learning can take place in accordance to context, culture and the activity in which it occurs.. The two parties in the process associated with teaching practice are the mentor teachers (the “masters”) and the student teachers (the “apprentices”). In teaching practice, the students acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes by engaging in real-life social situations of which parent involvement is an essential part.

The answers of the participants also pointed to the call mentioned above that Caspe et al (2011:3) made, namely, that field experiences with families need to be part of the training for professional development of student teachers. Caspe et al (2011:3) maintained that there are numerous ways to prepare student teachers for parent engagement. Such ways must be taught to students and included as practical activities to be carried out during their teaching practice period

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

From the findings of my research as reflected in the answers of the participating mentor teachers, it is clear that the practical training of student teachers needs to be revised so that student teachers are provided with learning opportunities which will enable them to manage parent-teacher partnerships. Student teachers must be made aware of the nature of parent involvement, how to engage with parents and the benefits, the barriers and the challenges that are involved. Real-life sensitive personal information should, however, not be given to students. Instead they can be replaced with make-believe scenarios. Mentor teachers need in-service training in this regard.

Another issue that needs to be addressed is incorporating activities for parent engagement in the teaching practice workbooks. Special attention should be given to support student teachers in dealing with learners and parents from diverse cultural backgrounds and diverse family backgrounds, such as single parent families, divorced parents; same sex parents; bi-racial parents; parents with disabilities, siblings acting as parents; parents who are terminally ill, parents who are unemployed, foster parents and grandparents acting as parents.

In conclusion, the importance of parent participation needs to be learnt by all student teachers. For their full professional development they need to be exposed to it already during their training, and this is best and most easily accomplished during their teaching practice periods.

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Needs Analysis and Environment Analysis: Designing an ESP Curriculum for the Students of the Polytechnic University of Tirana

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Abstract

Needs analysis is important in terms of students' involvement in every phase of the educational process. Developing an English for Specific Purposes Curriculum is closely related to learners' objectives, learning strategies, language attitudes, and expectations from the course and learning habits. Another important factor is the environment where this curriculum will be implemented. The purpose of this paper is to explain how to conduct needs and environment analyses for the engineering students in the Polytechnic University of Tirana and how to include them in the development of an ESP curriculum. We pose the hypothesis that by focusing on students' needs, objectives, expectations and learning styles as well as by taking into consideration the learning environment is improved the teaching/learning of a language for specific purposes. First, we will set some basic principles for conducting needs and environment analyses and afterwards we will proceed with the practical application of such analyses in the PUT's context. The results of the surveys, students' observations and the interviews conducted with ESP teachers indicate the variety of students' needs. Finally, based on those needs, there are drawn conclusions regarding the development of a more effective curriculum for the students of the engineering sciences.

Keywords: Curriculum development, needs analysis, environment analysis, English for Specific Purposes

1. Introduction

According to a survey about the future of the English language (Graddol, 2000) English will not be replaced by any other language as a lingua franca for the next 50 years. It will continue to have a strong status becoming the language of science, medicine, politics, business, internet, online communication, arts and sports. It is therefore very important that the Albanians, and in particular students have good knowledge of it if they want to advance in their field of study since most of the materials are in English.

Indeed, English takes a special importance as a library language for Albanian engineers and as a means of communication in conferences, symposia and seminars. This means, they should have enough linguistic knowledge to understand texts and in particular journals and periodicals, in order to interpret the data and theories and to update their knowledge with the latest technological developments. But on the other hand, engineers do not need English only to read but also to communicate. Active participation in the abovementioned meetings requires good linguistic skills in order to talk with colleagues about the latest developments in their field of specialization.

Polytechnic University of Tirana is one of the few higher education institutions in Albania that trains engineers in: information technology, electrical engineering, mechanical engineer, civil engineering, architecture and urban planning, geosciences, physical engineering and mathematical engineering. Thus, it should train students not only in their field of study but also equip them with adequate knowledge of English when faced with the demands of the labor market. Hence it is necessary to design an English language curriculum to meet the students' needs at best.

1.1 Research Focus

This paper aims at:

- Improving the English curriculum in the Polytechnic University in order to meet the students' needs and labor market's demands.
- Exploring some key factors that should be considered and analyzed during the process of curriculum design.

2. Material and Method

2.1 *Theoretical Background*

Curriculum design is a complex process. It consists of the main steps for developing and implementing a curriculum. Although there are different opinions about these steps, (Richards, 2001, Nation 2010, Litwack 1979; Briggs 1977; Nicholls & Nicholls 1972 etc.) almost all of them mention three main elements: (1) environment analysis; (2) needs analysis; (3) objectives.

Environment analyses, often called 'constraint analysis, refers to the analyses of the context where a language curriculum will be used. Every context contains factors which may facilitate or hinder a curriculum's success. This is the reason why it is important to identify those factors and their effect. The factors may be social or institutional. Social factors include educational policies, language teaching tradition and community attitudes to language learning. Institutional factors include the human aspect (teaching staff and institutional policies and the physical aspect (environment where the learning process takes place).

Environment analysis is an important part of curriculum design because it ensures that the course will be usable. For example, if the level of training of teachers is very low and is not taken into account, it might happen that the teachers are unable to handle the activities in the course. Similarly, if the course material is too expensive or requires facilities that are not available, the course may be unusable. Generally, the importance of a factor depends on the effect it has on the validity of a course.

The second important part of an ESP curriculum design is needs analysis. It aims to obtain information about the learners' professional and linguistic backgrounds, their preferred learning styles, learning strategies, their motivation, and their willingness to attend classes, do homework, and commit themselves to learning. Learners' linguistic proficiency and the lack thereof are also very important in order to shape the syllabus and provide for quality teaching and teaching materials according to the learning context.

Finally, the third element of curriculum design is objectives and goals. They are very important because they assist the teachers and students in directing and defining the vision they should have along the process of learning a foreign language. The goals help the teacher in measuring the students' progress. Similarly, they help the students in measuring their own linguistic knowledge and progress (Haloçi et al.2008).

2.2 *General Background of Research*

The language curriculum in PUT has evolved from training students with English for General Purposes into English for Specific Purposes. EGP curriculum has prevailed in PUT for many years until 2003. The year 2004, with the implementation of the Bologna Declaration, marked the first efforts to prepare a curriculum that was in line with students' needs and labor market demands and in 2008 there was designed a curriculum based on students' needs analysis. The syllabus produced by this analysis direct even today's work of teaching staff of the Foreign Language Center in PUT. The current curriculum is a step forward in the field of curriculum designing because it was based on students' needs analysis but it has many drawbacks. First, it relied on needs analysis without taking into consideration the environmental factors especially two important factors for its success: the large number of students in classes and their heterogeneous linguistic background. Second, there was used only one means of data collection which was the questionnaire. Experience has shown that reliance on only one means can result in inaccurate information. Thirdly, the questionnaire was thematically limited. It focused only on students' preference with regard to the type of textbook and there were not taken into consideration their interests, proficiency, motivation, learning styles and the skills they would like to improve. Finally, the textbook selected after the evaluation of the results, often treated topics which were not related to the students' field of study resulting in students' dissatisfaction and alienation with the English course.

Under these circumstances, there arises the need for developing a curriculum which takes into consideration all the factors which affect its success such as students' linguistic background, their goals and interests and the social and institutional factors typical to PUT.

2.3 *Sample of Research*

The sample of this research consisted of 172 students who volunteered to take part in the survey. They were from different faculties such as Electrical Engineering, Geodesy, Civil Engineering, Architecture and Mechanics and from

different academic years: 2011-2012 and 2012-2013.

English for specific purposes is offered as a course in the first semester of the first year in the Bachelor studies so most of the participants (134) were first year students in their Bachelor studies. However, we have to point out that in this first semester, they take very few courses related to their field of study and as a result they might not be aware of their true needs regarding English. Thus, the sample was enriched with 37 students in the first year of their Master studies.

2.4 Instrument and Procedures

We relied on a combination of data so that our analysis would be as close as possible to the students' needs and interests and in order to achieve its main purpose, that is to enhance the quality of foreign language teaching.

The first instrument was a questionnaire that had twenty-nine items. The purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain as much information as possible about the participants' linguistic needs, professional and English-learning related goals, age, field of study, commitment to learning, motivation, and learning styles. The questionnaire was presented in Albanian in order to avoid any misunderstanding, whereas the quantitative analysis was carried out using SPSS.

The second instrument was a General English Placement Test. The purpose of this test was to discover the respondents' level of proficiency in English. The test had 30 grammar items that ranged from very beginning to advanced levels of difficulty; 15 reading comprehension items in four reading passages that ranged from beginning to advanced levels of proficiency; the items were all multiple-choice with four alternatives to choose the right answer from. There was also an oral interview that consisted of 15 items. In the oral interview, the first seven items were of the short-answer type, and the other eight were open-ended questions that prompted students to think critically and elaborate on their answers. The students' oral proficiency was assessed according to a rubric prepared beforehand. The oral interview was also used to find out which students had an intermediate and above level of oral English proficiency and to confirm their level of grammar and reading comprehension.

The third instrument consisted of a semi-structured interview with PUT's English teachers. The focus was mainly on the students' proficiency, their learning needs and the difficulties the teachers have encountered in all aspects of their work.

The last instrument was an observation of the institutional and social factors by using Nation's chart of environment constraints and effects (Nation, 2010)

3. Results

3.1 Needs analysis

The following section outlines the results and findings related to the participants' linguistic background, motivation, learning styles, the skills and the type of English they would like learn.

The general English Placement Test confirmed the teachers' answers on students' proficiency. It showed that the groups in PUT consisted of students of different levels of proficiency in English. In the following charts is illustrated this heterogeneity respectively in the groups Geodesy IB and Civil Engineering IF.

Table 1. Geodesy IB

Proficiency	Percentage (%)
Beginner	56,5
Intermediate	30,4
Advanced	13,1

Table 2. Civil Engineering IF

Proficiency	Percentage (%)
Beginner	0
Intermediate	53,3
Advanced	46,7

The results of the questionnaires enabled us to develop a detailed profile of the sample. The majority of the participants (73,4%) were aged 18-25 and had attended a general high school with a small percentage (12%) coming from vocational high schools. Surprisingly, only 41.5% were studying what they really wanted. The rest, which also makes up the majority, had not been able to enter their favorite faculty. These findings are very important because they account for students' general lack of motivation. This lack of motivation toward English language learning is supported even by the students' reluctance to work outside the classroom. Only, 12.5% of the participants agreed to dedicate more than 4 hours per week to language learning outside the classroom.

Table 3: Skills the students would like to improve

Skill	Percentage (%)
Listening	30,7
Reading	4,9
Speaking	46,1
Writing	8,7
Grammar	3,5
Vocabulary	6,1

When asked which skill they wanted to improve most, the result of the analysis indicated that students and their professors expressed different needs. While professors believed reading was the most important skill for them, students themselves considered speaking and listening skills as most needed (see Table 3). On the other hand, when asked what they might need English the most, about 48,4% of the participants stated that they might need English for studying and consulting materials in their field of study which means that even developing reading skills is quite important,

Table 4. Reasons for using English

Reason	Percentage (%)
Studying & consulting materials	48,4
work	19,9
training	5,4
communicating	15,5
tests	5,4

It was also observed that the students make use of different learning styles but at the same time show a preference for traditional teaching methods with the teacher at the center. 45.7% of them preferred a teacher-led instruction full of explanations. They do not like either pair work or group work. However, 30% admitted that they learned best when engaged in creative activities and course assignments. (See Table 5).

Table 5. Students' learning styles

Learning styles	Percentage (%)				
	Most Satisfactory	Very Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Little Satisfactory	Unimportant
I learn best when I see something	35,1	35,1	15,8	8,8	5,3
I learn best when I hear something	31,6	45,6	22,8	0	0
I learn best when working by myself	27,1	11,9	25,4	25,4	10,2
I learn best when working with another	11,5	11,5	32,7	23,1	21,2
I learn best in small groups	9,3	16,7	33,3	25,9	14,8
I learn best in pair work	5,6	22,2	22,2	19,4	30,6
I prefer to solve an exercise without	20	17,5	20	7,5	35

teacher's help					
I prefer a teacher oriented class full of explanations	45,7	34,8	15,2	0	4,3
I learn best when engaged creative activities- projects	25	22,7	25	9,1	18,2

Finally, the respondents (72.4%) would like the English language course in PUT to train them with both general English as well with English about their field of study.

Table 6. Type of English the students prefer

Type of English	Percentage (%)
General English	15,8
Specialized English related to their field of study	11,8
Both	72,4

3.2 Environment analysis

The following section outlines the results and findings from analyzing environment factors. Analysis of social and institutional factors showed that social factors, which include educational policies, language teaching tradition and community attitudes to language learning, favored the learning of English. Albania has a long tradition of foreign language teaching starting in 1635 with Latin and in 1921 with the languages for specific purpose (A. Fida & L. Buza; 2012). Regarding educational policy, English is one of the languages most supported by the Ministry of Education. In fact it is the language that is taught most at all levels of the Albanian education system. The Minister of Education, Myqerem Tafaj, has announced that English will be a compulsory exam for high school students in 2013. Likewise, masters and doctorates will be provided in this language.

On the other hand, there were distinguished some institutional factors which could have a negative effect on the curriculum if neglected. Implementation of the Bologna Cart on September 18, 2003 reduced the time allocated to foreign languages. This decision which was taken by the Faculty Councils without the representatives of the Foreign Language Centre limited foreign language teaching / learning in PUT. Furthermore, in almost all PUT's faculties, the English course is offered in the first semester of the first year, resulting in an overload for the center's staff.

As it can be inferred, the foreign language center covers the teaching of foreign language in all PUT's faculties. This center consists of qualified staff with a long experience in foreign language teaching. They conceived the new curriculum in 2004 and this also led to a new organization of the classroom and into a livelier professor-student interaction. Unfortunately, they were not trained to face the new situation created by the reforms carried out at the university level.

As for the physical aspect, there is a foreign language Laboratory but unfortunately it is not equipped with modern infrastructure and other facilities, such as CD-player, video-projector, etc., are almost non-existent. However, in the different faculty libraries can be found numerous literatures in foreign languages but they are rarely visited by the students.

4. Discussion

The analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire, placement test, interviews and observations showed that we are dealing with a contingent of students who are heterogeneous not only in their linguistic needs but also in the occupational goals, wants, motivation, learning styles and learning strategies. As a result, there should be developed a curriculum which takes into account this heterogeneity but at the same time meets the students' needs in accordance with the learning environment in PUT where there is a qualified teaching staff that develops learning activities without a language laboratory and with a reduced number of hours available for foreign language learning.

Thus, the curriculum cannot be based only on a textbook but teachers should conduct differentiated work with smaller groups of students who find by themselves specialty texts online or in magazines and analyze or study them according to their level of proficiency and in accordance with the objectives set by the instructor beforehand. In this way, they are encouraged to carry out independent work.

We have to bear in mind that the number of classes is insufficient and the teacher's role is to provide students with learning techniques, to facilitate learning, to show the way of reading and approaching a text, and finally developing a report or commenting on it.

Since the students would like to improve their speaking and listening skills, there should be provided more activities that help develop these skills. Furthermore, in order to ensure an effective English language learning, there must be addressed topics of interest to students and should be used a variety of motivating learning activities aimed at improving students' communication skills, linguistic knowledge and specialized terminology in line with general knowledge of English.

5. Conclusions

For those developing ESP courses, utilizing a learner-centered approach can help practitioners effectively design and teach a course that will meet the specific needs of their students. The process should first begin by conducting a needs analysis, an analysis of the learners' language ability, in order to get to know what type of language they already know and what type of language they lack. Again, this knowledge will not only allow curriculum designers to decide what and how to teach, but also decide on whom they will teach and how to cater for a myriad of learning styles, goals and motivation. However, a needs analysis exercise would not be complete without identifying the environments constraints and overcoming them with the means available.

Finally, by focusing on students' needs, objectives, expectations and learning styles as well as by taking into consideration the learning environment is improved the teaching/learning of a language for specific purposes

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Student Self-Evaluation in Albanian Language

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Abstract

The aim of the topic is to teach students how to assess their own progress. Self-evaluation is a potentially powerful technique because of its impact on student performance through enhanced self-efficacy and increased intrinsic motivation. To use other explicit criteria of evaluation. Self-evaluation is defined as students judging the quality of their work, based on evidence and explicit criteria, for the purpose of doing better work in the future. Alternate forms of assessment can generate that other information. We explore the research and practice related to student self-evaluation. The new: Evidence about the positive effect of self-evaluation on student performance is particularly convincing for difficult tasks, especially in academically oriented schools and among high need pupils. Perhaps just as important, students like to evaluate their work. The help will give: Teachers today are experimenting with alternatives to traditional tests. Performance assessment, portfolio collections, classroom observation, peer assessment, and self-evaluation are joining the unit test and the final exam in the repertoire of the skillful teacher. Such teachers ensure that an over-reliance on testing does not seriously distort instruction or impede important school improvement efforts. Accordingly, their programs are based on a range of assessment approaches. Teachers who include authentic assessment in their repertoires are driven by a belief that curriculum-assessment experiences should prepare students for life in the real world.

1. Introduction

Self-evaluation is defined as students judging the quality of their work, based on evidence and explicit criteria, for the purpose of doing better work in the future. When we teach students how to assess their own progress, and when they do so against known and challenging quality standards, we find that there is a lot to gain. Self-evaluation is a potentially powerful technique because of its impact on student performance through enhanced self-efficacy and increased intrinsic motivation. Evidence about the positive effect of self-evaluation on student performance is particularly convincing for difficult tasks (Maehr & Stallings, 1972; Arter et al., 1994), especially in academically oriented schools (Hughes et al., 1985) and among high need pupils. Perhaps just as important, students like to evaluate their work.

Teachers in Albanian language today are experimenting with alternatives to traditional tests. Performance assessment, portfolio collections, classroom observation, peer assessment, and self-evaluation are joining the unit test and the final exam in the repertoire of the skillful teacher. Such teachers ensure that an over-reliance on testing does not seriously distort instruction or impede important school improvement efforts. Accordingly, their programs are based on a range of assessment approaches. Teachers who include authentic assessment in their repertoires are driven by a belief that curriculum-assessment experiences should prepare students for life in the real world.

2. Presentation

In order to become lifelong learners, students need to learn the importance of self-evaluation. They can do this by filling out self-evaluation forms, journalizing, taking tests, writing revisions of work, asking questions, and through discussions. When students evaluate themselves, they are assessing what they know, do not know, and what they would like to know. They begin to recognize their own strengths and weaknesses. They become more familiar with their own beliefs, and possibly their misconceptions. After they self-evaluate they will be able to set goals that they feel they can attain with the new knowledge they have about themselves.

Teachers should encourage self-evaluation because self-assessment makes the students active participants in their education (Sloan, 1996). There are a variety of ways for teachers to provide the students with self-assessments. Research suggests that the simplest tools to encourage student self-assessment are evaluative questions that force students to think about their work (Hart, 1999).

While teacher-made tests and standardized tests give us information about student learning, they do not provide

all the information. Alternate forms of assessment can generate that other information. The research evidence accumulating in our studies, and the data produced by other researchers, make us optimistic about the impact of one form of authentic assessment -- self-evaluation -- on the learning of students and their teachers.

It is important to understand the broader context of assessment reform and the experiences of teachers who are experimenting or adopting new assessment practices. Four major shifts in conceptions of assessment influence how we consider supporting teachers who are adopting approaches such as student self-evaluation.

First, as part of a broader assessment reform movement, conceptions of good assessment are moving toward direct observation of complex performance rather than brief written tests that correlate with the target aptitudes (Linn et al., 1991). In these performance assessments, students are observed working with complex tasks (for example, Baron, 1990; Shavelson et al., 1992) or dealing with real-life problems. These instruments are often administered to groups of students because group work represents out-of-school performance better than individual production. Such approaches to testing would seem to be ideal for the many classrooms today that focus on collaborative and cooperative approaches to learning.

Second, teachers' responses to alternate assessment have been mixed. Mandated alternate assessment programs produce teacher resistance due to schedule disruption, concerns about consistency, and doubts about the usefulness of the data (Wilson, 1992; Howell et al., 1993; Maudaus & Kellaghan, 1993; Worthen 1993). Yet, when teachers have the freedom to choose, there is enthusiasm for alternate assessment.

Third, making such changes is not easy. The teacher believed that regular monitoring based on unambiguous criteria, such as work completed, stimulated student productivity. For the teacher, the motivational power of assessment resided in the fairness of objective procedures. When he/she tried to use performance assessment, he/she felt that objectivity was lost. The teacher had little confidence in the rules he/she developed for interpreting students responses, believed that given grades favoured students he/she liked, and felt assigning a single grade to all students in a group was unfair. Although the teacher tried to resolve these conflicts, he/she eventually returned to multiple-choice testing.

Finally, one of the most challenging shifts in conceptions of assessment is related to the changing role of the teacher and the changing educational environment. The context for educators is changing rapidly and dramatically. It is more complex and volatile. Teachers are in an environment of conflicting and ever-increasing demands where the school is expected to meet all these demands. In such a shifting context our outcomes for students have sufficiently changed and traditional assessment practices are no longer adequate. If we value "participation, equality, inclusiveness and social justice," (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998, p. 13), then our classrooms and schools need to be places where students share leadership and responsibility for learning. Hargreaves & Fullan further suggest that "Involving students and parents in decision-making, teaching and learning decisions, parent conferences and assessment of achievement, extend these democratic principles further" (p.13). In such a shifting context our outcomes for students have sufficiently changed and traditional assessment practices are no longer adequate.

All of these factors place the demand on teachers to develop assessment literacy themselves. We define assessment literacy as the:

- 1) capacity to examine student data and make sense of it;
- 2) ability to make changes in teaching and schools derived from those data;
- 3) commitment to engaging in external assessment discussions.

Developing assessment literacy facilitates teacher confidence about the defensibility of their evaluation practices and reduces feelings of vulnerability. It means that teachers are able to provide the home with clear and detailed assessments, and are able to provide a rationale for the assessment choices they make in their classrooms. Becoming more assessment literate also means teachers becoming critical consumers of externally generated assessment data so that they can engage in the arguments about standards and accountability (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998) . Educators who can clearly and respectfully discuss assessment issues with non-educators and educators alike, will be better able to link student learning and instructional approaches for the purpose of continuous improvement.

Four conceptual shifts have just been elaborated:

- 1) the movement toward direct observation of complex performance rather than brief written tests;
- 2) the mixed responses by teachers to alternate assessment;
- 3) the difficulty in making assessment changes;
- 4) the changing role of the teacher and the changing educational environment that necessitates the need for teacher assessment literacy.

The problem is that without teacher involvement in student self-evaluation, teachers have no direct knowledge about whether individual students are on an upward or downward path. The choice for teachers is not whether students

evaluate their own work (they will regardless of teacher input but whether teachers will attempt to teach them how to do so effectively. The goals of our ongoing research and the practical model and ideas that follow, are aimed at assisting teachers with this important work.

Three kinds of student benefits have been observed in the studies we and other researchers have conducted. The first is *cognitive achievement*, especially narrative writing skills (Ross et al., 2000). Students become better writers by learning how to evaluate their prose. The effects are strongest for the weakest writers. Self-evaluation training helps the low group the most because they are less certain about what constitutes good writing. All students, however, seem to benefit from the focusing effect of joint criteria development and use. The second benefit is in *the area of motivation*. Students who are taught self-evaluation skills are more likely to persist on difficult tasks, be more confident about their ability, and take greater responsibility for their work. Third, *students' attitudes* toward evaluation become more positive when they participate in the process. As students grow older they become increasingly cynical about traditional testing. When self-evaluation is included as a contributor to their final grade, students are more likely to report that evaluation is fair and worthwhile. Clearly, there is heightened meaningfulness of self-evaluation over assessment data.

Many teachers, parents, and students believe that if students have a chance to mark their own work they will take advantage, giving themselves higher scores regardless of the quality of their performance. We have found that students, especially older ones, may do this if left to their own devices. But, when students are taught systematic self-evaluation procedures, the accuracy of their judgment improves. Contrary to the beliefs of many students, parents, and teachers, students' propensity to inflate grades decreases when teachers share assessment responsibility and control (Ross et al., 2000). When students participate in the identification of the criteria that will be used to judge classroom production and use these criteria to judge their work, they get a better understanding of what is expected. The result is the gap between their judgments and the teacher's is reduced. And, by focusing on evidence, discrepancies between teacher and self-evaluation can be negotiated in a productive way.

Thoughtfully designed self-evaluation procedures that provide students with explicit criteria at an appropriate level of generality, that provide for student involvement in assessment decision-making, that elicit student cognitions about their performance, that ground student goal setting in accurate data, and that are integrated with sensitive instruction may provide teachers with a powerful lever for enhancing student learning.

A self-evaluation assessment system enhances student achievement on four arguments. Students will learn more because :

1. self-evaluation will focus student attention on the objectives measured;
2. the assessment provides teachers with information they would otherwise lack;
3. students will pay more attention to the assessment;
4. student motivation will be enhanced.

As well, self-evaluation is unique in asking students to reflect on their performance. Conventional test procedures provide no information about students' inner states during task performance, their subsequent interpretations about the quality of their work, and the goals they set in response to feedback. Self-evaluations that elicit information about students' effort, persistence, goals orientations, attributions for success and failure, and beliefs about their competence, give teachers a fuller understanding of why students perform as they do. When incorporated into teachers' deliberative planning they can anticipate impediments to learning, especially motivational obstacles.

As students move through the school system their skepticism about the validity of test scores increases. Students view self-evaluation more positively than other kinds of assessment. We found that students like self-evaluation because it increased clarity about expectations, was fairer, and gave students feedback that they could use to improve the quality of their work.

Finally, self-evaluation has an indirect effect on achievement through self-efficacy (i.e., beliefs about one's ability to perform actions that lead to desired ends). What is crucial is how a student evaluates a performance. Positive self-evaluations encourage students to set higher goals and commit more personal resources to learning tasks (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1995). Negative self-evaluations lead students to embrace goal orientations that conflict with learning, select personal goals that are unrealistic, adopt learning strategies which are ineffective, exert low effort and make excuses for performance (Stipek, et al., 1992). Higher self-efficacy translates into higher achievement.

As a result, self-evaluation is unlikely to have a positive impact on achievement if these misconceptions are not addressed by teaching students how to evaluate their work. Simply requiring self-evaluation is unlikely to have an effect on achievement. Students have to be taught how to evaluate their work accurately and need time to develop the appropriate skills.

Teaching self-evaluation also has benefits for teachers. Teachers who participate in in-service focused on how to

teach self-evaluation grow more confident in their skills as teachers and use a greater variety of assessment techniques in the classroom.

Teacher-efficacy is the belief that teachers, individually and collectively, will be able to bring about student learning. There is a generative power of teacher expectations. Teachers who anticipate that they will be successful set higher goals for themselves and their students, are more willing to engage in instructional experiments, persist through obstacles to implementation, and have higher student achievement. The connection between teacher learning and student learning is a critical and essential link.

One of the greatest challenges for teachers is the recalibration of power that occurs when assessment decisions are shared. Data collected in one of our projects suggested that teachers found it difficult to share control of evaluation decision-making, a responsibility at the core of the teacher's authority. Such difficulty may be due to the fact that teaching students to be self-evaluators involves the implementation of fundamental changes in the relationship between teachers and students in the classroom. Changing root beliefs, behaviors and relationships is difficult and takes time. Accordingly, another challenge is time. Teachers need considerable time to work out how to accommodate an innovation that involves sharing control of a core teacher function with their existing beliefs about teacher and learner roles. As well, students need time to understand what self-evaluation is and how it relates to their learning, in addition to learning how to do it.

Challenges such as these will demand that teachers be patient with the change process, for themselves and for their students.

3. Models of a selfevaluation work:

Topic :Wordformation

The teacher has to explain how to form new words and he want to involve students in this topic as much as possible.

Example: The teacher has prepared an exercise which is separated into two columns. Students need to complete the one of them:

The person who works as a police	Policeman
The person who sell the fish	
The person who fight the fire	
The person who doesn't see	

The correct answer of the students will be only in the form of a composed noun.

The last tip help student to find only the correct form of their answers. Then based in their words they can identify the specific element of this words.

Topic: Verb tenses

The teacher need to explain the past , the present and the future.

One solution is to share the class into 3 groups and give them make description about:

First group:

The first day in school.

Second group:

Their city today

Third group:

How will be their future.

In the end of this task they will underline the verbs and each group complete the verbs in the specific column at the board.

Past	Present	Future

In this way teachers can explain also the modality of verbs.

With this activities teachers can help students to understand how they can do better the activities in the class and the most important is that they become more productive in order to measure their quality, so to realise our expectations to evaluate themselves.

4. Some tips for getting students started with self-evaluation:

- Define self-evaluation for students (e.g., "judging the quality of your work").
- Make the benefits of self-evaluation visible to students.
- Talk about the benefits, and address such benefits consciously, both at the beginning of the process and throughout.
- Overtly confront students' feeling and beliefs about self-evaluation. This means directly dealing with misconceptions.
- Start small. Create lots of small, short self-evaluation opportunities for your students.
- Use a variety of quick pre-designed forms to get your students into the practice of self-evaluating during or after regular activities they do in the classroom.
- Choose a performance that you and your students have had some experience with (e.g., oral presentations, research reports, narrative writing).
- Expect a range of reactions from your students as you help them get better at self-evaluation. You will have a continuum of responses, from positive reactions as students see this as "fair" assessment, to negative reactions as students discover that sharing control also means sharing the workload.
- Create collaborative conditions for your own professional learning. Work with a peer or colleague in experimenting with self-evaluation. Such experimentation will enhance personal assessment literacy. The constructive dissonance, social comparison, synthesis, and experimentation that occur when working with others will have a significant effect on your learning, and ultimately, on your students' learning. Collaboration will help you more effectively link student learning and instructional approaches for the purpose of continuous improvement.
- Let all stakeholders (students, parents, administrators, colleagues) know what assortment of assessment practices you are using in your classroom, and practice articulating a rationale for why self-evaluation is an important part of your assessment repertoire.
- Trust that your students can be integral assessment partners, and with time, teaching, and co-learning, that you and your students will become better at it.

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Institutional Involvement of Parents in School Management, Brings the Albanian School Closer and Faster with the European Ones

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Abstract

In developed countries there are identified some models of school-based management, especially related to the decision-making processes, based on the role that different actors have in it. This defines also the level of decentralization and school autonomy. In the framework of the decentralization reform in education area, even in Albania there are made positive steps towards transfer the authority into school level. The new law of pre-education system has created more opportunities especially for institutionalized involvement of parents in school management. Institutionalized involvement of parents in "school-based management", despite the progressive steps that have been made in Albania, still faces critical challenges to be functional. The focus of our research is identification of these challenges and barriers that parents face, recommending more legal opportunities, further support for parental capacity building, several means and mechanisms, for a real and effective role of parents in school management. This paper has been written based in surveys, interviews and focus groups discussions, developed in five urban schools and in four rural schools. The research showed that not all parents' rights in school have been considered; showed that even legal spaces are not fully applied, that institutions/organizations that represent parents' voice in school do not function properly etc. In order to address these issues this paper emphasis the need for more legal improvements, parental capacity building initiatives and also institutional strengthening of school-based parental structures.

Keywords: *school-based management, parental involvement, challenges, Albanian pre-university education system, legislation*

1. Description of the context

In this research study, we are based on similar models that exist nowadays in the developed countries of U.S. and Europe, on the involvement of all the groups of interest for the management and administration of the school. It is considered of high interest the implementation of the World Bank project "school-based management", and consistently the results of this implementation, in schools of several countries in our region, such as: Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia. "School-based Management" is the systematic decentralization to the school level of authority and responsibility to make decisions on significant matters related to school operations within a centrally determined framework of goals, policies, curriculum, standards, and accountability. (Caldwell, B. J. (2005) pp 1-2).

Conceptually, it can be seen as a formal change of governing structures, which identifies individual schools as the primary units for the improvement. In this way, it is realized a redistribution of decision-making authority, because this authority is considered as the first instrument by means of which the educational improvement can be stimulated and supported. So, in this decentralization process, the responsibility and the decision-making authority on school operations is transferred to the principals, the teachers and the parents, sometimes even to the students and the members of the school community. (Barrera-Osorio, F.; Fasih, T.; Patrinos, H. A.; Santibáñez, L. (2009), pp 3).

The implementation of the "school-based management" is directly related to the improvement of the quality of education and the learning process, changing the school dynamics, changing the parents' behavior and involving them more in decision making and services provision for school. This approach aims to provide and improve services for the poor, and for all the categories, increasing their selection and participation in services delivery, giving the citizens a key role in the school management. (Barrera-Osorio, F.; Fasih, T.; Patrinos, H. A.; Santibáñez, L. (2009), pp 30).

In the developed countries, the basic idea that exists behind the "school-based management" is: "who works in the school building should have more control in the managing of what happens in this building." In the developing countries,

this idea is less ambitious and is more focused on community and parents involvement in school decision-making process than putting this process completely under control. However, in both cases, the role of the central government in education is indisputable and the right definition of this role affects the conception and the implementation way of this movement activities. (*The World Bank, (2007, pp 3-13).*)

This management way is identical with the decentralization of power, information, decentralization of knowledge and rewards and requires changing of the organizational structures, roles, policies, practical teachings and human resources management etc. (*Sihono, T. & Yusof, R. (2012), pp 151).*

The existing various forms of "School-Based Management" are explained depending on the fact that who has the power to make decisions and what is the level of the decision making that is transferred to the school level. In some cases, School-Based Management, transfers the authority only to the principals or the teachers, in other cases it encourages, or mandates the parental participation.

From this point of view, there are four models of School-Based Management: (*Leithwood, K.. & Menzies, T. (1998), pp 325).*

- 1) The Administrative Control: this (the Dutch model) transfers the authority to the school principal. It aims to make the school more responsible to the local education authorities by means of increasing the expenses efficiency on personnel and curriculum.
- 2) 2) The Professional Control (the Finnish model) transfers the decision-making authority to the teachers, intending better use of teachers' knowledge on school needs in the class level. In this way, the full participation of the teachers in decision-making can motivate them to work better by increasing teaching effectiveness.
- 3) The Community Control: (Mexico, New Zealand, Salvador, etc.) transfers the decision making to the parents or the community. In this model, it is assumed that the teachers and the managers to become more responsible to the parents' needs and the curriculum must reflect the local needs and preferences.
- 4) The Balance Control (Michigan, some states of Mexico, etc.) balances the decision making between the parents and the teachers, who are the two main actors in each school. The model aims to use the teachers' knowledge for the improvement of the school management, to make it more responsible to the parents.

In general, in the world, the existing models of School-Based Management are a mixture of the four models mentioned above. In most cases, the power is given to a formal legal actor in the form of the school board or the school management committee. Almost in all the versions of the School-Based Management, representatives of the community participate in these organizations. (*Barrera-Osorio, F.; Fasih, T.; Patrinos, H. A. ; Santibañez, L. (2009) pp 5).*

The trends in School-Based Management are earlier, but in 1987 a pilot program was implemented in the public schools in Florida and the first results were not satisfactory. Two years later, the differences between the schools in the project and those out of the project began to appear. The schools in the project reached higher scores in more than half of the estimated factors. *Sihono, T.& Yusof, R. (2012) Implementation of School Based Management in Creating Effective Schools, 1 (4), pp 143.*

Taking into consideration the positive results of the School-Based Management in the improvement of the education quality, many countries of the world are paying attention to the decentralization of the education system and the parents' and community involvement in school management.

The practice shows that School-Based Management is irreversible and the challenge is to achieve a balance between the centralization and the decentralization depending on the preferred or necessary values and on the human capacities at different levels to carry out their respective functions. (*Brian J. Caldwell, (2005).*)

The development trends of education in the world today, provide an evaluation and an important position of the parent in the education process. This role, associated with the parental involvement in the school problems to its governance, its administration and management, a global trend, from which not a single country can be excluded. *Di Gropello, E. (2006) no . 72).*

In Albania too, the cooperation of the academic institution with the parents is a priority and the parents in this relationship are determined as the main partner of the school for the child's progress. *The law on the Pre-university Education System, No. 69/2012 date 18/07/2012.*

The studies carried out until now have demonstrated that the parental involvement and the democratic governance, are very essential to positively assist the learning process, to ensure the communication and the cooperation while respecting the diversity, to ensure a stable democracy for the future and to promote education for democratic. (*Bäckman, E. & Trafford, B. (2007) pp 27-28).*

This involvement is important not only for the children but also for the parents themselves because it helps them

with knowledge about the child, it helps them to transmit the good and positive traditions, also to be educated and self-educated continuously.

But, although there are priorities and advantages, the parental involvement in the organized structures within the school in the preuniversity education, and out of school, there have been weakness and shortcomings, which have affected directly the manner of the governance, administration and management of the school and therefore the school results. (*CDE & UNICEF. (2008) pp 41-43*).

The relations between the level of the institutional involvement and the results of school management or governance, have been and still remain unharmonious and, naturally, the functioning of these institutions focused on increasing the school efficiency, is not in comply with the required standards. The parental involvement in the education and school progress, existed also in the past, but it has been unorganized and many times either spontaneous or individual. In legal terms, it started with the Normative Provisions of 2002 (based on the law "For the Pre-university Education System", 1995), which determines the rights and the functions not only of the class and school Parents Councils, but also a new structure like the School Board with some rights mainly of advisory character. This involvement, too, based on the above law, has really functioned rarely or at all. For this, there are several reasons such as: inappropriate conception of the teachers and the school administrators to institutionalize the cooperation with the parents, the legal framework still does not favor sufficiently the parental institutional involvement, but on the other hand, even in those cases when it encourages with special provisions, those either are formally applied or set aside continuing to deal with old methods of school management and ending in insufficient level of parents awareness and training.

The new law on pre-university education system (2012) has created some space for the participation of the groups of interest, and in particular the parental involvement in school management. *The law on the Pre-university Education System, No. 69/2012 date 18/07/2012*.

The parental institutionalized involvement in "School-Based Management", despite the progressive steps made up to now, faces significant challenges to be functional.

2. The methodology

This is an empirical study. The study is conducted in a period when it has not yet started full implementation of the new Law on Pre-university Education System and is focused on the degree of the reflection in the school policies of the philosophy and practice of realization of the parental involvement, in the legal and organizational possibilities and the capacities the parents have to be involved in school management, and especially in decision making.

The sampling was carried out at random representatives of parents and teachers in urban and rural schools of pre-university education. The quantitative component for this study is realized by means of the survey where 170 parents and 115 teachers of the urban schools in Tirana as well as 70 parents and 30 teachers of the rural schools in the suburbs of Tirana participated. The data were processed through SPSS program.

3. Summary of the main findings

The findings of this survey, based on the answers given by the respondents, are displayed in the following analysis made for each finding.

The questionnaire is completed by parents and school teachers who work with children of pre-university education.

4. Data about the respondents

4.1 Participants surveyed by gender

In Tirana, out of 170 parents interviewed: female responders were 63.1%, while male responders were 36.9%, while in Bathore out of 70 parents, 60% were male and 40% female.

For the surveyed teachers, who belong to the city schools in the basic education, we have this distribution according to the school cycle: grades 1-5, they are 40.7% and grades 6 – 9, they are 57.4%, while in village schools: grades 1-5, they are 10%, grades 6-9, they are 83% and grades 10 – 12, they are 7%. At the same time, the age of the teachers interviewed in the city varies with frequency (5.6%) under 30 years old, and further (25.9%) 31-40, (35.2%) 41-50 and over 50 years old they are (33.3%), out of these 14.8% were male and 85.2% female. The teachers interviewed in the village are 50% female and 50% male, where 43% of them are over 50, 30% are 41-50, 23% are 31- 40 and only 3%

under 30 years old.

4.2 Parents surveyed according to age group

It is observed that the respondents to be distributed according to different age groups, with higher participation of the city parents of 31-40 years old with 59.5%, 41 - 50 with 28.6%, under 30 with 9.5% and the last group which has the lowest number of children in school over 50, which is 2.4%. In the rural area, the largest age group of the participants is 41-50 years old with 50%, followed by 34% age 31-40, 10% under 30 and only 6% of those over 50.

4.3 Education formation of the parents surveyed

In order to identify the educational level of the parents, it was interesting to see in the survey also their educational formation which is as follows: In the city 50% of the responders were parents of high education, 39.3% of secondary education and only 9.5% of basic education. In the village, 50% of the respondents are of secondary education, 27% of 8-years education and 23% of high education.

5. Cooperation school - family

The cooperation between the community of parents and other social partners with is sanctioned in *Article 62 of Law No. 69, dated 21.06.2012 "For the Pre-University Education System in the Republic of Albania"*, which states: "The parents are the key partners of the educational institution in the progress of the child and the institution." In this article of the Law, besides the parents' duties, their rights are determined too. (Law on the Preuniversity education System, No. 69/2012 date 18/07/2011)

In this sense, the parent has the right to require the educational institutions to be informed of the educational legislation in force, the institution regulations and the curriculum the institution offers his child; to be informed of the conditions of safety, health and the institution's surroundings and to ask for their accomplishment in compliance with the standards specified by the Albanian legislation, to be informed of his child's activity in the institution and to give his consent for the complementary and extracurricular activities organized by the school; to be notified about the main directions of the institution activity and its achievements in comparison with similar institutions.

For this, the questionnaire was compiled in such a way to ask the parents in relation with teacher - parents meetings, principal - teacher- parents ones as well as their frequency and the topics of their information.

5.1 Frequency of teacher - parents and principal - teacher- parents meetings

In connection with the question of how often teacher - parents meetings are organized, it resulted by the survey that in the city schools teacher - parents meetings are at a higher percentage, (78%) once a month. Parents who have never gone are 3%, only once per semester 16%, and those once a year is in lower value of 3%.

In rural areas the situation is different and the results are not encouraging, because only 58% of parents say that meetings are organized once a month while 30% of them say/confess that these meetings are made only once a semester, 7% once a year and 4% answer 'I do not know'.

When they are asked about the frequency of teacher - parents meetings, about 91% of the teachers surveyed in the city state/confess that the meetings are organized once a month, 7% say that the meetings take place once a semester, the remaining 2% did not answer. The teachers working in rural area, 80% of them confirm that the meetings are held once a month, 13% say that they are organized once a semester and the others do not answer.

However, the frequency of principal – teacher – parents meetings presents another view. 32.1% of the parents surveyed in the city are of the opinion that such meetings are organized once a semester, 13.1% state that they are never organized and 17.9% reply that they do not know anything about this problem and 16.7% say that they are organized once a month. Even in the rural area, the highest percentage of 34% confirm that such meetings are organized once per semester, 26% say once a year, 19% say that they are never held, 13% do not know anything about these meetings and 9% confess that they are realized once a month.

The opposite happens with the teachers surveyed in relation with the frequency of principal - teacher – parents meetings. Thus, 64.8% of the teachers asked in the city declare that they are organized once a month, while the parents only 16.7%. When the teachers in the village are asked about the frequency of these meetings, 40% of the teachers say

that they are realized once a month (compared to 9% of the parents), 50% once a semester, 3% once a year and 7% do not know. Here, there is an obvious incompatibility between the parents' confessions and the teachers' ones there is somewhat a special distribution with incoherence between the values.

5.2 Frequency of parents' information about their child's performance.

Out of the data from the survey it results that 83.7% of parents surveyed in the city say that they are informed almost regularly once a month. A low percentage, 8%, is of the opinion that parents information is carried out once a semester and 5% once a year. This shows that parents and teachers are interested in sharing information in connection with the child's performance. The data clearly show that the majority of the parents are concerned mainly about their children's results. In practice, for the majority of the parents, their contact with school is limited to their children's teachers. From the parents surveyed in the rural areas, 54% of them say that they are informed about their child's performance once a month, but 40% of them say that they are informed only once a semester, the rest 3% once a year and 4% are not informed at all. This indicates that the level of the cooperation between parents and teachers, even only about their child's performance is too low in the countryside in comparison with the city.

63.0% of the teachers surveyed in the city say that they send the parents in written form the evaluation of their children's progress once a month, while 25.9% of them state once a semester. A low number of the teachers surveyed say that it happens once a year or never.

The results of the survey in the rural area show that 40% of teachers inform the parents once a month, 43% once a semester, 13% once a year and 3% never.

The fact that the parents in the urban and rural areas, state a higher percentage of information than the teachers confess about their information, is explained by the reasoning that the parents do not separate/distinguish the information they receive only from the teachers, but this amount of information they join it with what they receive when they go to school themselves.

5.3 Parents information about the difficulties and problems the school their child attends, faces

It is noticed that only 42.9% of the respondents in the city and 23% of parents in the village state that they are informed of the difficulties and problems of the school their child attends, once a month, while the rest are of the opinion that they are informed either once a semester or once a year. This shows the low level of parents' interest towards school problems as well as lack of confidence by the teachers and the school principals towards the parents whether the parents can help in the solution of the problems school encounters.

5.4 What should be the frequency of the parent's meetings with the teachers

It is observed that 96.4% of respondents in the city and 86% in the rural areas, are of the opinion that the frequency of parent's meetings with the teachers should be once a month. This shows that frequent contacts between the parents and the teachers are considered as something useful and in many cases they would make possible prevention of the problems or would facilitate their solution. However, this question does not show about the theme of the meetings between parents and teachers. We express our opinion that the majority of the parents who have responded this question positively, have considered only sharing of information with the teachers around their child's performance, and not necessarily about the problems the school faces. This conclusion is based on the current practice, which shows that not all the parents are interested in active participation in the school life.

5.5 Frequency of the surveys organized by the school to get the opinions/approaches of the parents towards school problems

In connection with the surveys conducted by the school in the form of polls, questionnaires, focus groups, round tables etc., through which the school would understand parents' opinions/approaches in connection with the school problems, the results of the teachers surveyed are roughly distributed to five options offered: i) once a month; ii) once a semester; iii) once a year; iv) never and v) "I do not know". This shows that the teachers do not have a unified approach on this issue. It is positive the fact that the majority of responders in the village are of the opinion that such polls should be held once a semester.

5.6 Parents information about what happens at school

The results of the respondents demonstrate that parents information of what happens in school are contradictory. This is expressed in two meanings: 63.1% of the parents surveyed in the city admit that they are informed once a week about what happens at school, while this figure for the parents in the village reaches 77%. Secondly, these data do not match with the data given by the teachers. Only 42.6% of the teachers in the city accept this fact while in the village, that is confirmed by only 40% of them.

5.7 Frequency of organizing of class parents council meetings.

In connection with the question how often class parents council meetings are organized, it results that 41.7% of the responders in Tirana express that they take place once a month, 27.4% of the respondents say once a semester, and only 6.0% say once a year. But in Bathore, 36% of the responders declare that the meetings take place once a month, 24% once a semester and 13% say that such meetings are never held. Meanwhile, 17.9% of the respondents in Tirana and 14% in Bathore do not know anything about this issue, which shows an indifference of their role in school life.

5.8 Priority topics that can be discussed with the teachers during parents - teacher meetings.

Regarding the content of the discussions during the parents meetings, both in the city and in the village, as the most discussed issues we can list: progress in the lessons, children's behavior, children's motivation to improve their results, conditions of school surroundings, school activities, parents role in solving teacher – student conflicts, teacher - student communication and very little the scientific and pedagogical level of the teachers.

The question "Should the child be present all the times during the conversation in the parents - teacher meetings", 52% of responders answer positively, while 41% disagree that the child should be present in parents - teacher meetings.

5.9 Participation of the parents - members of the School Parents Council.

Regarding the request how often the parents - members of the Parents Council have participated in various school activities, round-tables with teachers and other principals on various class themes, providing assistance in teaching, financial support to the activities organized at school/class, offering ideas on creating a motivating atmosphere in class, only 15.9% of respondents in the city declare once a month. Meanwhile, 23.8% of them do not know anything about the issues mentioned above and more than 10.48% have never participated. In the rural areas, 12.4% declare their participation in these activities once a month, 32.3% have never participated, while 15.6% do not know anything about the forms and methods of cooperation with school.

In the meantime related to this question, 59.3% of teachers surveyed in the city and 70% of teachers surveyed in the village answer that the parents take part in the organizing of class/school ceremonies once a semester, for the participation in the organizing of social activities at school/class level, respectively 38.9% in the city and 50% in the village answer once a semester, while 33.3% in the city and 40% in the village once a year; for providing assistance in teaching 9.3% in the city answer once a month, 16.7% once per semester, 18.5% once a year and 44.4% never. What attracts our attention is the difference in opinions between the parents and teacher respondents.

5.10 What should be the participation frequency of the parents – members of Parents Council

The survey results indicate that only 14.3% of responders in the city and 11% in the rural areas declare that they are interested to participate once a month in round-tables with the teachers and other principals on various class or school themes, 17.9% in the city and 16% in the village in various school activities, 22.6% in the city and 16.2% in the village for providing assistance in teaching. These findings do not indicate the willingness of the parents to exploit and increase their contacts with the teachers and school with all its problems.

5.11 The importance of parents' opinions – members of Class/School Parents Council to improve the overall quality of education in school.

The parental involvement in the selection and appointment of the teaching staff and school principals, nowadays it has

become a legal obligation, what is worthwhile to mention that the parents' opinions should be taken into account.

The results of the survey with parents of the schools in Tirana show that 71.4% of the respondents suggest as very important the evaluation of teachers performance, 54.8% work for the selection of textbooks that the students use, 56.0% the development or updating of school policies and regulations, 50% the decisions made at class level, etc.. Meanwhile, about 47.6% consider somewhat important planning of social activities.

The question addressed to the teachers whether information on educational programs is sent to the parents, 24.1% of them respond once a month, 13.0% once a semester, 20.4% once a year, 13.0% never and 22.2% do not know anything about with this issue.

It is resulted significant differences expressed by the teachers in Bathore, who, 7% do not know that the parents should be informed about the educational programs and 27% never send information to the parents: thus, over 16% of the teachers do not send information to the parents about school policies and regulations, while about 23% of them declare that they send such an information to parents once a year.

5.12 *Thoughts on some competencies of the Class/School Parents Council.*

The competencies that the parents the class/school parents council are: the proceeding of the educational – educative process, approval of the activities outside school, approval of the parents contributions, providing the consent for disciplinary measurements in school, assistance for school maintenance and assistance for school surroundings maintenance, cooperation with the local authorities and the communities, etc..

It is noticeable that the parents have more or less a clear view that the class/school parents' council has a determined role in school. The question has been open and the competencies of class/school parents council are formulated and defined by the parents in comply with the conception they have for them.

5.13 *Some of the alternatives on how to improve the functioning of class/school parents councils.*

Some of the alternatives for the improvement of the functioning of the parents councils from the parents surveyed are: decisions making at class level, planning of social activities, financial support for the planned activities and election of the parents' council by voting, etc. In this sense, besides others, it is recommended that their election should not be formal, but to be established in order to assist in the school problems (solving), as well as to clearly determine the tasks that must be followed during the school year.

6. Recommendations

- Compilation of a national strategy for parental involvement in school problems and in particular in its management. To prepare national training modules for the parents to raise their capacity, but also for the cooperation with partners in school management.
- To compile/develop the "Normative Provisions" of the New Law on the Pre-university Education System by pulling/collecting the opinions of all the groups of interest, as well as to delegate the competencies sanctioned in law, aiming at the accomplishment/completion of the 'decentralization of the education system' reform.
- With the preparation of the legal framework and the necessary human capacities, the process of decentralization in compliance with the "School-Based Management" concept, to start in some pilot schools, where the parents take on their responsibilities.
- To motivate the parents and their structures to increase their participation in decision - making, by attracting/collecting more and more their thought and providing them more competencies to evaluate the programs and the texts the children use.
- Sensitization and awareness about the important role the parents have not only for their interest to their child, but also about the responsibility they have for the progress of the entire education system in Albania.
- Awareness of the parents not only for the rights the actual Law on the Preuniversity Education System, but also the responsibilities that the law assigns them.
- Strengthening the elected parents structures, not only as a legal obligation, but as a condition and need for qualitative improvement of schools performance in Albania.

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Bajau's Tekodon: A Preliminary Study

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Abstract

Riddle is a form of oral literature that is very popular in Malaysia. Amongst the different ethnic groups in Sabah, ownership of riddles are identified by their ethnic origins. The 'sundait' is the riddle of the Kadazandusun, the 'antuka' of the Iranun, and the 'tekodon' of the Bajau. Riddle is a poem in question format, which is meant for guessing. It also creates a sense of togetherness in the rural community. Tekodon has developed among the Bajau community living in the rural areas in Kota Belud on the West Coast of Sabah. The Bajau's 'tekodon' has forms and themes similar to Malay riddles in Peninsular Malaysia.

1. Introduction

Riddles are prosaic questions conveyed through specific language which invite others to guess the identify of the object being asked. Riddles live on and develop in a community's language. Disctricts might have distinct variations in the spoken language and riddles reflect these. As with other oral literature, riddles reflect thought patterns, cultural heritage and values of the societies which own them. According to Brundvand (in Danandjaja, 192:21) riddles are part of oral folklore, particularly the question types.

A total of 158 riddles were collected from eight villages in the district of Kota Belud and Tuaran. These respondents are from the West Coast Bajau ethnic group. The riddles which had been collected were translated into Malay. The question and answer which constitute the riddle were classified according to their structure and theme.

2. Bajau ethnic group

Bajau is one of the minority ethnic group in Sabah. Until today, the Bajaus' origins are still unclear. There are studies which indicate that the Bajaus originated from the South Sulawesi. Others claim the Bahays are splinter groups from the Philippines who migrated to Northern Sabah. There are also claims that they are descended from a princess from Johore who was Philippines bound but her men were attacked in Bruneian waters. The princess ended up marrying the ruler of Brunei and her men stayed on the coast of Northern Borneo (Gusni, 2010).

Present day Bajaus in Sabah are divided into two groups, the West Coast Bajau and the East Coast Bajau. The former is also known as the *Sama*, and the inhabit the west coast of Sabah from Kudat to Kota Kinabalu. They are concentrated in the districts of Kota Belud, Tuaran, Kota Kinabalu and Papar. Some East Coast Bajau prefers to be known as *Bajau Kubang* and they are found on the east coast of Sabah, mostly in the mainland districts of Semporna and Lahad Datu. Other East Coast Bajaus who inhabit the waters and islands around Semporna and Lahad Datu are known as *pala'u*. Despite being separated demographically, and the two versions of Bajaus are quite different, the two groups share the language family (Sather, 1997).

Writings and studies on the origins of the Bajau can be traced back to the the 20th century; including works by Warren, Sopher, Saleeby, Alliston, Nimmo and Sather. In the late 20th century, prolific researchers producing articles and books on the West Coast Bajau community are Yap Beng Liang (1990), Gusni, Miller (2007), Saidatul Normis (1999; 2012) and Halena Sandera (2012). Nevertheless research and writings about the folklore of the West Coast Bajau are less encountered; no studies on the Bajau's tekodon has been found.

3. Bajau riddles

The Bajaus, like other ethnic groups, have their rich culture and oral literature. The Bajaus have the *kalang sama'* or Bajau pantun, which are often sung during festivities like weddings and *barunsai*. Other than *isun-isun*, the Bajau riddles known as *tekodon* has been rarely studied. This could possibly be due to riddles now being rarely used as a tool to test the cognitive abilities of members of the community. Very few people could remember Bajau riddles. In the past, riddles had been used to past time, particularly amongst Bajaus who lived in the interiors and had minimal facilities for entertainment. Riddles therefore provided pleasure to the speaker and the people around him. It had the ability to create rapport and familiarity. They also used riddles to create humorous atmosphere and to test each others' cognitive prowess.

4. The structure of riddles

Based on riddles' content, riddles have structure (Sukatman, 2009), Sukatman classified riddles into (1) metaphoric riddles, (2) pornographic riddles, (3) acronomic riddles, and 4 *kecohan* riddles. Sukatman also divided riddles according to their theme: (1) humour based on plants, (2) humour based on unique animals, (3) pornographic humour, (4) humour based on teasers or its lack of logic, and (5) humour based on unique objects. According to Inon Shahrudin (1976), riddles' structure is achieved by way of hints (*pembayang*) and answers. Inon Shahrudin studied Malay riddles, which he divided by hints and number of words. Lokman Abdul Samad (2004) studied the riddles of the Kadazandusun, known as *Sundait*. He classified the *sundait* by their theme and form, e.g., themes based on flora, fauna or home appliances, and themes of a sexual nature.

5. The structure of the Bajau tekodon

Based on structuring work done by Sukatman, Inon Shahrudin and Lokman Abdul Samad, the structure of the *tekodon* can be divided into its hint and answer. Then its answer can be classified by theme, as done on the Kadazandusun's *sundait* by Lokman Abdul Samad. The identified structure of the Bajau *tekodon* is given below.

5.1 Metaphoric riddles

Based on its semantic structures, metaphoric riddles can be further divided into three types, namely plant – animal metaphor, object – human metaphor, and plant – human metaphor. These riddles use metaphoric questions or comparison of one essence to another to create unique and symbolic situations. The symbols describe or represent the object being hinted for listeners to guess. Examples of plant – animal metaphors are given below:

5.1.1 Plant – animal metaphor (personification)

The hints in these riddles use animals as metaphors with human personification.

(i)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Tanduk kerabau diom tana'.*

Answer: *Besinah kayu.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Tanduk kerbau dalam tanah.*

Answer: *Ubi kayu.*

(in English):

Riddle: Buffalo horns in the ground.

Answer: Cassava.

(ii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Sisik ni sisik naga, jambul ni jambul kuda.*

Answer: *Peranggi.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Sisiknya sisik naga, jambulnya jambul kuda.*

Answer: *Nanas.*

(in English):

Riddle: Its scales are of a dragon, its tuft are of a horse.

Answer: Pineapple.

These riddles are arranged using direct comparative association (metaphor), i.e., comparing the buffalo's horns to cassava, and scales and tuft to pineapple. The pairs of metaphors associate physical characteristics of animals to plants with almost similar physical appearance.

5.1.2 Plant – human metaphor (personification)

The hints in these riddles use plants as metaphors with human personification.

(i)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Amun dikik makai badu, amun oyo nantang.*

Answer: Ponn bok.

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Bila kecil pakai baju, bila besar telanjang.*

Answer: *Pokok buluh.*

(in English):

Riddle: Wears clothes when young, naked when adult.

Answer: Bamboo.

5.1.3 Object – animal metaphor (personification)

The hints in these riddles use objects as metaphors with animal personification.

(i)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Amun tiyo jadi motor, amun sikot jadi doktor.*

Answer: *Namuk.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Bila jauh jadi motor, bila dekat jadi doktor.*

Answer: *Nyamuk.*

(in English):

Riddle: When far it's a motor, when near it's a doctor.

Answer: Mosquito.

(ii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Papan ta' dia', ungut enjata'*

Answer: *Kuro-kuro.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Papan di bawah, tempurung di atas.*

Answer: *Kura-kura.*

(in English):

Riddle: Board underneath, shell above.

Answer: Tortoise.

5.1.4 Human – object metaphor

The hints in these riddles use human beings as metaphors to give life to objects.

(i)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Penesoan betong nei, baru senengak kelong nei?*

- Answer: *Karung.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Dikenyangkan perutnya, barulah diikat lehernya?*
Answer: *Guni.*
(in English):
Riddle: *Fill up its stomach, then tie its neck?*
Answer: *Sack.*
(ii)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Lo ensedi, songom engtengak.*
Answer: *Pelita.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Siang ke tepi, malam ke tengah.*
Answer: *Pelita.*
(in English):
Riddle: *To the side during the day, to the centre during the night.*
Answer: *Lamp.*
(iii)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Songom so, lau lengantuh.*
Answer: *Kelambu.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Malam kenyang, siang lapar.*
Answer: *Kelambu.*
(in English):
Riddle: *Full at night, hungry during the day.*
Answer: *Mosquito netting.*

Riddles which use human feelings as metaphors show objects being given human characteristics. For example, the sack which has its neck tied and its stomach filled up, and the mosquito netting which is portrayed as full at night and hungry during the day for not having eaten. All the riddles in this category show how plants, animals and objects were given human traits.

5.2 Riddles with lines of hints and words.

This type of riddles have their structure determined by the number of words in one line. The answers given could be in one or two words. In the case of Bajau tekodon, there can be found hints arranged into four lines akin to the Malay riddle pantun.

5.2.1 One line hint and one word answer.

This form is the most numerous of all forms of collected tekodon. Each line is simple and has two descriptive elements comprising of eight to twelve syllables.

- (i)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Kuro-kuro menaik dinding.*
Answer: *Kuali.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Kura-kura panjat dinding.*
Answer: *Kuali.*
(in English):
Riddle: *Tortoise climbing wall.*
Answer: *Wok.*

- (ii)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Batu ae ben lubang.*
Answer: *Lesungan*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Batu ada lubang.*
Answer: *Lesung batu.*
(in English):
Riddle: Stone with a hole.
Answer: Stone mortar.

5.2.2 Two line hint and one word answer.

There are several tekodons with two lines of hint. Such tekodons strive to give more descriptive elements and more clarity for the listeners to guess the answer.

- (i)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Tenekon ponsot ni,
poyo moto ni.*
Answer: *Selait.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Ditekan pusatnya,
besar matanya.*
Answer: *Lampu picit.*
(in English):
Riddle: Press it centre,
its eyes widen.
Answer: Torch light.
- (ii)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Amun yo penakai teniman,
amun nia penakai tenagu.*
Answer: *Jala.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Kalau diguna kita buang,
Kalau tidak diguna kita simpan.*
Answer: *Jala.*
(in English):
Riddle: We cast it when we use,
We keep it if we do not use.
Answer: Net (fishing).

5.2.3 Three line hint and one answer.

Despite these riddles have three lines, the words are short and the answers point to one object.

- (i)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Ponni pon kayu,
gamut ni buai,
buak ni buak sukak.*
Answer: *Senduk.*

- (in Malay):
Riddle: *Batangnya batang kayu,
akarnya rotan,
mulutnya kelapa.*
- Answer: *Senduk.*
- (in English):
Riddle: The stem is wood,
the root is rattan,
the mouth is coconut.
- Answer: Ladle (the type commonly used by the Bajaus).

5.2.4 Four lines and pantun-like.

Like the Bajau *kalang* which is similar to the Malay pantun, Bajau riddles which are pantun-like either have two lines or four lines. Some examples are given below.

- (i)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Abang lumaan ta songom tarang,
Besomo-somo dayang puteri,
Anak ini ramai eyang ni dendangan,
Bila genisil pengen api.*
- Answer: *Pendidit kayu.*
- (in Malay):
Riddle: *Abang berjalan di malam terang,
Bersama-sama dayang puteri,
Anaknya ramai ibu seorang,
Bila bergesel, berapi-api.*
- Answer: *Mancis kayu.*
- (in English):
Riddle: Man walks in the bright night,
Together with the princess' maid,
One mother with many children,
When there is friction, they are fiery.
- Answer: Wooden match sticks.

5.3 Teasers and illogical riddles.

These riddles are statements or questions which are mere teasers to disrupt logic. Answers to this type of riddles could be just about anything as long as they are connected to the riddles. These type of riddles can be further divided into several forms, i.e., (a) play on logic, (b) play on sounds of language, (c) illogical riddles, (d) play on language, and (e) rationalisation of answers. However in Bajau riddles, there are only play on logic and rationalisation of answers types.

5.3.1 Rationalisation of answer riddles

These riddles show that the answers to the riddles do not make sense, and are not definitive, but rationally they are acceptable. The sought after answers are answers which do not make sense at all but have their own rational. What is sought is a silly answer to humour the people. Examples of such riddles are given below.

- (i)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Iko-iko ding, ding yan yang sedin?*
- Answer: *Ding haruan.*
- (in Malay):
Riddle: *Banyak-banyak ikan, ikan apa yang sedih?*

Answer: *Ikan haruan.*

(in English):

Riddle: Of all fish, which fish is sad?

Answer: *Haruan fish (Channa striata).*

(The root word *haru* in Malay means overwhelmed, moved).

(ii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Iko-iko bungo, bungo yan paling langa?*

Answer: *Bungo moto lau.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Banyak-banyak bunga, bunga apa yang paling tinggi?*

Answer: *Bunga matahari.*

(in English):

Riddle: Of all flowers, which flower is the highest?

Answer: Sunflower.

These riddles show as long as the question and answers have a connection, they are considered rational; the important element being they appear humorous to listeners.

5.3.2 Play on logic riddles.

These are riddles which are answered according to logic acceptable to the person offering the answers. Sometimes the answers have no connection to the question but they make sense. Often answers for these riddles are also humorous. Several examples are given below.

(i)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Un duangan seq, dendangan pesuut lekat Kudat, dangan lagi pesuut lekat Sipitang. Minggu gai setemu.*

Answer: *Bukit Padang.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Ada dua orang sahabat, seorang berundur dari Kudat, seorang lagi berundur dari Sipitang. Di manakah mereka akan bertemu?*

Answer: *Bukit Padang.*

(in English):

Riddle: There are two friends, one walked backwards from Kudat, the other walked backwards from Sipitang. Where will they meet up?

Answer: Bukit Padang.

(Note: In Sabah, Bukit Padang is synonymous with the mental hospital located in that area.)

(ii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Yan sebab suka' labu'?*

Answer: *Sebab eyo ta'jata'.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Apa sebab kelapa jatuh?*

Answer: *Sebab ia di atas.*

(in English):

Riddle: Why does the coconut fall?

Answer: Because it is above.

(iii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Amun dikau tandan soka labu diom soang, dangai yang pelantung ?*

Answer: *Debagi.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Kalau satu tandan kelapa jatuh dalam sungai, berapa yang timbul?*

Answer: *Separuh.*
(in English):
Riddle: If a bunch of coconut falls into the river, how many will surface?
Answer: Half.

All Bajau riddles demonstrate a simple and free structure. Metaphors can be found in Bajau riddles, like Sukatman reported metaphors in Javanese riddles. Language used is simple and generally cannot be described as 'refined' because these riddles were coined by simple village communities. Despite the presence of hints in the Bajau pantun riddles, they are not as refined as the hints encountered in the Malay pantun riddles.

6. Theme of Bajau tekodon.

The collection of Bajau tekodon could be classified into several types, i.e., (1) objects and household items, (2) flora and fauna including edible plants, and animals on land, in the sea and river, (3) human beings including anatomy, physiological functions and human actions, and (4) events in their environment.

The dominant theme in Bajau riddles include objects and household items, flora and fauna, natural events, as well as human anatomy and actions.

6.1 Objects and household items.

Objects chosen in the Bajau riddles are items used by the Bajaus in their everyday living. For example, kitchen equipment such as pots, mortar stone, knives, ladle, coconut grater, lamp, wooden match sticks, etc. Equipment include farm tools, and fishing equipment including fish hooks, net, *parang* (machete), saw, etc. There are also riddles which refer to the structure of a house, e.g., stairs and roofs. It is unique that Bajau riddles include modern vehicles like the school bus, cars and trains in their theme. This observation could be attributable to the ongoing socio-economic development, as well mixing with and borrowing from Malay riddles which can be found in Sabahan society.

6.1.1 Examples of riddles on other objects.

(i)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Songom so, lau lengantuh.*
Answer: *Kelambu.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Malam kenyang, siang lapar.*
Answer: *Kelambu.*
(in English):
Riddle: Full at night, hungry during the day.
Answer: Mosquito netting.

(ii)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Amun songom jadi paie, amun lou jadi yu'.*
Answer: *Tipoh.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Kalau malam jadi pari, kalau siang jadi yu.*
Answer: *Tikar.*
(in English):
Riddle: A stingray at night, a shark during the day.
Answer: Mat.

(iii)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Un dekahuk barang, barang ni langkau,
Engko ni langkau pandai lumahan, jadi kawan anak dendo.*
Answer: *Jarum engkok benang.*
(in Malay):

- Riddle: *Ada satu benda, bendanya panjang,
Ekornya panjang pandai berjalan, menjadi teman si anak dara.*
- Answer: *Jarum dengan benang.*
- (in English):
- Riddle: There is one thing, it is long,
Its tail is long and likes to wander, a good friend of the maiden.
- Answer: Needle with thread.
- (iv)
- (in Bajau):
- Riddle: *Teniup bulikni, poyo motoni.*
- Answer: *Pudan.*
- (in Malay):
- Riddle: *Ditiup pantatnya, besar matanya.*
- Answer: *Rokok.*
- (Note: In Malay spoken in Sabah, *pantat* refers to the buttocks.)
- (in English):
- Riddle: Blow its ass, its eyes widen.
- Answer: Cigarette.
- (v)
- (in Bajau):
- Riddle: *Pasok mengiring, peluak pan mengiring.*
- Answer: *Butang badu.*
- (in Malay):
- Riddle: *Masuk mengiring, keluar pun mengiring.*
- Answer: *Butang baju.*
- (in English):
- Riddle: Enter sideways, exit sideways too.
- Answer: Shirt button.

6.1.2 Examples of riddles on household and kitchen appliances.

- (i)
- (in Bajau):
- Riddle: *Niyak mangan amun niyak puas putek.*
- Answer: *Kukur.*
- (in Malay):
- Riddle: *Tak makan kalau bukan beras putih.*
- Answer: *Kukuran.*
- (in English):
- Riddle: Won't eat anything but white rice.
- Answer: Grater.
- (ii)
- (in Bajau):
- Riddle: *Tis buek selang, matai si dayang-dayang.*
- Answer: *Suuk pom.*
- (in Malay):
- Riddle: *Surut air laut, mati si dayang-dayang.*
- Answer: *Lampu pam minyak tanah.*
- (in English):
- Riddle: When the sea recedes, the maidens die.
- Answer: Pressurised kerosene lamp (British: paraffin lamp).

6.1.3 Examples of riddles on work tools.

These riddles refer to objects used for everyday work like farming, fishing, etc.

- (i)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Amun penakan suk,
amun penebenen jadi lemok.*
Answer: *Guk / badi'.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Kalau diberi makan jadi kurus,
kalau dibiarkan jadi gemuk.*
Answer: *Parang.*
(in English):
Riddle: If fed it is thin,
if ignored it is fat.
Answer: Machete.
- (ii)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Titi kayu jati,
Boleh meli boleh bedagang.*
Answer: *Timbangan*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Titi kayu jati,
Boleh dijual boleh membeli.*
Answer: *Timbangan*
(in English):
Riddle: Bridge made of teak
Can be sold, and can be bought
Answer: weighing scale

6.1.4 Examples of riddles on house structure.

- (i)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Jomo too pelebos, jomo mura' menaik.*
Answer: Ban
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Orang tua turun, orang muda naik.*
Answer: *Atap*
- (in English):
Riddle: the elders come down, the younger one go up
Answer: Roof
- (ii)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *anakni ternidak-tindak, yangni niurut-urut.*
Answer: *Odon*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Anaknya dipijak-pijak, ibunya diurut-urut.*
Answer: *Tangga*
- (in English):
Riddle: step upon the child, massage the mother

Answer: Steps (stairs)

6.1.5 Examples of riddles on vehicles.

(i)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Anak nangis, eyang ngarait, emak mudan.*

Answer: *Keretapi.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Anak menangis, emak menjahit, bapa hisap rokok.*

Answer: *Keretapi.*

(in English):

Riddle: Child crying, mother sewing, father smoking.

Answer: Train.

(ii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Amun tertutup eyo buli lumahan,
amun binuka eyo nia buli lumahan.*

Answer: *Keretapi.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Bila tutup dia boleh jalan (lintas),
bila buka dia tak boleh jalan (lintas).*

Answer: *Keretapi.*

(in English):

Riddle: When it is closed, he can cross,
when it is opened, he cannot cross.

Answer: Train.

(Note: Most train crossings in Sabah are level crossings).

(iii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Eko-eko kerita, kereta eyen nyak pnanggil kereta?*

Answer: *Teksi.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Sebanyak-banyak kereta, kereta apa yang tidak dipanggil kereta?*

Answer: *Teksi.*

(in English):

Riddle: Of all cars, which car is not called a car?

Answer: Taxi.

(iv)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Entan ku tangan no, main ku betis noh.*

Answer: *Baskal*

(in Malay)

Riddle: *Kupegangn tanganmu, kumain kakimu*

Answer: *Basikal*

(in English)

Riddle: I hold your hands I play with your feet

Answer: bicycle

6.1.6 Flora and fauna theme

(i)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Titik agung diom tana'*

Answer: *Kadi.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Hujung gong dalam tanah.*

Answer: *Keladi.*

(in English):

Riddle: The ends of gongs in the ground.

Answer: *Yam.*

(Note: A gong is a musical percussion instrument, which is a round and flat metal disc.)

(ii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Ponni retak ta bunda'*

dunni bejari-jari,

bua' ni oyo betaik tikus.

Answer:

Kepayas.

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Pokoknya retak ke depan.*

daunnya berjari-jari,

buahnya besar bertahi tikus.

Answer:

Betik.

(in English):

Riddle: The tree is cracked down its front,
its leaves have fingers,
its fruits are large with mice droppings.

Answer:

Papaya.

(iii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Dikit doko' sumpit, oyo doko perisai.*

Answer: *Dun saging.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Kecil macam sumpit, besar macam perisai.*

Answer:

Daun pisang.

(in English):

Riddle: When small it looks like a blowpipe, when big it looks like a shield.

Answer:

Banana leaves.

(iv)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Seeko-eko kapal, kapal yan lemiyang diak rumak?*

Answer: *Mamanuk beriyu.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Sebanyak-banyak kapal, kapal apa terbang di bawah rumah?*

Answer:

Burung layang-layang.

(in English):

Riddle: Of all ships, which one flies under the house?

Answer:

Swallow (bird).

(iv)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Bai ku mangan ketupat,*

hai temban sedeh telaga,

- seiko- iko daeing tenat,
daeing heen kah nia pan lak.*
Answer: *Udang.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Sudah makan sebiji ketupat,
tertinggal tepi telaga,
sebanyak-banyak disebut ikan,
ikan apakah yang tiada darah?*
Answer: *Udang.*
(in English):
Riddle: *Have eaten one rice dumpling,
left on the side of the well,
of all fish,
which one is bloodless?*
Answer: *Prawn.*
(v)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Papan ta' dia', ungut enjata'*
Answer: *Kuro-kuro.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Papan di bawah, tempurung di atas.*
Answer: *Kura-kura.*
(in English):
Riddle: *Board underneath, shell above.*
Answer: *Tortoise.*

6.2 Human anatomy and behaviour theme.

Riddles with a human theme includes anatomy, physiological function and human actions. The actions become the subject in building tekodon. Human actions like carrying a corpse, smoking cigarettes, brushing teeth, defecating, and sleeping are made into riddles. The anatomy used in Bajau tekodon include teeth, sole, and umbilical cord.

6.2.1 Examples of tekodon using the human anatomy are given below.

- (i)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Eyan barang amun meya' tak bukud tei?*
Answer: *Tapak betis.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Barang apakah yang selalu di belakang kita?*
Answer: *Tapak kaki.*
(in English):
Riddle: *What is it that is always behind us?*
Answer: *Foot prints.*
(ii)
(in Bajau):
Riddle: *Iko-iko tali, tali yan mesti niopo'?*
Answer: *Tali ponsot.*
(in Malay):
Riddle: *Banyak-banyak tali, tali apa yang mesti dipotong?*
Answer: *Tali pusat.*
(in English):
Riddle: *Of all cords, which cord must be cut?*

Answer: Umbilical cord.

6.2.2 Human actions.

Riddles involving human actions seek for answers which are work done by people in their everyday lives. The answers include the work of carrying a corpse to the burial ground.

(i)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Guyak enjatah, uran media'?*

Answer: *Jomo ngayak tepung.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: *Ombak di atas, hujan di bawah?*

Answer: *Orang mengayak tepung.*

(in English):

Riddle: Waves above, rain below?

Answer: People sieving flour.

(ii)

(in Bajau):

Riddle: *Deriber empat, penumpang endangan.*

Answer: *Ngakat jomo matai.*

(in Malay):

Riddle: Pemandu empat, penumpang satu.

Answer: *Mengangkat orang mati.*

(in English):

Riddle: Four drivers, one passenger.

Answer: People carrying corpse.

On the whole, the theme of riddles are rooted in the surroundings of the community, which includes flora and fauna, objects, as well as human actions and behaviour.

7. Conclusion.

The Bajaus have rich oral traditions, which include the *isun-isun*, *kalang sama*, oral tales and *tekodon* (riddles). Studies on *tekodon* have never been conducted. Despite problems like shortage of materials to be collected and plausible diffusion and borrowings from Malay and Iranian riddles, this is an effort to preserve *tekodon* before they become extinct. From this present study, Bajau riddles show similarities to studies done by Sukatman on Javanese riddles' structural construct. However pornographic riddles have not been found in the Bajau *tekodon* unlike their presence in Javanese, Iranian and Dusun riddles.

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Respondents

Seling Bin Simbul. 74 years. Kampung Lingkodon, Kota Belud, Sabah.

Puan Kunah Binti Dari. 40 years. Kampung Nongkolud.

Jamlan Sorek. 49 years. Kampung Nongkolud.

Dato Golkan Hj Lambok, 67 years. Pekan Kota Belud.

Mahadi and Hj Mashul Hj Draman, Pekan Kota Belud.

Hisab bin Diasa, 49 years. Kampung Penimbawan, Tuaran.

Suding Bin Sawall, 61 years. Kampung Penimbawan, Tuaran.

Hajjah lamah bt. Mandin, 68 years. Kampung Bobot, Kota Belud.

Puan Piluk bt. Maidan, 70 years. Kota Belud.

Puan Didong bt. Massa, 57 yeras. Kampung Bobot, Kota Belud.

Puan Rubayah bt. Hj. Ajim, 55 years. Sekolah Kebangsaan Rangalau, Kota Belud.

Osman Awang, 47 yeras. Sekolah Kebangsaan Tempasuk 1, Kota Belud.

En. Kauli bin Jalawi, 64 years. Kampung Gunding, Kota Belud.

Puan Masnikah bt. Adap, 55 years. Kampung Linau, Kota Belud.

(Note: Sekolah Kebangsaan, or its acronym SK, is Malay for primary school. Kampung, or its acronym Kg., is Malay for village).

The Role of Literature in the Institutionalisation of the National Standard Language

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Abstract

In this paper is treated the relation between the language and the literature and the ways to purify and enrich it. The language of the artistic literature is the largest and most diversified version of our national language. The artistic literature has the possibility to give support to raise the Albanian language as the language of all Albanians, to spread the unified and common language, to cultivate and purify it. On the ways of enrichment and purifying of the Albanian language I have emphasized the foundation on the popular language and on the old authors as inexhaustible sources for the enrichment of the artistic literature language with strong stylistic effects, but even the possibility to substitute the foreign words. The paper is based on a rich literature, studies of the our well known linguists, but even on the youngest researchers that have brought values on the linguistic field. Although in the paper will take place collects from the language of Fatos Arapi composition.

Keyword: national language, artistic literature language, relation between language and literature, purifying and enrichment of the language.

1. Language and literature

For a writer the word is the raw material for a literary work. This fact is also observed in the definition of literature as the "art of the word". There can be no literature without words, without language. This close relationship between literature and language appears in all dimensions, both in the dimension of literature writing and the theoretical one, i.e. the disciplines treating these two phenomena.

From this viewpoint, the writer must show greater attention and responsibility towards the national standard language. This means that:

1. Literature should penetrate into the deepest layers of the people's treasure and process it thoroughly, the same way it does with the poetic ideas, because language for literature merges with the content just as the marble transforms into a statue. (Kostallari 1989)
2. It is time for literature to provide a great contribution to the enrichment and elimination of unnecessary foreign linguistic constructions in Albanian language.

Language in literature is used above all as a means of performing the aesthetic function and it is part of the national standard language. However, language in literature represents the highest degree of development of the language of people, because literature is the art of the word and it exerts a considerable influence on readers. The language of literature stays deep in their heart and mind, enriches and ennobles them spiritually, but above all, it makes their love of mother tongue grow stronger.

The language of literature constitutes the broadest and most diverse style or variety of our national standard language. Moreover, it has the greatest possibility to remain in the domain of the people's language, to be nourished by it and at the same time to be closely related with the tradition of the standard language, because the vitality and power of a language is stronger and long-lasting in literature than in any other field.

Literature has a great potential to give its contribution to the spread of standard and common language as well as to its cultivation and enrichment. Writers, as indefatigable masters of language, as word-makers, inventors, hunters and researchers of words, have provided language with words and expressions of the popular stock which were not previously known. The history of the language in relation to the greatest languages of the time, Latin, Greek, Turkish and Slavic, has made loanwords so numerous in the lexicon that Albanian lost many of its old words.

Moreover, we should take into account the absence of an Albanian state and a public administration which would initiate the establishment of a common official standard language for all Albanians.

The need for a common language has been observed in the earliest writings in Albanian: "Meshari" by Gjon Buzuku (1555), "E mbësue me e krishterë" by Lekë Matrënga (1592). As translations of religious instruction into Albanian

language from Latin liturgy, they accomplish a religious mission, but both authors thought they were laying the foundations of a written language not only for their place of birth but for the Albanian nation as a whole too. This is the national and cultural value of their works (Gjinari 2003) along with the concern about avoiding the deterioration and of our language. This role was to be played by literature and our old and new writers.

2. Ways to purify and enrich Albanian language

One of the ways to enrich and purify language is by reviving the lexicon of old literature. Many words of old authors have been lost and are out of use, but a number of them can be used in certain styles of standard language, literature in particular, to convey a new meaning or shade of meaning. For example:

frutoj "fruit", *i frutueshëm*, *i pafрут Budi*; *i pafрутuar*, *frutues dhe frutesë* (producing fruit) Bardhi; *arrëtoj* "invent, make up" *arrëti*, *arrëtim*, *arrëtues*; *shtatpëlqyer* "midget", *tridhambësh* "hayfork", *mjalcë* "bee", Bardhi; *zemërkëmbyem* "coward", *therëcë* "thorny bush", *bamir Buzuku*; *kryekërcyem* "anger", *i papasur* "poor", *i pafaqe*, *dritëzë* "lantern", *binosh* "twins", *ndërkamb* "override", *akulloj* "freeze", *akullohem* "my heart breaks" Bogdani (Sinani-Bulo 1989)

With the suffix *-tar*: *peshkatar*, *gojëtar* "lawyer" Buzuku; *fjalëtar* "articulate speaker", *pajëtar* "assistant", Kuvendi i Arbrit; *kundërtar* Bardhi; *arrëtues* "inventor", *manesë* "delay", *trajtoj* "build" Kristoforidhi;

With the suffix *-(e)zë*: *hiezë* "umbrella", *bamezë* "deed", *krefezë* "trap" Bardhi

Adjectives of negative meaning, with prepositive article, with the prefix *pa -*:

i paurtë "not correct" Buzuku; *i padëlirë* Budi; *i padashur* "ungrateful" Bogdani

Kristoforidhi endeavored to revive some of the words of the old authors in his writing and some of these words were used in the literature of the Renaissance. Some of the words we use today, such as *dëftues*, *grykës*, *këngëtar*, *detar*, *këshilltar*, *madhështi*, *trajtim*, *shkollor*, *kundërshtar* date back to the old authors. (Arapi 1989)

The linguistic movement for the purification of our language was consolidated by our Renaissance representatives with the aim of establishing a national standard language. The precursor of these efforts, N. Bredhi – Veqilharxhi set four basic requirements: (Lafe 1989)

1. The purification and enrichment of the language must be viewed as a single task and "you should not only use language but also enrich it"
2. Foreign words should be substituted with words of Albanian stock.
3. This initiative is just the first step and it should be taken further by the next generations.

3. Neologisms in the works of Fatos Arapi

This study also elaborates on a part of the vocabulary used in the literary works of F. Arapi, one of the most renowned Albanian writers, whose language has drawn the attention of Albanian linguists but it has been treated too little so far. I have mostly focused on word-formation as the author has a deep understanding of the lexical and semantic resources of Albanian language in general and the region of Labëria in particular. He uses these resources elegantly by being aware of the fact that dialectal words can be potentially absorbed by the standard language and they can perform diverse expressive functions. Moreover, the writer enriches Albanian language with new linguistic units from the Albanian stock of words, and this can be considered the greatest contribution of the author. The examples used here are just a part of the numerous lexical resources and they are used to illustrate the statement made above but other papers will elaborate on this topic. This study includes neologisms used in the literary works of F. Arapi, which are not part of the *F.G.J.S.SH.* (1980).

Let us consider the following groups:

3.1 Words formed by affixation

The formation of new words by using affixes (prefixes and suffixes) is the most productive form in Albanian language. Words formed by prefixation are fewer than those formed by suffixation because the number of prefixes in Albanian is smaller than the number of suffixes (68-170). Nevertheless, the books of F. Arapi show the opposite, more new words formed by prefixation.

3.1.1 Words formed by prefixation

As regards prefixation, special attention is paid to words of denotative and stylistic value with the prefixes: **për-** *i përzhitur përvidhet, përgjunjet, përfaluni, të përhimtë, përvëltonjëse,*

Për- : is used as a prefix to form nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs

With emphatic meaning: *flokë të përhimtë, me ngjyrë të hirtë, a synonym of the word të thinjur.*

përgjemet. A state of sloth. The need and desire to sleep. Being unprepared for unexpected events and risks.

With the sense of action (for verbs formed by nominal stems) *përgjunjet.* Give in; *përçmoj.* Not appreciate somebody or something. With the opposite meaning of the respective word without this prefix; *përvidhet.* Leave secretly; *përfaluni.* Respect, honor; *përzhitur.* Burnt partly; *gjuhët përvëltonjëse.* Poignant. Pejorative figurative meaning.

Pa- prefix. It is used to form nouns and adjectives with the opposite meaning of the word: *sytë e padritë, ëndërr e paëndërruar, të paqena, i padrojtur, pashpresa,*

The prefix **pa-** is added not only to adjectivized participles to form their antonyms, such as *ëndërr e paëndërruar, të paqena,* but also to nominal stems, and we still obtain adjectives: *të paemrit, sytë e padritë*

Porsa- It is used as the first part of words formed by the stem of participial adjectives, with the meaning of "something which has just happened or been done, ex. **porsa:** *i porsazgjuar, të porsagufuara, ...*

Prefixation does not generally result in a change of the lexical-grammatical category of the word. The new word belongs to the same part of speech as the stem of the word it derived from. For example, the stems of the nouns: *dritë, ëndërr, ...* have produced nouns; the stems of the adjectives: *i drojtur, të hirtë, i zgjuar, i gufuar* have produced the adjectives: *i padrojtur, të përhimtë, i porsazgjuar, i porsagufuar* ; the stems of the verbs *vidhet, falet, vëloj, çmoj* have produced the verbs: *përvidhet, përfalet, përçmues, përvëltonj*

However, there are cases when the lexical-grammatical category changes in Albanian. For example, the verbs: *përgjemet, përgjunjet,* have derived from the nominal stems *gjumë, gju.* The adjectives *e padritë, e paëndërruar, të paqena, të përzhitur* have derived from the nominal stems *dritë, ëndërr* and the participles of the verbs *ëndërroj, jam, përzhit.*

3.1.2 Words formed by suffixation

One of the most common suffixes is the diminutive one, **-zë,** such as: *rrëmbezë* "i vë gjoksin rrëmbezës", small water canal; *çupëz* "çupëz moj fluturëz prej bore", *arkëz* "Ja dhe gjyshja në arkëz", *kartëz* "Kukull e vogël në kartëz" *këmbëzat* "këmbëzat e çitjaneve nuk ngjiteshin lart"; *lakëzat* "arrinin gjer te lakëzat e pulpave"; *cazë* "cazë bizantinë, cazë otomanë"

-AR, *thinjar/ ~ i, m.* From *thinjosh,* **-e** adj. One whose hair has gone grey or has grey hairs. Neutral meaning. As a noun with pejorative, contemptuous connotation.

gërnjar adj. Someone who talks too much. *Mos ki frikë prej atij thinjari gërnjar.* From *Gërg/askal., fig.* Bother someone time and time again.

3.2 Words formed by compounding

Compound words convey a highly positive or negative emotional value, bearing characteristics of the elevated style, and are generally based on comparison with familiar things or phenomena. Compound words are formed by joining two stems, either nominal, adjectival, verbal or adverbial. Let us consider the following examples:

Gjysmë is used as the first part of compound words whose meaning is 1. Half of something; *gjysmëhënat, 2. Përgjysmë;* to some extent, not completely, not to the end; *gjysmanalfabete, gjysmëndrre, gjysmëmëshirë, gjysmëbrenge, gjysmëfati, gjysmëputhje, gjysmëfantazmat, gjysmëvdekur, gjysmëgjallë*

Krye-: *kryekrushk/ u ~ m.* From colloquial speech, *the main person, the one staying in the front, leading the wedding participants.*

kryeulur ~ adj. Synonym of *kokulur; kryeatdheu; kryekuvend* fig. More honored; better.

trup: *truplartë* synonym of *shtatëlartë*

buzëngjyer ~ adj. It is used with the same meaning as *Buzëkuq, ~adj.n.* Whose lips are red; negative connotation.

Buzëbrëmjes. In F.GFJ.S.SH. we find the example: *Buzë brëmjes (muzgut).* F. Arapi uses it as a single word: *buzëbrëmjes,* see *Buzë-*preposition. On the verge of something, at the beginning of an event (used with a noun in the ablative case).

F. Arapi uses neologisms which consist of two derivational stems, such as: *burra zemërdielli*, *nëpër bedenat e dhëmbëdhëmballëve të tij të rëna*, *në këngëgjëmimin e përjetshëm të gjakut*, *mbyt lotin jetëvrrarë*, *yjet pullaflakëruese*, *shkëmbguriçkë*, *ballëvrenjtur*, *rini ëndërrpavdekshme*, *shoqedhembshura ime*, *fytyrdrobitur*, *fatthëna*, *durbuavitur*, *zorrëthatë* etc.

- I. A more detailed analysis of these words shows that the relationships between these stems are diverse. There are compound words in which one member determines the other. There are attributive compounds and in some compound words the members are equivalent and determine each other. These are compounds of coordination.

This study shows that the number of attributive compounds is greater than the number of compounds of coordination.

Attributive compounds: The second member determines the first one: *zemërdielli- zemër si dielli*; *jetëvrrarë - jetë e vrrarë*; *ballëvrenjtur - ballë i vrenjtur*; *ëndërrpavdekshme - ëndërr e pavdekshme*; *shoqedhembshura - shoqe e dhembshur*; *fytyrdrobitur - fytyrë e drobitur*; *durbuavitur - dur të buavitura*; *zorrëthatë - zorrë e thatë*; *fatthëna - fat i thënë*.

The first member determines the second one: *këngëgjëmimin - gjëmimin e këngëve*;

Compounds of coordination: There are fewer words of coordination: *dhëmbëdhëmballëve - dhëmbë e dhëmballë*,

- II. Another classification of compound words can be made in terms of the **lexical-grammatical value**:

Nominal: *kryekrushk*, *këngëgjëmimin*, *kryeatdheu*, *kryekuvend*, *shoqedhembshur*,

Adjectival: *zemërdielli*, *ëndërrpavdekshme*, *shoqedhembshura*, *fytyrdrobitur*, *fatthëna*, *durbuavitur*, *zorrëthatë*, *gjysmëvdekur*, *gjysmëmëshirë*, *jetëvrrarë*,

Adverbial: *buzëmbërëmjes*, *gjysmëvdekur*, *ballëvrenjtur*,

- III. Compound words can also be grouped according to the way they are formed in terms of the **lexical-grammatical value of the members**:

Noun+noun: *kryeatdheu*, *kryekuvend*, *gjysmëhënat*, *këngëgjëmimin*, *gjysmëmëshirë*, *gjysmëbrenge*, *gjysmëfati*, *gjysmëputhje*, *gjysmëfantazmat*, *zemërdielli*, *këngëgjëmimin*

Noun+adjective: *gjysmëvdekur*, *gjysmëgjallë*, *kryeulur*, *buzëngjyer*, *jetëvrrarë*, *ballëvrenjtur*, *ëndërrpavdekshme*, *shoqedhembshura*, *fytyrdrobitur*, *fatthëna*, *durbuavitur*, *zorrëthatë*.

These various classifications of compound words are important because the meaning of the unit as a whole is clarified by using different approaches.

4. Conclusions

1. Language is the most important tool for the writer. It is the basic means of form, communication, plot, ideas and opinions of the literary work. Therefore, the enhancement of the artistic value should be accompanied by increased attention to language on the part of the author. (Dilaveri 1989)
2. Literature is a creative and language-cultivating discipline. It serves the linguistic education of generations and should do its best to meet this requirement. We should take into consideration the fact that there is no good literature without good language.
We cannot speak of a national language and at the same time forget that the norm is its central axis. (Kostallari 1989)
3. The national language serves the whole nation and is actively mastered by the overwhelming majority of the population, especially in its written form. The written form is the common element of the unitary language. The acquisition of its system can be achieved through its institutions, its educational institutions, and it can be supported and enhanced by literature because the most renowned writers, with their linguistic abilities and qualitative literary works, exert a direct and simultaneous influence on thousands of readers and users of Albanian language.

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Infinitive of German Language and its Corresponding Forms in Albanian Language

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Abstract

Infinitive forms of verbs in different European languages, old or new, show a significant originality. This is demonstrated even by their comparison, even if it's done in only two Indo-European languages such as German and Albanian. Changes consist in the form of their occurrence, morphological features and syntactic functions. However similarities between them are not missing. They come together in the existence as morpho-syntactic categories, in the combination of verbal features with other parts of the speech, and especially in syntactic functions, because in each language almost the same functions are performed by infinitive forms, according to the principle 'lack of a form is compensated by another infinitive form or by another grammatical tool'. Even in the case of comparing German with Albanian language we come across the existence of an infinitive form in one language and its absence in the other language. This infinitive verbal form is the infinitive, which exists in the German language, while it does not exist in the standard Albanian language. The purpose of this article is to find the corresponding infinitive forms in Albanian language, those forms or grammatical tools which serve to compensate for the absent form in standard Albanian, as well as to express its syntactic functions, finding similarities and differences between them. This approach will be demonstrated by numerous examples extracted by the novel 'Magic Mountain', of German writer Thomas Mann, novel which has been translated even into Albanian language.

Keywords : *infinitive, , syntactical functions, corresponding forms, grammatical tools*

1. Introduction

This study aims at finding the corresponding forms of German infinitive at standard Albanian language. Since the standard Albanian language does not recognize such an unchangeable form, then in its absence it uses several grammatical tools in order to cover functions of the infinitive.

I emphasize the word standard to distinguish the northern Albanian dialect, gegërisht, which possesses analytical infinitive, that is comparable with the German infinitive and the infinitive of other European languages.

At first, the study will focus on the structure of the infinitive and its uses. Then, it will present infinitive syntactical functions and along each function there will be given the grammatical tools, which serve to cover these functions in Albanian language. Theory will be accompanied by numerous examples, extracted from literature, concretely from the novel "Magic Mountain" of Thomas Mann.

2. The infinitive of German Language

Nowadays German language recognizes two unchangeable forms of the verb: the infinitive and the participle form, which appears in two forms Participle I and Participle II.

The infinitive is the basic form of the verb, which is not further defined by person, number, time or mood (Duden, 2001, p.829). The infinitive is seen as a form by which a verb is given or designated or the form that the verb is presented in the vocabulary (Duden, 2005). While in Sommerfeldt / Starke grammar (Sommerfeldt / Starke, 1998) the infinitive is otherwise called a form that designates. (Subform).

The infinitive combines mainly features of verb and noun.

2.1 Structure of the infinitive

The infinitive is formed by adding the suffix –en to the root of the verb:

Seh-en, schlag-en, komm-en, geh-en, arbeit-en etc.

When the root of the verb ends in –el and –er, the suffix added to the root is –n: *wechsel-n, lächel-n, zitter-n* etc.

Suffix –n is also added to the verbs *sein* (to be) and *tun* (to do)

2.2 Infinitive uses and infinitive forms

The infinitive of German language is often accompanied by the particle **zu**, which in many infinitive functions it is mandatory. In some other specific uses it is facultative and in some other cases it must not be used (Buscha / Zoch , 1992, p.12).

The infinitive is used in various functions connected to another verb, which holds the grammatical categories of number, person, mood etc. This means it is conjugated. The infinitive itself as previously said, does not have any of these categories and as a result does not change its form according to these categories:

(1) *Du sollst kommen* (Ti duhet të vish / you must come)

(2) *Du solltest kommen* (Ti duhej të vije / you must have come)

The verb connected to the infinitive, could be a auxiliary verb, or a full verb. The infinitive could also be connected to nouns or could be used as isolated in demands:

(3) *Er hatte nicht die Kraft, sich darüber Gedanken zu machen.* (Ai s'kishte force të mendonte për këtë. / He did not have the strength to think about that.) pg.111

(4) ... so könnten Sie Ihre Hinterbliebenen besuchen... (...kështu ju mund të vizitoni ata që keni lënë pas.../ ... so you can visit those you left behind) pg. 601

(5) *Er hatte etwas wichtiges zu sagen.* (Ai kishte për të thënë diçka të rëndësishme. / He had to say something important)

(6) *Aufstehen!* (Çohuni! / Stand up)

In its infinitive uses there is no syntactic subject. The logical subject is expressed through the subject or the object (direct, indirect, with preposition) of the full conjugated verb, through an attribute or possessive pronoun of the predefined sentence.

(7)*Hans Castorp glaubte, zähe Ausdünstung zu verspüren.* (Hans Kastorp besonte te ndiente nje ere te rende / Hans Castorp believed to feel a tough exhalation) .

Hans Castorp – is the subject of the conjugated verb , which simultaneously serves as a logical subject of the infinitive

The sentence could otherwise be expressed:

(7a)*Hans Castorp glaubte, dass er zähe Ausdünstung verspürt.*(Hans Kastorp besonte se po ndiente nje ere te rende.)

(8) *Sie bemühte sich, eine feingebildete Miene zu machen.* (Ajo u perpoq te bente nje fytyre te hijshme. / She tried to make a finely formed / polite face)

Sie – the logical subject of the infinitive

otherwise expressed:

(8a) *Sie bemühte sich, dass sie eine feingebildete Miene machte.* (Ajo u perpoq qe te bente nje fytyre te hijshme.)

(9) *Ich versprach ihm zu kommen.* (I premtova të vija / I promised him to come)

Ich – subject of the verb that is conjugated, which serves at the same time as logic subject of the infinitive.

The sentence could otherwise be expressed:

(9a) *Ich versprach ihm, dass ich komme* (I premtova se do të vija. / I promised him that I would have come)

Ich – subject for both verbs.

(10) *Der Richter bittet den Angeklagten sich zu äussern.* (Gjykatësi iu lut të pandehurit të fliste. / The judge begged the defendant to speak)

Den Angeklagten - the object serves as logic subject of the infinitive.

The sentence could otherwise be expressed:

(10a)*Der Richter bittet den Angeklagten, das ser (der Angeklagte) sich äussert.*

(Gjykatësi iu lut të pandehurit, që të fliste. / The judge begged the defendant that he talked)

(11)*Es soll mich wundernehmen, zu hören, wieviel man sich zudiktiert.* pg.84

(Habitem te dëgjoj se sa kohë i ke lënë vetes. / I wonder when I hear, how many time you dedicated to yourself)

mich - kundrinori qe sherben si kryefjale logjike e infinitivit

The sentence could otherwise be expressed

(11a) *Es soll mich wundernehmen, dass ich höre, wieviel man sich zudiktiert.*

(Çuditëm qe degjoj se sa kohë i ke lënë vetes)

Note: In German the subject of the sentence could lack and in its place there comes the predefined pronoun in the role of a correlation, which is a logical subject of an infinitive form. When this form is transformed in a subordinate clause with the respective conjunctions, the subject becomes the predefined pronoun *man* (Hall / Scheiner, 2001, p.174).

(12) *Es ist nicht so leicht, sich einzuleben bei uns. (Nuk është aq e thjeshtë të ambientohesh te ne. / It is not so easy settle in with us)*

(12a) *Es ist nicht so leicht, dass man sich bei uns einlebt. pg. 76 (Nuk është aq e thjeshtë që të ambientohesh te ne.)*

(13) *Es ist überhaupt nicht leicht, Bekanntschaften zu machen. (Nuk është aspak e lehtë të krijosh njohje / It is not so easy to make friends)*

(13a) *Es ist überhaupt nicht leicht, dass man Bekanntschaften macht. (Nuk është aspak e lehtë, që të krijosh njohje)*

In connections conjugated verb + infinitive, the distinction is made between necessary connections where the conjugated verb and the infinitive do not stand without each other, connections which are characterized by the use of the particle **zu**, as well as free connections, facultative ones, which are characterized by the use of prepositions **um**, **anstatt**, **ohne** + particle **zu** by which are created, the conjunctions **um...zu**, - purpose conjunction, **(an)statt ... zu** – conjunction which expresses substitution relations, **ohne zu** – conjunction which expresses negation relations (without).

(14) *Das benutzt sie, um die Leute zu erschrecken. (Këtë ajo përdor për të trembur njerëzit. She uses this to scare people away.) pg.75*

(14a) *Das benutzt sie, damit sie die Leute erschreckt. (Këtë ajo përdor që të trembë njerëzit She uses this in order to scare people away.)*

(15) *Das Ergebnis war Null, ohne beim Namen genannt zu werden. pg. 874 (Rezultati ishte zero, pa u thirrur në emër.?)*

(15a) *Das Ergebniss war Null, ohne dass es beim NAMen genannt wurde.*

(16) *Statt selber die Riemen zu handhaben, saß er auf der Terrasse und betrachtete die Boote. pg. 46 (Në vend të përdorte vetë rremat, u ul në verandë dhe vështronte varkat)*

(16a) *Anstatt dass er die Riemen selber handhatte, saß er auf der Terrasse und betrachtete die Boote. (Në vend që të përdorte vetë rremat, u ul në verandë dhe vështronte varkat)*

In compulsory connections conjugated verb + infinitive there are these structure characteristics to be noticed:

The particle **zu** which characterizes the infinitive stands directly before the infinitive or between the first part of the verb and its root at derived verbs formed with preposition or at compound verbs, the first part of which is separated from the formative topic. These verbs are called separable:

(17) *Es sei schwer, das Rechte herauszufinden. pg. 426 (është e vështirë të gjesh të djathtën/ It is difficult to find the right hand.)*

(18) *Er veranlaßte die Vetter, auf den Zehenspitzen hinauszugehen. Pg.427(Ai l nxiti kushërinjtë të dilnin në majë të gishtave. / He pushed his cousins to go out on their toes.)*

3. Syntactic functions of the infinitive

Infinitive in German language could perform several functions: function of the subject, could be predicate, object, attribute or could indicate circumstances of the activity (Eisenberg P. 1994) .In all its functions, the infinitive partly saves its verbal character.

3.1 Infinitive as subject

The infinitive performs the function of the subject in connection; full verb + infinitive, in connections that are possible only with some impersonal verbs or that are used as such. The infinitive is always accompanied by the particle **zu**. Subordinate clauses or infinitive forms used as nouns also appear as competitive forms of the infinitive. All infinitive forms could be used as nouns and in that case they are written in capital letters like nouns and are inflected as them.

(19) *Es war wohl eine Möglichkeit, die Hüte abzunehmen. pg.442 (Ishte një mundësi e mire të hiqje kapelet. / It was a good opportunity to take off the hats.)*

(20) *Und mich regt es auf, solche Konfusion zu sehen. pg.531(Unë shqetësohem të shoh një konfuzion të tillë. / It bothers me to see such a confusion.)*

(21) *Es ist nutzlos, sich jedes Mal Gedanken darüber zu machen. (Është e kotë të mendosh gjithnjë për këtë. / it*

is useless to think about this all the time.)

It has the function of an infinitive subject even when the verb conjugated, to which it is connected, is a impersonal **copular** verb, which together with a noun or adjective make the predicate (Buscha / Zoch , 1992). As impersonal **copular** verb appears before all the verb sein (jam). As a rule, the infinitive is accompanied by the particle **zu**. Even in this case there appear as competitive forms of the infinitive subordinate clauses and infinitive forms used as nouns.

(22) *Nach Hause zu kommen, war keine Kleinigkeit.* pg.350 (*Të vije në shtëpi nuk ishte gjë e vogël.* / *Coming home was not a small thing.*)

(23) *Es war schwer, ihm zu raten* (*Ishte e vështirë ta këshilloje atë.* / *It was difficult to advise her*) pg.420

(24) *Es wäre sinnlos, die Kur vor der Zeit zu unterbrechen.* pg.445 (*Do të ishte pa kuptim ta ndërprisje kurën para kohe.* / *It would be silly to interrupt the cure earlier.*)

(24a) *Es wäre sinnlos, dass man die Kur vor der Zeit unterbricht.*

(25) *Es war schwer, aufzuzählen* (*ishte e vështirë të numëroje.* / *it was difficult counting*) pg. 576

(25a) *Aufzählen war schwer.* (*Të numëruarit ishte e vështirë.* / *Counting was difficult*)

(26) *Es sei möglich, von Sternen zu sprechen.* (*Ishte e mundur, që të flisje për yjet.* / *It was possible speaking about the stars.*)

To perform the function of the subject performed by the infinitive in German language, in standard Albanian there are these corresponding language tools: subjunctive connective mood which is drawn by mode and in other cases as subordinate clauses. In the cases when the infinitive has taken the role of the noun, the correspondent in Albanian language it is a neutral verbal noun or a prepositional noun.

Të vije , *ta këshilloje*, *ta ndërprisje*, *të numëroje* – verbs in subjunctive connective mood
të numëruarit - neutral verbal noun

3.2 Infinitive as part of the simple and compound verbal predicate

The infinitive is used as part of the predicate in connection to a auxiliary verb.

a. The infinitive with the verb *werden* (become) is used to form the future tense:

(27) *Er wird kommen* (*Ai do të vijë.* / *He will come*)

The infinitive with the verb *werden* also serves to express assumption.

(28) *Er wird jetzt in Berlin ankommen.* (*Ai do të ketë aritur tani në Berlin.* / *He will probably arrive now in Berlin*)

b. In cases when the infinitive is connected to the auxiliary verb *haben* (have) it expresses necessity (Helbig / Buscha , 1996).

In these connections the infinitive is always accompanied by the particle **zu**. This structure has an active meaning.

When this structure is connected to a direct object, it expresses a direct possibility or permit on something:

(29) *Er hatte vieles zu sagen.* Pg.358 (*Ai kishte shumë për të thënë.* / *He had much to say.*)

(30) *Es hatte nichts mehr zu sagen.* (*S'kishte më asgjë për të thënë.* / *It had nothing more to say.*)

These structures are semantically equivalent with structures with modal verbs:

(29a) *Er konnte vieles sagen* (*Ai mund të thoshte shumë.* / *He could say much*)

(30a) *Er konnte nichts mehr sagen* (*Ai s'mund të thoshte më asgjë.* / *He could not say anything more.*)

(31) *Dr. Krokowski und ...Hans CAstorp hatten miteinander zu plaudern.*

(*Dr. Krokovski dhe Hans Kastorp kishin për të biseduar me njëri tjetrin.* / *Dr. Krokowski and Hans Castorp had to talk to each other*)

(31a) *Dr. Krokowski und Hans Castorp mussten mit einander plaudern.*

(*Dr. Krokovski dhe Hans Kastorp duhej të flisnin me njëri – tjetrin.* / *Dr. Krokowski and Hans Castorp had to talk to each other*)

The auxiliary verb *haben* (have) appears in close connection to the infinitive of the verb *tun* (do): *zu tun haben* (have to do)

(32) *Plastik, meine ich, hat mit dem Menschen zu tun* pg.360 (*Mendoj se plastika ka të bëjë me njeriun.* / *I think that plastic has to do with the person.*)

The infinitive connected to the verb *sein* (to be) accompanied by the particle **zu** expresses possibility sometimes even necessity (Helbig / Buscha, 1996). These structures have passive meaning and are semantically equivalent with structures with modal verbs.

(33) *Zu sehen war nur ein ... Kaufmann* pg. 396 (*Për t'u parë ishte vetëm një tregtar...* / *To see was just a ... merchant.*)

(33a) *Man konnte nur ein ... Kaufmann sehen.*

(34) *Es ist sachlich festzustellen pg.357(Eshhtë për t'u konstatuar me objektivitet. / It is objectively to ascertain.)*

(34a) *Man muss es sachlich feststellen*

c. Apart from the auxiliary verbs, the infinitive is also connected to modal verbs müssen, sollen, dürfen, können, wollen, mögen and it is a grammatical part of the verbal compound predicate. It expresses necessity, permission, obligation, possibility, wish, purpose (Buscha / Zoch (1992). When connected to these verbs the infinitive is used without the particle **zu**:

(35) *... mochte er auf einem Spaziergang beginnen. (Ai donte të fillonte një shëtitje. / he liked to start a walk)*

(36) *Wir mögen nicht unterlassen. Fq. 884 (Nuk duam ta lëmë përgjysëm. / We do not refrain)*

(37) *Hans Castorp musste die Platte wechseln. Fq.886 (Hans Kastorp duhej të ndërronte pllakën e gramafonit. / Hans Castorp had to change the plate)*

(38) *Aber Hans Castorp konnte sich gar nicht über den vernommenen Husten beruhigen.*

(Por Hans Kastorp nuk mund të qetësohej aspak nga kolla që e kishte zënë. / But Hans Castorp could not soothe the cough)

d. The infinitive is also connected to verbs similar to modal verbs, but in this case is it accompanied by the particle

zu.

These include verbs: brauchen, scheinen, bekommen, wissen, lassen unaccompanied by **zu**.

(39) *Er brauchte nicht wiederzukommen. (Ai s'kishte pse të vinte përsëri. / He didn't need to come back.)*

(40) *Hätte Settembrini seine gewürfelten Hosen nicht mit so viel Anmut und Würde zu tragen gewusst. (Sikur Settembrini të mos dinte t'i mbante pantallonat e tij me kuadrata me kaq hijeshi dhe dinjitet. / If Settembrini wouldn't know his checkered pants to wear with so much grace and dignity)*

(41) *Dieser ließ es geschehen. (Ky e la të ndodhte. / he let it happen)*

(42) *Es scheint doch... das Heil in der Ruhe zu finden. (Dukej sikur e gjeje shërimin te qetësia. / It seems to find salvation in the serenity.)*

In Albanian language, the infinitive with the above mentioned function would again have its corresponding forms the subjunctive clause, the subordinate clause and the gerund.

Exampels

Es hatte nichts mehr zu sagen. (S'kishte më për të thënë. // It had nothing more to say)

për të thënë (to say) - gerund

Plastik, meine ich, hat mit dem Menschen zu tun pg.360

(Plastika mendoj une ka te beje me njeriun. / I think that plastic has to do with the person)

te beje (to do) – subjunctive connective mood

Es ist sachlich festzustellen. pg.357(Eshhtë për t'u konstatuar në mënyrë objektive. / It is objectively to ascertain.)

Per t'u konstatuar (to ascertain)- gerund

(43)... *wie Behrens zu sagen pflegt. pg.803 (Sic e ka zakon të thotë Berens./ sic e ka zakon qe te thote Berens / as Behrens tended to say.)*

të thotë (to say) – subjunctive connective mood / qe te thote = subordinate clause

Dieser ließ es geschehen. (Ky e la të ndodhte. / he let it happen)

të ndodhte - subjunctive connective mood

3.3 Infinitive as object

The infinitive with the object function is usually accompanied by the particle **zu**, but there are cases when it is used even without it (Helbig / Buscha, 1996).

(44) *Er war nicht gewohnt, zu philosophieren... pg.94 (Ai nuk ishte mësuar të filozofonte. / he was not accustomed to philosophize)*

(45) *Sie versprach, Bier zu bringen, und brachte es. pg.97 (Ajo premtoi të sillte birrë dhe e sollti. / she promised bringing / to bring beer and she brought it)*

(46)... *dies aber zu verbergen suchte... pg.84 (... por u përpoq ta fshihte këtë... / he tried however to hide it)*

As part of a sentence, the infinitive is defined by the valence of the verb on which it depends. According to its valence the subject of the infinitive verb could or could not be identical to the subject of the main verb. At verbs which are used only with subject and infinitive, the subject of the infinitive is usually identical to the subject of the main verb (Helbig / Buscha , 1996). The infinitive represents a direct object or object with preposition.

(47) Hans Castorp beeilte sich, weiterzugehen. pg.72 (direct object)

(Hans Kastorp nxitoi të ecte më tej. / Hans Castorp hurried to move along)

(48) ... er hatte um so mehr Ursache, sich davon berührt zu fühlen... (object with preposition davon) pg.870 (... ai kishte po kaq më shumë arsye të ndihej i prekur nga kjo.../për t'u ndier i prekur nga kjo. / he had all the more reason to feel affected.)

Some verbs connected with the infinitive as object are: ablehnen (deny, throw down), anfangen (start), zweifeln (doubt), glauben (believe), vergessen (forget), sich wundern (wonder), zögern (hesitate) etc.

At verbs used with subject, infinitive and direct object, the subject of the main verb is always identical to the direct object. The infinitive usually represents an object with preposition (in some cases even a possessive object) (Helbig / Buscha, 1996).

Full verbs of this group are called verbs that require direct object. There are included: anklagen, anregen, beneiden, einladen, verpflichten, warnen, zwingen etc.

When the direct object lacks in a sentence, the subject of the infinitive is the predefined pronoun **man**.

At many verbs with subject, infinitive and indirect object, the subject of the infinitive is identical to the indirect object. The infinitive usually represents an indirect object (or at some verbs an object with preposition).

Here, there are included verbs that require an indirect object: abraten, befehlen, erlauben, ermöglichen, raten, versagen, zureden etc.

When the indirect object of these verbs lacks, subject of the infinitive is the predefined pronoun **man**

Even in the function of the object, we can see that in Albanian language the infinitive has as corresponding form the subjunctive mood and the gerund.

Hans Castorp beeilte sich, weiterzugehen. pg.72 (direct object)

(Hans Kastorp nxitoi të ecte më tej. / Hans Castorp hurried to move along)

Weiterzugehen - të ecte më tej (subjunctive mood)

... er hatte um so mehr Ursache, sich davon berührt zu fühlen... (object with preposition davon)

pg.870

(... ai kishte po kaq më shumë arsye të ndihej i prekur nga kjo.../për t'u ndier i prekur nga kjo. /

he had all the more reason to feel affected.)

zu fühlen – për t'u ndier – gerund

3.4 Infinitive indicating circumstances of the activity.

While the number of verbs compulsory connected to an infinitive is restricted, for the connections of a full verb with an infinitive by the conjunctions *um*, *anstatt*, *ohne*, + particle *zu*, as mention above, there are no syntactical restrictions (Eisenberg P., 1994).

These kinds of infinitives do not depend on the valence of the verb. They appear in circumstantial function (free/facultative) and respond to specific subordinate clauses (Eisenberg P., 1994).

a. *Um*...*zu* (për të / to) clause of purpose (Finalsatz)

b. (an)statt ... *zu* (në vend që / instead) clause of substitution (Substitutivsatz)

c. *Ohne* ... *zu* (pa / without) clause of manner or negatory consequential clause (Modal or Konsekutivsatz)

The infinitive of purpose could be used without the conjunction **um**.

Even in these cases, to the infinitive of German, in standard Albanian there are the corresponding forms: subjective clause, gerund and the subordinate clause.

(49) ..., so dass er den Kopf schräg zurücklegen musste, um ihnen ins Gesicht zu sehen... pg. 28

..., kështu që ai duhej ta mbante kokën pjertas për t'i parë ata në fytyrë. / He had to put his head aside, to see them on face.)

për t'i parë (to see) - gerund

(50) Das Ergebnis war Null, ohne beim Namen genannt zu werden. pg. 874

(Rezultati ishte zero, pa u thirrur ne emër./ The result was zero without being called by name)

pa u thirrur (without being called) – percjellore mohore

(51) Statt selber die Riemen zu handhaben, saß er auf der Terrasse und betrachtete die Boote. pg. 46

(Në vend t'i përdorte vetë rremat, u ul në verandë dhe vështronte varkat. / Instead itself to handle the oar he sat on the terrace and He looked at the boats)

t'i përdorte (to handle) - subjunctive clause

3.5 Infinitive as an attribute

The infinitive often appears connected to a verb that could be conjugated, but in some cases it can connect even to nouns and adjectives (Engel U., 2004). In these connections it gets the function of an attribute.

(52) *Er hatte Lust zu fliehen.* pg. 872 (*Ai kishite deshire te arratisej. He had a desire to escape*)

(53) *Es ist Zeit, zu Bett zu gehen.* pg.28 (*Eshte koha per te shkuar ne shtrat. / It's time to go to bed*)

(54)... *man hatte nicht das Gefühl, sich an einer Stätte des Jammers zu befinden.* pg. 66

(*Nuk e kishte ndjesine e te qenit ne nje vend vuajtjesh. / they didn't feel to be located in a place of misery.*)

(55) *Er war nicht fähig, sich davon zuzuführen.* pg. 99

(*Ai nuk ishte i aftë të sigurohej nga kjo./ He was not able to supply them*)

In Albanian language, this function is performed by the subjunctive clause, and the gerund with the preposition for.
te arratisej (to escape) - subjunctive clause

per te shkuar (to go) - gerund

te qenit (to be located) – neutral verbal noun

4. Conclusions

German language recognizes two unchangeable forms of the verb: the infinitive and the participle form (I and II). German language has a very functional infinitive, while standard Albanian does not have an infinitive and a system of grammatical tools plays the role of this form.

The functions of German infinitive in standard Albanian language are performed by a whole system of tools, concretely: subjunctive clause, gerund, neutral verbal noun or prepositional noun and the subordinate clause. All these tools are used in the function of a subject, object, predicate, to indicate circumstances of the activity etc.

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Lora, a Beatricean Image in the Albanian Poetry

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Abstract

Frederik Rreshpja¹ - an exceptionally impressive poet – is considered as one of the Albanian contemporary poetry modelers. As part of the avant-garde poets of the seventies, after suffering a seventeen years political imprisonment, in 1991 he comes renewed and strong in the elite spectrum of the Albanian poetry and becomes a reference point for the new poetry. The author plays a substantial role in shaping the esthetic and fragile conscience of the new generation. This modest work is aimed at providing the authentic experience of Rreshpja in constructing a lyrical image of the adored female model. It must be noted that, coming from Dukagjin – an entirely epic and mountainous region of Albania – the poet is also in an epic mood. A great part of his lyrical poetry lexicon is also epic. In his region of origin, women have always been painted in sacred colors that even Rreshpja has inherited: he portrays an idealized woman bearing amplified qualities. The poet's behavior is that of a real knight with strong medieval reminiscences and ancient redolence. In the poet's opinion, women are a very delicate issue to be dealt with...

Rreshpja never really married. So far, there are no convincing grounds to make us believe that the poet Frederik Rreshpja might have had an exceptional crush on a real woman. To him, women were a very delicate issue to be dealt with, and generally he would avoid conversations about them. The presence of a woman would make him abandon his fellows and engage himself in a sweet conversation with her. He paid special attention to this woman while his face radiated a gentle smile, his voice became soft and tender, and the body shrank as to avoid direct eye contact with her. However, as the conversation went on, a sense of excitement and pleasure would raise inside him so strong as to be reflected in his eyes, skin and gestures. He would abandon the irritation, the anger, the sorrow and the solitude and slowly transform into another man, whose appearance suddenly emitted gentleness, care, good manners and tenderness. And yes, he became a happy man! Yet, it was but a particular woman to alter his state of mind. He adored all women. The unique entity of the female gender crossed his vivid imagination and immediately carried a divine charm and light. The appearance did not matter; pretty or not, every woman could enter the fantasy of Rreshpja and suddenly be a naiad, a nymph, an Illyrian goddess, the legend of Rozafa, an autumn day, a rose, a lily, any beautiful flower.

As his friends confirm, Rreshpja was very shy with women and almost always their presence provoked new situations and produced a kind of reaction in Rreshpja's appearance, attitude and communication style. This may be due to the rare contacts he has had with women throughout his lifetime. Indeed, he married only once but unfortunately the spouse left him in three days causing a great solitude in the poet's life. So short was the duration of his marriage as to question its actual consummation. Moikom Zeqo, a good friend and connoisseur of Rreshpja's personality and psychological profile, goes further and writes, "This man created a cult of his mother. I don't know why, but I think no other woman has ever entered his life except for an invented Beatricean character called Lora – so much sorrow, so little love in the life of this man!" (In memoriam of Frederik Rreshpja, "Koha Jone", 18.02.2006).

The cult of his mother is present in many poetries of Rreshpja, whereas some of these poetries are dedicated exceptionally to her. To be mentioned are: "To my mother", "Mother", "Mother's hometown", "Elegy for a mother", "Ave, my mother". In addition, he dedicated to his mother a poetic collection entitled "Solitude": "To my mother, who has suffered my prison, deportation and hospital pains. With compassion, Frederik Rreshpja".

The main reason why we may possibly accept the supposition of the poet and scholar M. Zeqo – "I think no other

¹ 1940 – 2006 Author of some poetry volumes like "Albanian Rhapsody", "In this city", "It's time I die again", "The Solitude", etc. His works have been translated in English, Russian, German, Italian, etc., and have been evaluated by researchers and critics as thrilling poetry works of European standard. It is represented in the Italian magazine "Lo Straniero", no.94, in April 2008.

woman has ever entered his life" – is that Zeqo has been a close friend of Rreshpja, to whom the poet himself might have had revealed some secrets on the subject. Furthermore, it is the poetic creativity of Rreshpja and the sublimation of the female image in his lyrical poetry to reinforce the supposition of M. Zeqo. People always tend to exalt and praise what they miss or cannot have. The vivid poetic imagination of Rreshpja embraced an acclaimed and idolized unique woman, who should have a conceivable name to be accepted by the readers and the poet himself. The poet has always shown a knightly attitude toward women: he was gentle, good, kind and ready to serve them. On the other hand, coming from Dukagjin – an entirely epic and mountainous region of Albania – the poet is also in an epic mood. A great part of his lyrical poetry lexicon is also epic: rhapsodist, ballad, lute, Iliad, mountains, Ajkuna, Rozafa, or the following verses:

*"I fell into the ballads' sleep,
old fathers emerge from rhapsodies";*

*"O black bird carrying the last wish,
where are you rushing to bring rain?" (Lute song, Albanian rhapsodies)*

*"The black horse of great sorrow,
waiting for me by the old lane." (Lost love, The solitude)*

In such an epic atmosphere, the female image has historically had sacral colors, which naturally have been inherited even by Rreshpja. As far as the linguistic articulation is concerned, there is a three-dimensional female image in Rreshpja's poetries: as a mother, as a sister, and as a wife. With respect to the lover female image, it existed not as an articulable concept, but as a hidden reality, a myth, a dream, something to aim at, an imaginary entity, which gave a man's life a new shape and meaning. Consequently, his idealized woman had such hyperbolized qualities as to catch the attention and passion of a man. From this point of view, the female image is the reason for many men's courageous deeds - a knightly attitude with heavy medieval reminiscences and a strong smell of ancientness. In a way or another, the adorable woman painted by Rreshpja was an orientation point to motivate and justify any man's actions and deeds. She could have an easily pronounceable name or no name at all, thus existing as a possibility, as a fantasy.

Nevertheless, Rreshpja had no real female image. He created a perfect female out of his flamboyant imagination, by capturing any distinct feature of every female he had encountered in his life and called her Lora. The image of this acclaimed female has been incessantly depicted in Rreshpja's poetries, although bearing no specific and definite name. The same female archetype is exalted in his lyrical kingdom. Let us consider the following verses:

*"I went down to the spring,
Holding the delicate vase of the dawn
I saw your eyes captured in the water's memory." (Death of Lora, The solitude), or:*

*"Where were you as I stood alone under the moon?
Where were you wandering?" (Where were you?), and:*

*"You suddenly left me
As you always didwhen you were young (Old friend, The solitude).*

However, sometimes the image of this unique female emerges from the past bearing no physical desire function: "We have been kissing through old Iliads/ as Homers played the harp." Frequently, the image of this mysterious female is sheltered inside the context of lost love, far away from the poet:

*"Ah! In this immense world, you and I only,
will no longer be happy..."(Sunset, The solitude).*

*Sometimes, the poet tries to convince us that this woman is no longer living:
"Now that the time is gone,
I know my love won't bring you back" (I keep on staying, In solitude)*

*And sometimes, she is present:
"Please stay with me tonight,
and wait till roses flourish from the dead woods" (Stay tonight!, In solitude)*

As one may notice, this female image extends over all times and it is present in most of Rreshpja's poems. Illusive as it may be, the poet makes it poetically believable. The name of this mirage-woman finally is made known at the end of Rreshpja's life and creativity. It appears only once in the title of a poem taken from the collection "In solitude", published in 2004 by the publishing house "Arberia:

Death of Lora

*In the dark you stay, as time goes by,
waiting for eternity.
No words you utter – a promise to the death.
But it is not for the skies that you were born.
We grew up together,
And now you left me!
You know seasons make me sad,
Between me and the world,
a hundred miles of solitude lie.
No one will ever understand my words.
We have been walking through the centuries,
before the pyramids were built.
Our names were inscribed
before the rocks were shaped.
But that time will never come again
Just like gospels
We have always been so fine-looking,
But you are better now with a little death on your eyes."*

However, the poem "Death of Lora" ends differently in the collection "Solitude" published by the publishing house "Medaur" just a few months before the above collection, "In solitude". In the first version, the poem continues with other fifteen verses, which, for some strange reasons – they are in harmony with the initial part of the poem and of the same esthetic and emotional level – have been removed in the later version.

"My love won't bring you back

*The night is full of your absence,
Every night,
And such will it be, till the end of all nights.*

*I went down to the spring,
Holding the delicate vase of the dawn
I saw your eyes captured in the water's memory.*

*The old oak relinquished the autumn's crown
Like and abdicating sovereign*

*And I am cursed.
Oh! My darling, come and speak to the seasons.
These woods will never be the same without you.
The autumn will never go,
Or maybe it will never come.
In the name of who are leaves to fall down?
In the name of who are rains, fogs and bows to come?"*

Just as M. Zeqo (mentioned above), the poet Azem Qazimi highlights the existence of an ideal imagination and of a personal mythology of Rreshpja, "A mind shaped by myths, always trying to conceive its ideal entity, its Dulcinea (or Beatrice), inside a net of scenarios and inducements, under a favorable light to its ambition." (Freda, a boundless shape of the scandal), "Koha Jone", 24.12.2005).

In various texts, birth anniversaries and homage dedicated to Rreshpja, many poets and scholars compare Lora to Laura of Petrarch (maybe due to the name resemblance) and to Beatrice. However, the poet Azem Qazimi considers

Lora more similar to Dulcinea of Cervantes. Referring to Dulcinea, Harold Bloom says: "Miguel de Unamuno, as well as I, took very seriously the sublime considerations of Don over Aldonza Lorenzo and her later laudation ala Beatrice as the angelic, though unfortunately enchanted Dulcinea; this helps us contemplate the knight's whole complexion. He lives in hope, although he is aware of his own fiction, as his lucidity outbreaks may confirm. Dulcinea is a supreme fiction, whereas Don Quixote is a bewitched reader, a poet of action who created an outstanding myth. (Harold Bloom, *Western Canon*, 5. Cervantes: *The World's Game*, page 129)

Apparently, Bloom, while quoting Dulcinea, takes the opportunity to mention Beatrice as the archetype of fictional characters. However, according to the famous critic, the frequent lucidity outbreaks of Don Quixote reveal his awareness of the fiction. To be noted is the fact that Dulcinea is an imaginary character inside a fictional one that is Don Quixote, and Cervantes accepts both characters as creatures of his imagination. When it comes to Lora, Rreshpja was the first to believe in this fictional character. No one would ever dare to say that Lora existed solely in the poet's mind. The knightly profile of Rreshpja's personality is a good reason to consider the suggestion of A. Qazimi. Generally, the comparison to Beatrice, who is a character of poetry and not of prose, seems more charming than reliable.

Referring to the image of Beatrice in the "Divine Comedy" of Dante, Bloom quotes, "Since Beatrice, initially was just a necessary means of Dante's desire, her deification includes even the choice of Dante... Dante would never accept *the Comedy* as a fiction, *his* fiction is supreme. To him, the poem is the truth itself, the universal, not temporary truth...What Williams emphasizes in his deep study, *the Figure of Beatrice* (1943) is the main (wonderful) scandal of Dante's achievements: the greatest fiction of the poet is Beatrice. Not even the Shakespearean characters, the charismatic Hamlet and the divine King Lear could compare to Beatrice as an extremely brave fictional character...Placing Beatrice inside the Christian machinery of redemption is the bravest action to transform the inherited religion in something much more personal. (pg. 72-73)...Beatrice occupies a certain position in the divine hierarchy, which is difficult to understand. We apply no estimating standards; there is nothing in the doctrine to explain the exaltation of this special Florentine woman, with whom Dante was passionately in love...." ("Western Canon, 3. The Strangeness of Dante: Ulysses and Beatrice", pg. 74-75).

The existence of Lora is an exceptional phenomenon in the Albanian literature as far as a poet's imagination and ability to give his soul to a fictional character are concerned. Rreshpja not only believes in the existence of Lora, but, having known her since his childhood, he has fallen desperately in love with her. Consider what Rreshpja himself says about Lora: "Lora is the tear of my poetry. I loved her because she loved me so much. She is the one to have loved me so much in this world, except for my mother...Destiny wanted that we were classmates. I have always learned better than the other schoolmates. She wanted me...One day the teacher sent her to my desk. I said, "Why did you come here"? "The teacher told me you are the most quiet" (she said). This happened in the seventh grade. As we walked down the road, she kept teasing me... "Can I come to your house tonight?" she said. "What for...god forbid...my father will kill us", said I. "But, I love you", she replied. "What are you talking about? You shouldn't talk like that. You are a good girl, not a whore...And I am a good boy too, well-conducted and catholic". But she never gave up. She managed to come to my house, until her father got her and ordered the doctors to kill her... "I don't want a daughter that goes with an enemy...", he had said. They separated us, although I had done nothing...I was not an enemy...I had done nothing" (My life, a worthless journey", interview with Frederik Rreshpja, "Gazeta Shqiptare", 19 March 2005).

When the name of Lora comes out, Rreshpja cannot hold his tears - a clear evidence that the poet not only believes in the existence of Lora, but that he suffers so much as to reflect it in his sensitive and touching lyric poetries. Sometimes explicitly and sometimes implicitly, just as planets go around a star, the entire lyrical body of Rreshpja goes around this image. One year before his death, the poet baptized this image with the name of Lora. The name of this mysterious woman has greatly influenced upon the quality of Rreshpja's poetry as it has been transformed in the center of his spiritual pilgrimage. She has been an extraordinary incentive to the Rreshpja's poetry bearing incomparable figurative colors to inspire and enrich the entire Albanian poetry.

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The Expression of Self-Identity and the Internet

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Abstract

This article examines and analyzes how gypsies express their identity on the internet, as opposed to real life. Throughout history, Gypsies, who were seen as "the different" have established tight connections with the countries and became component of the country they lived. By the help of internet, they are not "the different" or "the other" anymore and they became the citizens of McLuhan's global village. Gypsy identity and advocacy use and focus on internet as a community platform. They express themselves comfortably and more people understand, share their problems. One of their web addresses is cingeneyiz.org (We are Gypsies.org), in which they say their first aim is to solve the problem of incomprehension between Gypsies and people living together with them. First part of this study analyses communication and self-expression of Gypsies through new technologies by giving cingeneyiz.org example, how they get in touch and organize, and the importance of hypertext, the links and e-mails are analyzed. In the second part of the article, the analysis of in- depth interview with ten gypsies (five male, five female) on their self identity is made.

Keywords: Internet, self-expression, identity, gypsy.

1. Gypsy Identity Out Of Web and In Web

1.1 Identity

All people derive particular identities from their roles in society, the groups they belong to, and their personal characteristics. An identity is "the set of meanings that define who one is when one is occupant of a particular role in society, a member of a particular group, or claims particular characteristics that identify him or her as a unique person" (Burke, Stets, 2009: 3). People develop social identities based on their nationality, ethnicity, religion and social roles. For example "I am Turkish; I am a Buddhist; I am a teacher" are examples of social identities. They give us a feeling of place and position in the world. "Without them, most of us would feel like loose marbles rolling around in a chaotic universe. Because of the importance of social identities, most people feel their group is distinctive and special" (Tavris, Wade, 2001:407). According to Adrian Marsh, "History is identity, the primary means of acknowledging sameness, membership of the group and difference from others. It is always established, whether in part or wholly, through the sharing of a narrative of origins, of journeys of migration, or anti-migratory narratives of autochthony, and of 'present' as related directly to 'before' (...)" (Marsh, 2007: 22)

In modern societies, many social identities are possible. People often face the dilemma of balancing their ethnic identity, a close identification with their religious or ethnic group, with acculturation, identification with the dominant culture (...) as groups develop a strong ethnic identity; they often reject the name that was imposed on them by the majority culture and choose their own. The Eskimos of Canada are now called the Inuit, their own name for themselves, and the Sioux are now the Lakota (Tavris, Wade, 2001:407, 408).

According to Angus Fraser (1995), Gypsies are "a people of Europe", the word such as "Gypsy" were given to them by outsiders (1-2). From a general point of view, "identity conflict" constitutes a central problem for Gypsies living in different cultures as in Turkey. "Roman" in Turkey and "Roma" or "Rroma" in Europe has recently been used for defining Gypsies. Roman refers to an international recognition and usage, names like "Çingene" (Turkish), "Tsigane" (French), "Zigeuner" (German) and "Gitano" (Spanish) highlight the local recognitions. Gypsies have taken different names since their first appearance in history, and they represent a defined culture. Although Gypsies travelled long distances they embraced and preserved their own language, while migrating and lived in different cultures. These migrations resulted in a series of changes and accent differences in Gypsy language, yet it still survives to a degree enough to meet the

demands of daily language today. The language is significant for Gypsies, since it is a defining and distinguishing factor for recognising identity. On the other hand, scholars who studied Gypsies' origin could not explain how Romany language changed from Indian origin to Europe languages.

It is possible to date the relationship between Gypsies and Turkish society back to very old times, since Gypsies first came to Iran after leaving India and then they spread all over the world in three branches. One of these branches crossed to Europe over Anatolia (Kolukirik, 2007:31). According to Melih Duygulu, Gypsies settled in Anatolia coming from Caucasians and Persia. He sees three main groups among Gypsies: Nomads, semi-nomads and settled Gypsies. Nomads travel from village to village or village to city according to season. Although semi-nomads are settled in periphery of cities, they move according to seasonal labor (Duygulu, 2006: 22).

1.2 The Gypsy Image Out of Web

The definition of "Gypsy" in The Oxford English Dictionary, 2nd edition, 1989 is: A member of wandering race (by themselves called Romany), of Hindu origin, which first appeared in England about the beginning of the 16th century, and was then believed to have come from Egypt (Fraser, 1995: 2). According to Anne Sutherland who studied American Gypsies in 1968, there are misconceptions about the Gypsies. For example the name "Gypsy" is used as metaphor for freedom; and Gypsies as thieves (1986: xi).

In the Department of Sociology in Ege University, Turkey, an 'Attribute Constellation Study' is made in 2005. The group of 61 people, constituting 48 females and 13 males from the third and fourth year of undergraduate studies were given a questionnaire about the associations of the names Gypsy and Roman. As a result the name Gypsy was perceived as negative, while the name Roman was perceived as positive. The adjectives with highest frequency closest to the centre of the Gypsy graphic were "thief", "nomad", "entertainer" and "fortune teller"; whereas the corresponding adjectives in the Romani graphic included "musician" and "entertainment". In this sense, entertainer was used to define both the Gypsy and Romani. The adjectives "thief" and "dirty", which were used to define the Gypsy, were less frequent in the Romani graphic and were further from the centre (Kolukirik, 2005:52-71).

It is not wrong to say that prejudices are directed to Gypsies and the word "Gypsy".

A prejudice consists of negative stereotype and a strong, unreasonable dislike or hatred of a group or its individual members. Feelings of prejudice violate the spirit of critical thinking because they resist rational argument and evidence (...) Prejudice is a universal human experience because it has so many sources: evolutionary, psychological, social and cultural (Tavris, Wade, 2001:424-425).

According to Suat Kolukirik, the common characteristic of the negative images and prejudices about Gypsies is their reference to what is different between Gypsies and the remainder of societies in which they live. These historically produced images and prejudices have a common point that is the representation Gypsies as strangers. Kolukirik underlines, the perceived otherness of Gypsies should not be regarded as a characteristic peculiar only to Turkish society. According to Kolukirik, it is possible to come across prejudices about Gypsies in all the societies they exist as well as in fictive works, legends, anecdotes, films and laws. The main problem arises from the adjectives, legends, and anecdotes produced by the mechanism of prejudice. This puts the Gypsy identity and image under pressure and affects interaction between Gypsies and non-Gypsies. "Prejudices about Gypsies include adjectives that may possibly be seen in all groups of society. Yet, it is always Gypsies who are seen as scapegoats" (Kolukirik, 2007: 37).

There are many books about Gypsies written by "non Gypsies". Some reflect sympathy to Gypsies. For example in his book *Gypsies Opre Roma*, Jan Yoors wrote that "...Romans life is an endless improvisation" and also he wrote that a Roman man called Piti La Kaliako looked very poor, but everybody called him a millionaire because he had spent one million (2005:17, 20, 21). According to Duygulu Gypsies do not have written culture, because their philosophy is 'living today' without past and future. Most of the themes of their songs are love, separation, money. Gypsies manage to sing the saddest songs in a cheerful way with a lively music (Duygulu 2006: 90-92).

1.2.1 Gypsy Web Page

According to Anne Sutherland, the Gypsies have faced dramatically technological changes since they left India and began wending their way into Western Europe.

To most anthropologists, technological change without social change seems inconceivable; yet the descriptions of the most economic and social behaviour from the earliest accounts to the present day, from Russia, Greece, North Africa,

and Western Europe to North and South America are easily recognizable as Gypsy (Sutherland ,1986: 3).

In 2005 Çingeneviz.org was founded to represent Gypsies at every level and it is the voice of Gypsies. It was prepared by a group of intellectual gypsies and volunteers including non-gypsies. They do not have direct or indirect benefits for themselves. Then radio and online television is added. Çingeneviz.org aims to overcome foreignness between Gypsies and non-Gypsies and prejudices targeting Gypsies. They believe that the only way to reach this goal is to create a communication channel.



The Gypsies' Web Page in Turkey welcomes you with a flag. There are four basic elements in the flag of the web page. These are: three Gypsy tents; the Roma girl figure, the sun and a blue square. The Gypsy tents symbolises a figure which has been a living space for Gypsies as commercial nomads during long nomadic times. The tents are used with three colours in the flag with the aim of explaining that all differences of the humanity are included within the Gypsy society. There are Gypsies as commercial nomads all over the world. People who are from different races, ethnicities and nations and who speak different languages can be a part of the Gypsy society. The Roma girl figure symbolises the Gypsy woman who is at the centre of the Gypsy community and who represents the Gypsy community with the moral power she has. Gypsy woman has individual and collective power. The blue square symbolises long ways Gypsies have left behind. The square is blue because blue is the colour of our planet. The Sun which appears on background of the flag is the future of Gypsies and all the humanity. The sun brings life to all living beings in the nature and it is also a source of hope for the future. The sun symbol makes us remember the words of Halide Edip Adivar, a famous Turkish writer, "When the night gets the darkest, the sunshine is closer."

There are several dictionaries in the web page, prepared and translated by several authors. The web page, also prepared a campaign to collect words. Examples of some words;

maskare means in between

bitchavava means to send

gosto means woman

kanro means difficult

Romanes Canes: Do you know Roman (Laxo dialect)

Çingeneviz tv only includes photographs, video archives and information about Gypsy history or activities. The first aim of the web-site called cingeneviz.org, is to solve the problem of incomprehension between Gypsies and people living together with Gypsies.

1.2.2 How Gypsies define themselves in their web page?

In their web page, Gypsies define themselves as written below.

We are the children of the commercial nomads. The ancestors of Gypsies have produced baskets, sieves, metal objects and tins to sell to other people. Our ancestors could not find any other possibility like agriculture or stockbreeding, because they were deprived of herds and wide lands. Actually, this is the only difference between Gypsies and the others. There is only one distinctive characteristic of Gypsies: They have lived on with commercial nomads for thousands of years. So they ask the question: Then what is the reason of this fear and the sense of strangeness against us? The answer is: The history of Gypsies is also the history of human being. So we have to start to tell our history from the period that there was no division between occupations. 'Thousands of years, human beings were living under similar conditions. Gathering and hunting were the only occupations. Human beings were living through hunting wild animals and gathering various plants. (...) In this period, shepherd tribes needed wide grasslands.

They have become armed to protect their grasslands and herds against the attacks of the other tribes. On the other hand, some tribes continued gathering and hunting. But these occupations could not be done as easily as before, because shepherd tribes started to protect their grasslands through combating. Because of the pressure of the nearby shepherd tribes, these people were forced to do a different occupation: Commercial nomads. They started to sell their craft products, in exchange for the products of shepherd tribes. So these tribes found a new way to survive. Our base occupations like making baskets, ironing, sieving and tinning are the keepsakes of those days. (...) The division between the shepherds and the commercial nomads is the reason of today's distinction as gaco-muul-geben and Çingene.

They protest being "untouchable" in their Web Page. The lines below are from Gypsies web-page in Turkey and it is an example of expressing his/her self freely through internet.

Yes, I am untouchable! Evil, treachery and humiliation cannot touch me anymore, owing to vitalizing pains we have witnessed. People looking to our shabby shoes cannot break my heart. Since we have had lives like death for thousands of years, no one can touch to our divine freedom. I am an untouchable. I am proud of what I am. Everybody must know. I am a gypsy!

These lines underline the protest to being called "untouchables" through history. On the other hand, it seems that this kind of "humiliation" ended. In Turkey, according to Mustafa Aksu, the author of *cingeneyiz.org*, Gypsies see themselves as a component of Turkey. All the citizens of Turkish Republic are the members of the Turkish nation. The citizenship brings rights and obligations to all citizens and Gypsies have these rights and are responsible to fulfil these obligations. Aksu thinks Gypsies evaluate themselves as equal citizens of Turkey, not a minority.

Through out history, Gypsies have established tight connections with the countries they lived in. For example they adopt the religion of the countries in which they live. Today it is possible to observe that Gypsies attempt to get organised in accordance with the democratic development of the countries in which they live. However, according to Kolukirik, Gypsies, who possibly form the poorest population of the country in which they reside, seem to fail to display a strong attitude concerning this matter (Kolukirik, 2007: 31).

1.3 Hypertexts In Gypsy Web Page

According to Marshall McLuhan "The new electronic interdependence recreates the world in the image of global village" (2011: 36). The Gypsy web page seems to connect Gypsies to each other from all over the world. In this connection "hypertexts" play an important role. "Hypertext" is a term coined by Theodor H. Nelson in the 1960s. It has been used most successfully by the interactive multimedia computer systems that came into commercial use in the early 1990s. According to Barthes; this text is a galaxy of signifiers. Like Barthes, Michel Foucault conceives of text in terms of network and links (Landow, 2006: 2). George P. Landow uses the terms hypermedia and hypertext interchangeably.

In Gypsy Web page, there are examples of these mentioned "Hypertexts" that are given below.

Ahirkapi Roman Orkestar (<http://www.ahirkapiroman.com/index.asp>)

European Roma Rights Center (<http://www.errc.org>)

Voice of West Trakya (www.iskecem.de)

Edirne Roman Association (<http://www.edrom.org.tr>),

Flamenco House (<http://www.simonajovic.com>)

Everyonegroup(<http://www.everyonegroup.com>)

Güney Brothers (<http://grupguneykardesler.npage.de/index.html>),

Institute of Earth Art and Architecture, (<http://kaliji.eu/default.aspx>)

Roma of Hungary (<http://www.amarodrom.hu>),

Manchester Romani Project (<http://www.simonajovic.com>),

Roman Istanbul (<http://www.romanistanbul.org>),

Some of the links such as "Ahirkapi Roman" includes video and sound as well as photographs and texts. The link called "European Roma Rights Centre" includes many links such as research, news-events, human rights education, resource centre, and donation. For example Human Rights Education activities aim first and foremost to empower Romani activists. It aims to raise human rights awareness among the Romani community. It also aims to empower Romani individuals to fight for equality through the knowledge and experience in human rights and international law human rights law instruments.

2. Self Identity-Interviews With The Gypsies

In this section there are two kinds of interviews . In the first part, examples of interviews that are in Gypsy web page are given. In the second part, my interviews with five women, five men Gypsies are analysed.

2.1 Interviews in "Gypsy web page"

2.1.1 Interview with Mustafa Aksu

Mustafa Aksu is a Gypsy intellectual, retired bureaucrat. In his interview made in 18 May 2011, he attracts our attention to discrimination of Gypsies in Turkish Dictionaries. According to Aksu, the word "Çingene" (meaning Gypsy in Turkish) were identified falsely in all Turkish dictionaries (except one) published by various foundation in Turkey. Gypsies were identified as piker, rapacious, randy, and cheeky in the dictionaries. Some adjectives like "covetous, dirty, shameless" were added to some of the dictionaries too as the identification of Gypsy. In addition expressions related to Gypsies like "Çingene pembesi (Gypsy pink), Çingene parasi (Gypsy money), Çingene düğünü (Gypsy wedding), Çingene kavgasi (Gypsy fight), Çingenelik (Being Gypsy)..." were written with their explanation including a discriminative mentality full of prejudices in the dictionaries. Aksu and some other intellectuals tried to delete these definitions. After long termed legal struggle, some text including discriminative speech was deleted from the dictionaries. In 2004, Presidency of Turkish Linguistic Society declared corrections to ministries, related foundations. It was a great success for Gypsies.

According to Aksu, Gypsy is not an adjective. Gypsy is the name of ethnical identity. Claiming someone to be Gypsy is not a revilement. On the other hand, Aksu thinks many Gypsy origin scholars, bureaucrats, musicians still prefer to hide their origin. For example when Aksu announced names of twenty seven famous Gypsies, three of them got angry with him and they made statements on press that they were not Gypsies.

2.1.2 Interview with Judith Okely

Judith Okey is Emeritus Professor of Social Anthropology. Her books include: *The Traveller-Gypsies* (1982), *Anthropology and Autobiography* (1992) *Own or Other Culture* (1996). Her comments about the "Gypsy web page" are as follows.

Meanwhile what I have been able to access and read looks wonderful. There is a superb mix of different voices and groupings...I am delighted with the aim of international solidarity through links with different groups across the world. (...) Thus your website gives wonderful scope for the celebration of ALL persons and groups with some common associations.

Your website also has some heart-rending personal life histories of suffering and political injustice. (...) Gypsy children I knew may not have been schooled but they were EDUCATED in the broader aspects of the world.

Finally, I also, as part of your web declares, recognise the power, brilliance and political intelligence of Gypsy women, so it would be good to have this made more visible in the organisational 'leaders' whom you portray in your photograph.

2.2 Interviews with Gypsies Out of Web

I have made interviews with ten gypsies (five male, five female) living in Istanbul, Sariyer in February 2012. Their age's ranges from 30 to 55, eight of them (five women, three men) are graduated from primary schools and two men continued to secondary schools. All of them sell flowers, paper napkins, bottled water and all of them work in the recycling industry at different times. Collecting and selling rubbish is one of their occupations. They live on collecting and selling paper, different sorts of plastics and all sorts of metal to recycling firms. Two men sometimes work as house painters and clean gardens (cutting bushes, unwanted branches). The other men also played "drums" at special occasions. All of them seemed to be interested in music and they had "musicians" in their families. In addition most of their children wanted to be musician in future. Gypsy musicians generally go to play in the bars of Taksim or in the fish restaurants of Kumkapi. They say, older men in their families know the art of horseshoe-making but today as a result of the replacement of horses by cars there is not so much work to be done.

These Romans do not use internet and they do not know anything about Gypsy web page. But they think their children may know. Two of them said their children had computers. They give importance to their children's education. But they complain about school segregation. In Sariyer-Istanbul one of the primary school is full of Gypsy children and

non Gypsy families do not want to send their children to that school. It is interesting that Gypsy families also do not want to send their children to that school. Because they think the education quality of that school seems poor.

These Gypsies do not look like the intellectual Gypsies of the web, because they prefer to be called "Roman" instead of Gypsy. As mentioned before, Gypsies of the web prefer to be called "Gypsy."

3. No Watches- Rhythms of nature

The Gypsies who made interview with me had no watches (Only one man had a watch). This can be explained by the difference between "monochronic culture" and "polychronic culture."

Canada and the United States along with northern European nations are monochronic cultures. In these cultures time is organised sequentially; schedules and deadlines are valued over people. "Monochronic people" do one thing at a time, they give the job first priority, they place high value on private property (...). On the other hand, in polychronic cultures, time is organised horizontally; people tend to do several things at once and value relationships over schedules. "Polychronic people" do many things at once, they give people first priority, they borrow and lend things often (...). South of Europe, South of America and Africa are polychronic cultures. According to Edward Hall, a culture's way of organizing time is not arbitrary. It stems from the culture's economic system, social organization, political history and ecology. The monochronic structure of time emerged as a result of Industry Revolution in England. Thousands of people began working in factories and assembly lines, their efforts had to become coordinated. In rural economies work is based on the rhythms of nature. Hall (1983) worked with many Hopi. He found that they were amused by the "white" government's compulsive schedules for buildings roads and houses. According to Hopi, unlike the maturing of a sheep or the ripening corn, building a house has no inherent timetable. "The Hopi did care about completing their planting and religious ceremonies, activities that indeed had to be done 'on time' – nature's time, not human time" (Tavris, Wade, 2001: 403-405).

It seems that Romans are polychronic people because they follow nature's time. In addition they do multiple activities at the same time. For example a Roman woman sells flower, feeds the baby, and makes conversation at the same time. It can be said that their family relations are more important than their work and they like to borrow things from each other.

4. Individualist or Collectivist?

Who are you? "I am ...". According to Tavris and Wade (2001), your response to this question will be influenced by your cultural background. In individualist cultures, the independence of the individual often takes precedence over the needs of the group, and self is often defined as a collection of personality traits. In collectivist cultures, group harmony takes precedence over the wishes of the individual, and self is defined in the context of relationships and the community ("I am the son of a farmer..."). In collectivist cultures, the boundaries between the self and other people are more flexible and the strongest bond is usually not between husband and wife but between parent and child or siblings (Tavris, Wade, 2001: 405-406).

It can be said that my interviews with the Gypsies and observations showed that, Gypsies belong to collectivist culture and also they have strong ethnic identity. They seem to have strong bonds between them and their children. This bond seems stronger than husband-wife bonds. In addition they call themselves as "Romans".

5. Conclusion: Internet, is it a promise?

We generally pass by Gypsies on the streets without noticing them, but sometimes we stop and buy flowers from them or we listen to their beautiful Gypsy music at night when they play in or in front of some bars, restaurants. Unfortunately, the problems of employment, education and housing increase the poverty of Gypsies and the distance between Gypsies and the other parts of our society. Intellectual Gypsies prepared the Gypsy web page and this web page seems to help to solve the problems of the Gypsies. On the other hand, most of the Gypsies that I have do not have any computers. But two of them said their children had computers and it seems that Gypsies give importance to their children's education. It can be said that the education level of the Gypsies is increasing. Intellectual Gypsies underline that "they are proud of being Gypsy" in their web page. On the other hand, poorly educated Gypsies, mostly seen on the streets as flower sellers etc. prefer to be called as "Romans" and they do not like to be called as Gypsy. It can be said that, there is a relationship between high education and internet usage, and more importantly there is a relation between high education

and higher "self esteem".

Although most of the Gypsies do not have any computers, internet is still a promise because; many Gypsies managed to have higher education and managed to prepare a web page. The necessary information about laws and human rights, activities, entertainments and most importantly their feelings are learned and shared by Gypsies and non-Gypsies through internet. These kinds of web pages seem to manage to break down prejudices among Gypsies and non-Gypsies. More importantly the web page does not only pull attention to human rights but also make non-Gypsies to think about their duties towards Gypsies.

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Reactivation Of Narcissus Myth In Ernest Koliqi Poetic Proses: Narcissus' Seven Mirrors By Koliqi Compared To Ancient Myth

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Abstract

Purpose / to explain:

1. The retaking process of the Narcissus myth and his transformation from an antic myth into a literary myth.
2. The confrontation between antic myth and literary myth: similarities and differences.
3. New functions and new semantic in the new literary context. Observation in Ernest Koliqi's seven poetic proses named: Narcissus' seven mirrors.

Approach: an analytic, descriptive and semiotic method is needed on to conceive the insert process of the Narcissus myth into a new literary context. The semiotic approach on the text highlights the implication of the new meanings. Hypothesis: is to prove that the reactivation of an antic myth in a new literary material brings new meanings even contradictory with the well-known connotation of the certain subject involved. Values: the reception of positive symbolic versus pejorative connotation of Narcissus myth. New artistic constructive narcissism values derives from myth by activating the interpretation departed from the symbolic context. Conclusion: the primitive myth serves to literature to reform new meanings. Meeting point between: the preservation of the mythical old script with his literary transformation brings new literary myth rebuild. The new one is the base for the literary work as E. Koliqi's poetic proses are. There are stored some elements, but essentially mythical meaning has changed as far as the new context has no more connection with the first one from it was derived.

Keywords: Narcissus myth, literary myth, transformation, reactivation, new meaning.

1. Introduction

The World Literature has reactivated the myths back into contemporary time with different purposes, even with their meaning upside down. In any literature are found glorious works, based on the myths of different cultures, activated in many different shapes: covered, shimmered, degraded or not, their symbolism creates new creature. Researchers agree that literary works, a good part of them, consist of a subject taken from a borrowed cultural tradition, in any case they are not created *ex nihilo*, but the source, status, way of treatment, the extent of the presence of this substance are still a controversial issue.¹

The myth of Narcissus, as part of Greek mythology, with its symbolism became an inspiring legacy for artists. He has known a life, a survival, and a rebirth, as well. When you enter inside the poetic prose of *Seven Mirrors of Narcissus*, a transfer of thought linking to this myth necessarily occurs.

But the key issue here is the meaning and interpretation of such reactivations in Koliqi poetic prose, the understanding and interpretation of which is often linked to the symbolic level. This kind of reactivation preserves the initial schemes, but also transforms their parts by adding new values and considerations, depending on the purpose of the new poetry as a myth of culture and as a contribute to the creation of intellectual identity.

2. The Reactivation and Reinterpretation of Ancient Myths

The work of art is created in order to serve as a message²(Gould, E., 1981). It comes in its real and artistic context. Koliqi takes from Greek mythology, the myth of Narcissus³ and redefines it in his poetic prose. In this regard, we can initiate a

¹ Chevrel, Y. Letërsia e krahasuar, Tiranë, 2002, f.88

² Gould, E. Mythical Intentions in Modern Literature, USA: Princeton University Press, 1981, f.17

³ Narcissus was the son of nymph Liriope and the God rivers' Cephissus. Tiresia, the blind predictor foretells to the nymph Liriope that Narcissus could live much longer if he would never recognize himself. He was very handsome and had many worshipers of both sexes who sought to win his affection. But Narcissus rejected them, as he did with the nymph Eco. Many of those who were refused sought

comparison approach, to prove how similar these two myths come in two different eras, through the re-functionalization and semantic subversion.

In one variant of the ancient myth of Narcissus it is reported that Narcissus died, just after he was introduced to himself.

*Narcissus is the son of the river's God Cephissus and the nymph Lirioppe. He was going to live very long if he hadn't seen himself*⁴. All known versions of him, although with changes, imply the same conclusion. Various aspects of the interpretation of this myth are united with the symbol. In the world literature, the myth of Narcissus is re-functionalized also at G. D'Annunzio, Paul Valery, etc., with different valence. Because, as Philippe Sellier states, it is not enough to reactivate an ancient myth, in order to consider it as a literary myth. The term "*literary myth*" is used in this case for what lies on the borders of "literary time and space", as part of a cultural tradition. Literary myth, adds to the primitive myth, new meanings⁵. It is important that this re-activation is due to the existence of a centralized scenario, an extremely stable organization.

On the other hand literary myth, adds to the primitive myth new meanings. As stated from Pierre Albouy, there is no such point of a literary myth without a "palingenesis", which revives the myth in an era where there it is able "to express the problems of this age."⁶. Literary works are constructed thanks to the decomposition of hidden messages in text closely associated with the author's artistic consciousness.

3. Transformation into a Literary Myth

The purpose of a thematic study, according to Trousson, is the interpretation of variations and metamorphoses of a literary theme over time, in light of their connections with historical contextual orientation, The The The purpose of a thematic study, according to Trousson, is the interpretation of variations and metamorphoses of a literary theme over time, in light of their connections with historical contextual orientation, ideological and intellectual, thus highlighting *the adaptation of the building elements of the theme to the transformation of the ideas and customs and to the dynamic and developing character, which is the essence of the topic*⁷. Thus, according to him, the literary themes are related to the hero and situation. Trousson unites the topic with the myth, distinguishing two types of topics, (or myths): 1) – myths of heroes, 2) – myths of situations. Ernest Koliqi takes the myth of Narcissus and giving him special values, but at the same time respecting the situation of this myth (bending at the reflective surface of water, although sometimes is water and

Ernest Koliqi re-activates the myth of Narcissus, giving him special values, but at the same time respecting the situation of this myth (bending at the reflective surface of water, although sometimes is water and sometimes is a mirror (*An old mirror from Shkodra*) and sometimes a glass (*The glass of my window*). So, Koliqi myth retains the traditional form as a situation myth - in this myth the hero depends on the situation that he creates, so he may not be independent of it. He should have relations with this situation. Here is the situation of inflection to himself; here and so (with the reflective surface and inflection) Koliqi will find his face. In the context of inseparable duality image-reflection, as well as classification of literary myths, in the work of Koliqi, this myth except existing as a situation myth, it justifies the other type of myth, the one of a hero.

Therefore, it is a hero-myth, because it is related to a mythical figure, in this kind of myth, the hero is independent of the situations or contexts, becoming a typical embodiment of an idea. This myth is related to the image of Narcissus, who is the embodiment of someone loving himself. But Koliqi shifts from the scope of the lovers. He loves artistic identity more than himself. This search process is connected with art in general and poetry in particular. The poetic, the ideal, the new, the beautiful are all parts of "the re-functioning myth heroes".

a kind of punishment for him. So it happened when Narcissus, one day wandering through the forest, encountered a bright silver source of water unpolluted by shepherds and birds, located in the middle of a very dense forest, which was not permeable by sunlight. Here when satisfying his thirst Narcissus saw the reflection of his image in the water, and after that he felt in love with himself. At first he was seeking to embrace the stunning image of a boy, but when later recognized himself, he died of despair. There were the Dryads and Naiads those who found him dead, but they would not be able to make him the funeral honors, because he soon transformed into a flower, which took his name.

⁴ Barbara Colonna. *Fjalor mitologjik*, Tiranë, 2005, p. 242.

⁵P. Brunel. *Mythocritique*. Paris, PUF, 1992, f.137

⁶ P. Brunel. *Mythocritique*. Paris, PUF 1992, f.37

⁷ Anna Trocchi. *Temi e miti letterari nē: Letteratura comparata* (gr. Aut.) Milano: Garzanti, 2002, f. 66.

4. Confrontation: Protection and Innovation

But how does this myth comes to the poetic proses of Ernest Koliqi?

In the cultural path, myth is an authority, a reference more or less permanent, which tends towards repetition, towards ritualization.⁸ It is the maintainance of the rite of reflection and differentiation of action modalities, the similarity and main difference. Practically, this myth takes you into a mysterious territory, to that of symbolic images, to poetry and dreams. On the other hand, the name of Narcissus, sends the thoughts to a hidden and dark origin, since the Greek etymology of the name is narké, or "numbness", "dormancy" of the same origin with the word narcotics. There is a paradox, but Narcissus myth tells us that this pairing of images is not only an external coupling, but its part in "darkness", discovered by the purity of the water, unknown hidden part, deep and underdeveloped it is the one from which he remains attracted. (Narké)

The ancient Narcissus is a teenager, not an adult, not a child. An age when the person tries to know himself, his relevant identity, existing affiliation in life as an individual before he reaches the responsibility of adults and definitions that takes his life. At this stage he is still subject to the unknown forces, arising from ongoing call of the water symbolism. The transformation itself of the boy into a flower, in the mythological context, it is a displacement. It is the spring that brings blossoms; viewed as a season where nature seems uncertain in its beginning, but safe for its awakening from hibernation.

Identification of own self inside a character known for his positivity and negativity at the same time makes it difficult, but not impossible maturation through thought, action, reaction. The myth of Narcissus comes to the description of the source as a place unreachabe by sunlight, totally fittable to reflect the image of Narcissus. So the place is dark and reflective. But in this context, isn't it also in the mirror of the first poetic prose : *Waters of the well* of Koliqi? Wasn't it the smooth dark mysterious water, after which Narcissus was fatally attracted to? Even at Koliqi work it feels the attraction beyond what can be seen, toward the unknown, the unseen, mysterious, because only in half dark one can recognize ownself.

According to American researcher Eric Gould, art makes the transition from the sacred to the daily⁹. External indicators such as age, passion, vigor of youth of this character connect him with Narcissus as a protagonist and as an explorer of himself. Then, the psychological proceeding differentiate him from the fate of the first and gives a different way from the ancient character. His experiences through reflections and meditations in order to recognize and search the real truth, just keep the symbolism, and change the course.

In Koliqi's mirrors an inversion of the pejorative aesthetics of this figure occurs. The Greek Narcissus commences as a "hero" (in the positive sense of the protagonist and ends as an "antihero", referring to his tragic fate), whereas at Koliqi's prose the recognition process begins with an "antihero" (naive guy, self-admirer). Successive reflections make him grow; make him a "hero" (associated with prudence, perfection and balance that he achieves). Putting the human in the center of attention, recognizing trends of internal knowledge of its own, justifies the defining that Koliqi make to his poems, as "poetic memoirs", the purpose of which is knowing the human nature through themselves.

The emergence of the death concept refers to an evolutionary change or transformation. Narcissus must die in order to give life to an adult. His immature form is embedded in the emblematic image of the flower. This way we can interpret Greek narcissism referring to the human personality in relation to the commencement of Koliqi's prose (*Mirror One*). So far, we are still in a primal myth and general parallels.

When analyzing the poetics of Narcissus myth and consider the concept of poetry as palimpsest¹⁰, then it is understandable why the world art is revitalized through fables of mythical subjects, thus being adapted and shaped as authorial poetics as we may say for the poetic prose of Koliqi. It is not the coldness, asceticism or self-loving that give colorful images of Narcissus; these are not conveyed in art and poetry.¹¹

The reflection at the work of Koliqi has a relative and moral extension to seven different situations. This literary myth, or "subject" as Trousson labels it, keeps three basic functions of ethnic-religious myth throughout his seven poetic prose; the narrative function which has to do with the mythical scenario (the situation of bending, reflection from the mirror), the explanatory function (granted from a known source) and the third function, the revelation one, concerned with the eradication of sacra's function. This function is directly connected to re-significations.

⁸ Rousseau, Pichois, Brunel. Qu'est-ce que la littérature comparee?, Paris, 1996

⁹ Eric Gould. Mythical intentions in modern literature. USA, Princeton University Press, f. 171

¹⁰ Persida Asllani. Poetika si palimpsest dhe historia e letërsisë shqipe në: Konferenca Shkencore - Historia e Letërsisë Shqipe, Prishtinë, 2010, f.135.

¹¹ Herbert Marcuse, Erosi dhe qytetërimi. Tiranë,UEGEN, 2008, f. 164

The mythical circumstances (Brunel) inside a text can be inserted or hidden. In this case the "reconstruction" of the original myth can add "underground" shades or some elusive ones holding a "radiant power" so strong and central on the basis of which, the reference to the mythical element results as being very remote. So, in Mirror One we will be confronted with the *Narcissus as a dreamer*.... Narcissus of Koliqi has a similar origin to that of ancient myth, if not the loving process, that of consent or refusal of mirror-reflection, for sure.

Very soon this Narcissus will break links with the ancient one showing a sort of autonomy. The poetic Narcissus of Koliqi will go through different experiences that will change his ways of life. Unlike the ancient myth where he dies, Koliqi's Narcissus will live and will be reborn, because ultimately he is a free and modern Narcissus, of universal thoughts and not confusion of feelings. It therefore comes with a reversal of previously recognized connotation. This new feature of primal myth that connects the creative process of Koliqi with the connotation that Narcissus won in the contemporary myth, known as the (complex) myth of culture. This is a new way of perception. The simple structure of the ancient Greek myth, treated by Koliqi gains new values and it is not isolated or customized.

Thus, he goes from mythical context to the literary one. Philippe Sellier has distinguished some substantial changes between "ethnic-religious" and literary myth (Literature, 1984). According to Brunel: the "ethnic-religious" myth is a founding, anonymous and collective confession, considered as true, that while being analyzed some strong structural opposition appear. When myth goes to literature, it maintains "the symbolic saturation", the tight organizing and metaphysical light, but losing the founder character and the real (genuine) one among others, the works are signed and authored.¹² The modern European culture has re-functionalized many pagan myths going through metamorphosis and more universal archetypes are created. The literary fable seems, however, as a mythological story; then the literary qualities of myth and mythical qualities of literature should be close to similar.¹³

Even in our case the use of this myth is a variation of "confession" that means different things to different cultures. So therefore this archetype will not be the myth of Narcissus but transformation of human into another human being, even within a different natural realm.

It has also maintained a symbolic value, for our times as well. This is achieved by Koliqi by re-activation of this myth. Pierre Brunel, points out the major role played by literature and the arts (nowadays by the cinema, too); the role of the guardian of myths. This is why we say that literature "overlays" myth, keeping it alive.¹⁴

5. Resignification

The transition of the character "I", from one text to another, grouping according to topics, messages, creating a subjected framework to connect a series of charges that have essential autonomy makes the prose coherent as a whole. There are three forms of the interior of the man who Koliqi embodies in his mirrors providing so a separation from the end of the ancient pagan myth: desire, ability and obligation.

Desire – the form known as the cliché I want to do. So he *wants wisdom*, (Mirror One- *Water of the Well*), *universal harmony* (Mirror Three), *to achieve a successful poetry* (Mirror Five), *to achieve the clean man, dreams*, (Mirror Six), *to realize itself without conflicts* (Mirror Seven) etc.

Ability – the can-do option. The Narcissus of Koliqi can *revive the beautiful things of the past* (Mirrors Two, Three) can *find the required position* (Mirror Six), can *achieve the required beauty* (Mirror Six, Seven), etc.

Necessity – the must-do option. For example at Mirror Seven, he must face the harsh reality. Thus, in analogy with the ancient myth of Koliqi's Narcissus is one of internal clashes and uncertainties but the independence in the poetic prose of modern Narcissus is strengthened by opposition, reflecting to find the best solution, or at least to challenge what is impossible to change. Unlike the ancient Narcissus, the poetic Narcissus of Ernest Koliqi's prose chooses the path of freedom, new world and challenges to understand and reconcile with self.

If there is something consistent in studies of myth, it is that there can be no myth without an ontological gap between the event and the significance of this event. Myth tends to be a symbolic representation suitable to fill that gap, aiming to be tautology.

A failure to define the origin, the arbitrary meaning of our place in the world, determines the mythical, at least in the sense that we cannot clearly identify and secure a definitive origin of ourselves in the world. Thus, the myth is a compromise and a hypothesis too. Its meaning is always open and universal because as soon as an ultimate meaning is missing, the gap itself requires interpretation, which can go on and on, because language is a system of an open

¹² P. Brunel. Le dictionnaire des mythes littéraires, Paris: Éditions du Rocher, 1988, f.13

¹³ Eric Gould. Mythical intentions in modern literature, USA, f.177

¹⁴ A. Pierre. Mythes et mythologies dans la littérature française, 1969, reed.1980, f.72

meaning.¹⁵

Building on a remote culture is the first step which identifies the element that is borrowed from the comparative study. A myth is borrowed here, symbolically dressed with a new connotative meaning.

In the analyzed poetic prose we encounter a Narcissus, in love, but not with himself. He needs to take seven meditations to reach logical and sound conclusions. As a result of those, seven reflections are created. There will merge and become as a uniform his intellectual world, (a sensitive and gifted poet); his spiritual affiliation, (being Albanian) and the world of artistic sensations, (his vast culture.) The poet's perception and his findings have no restrictions of any kind.

Re-activation of this myth at Koliqi's work shows the volatility of his intellectual image. It is reflected in various meditational situations to find beauty, aesthetics and to give life to the rhythm of poetry, the vast marine space, darkness and mimics of a human body.

It seems like the poetics of water of Narcissus – is formed in the poetics of soil, rock and its roots. So, Koliqi builds a world of his own, where space and time become relative.

6. Conclusion

In modern literature the borrowed myth, as in this case, is used with different valence adapted to time and situation. The rebuilt literary myth can only be studied in the intersection of two complementary processes: maintenance of a scenario and its transformation.¹⁶

"Seven Mirrors of Narcissus" holds an important position among the Albanian works in the way of treatment of the myth and innovations it brings. During this process the myth retains the element of the borrowing, but also develops the way it is integrated into the text either as a concept or as a component, exploring new functions free of pagan myth.

Narcissus himself is a symbol – a myth of desire through which Koliqi, in every Mirror, brings to us the desire, rush, energy and the impossibility to realize them as well. There lies the essence of the complexes; desire to be, to do and to change a reality that does not promise much. In this way it is projected the dual nature of this myth. Koliqi tries to find a balance between his existence as an artist and intellectual and the real opportunities to reveal. He sees himself as being fulfilled if his intellectual side balances his artistic one. Koliqi tries to find a balance between his existence as an artist and intellectual and the real opportunities to reveal. In the modern world the image of Narcissus represents the Complex of culture embedded in two elements of myth: 1 –The ability to see in a reflective surface, 2 - Water as a symbol consists of the essence of instability of poetic dimension where the writer sees himself.

The solution of his complex of culture and intellectualization comes through the inner voice. The inner voice of Koliqi refers to the muse of poetry and pure art, which therefore is in fact the voice of his soul. He would perpetuate this voice associating it with a strange reality that is concrete, historical and mythical. This interior voice is the voice of thoughts of rescue, feelings and belongings. In the poetic prose, life experience will be sublimed with the artistic one. All this is due to the fact that a simple pagan myth is overlaid with a new philosophical meaning while maintaining its structural elements such as: the bending ritual and the reflection process. These structural elements redefine the new literary myth, the symbolic essence of study and interpretation of seven meditations of Ernest Koliqi.

Seven artistic meditations of Ernest Koliqi artistically written as seven poetic proses particularly brought innovation and individuality in the Albanian literature where the essential tool is redefinition and revitalization of a familiar myth through a new literary re-activation, sometimes maintaining the symbolism and other times playing with its connotation.

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¹⁵ Gould, Eric; *Mythical intentions in modern literature*, USA, f.6

¹⁶ Brunel, P. *Mythocritique*, France, 1992, f.37

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The Potential of Arabic as a Tourism Language in Malaysia

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Abstract

Use of Arabic language is seen as to play its role in Malaysian tourism industry. It is common that Arabic is the language of communication for Arab tourists with tourism agents and members of the public such as taxi drivers, traders, security officers and so on. The objective of this study is to evaluate the potential of Arabic language in Malaysian tourism industry. This study used both quantitative and qualitative using questionnaire and interview instruments. As for the quantitative data, the sampling technique involves 10 tourists whereas for the qualitative data an officer from the Islamic Tourism Center was interviewed. It was found in this study that the potential of Arabic language in the tourism industry was most encouraging. The number of the Arab tourists coming to visit is seen to be increasing if related information that was needed by the tourists can be introduced in Arabic such as in the form of brochures and signboards as well as television programmes. Besides, Arabic language was expected to be able to create job opportunities for the local people and subsequently to be able to increase the national economy.

Keywords: *potential, tourism, Arabic language, tourism language, types of tourism.*

1. Introduction

Language is a medium to spread information. The use of Arabic language in tourism sector seems to play an important

role. It was used during communication, advertising, management and to spread information. Arabic language can be considered as a second language for certain population in Malaysia. Any second language learning was eventually to achieve proficiency in using that language practically. Linguist from this group considered second language as a tool, and important tool to help us to achieve many objectives or to get successful in our career (Zulkifley, 2000). Effective communication method was very important in boosting the market value of any tourist guide and individual or those who were involved, as well as interesting advertisement that will increase the number of Arab tourist to Malaysia. Proficiency in using Arabic language will eventually helps in terms of promoting the history, culture and heritage of any tourism spot. It will also contribute to the growth of tourism industry in any nation. Apart from that, a comprehensive and strategic management method as well as effective information delivery will lead to positive impact on increasing the quantity of tourists from the Middle East.

This can be proven with a statistic from the ministry of tourism where there are only 245,302 Arab tourist in the year 2007 but for the year 2008, the number increased to 264,338. The number continuously increased to more than 248,890 tourists in the year 2009. According to Badaruddin (2008) certain people predict that tourism sectors will always develop and will last for eternity. Many predict that the number of foreign tourist will keep on increasing.

In order to meet the expectation and the hope of the Malaysian government, this study can become a measure stick to the factors that lead to the increase of tourist from West Asia especially to Malaysia. It is because of the potential and the role of Arabic language itself in tourism industry in Malaysia. It covers the aspects of the usage of Arabic language among tourist guides, personnels at the tourism center's counters, public departments and public universities as well as private universities. This study utilized both the questionnaires and interview method. The related literature review shows that Arabic language play an important role in tourism sectors, creating job opportunities and contribute the national economic growth. As stated by Ahmad Shuib & Noor Aziz (1989) there are five main benefits from the development of tourism industry that is, contributed to national balance of payments, the development of non industrial area, creating job opportunities, increasing the revenue to the whole economy through impact multipliers and helps social growth.

2. Statement of Problems

There were previous studies about the potential of communicational Arabic language as a language of tourism that contribute to tourism sectors and local communities in the aspects of socio economy and culture. Findings by Kurt et al (2012) stated that the improvement in working skills and customer communication will contribute to the increasing number of the tourists. There were so many problems and difficulties in tourism management due to the lack of observation from those involved parties in taking actions to find the solutions.

According to the statistic by the Malaysian Ministry of Tourism, there have been an increasing numbers of Arab tourists to Malaysia from year to year. This matter is due to the 9-11 tragedy that leads more Arab tourists come to Malaysia. The data from the Malaysian ministry of tourism have shown that only 245,302 Arab tourists visited Malaysia in the year 2007. But for the year 2008, the figure changed to 264,338. For the year 2009, the figure increased to 284,890 although the data achieved only from January to October 2009 (the ministry stated that the data for November and December 2009 cannot be access due to technical problems). Ahmad Azmi (2009) in his article entitled *Marketing Malaysia To The Middle East Tourist: Towards A Preferred Inter-Regional Destination* estimated that as many as 35 million Arab tourists the the Middle East will come to Malaysia by the year 2020.

The presence of these Arab tourists clearly requires preparation and cooperation from all of us and the use of Arabic language must be improved however many from those who have to deal with Arab tourists are not be able to communicate in Arabic. Based on the information from the tourism guide and tourism centers, they were having problems in certain aspects such as having tourist guides that possess high proficiency in Arabic, tourism information in Arabic and last but not least the staff who are good in Arabic. Up until now, there are programmes related to tourism and exploration in public and private universities such as at UiTM, polytechnics and community college. However, the community college still did not put the Arabic modules in their programmes. Based on previous studies, such as by Lazim (2000) stated that the development of other languages such as Arabic was quite isolated and neglected and the Arabic lessons have become static and imbalanced. According to Nik Farhan (2002), students from Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) were still weak in Arabic morphology, although they were taking Bachelor Degree in Arabic Literature. Moreover, a study done by Nurazan (2004) stated that the students from Sultan Zainal Abidin Islamic College (KUSZA) were having many obstacles affecting their Arabic lesson such as, low input environment, very short class lesson, unstable syllabus, lack of quality materials and so on. These situations contributed to the low level of Arabic proficiency whether from the aspect of

speaking, reading and writing. This study will clarify the importance of focusing on Arabic language in tourism sectors in higher learning institutions that offered tourism and exploration related programmes.

Based on the statement of problems above it can be concluded that the number of Arab tourists visiting Malaysia should be improved by making effective planning in the aspect of Arabic language, providing suitable facilities and proper arrangement of related events. Because of that a study to identify the potential of Arabic language in Malaysia' tourism industry should be conducted. This study will explore deeper on the usage of Arabic language in related areas.

3. Previous Studies

Past studies have been referred to ensure the validity and the originality of this study. There were many thesis and articles based on the study of Arabic language and its relation in tourism. However specific studies on the potential of Arabic language as a language of tourism have not been conducted so far. The previous studies were focusing on tourism centers, the importance of Arabic language and career prospects among students in higher learning institution and also teaching and learning Arabic for specific purposes.

A study on Malaysia Tourism Center (MTC) as the tourist information center has been conducted by Hazlin (2007) by looking at responses among travelling agencies. That particular study focussed on the role of MTC and the results have suggested a few measures for the improvement and the effectiveness of MTC as a tourist information centre. He have stressed out on the five aspects that need to be emphasized by any tourism centre which are strategic and suitable location, complete and detailed information, effective promotions, physical attraction and events as well as the services/facilities offered.

The next previous study based on a journal entitled *The Importance of Arabic Language in Malaysian Tourism Industry: Trend During 1999-2004* by Azman Che Mat, Azman Zakaria and Kamaruzaman Jusoff. Their article was published in the Journal of Canadian Social Science in 2009 and that particular journal discussed on the importance of Arabic language in tourism industry in Malaysia. This journal recorded that since the year 2000, the number of Arab tourists who have visited Malaysia have been increased to 156,000 and each tourist have spent about RM5, 000.00 per trip and it clearly shows the potential and the importance of Arabic language usage in Malaysian tourism sector. Moreover, the use of Arabic language specifically in tourism industry will become a big opportunity for Malaysia in terms of improving the tourism industry and boosting the economic growth.

Meanwhile an article entitled *The use of Arabic language in the communication among tourist guides towards promoting Malaysia* by Zalika Adam have been published in the year 2009. In this article, she has stressed out the aspect on the use of Arabic language as a medium language in promoting Malaysia among tourists from West Asia. This article explained clearly on the importance of Arabic language among future tourist guide to compete themselves in tourism sectors. They were considered as an agent or as a small ambassador in promoting Malaysia in the eyes of the world. Therefore related knowledge about Malaysia especially the historical facts that will be passed to the tourist guide must be paralled with the target needs thus following the specific guidelines.

Another study conducted by Lazim (2000) and he had already studied and analyzed about the needs of studying Arabic language apart from the need of stying Arabic language for Islamic related studies. His findings showed that the purpose and the objective of Arabic language programmes in Malaysia only focussed on the need to understand and to appreciate the religion of Islam. Based on his study, he also found out that the purposes and the learning objectives are not paralled to the student's need and the learning and teaching approaches were not suitable with the bacis principal of the formation of syllabus and Arabic language teaching methodology as a second language.

In general, all the previous studies did not really focussed on the potential of Arabic language as a language of tourism as being proposed for this particular study. Therefore this study will emphasize on the potential of Arabic language as a language of tourism in Malaysia.

4. Purpose of Study

The main purpose of this study is to study about the potential of Arabic language usage in tourism industry and the related job opportunities especially in Malaysia.

5. Objective of Study

This study has been conducted in order to fulfil the following objectives:

- i. To identify the needs on the use of Arabic language in the communication among individual or unit and department that was related to tourism.
- ii. To see the relationship between student's job opportunities when they possess good oral communication skills.
- iii. To propose the strategies that need to be implemented in order to improve the communication skills for the enhancement of the tourism industry.

6. Research Methodology

This study will only focus on the use of Arabic language as an oral communication tool among tourists. The sample for this study consists of 10 Arabic tourists and the selection of the samples was made by purposive sampling, where a group of subjects that possess a certain characteristic only then will be selected as respondents. According to Ahmad Sunawari (2009), purposive sampling is a chosen sample based on the desired criteria determined by the researcher in conjunction with the purpose and the objective of the study. For this study, the researchers have determined some of the following criteria against the respondent that later on will become a sample, these include:

- i. 12 years of age and above.
- ii. Tourism that can be categorized as sustainable tourism, heritage tourism, environmental tourism, ethnic and cultural tourism and medical tourism. Therefore educational tourism is not listed in the sample of this study.
- iii. Stayed in Malaysia for at least three days or more.

In order to achieve the desired information the researchers have used the same type of question only however it was according to the different situations and places.

1. Do you have problems in oral communication when you are at the airport?
2. Do you have problems in oral communication when you are at the hotel (accommodation)?
3. Do you have problems in oral communication when you are dealing with the tourist guide?
4. Do you have problems in oral communication when you are dealing with the taxi driver?
5. Do you have problems in oral communication when you are at the market?

In addition, an officer from the *Islamic Tourism Centre* (ITC) was interviewed for the sake of this study. ITC was created to improve Islamic tourism in Malaysia. The interview was a face-to-face interaction between the researcher and the respondent. The interview session was held in order to obtain information from the respondent orally (Chua 2006). The question that was asked in relation to this study is: What are the common problems faced by the Arab tourists when they are in Malaysia?

Due to the limitation of this preliminary study only one officer from ITC and only 10 Arabic tourists have been successfully interviewed.

7. Location of the Study

This study has been conducted at the location mostly at the hotels around Kuala Lumpur. The researchers decided to choose the hotels around Kuala Lumpur due to the heavy population of Arab tourists around the particular area.

8. Findings of Study

The findings have been categorized into several situations and settings such as at the airports, hotels, dealing with tourist guides and taxi drivers and also at the market:

Airport: The data showed that 70% of the respondents were having communication problems at the airport. 30% of the respondents admitted that they were not having any problems in communication at the airport.

Hotel (accommodation): The data analysis indicated that 80% of the respondents reported that they were having communication problems when they are at the hotels as compared to 20% of the respondents that did not have communication problems.

Tourist Guide: Based on the findings, it clearly showed that 80% of the respondents claimed that they were having some sort of communication problems while dealing with the tourist guide and the rest 20% of the respondents seemed not to have any problem while dealing with the tourist guide.

Taxi Driver: 90% of the respondents stated that they were having communication problems while dealing with taxi drivers and only 10% of them who did not have any problems dealing with taxi drivers.

Market : The findings showed that 80% of the respondent were indeed having communication problems while shopping but the rest 20% of respondents did not having any communication problem while shopping at the market.

The above findings also indicated that the skills in Arabic language are very important and those who were involved in tourism sectors should be able to possess the skills especially the Malaysian citizen so that they can communicate in Arabic better.

Based on the interview with an officer from ITC, he claimed that among the common problems faced by the Arab tourists are:

- i. Lack of hotel staff that can communicate in Arabic.
- ii. No Arabic channel at the hotel.
- iii. Tourist guide with low proficiency in Arabic
- iv. Taxi drivers cannot speak Arabic.
- v. Tourist police cannot communicate in Arabic
- vi. Lack of signboard in Arabic

This study showed that the use of Arabic language is very important especially in a communication at certain places as well as in certain situations such as at the hotel, market, airport and also in the form of signboards and brochures. Therefore, graduates from higher learning institutions were needed to tackle the problems.

9. Discussion of Finding

Based on the preliminary study conducted in the form of survey and interview, it was very important for those who were related in tourism sectors that dealt with Arab tourists to improve their Arabic skills. Most of the Arab tourists arrived in Malaysia by Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA) and that was the place where they eventually started their first perception about Malaysia. The services whether in the form of Arabic signboards or effective Arabic communication should be taken into consideration. According to the interview with an officer from the ITC, it shows that many Arab tourists who visited this country cannot speak in English. Ahmad Shuib (1989) stated, the development of tourism industry depended on many contributing factors such as ease of access, good infrastructures and also recreational facilities. It has been proven that the proficiency in Arabic language played an important role that contributed to the smooth communication and also when dealing with Arab tourists. The same goes to the other infrastructure facilities such as signboards and also brochures in Arabic. The information portrayed in the signboards and brochures needs to be grammatically correct (phonetic and phonology), especially when its related to the name of places (local name). Otherwise, the pronunciation will become weird and not so accurate in terms of describing any local area or any local tourist attraction spot. Furthermore, local people will not be able to help foreign tourist when they cannot even pronounce the correct name of the place that they were looking for. Muhammad Fauzi (2010)

This study also found out that it was very hard for the Arab tourists to get information at the hotels using the Arabic language; due to lack of professional staff that possesses high proficiency in Arabic. Such problem occurred perhaps due to their learning styles at school or higher learning institution. According to a study by Ghazali, Nik Mohd Rahimi, Parilah, Muhammad Arsyad and Wan Haslina (2012), they found out that the textbooks were widely used in Arabic lesson at UiTM. Textbooks based learning however have it own weakness or disadvantage such as : lack of authentic elements, only encourage the formal usage of the language that later on will lead to negative effects on the use of higher cognitive strategies and the students are like bounded solely on the contents from the textbooks that were not really exposed to the current developments.

The use of Arabic language among the tourist guide are also potential in attracting more Arab tourist to come here because tourist guide can be considered as agents in promoting Malaysia to the whole world. Therefore the information about Malaysia especially the historical facts that will be delivered by the tourist guide must be accurate as well as following the desired guidelines. Tourist guide must possess some sort of certificate so that they will be able to deliver the information requested by the tourists in more effective manner. Apart from that, tourist guide needs to improve their language proficiency in the target language so that they will be able to spread the information more clearly and in more comprehensive ways (Zalika, 2009).

For the taxi drivers, only some of them were able to communicate in Arabic. Based on the survey only 10% of the tourists did not have problem dealing with taxi drivers. Ahmad Azmi & Mohd Safar (2009) suggested that proper training should be give to taxi drivers especially on how to deal with Arab tourist. That training could either being conducted by the Malaysian authority or perhaps by the taxi companies. The training should not be limited to the Arabic culture and communication but also improving customer services. Negative feedbacks have been recorded stating that the elements

of discrimination in taxi services still occurred among foreign tourists.

This study also indicated that many Arab tourists were having problems during their shopping at the market. Most of them came here for shopping and also to buy Malaysian products, so the market and the shopping complex will become their main destination in Malaysia. For example in Kuala Lumpur, popular tourist attractions include Petaling Street, Central Market, Bukit Bintang and Mid Valley.

The ministry of tourism outlined 12 starting project (EPP) that covered five broad themes in order to fulfil the many needs of tourist, such as shopping lovers, nature lovers, business exploration and whole family vacation. The very first theme was related to the marketing or purchasing which are affordable luxury goods. Into the realization of this theme, three starting project have been identified. Firstly, making Malaysia as a duty free shopping destination for tourism related items. Secondly, by making the Kuala Lumpur City Center and Bukit Bintang as a happening shopping precinct and thirdly by opening another three premium business outlets in Malaysia (Ministry of Tourism). Therefore many aspects need to be improved including the usage and the proficiency in Arabic language among local people especially the merchants or traders at the shopping malls.

10. Significance of Study

It was hoped that this study will be beneficial by encouraging high school graduates in taking exploration and tourism related courses. Next, promoting proficiency in Arabic among individuals, units and departments related to tourism and also by giving ideas to academicians especially linguists in developing more strategic Arabic language learning methods to towards enhancing the proficiency in Arabic language especially for tourism.

11. Suggestions

Proficiency in Arabic language among individuals or related work force in tourism industry should be stress out during studies at the higher learning institutions and they need to be trained in the actual Arabic language usage rather than just theories. This study suggested that Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education should established courses or Arabic language learning institutes for the purpose of tourism because tourism industry have been giving impacts and long term economical effects to this country. According to Redzuan, Norlida Hanim, Emaliana and Mohd Safar (2011), tourists from West Asia recorded the highest expenses with the amount as much as RM7,968.60, followed by tourists from Australia (RM3, 981.70), United Kingdom (RM 3,699.00) and United States (RM2, 870.50). They also added that the effects of those tourists expenses towards Malaysian economy in overall was higher that the amount that they have spent because of the presence of spillover effects in the economy. This study also suggesting that Ministry of Tourism Malaysia (MOTOUR) to come out with special funds to attract Arab tourists such as the funds for publications and exhibitions, also funds for promotions in Arab countries and lastly for research purposes. For example, a study entitled "Study on Russia's Market-Malaysia Image and Development Strategies" by MOTOUR in its annual report (2009). That particular study was conducted to understand more deeper about the main segments in Russia's market and to plan promotion strategies that will be more focussed based on the most interesting market segments.

This type of study can be done towards Arab countries so that it will attract more Arab tourist to come here and based on the findings of this type of studies we will be able to identify the attractive features that needs to be given more attention and also needs to be improved.

Developing the tourism industry was an appropriate measure especially in this new millennium because going on a vacation in local or abroad has becoming a trend for most community in this world nowadays. It was in parallel with a study by Norlida et. Al in 2010 and she stated that the development of tourism industry in Malaysia were more significance in attracting foreign tourists as compared to foreign direct investment (FDI). World Trade Organization (WTO) predicted that between the year 2010 until 2020, the number of international tourist will increased to as much as 1, 560 millions (WTO 2009). Because of that, we need to improve our promotions in attracting international tourists especially from Arab countries in making Malaysia as a major tourist destination. There were many aspects that need to be concerned and required immediate actions and implementation. As stated by Norzalita, Ahmad Azmi and Tan (2009), there were more than half or 57% of their respondents claimed that Malaysia tourism products were not well managed and also poorly maintained by the involved parties. These includes hygiene and cleanliness, safety, basic facilities, accommodations and services offered.

12. Conclusion

In conclusion based on the study conducted, Arabic language proved to possess a very high potential in tourism industry in order to increase job opportunities, economic growth as well as promoting Malaysia in the eyes of the world. The history recorded that Arabic language once upon a time have become an international language or lingua franca that were used by many travellers throughout their journeys, vacations and explorations. In Malaysian context, Arabic language was not a really foreign language because it has been used since a quite period of time.

Due to the facts that tourists from West Asia possess a sturdy economy and since Malaysia was a country that maintain stability in economy, political and social, tourism sectors was indeed a very high potential to be developed. It was hoped that the findings of this study will be beneficial for many parties such as higher learning institutions and Motour in planning and promoting the use of Arabic language especially among students and staff or personnel related to tourism.

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The Relations of Albanian and Italian Language in Phraseology

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Abstract

The contacts of Albanian language with the Italian one are ancient; these contacts have become deeper starting from the seventeenth century and onwards. These contacts are related mostly with the culture of faith. As a necessity to translate the bible from Latin, also from Italian, into the Albanian language, there are compiled a lot of grammar books and dictionaries, notably Italian-Albanian dictionaries. Thus, at the beginning of eighteenth century, over 300 years ago, Da Lecce compiled not only an Albanian grammar, but also an Albanian-Italian dictionary. Twentieth century indicates the peak of these contacts. The exposure of Albania towards the Italian culture and heredity in the years '20, '30, made possible the opportunity to have distinguished Albanian authors to bring into Albanian language the top of Latin and Italian literature. This way the Albanian language responded to these languages with all its lexical semantic power and syntactical agility, showing an unimaginable creative ability. An aspect of this confrontation, of the creative, connotative and expressive ability of Albanian language is also shown in phraseological units. In our article we are focused on the Albanian – Italian phraseological confrontation. The material is mainly harvested from Italian- Albanian Phraseological Dictionary, compiled by Naim Balla, Eshref Ymeri e Irena Ndoci, because is the biggest phraseological dictionary with almost 20 000 units.

Keywords: Albanian and Italian phraseological units, borrowings and calques

1. Introduction

Albanian language is mostly known as a polysemantic language (due to its late documentation), but not as an idiomatic one.

However, in the Albanian Lexical File (located near the Albanian Institute of Language and Literature, in Tirana) over 30 thousand phraseological units are registered; the vast majority of them have an idiomatic value (that cannot be explained) as, alb: *i jap dum, bëj pallë, vë re, i bie legenit* etc.

A part of this fortune is registered, after being selected in explanatory dictionaries, near every word, when phraseology was created, but also in special dictionaries as that of Jani Thomai, with 11 thousand phraseological units.

We find the Albanian phraseology also in confrontation with other languages, as with English, Italian, French, Greek, etc.

As we noticed before, our attention is focused on revealing common and differences between Albanian and Italian phraseological units.

Therefore, beside the Italian- Albanian Phraseological Dictionary, we have also consulted other bilingual dictionaries, as the one of F. Leka, Z. Simoni; phraseological Italian dictionaries as the one of B. M. Quartu etc.

However, as a starting point for every possible comparison, for tracing and finding common features etc., in all cases has served the Albanian language.

We know that common features of these two languages come from the same indoeuropean origin. This also explain the analogies on the process of phraseological units creation.

Therefore, according to the linguist Jani Thomai (1981:240) should also be considered the origin of the the parts of these units. He says that the *linguistic realization can differ from proper nature of language* (of Albanian and Italian language, in our case), *from the structure and other features of phraseological units*. So, he speaks for a *typological borrowing (slavic) or latin on the Albanian phraseological units with (slavic) or latin lexical elements*.

2. The relationship between Italian and Albanian language in phrasology

Contemplating the Italian phrasology and dredging phrasological units, we have run into a lot of interesting occurrences as:

Mental conceptual similarities between our two nations have led into the creations of phraseological units with the same structure, as if it seems they have been translated from each other. This has happened because of the expansion of economical, cultural and spiritual relations to Italian nation, which have deep roots in history.

It is known that in phrasology, more than in separate words it displayed the national feature of language, the history of its development, ethno culture, the popular mentality and psychology.

According to researcher Jani Thomai (2006:203) "*these features resurfaced as well as in the starting point of the construction of phraseological units, also other sides of them*". Compared to the word that it is taken as "equivalence" (Thomai 1981:240) of phraseological unit, the phrasology has got great differing, emotional, expressive and stylistic values.

Knowing that Albanian and Italian language have been and also they are in continuous contact, a lot of the features of the two languages are characteristic as well as for one of them and also for the other.

So, we run into phraseological units that are used in both languages (as calques or as borrowings), as: *carta bianca; vox in deserto; colpo di stato; salto mortale; mi va via la testa, metterci una po' di testa; sulla faccia della Terra, Terra di nessuno; tempo perduto mai si riacquista; mancare un pelo* etj.

We already know the values of phraseological units, it brings enrichment and expansion of means of expression and also great values in the content and emotional coloration. It also brings subtle nuances of meaning and uses, the people judgement about things and people (Thomai 2006: 203).

Phrasology beautifies the lecture of the user of one language, either in simple, conversational, or artistic lecture.

Compared to other languages the Albanian one is very enriched in phraseological units and has an evaluated phraseological tradition (Memisha 2011: 81).

The phrasology is closely related to the human spirit, since it highlights for expressive. The phraseological "reserves" of one language are the source of knowledge of culture and mentality of people.

So, the phraseological units contain information about people ideas, lives, habits, moral, behavior, culture, history and consciousness etc. They may give information about the characteristic features of people, groups, but also about particular ethnicity.

In that view, the Italian people as the sequential of Romans, has got a very rich culture, much older, not only of Albanian people culture, but also of other European people.

So, Albanian language being in front of that language, will take a good part of its culture, ideas, behaviors, that will be transmitted through phraseological units.

At that moment it also displayed the occurrence of *linguistic relativism*, which the Albanian language has faced by tracing (translated word by word), or by creating special units under the pressure of Italian phrasology, as, alb: *çaj akullin, fjalët i merr era* etc.

The phraseological Albanian unit *fjalët i merr era* is a stunted structure of the Latin unit *verba volant, scripta manent*, which the Albanian language has adapted, giving in that way other possibilities for the remaining structures to enter in new lexicon-syntactic connections.

So, in Albanian this unit is used separately in the first part *fjalët i merr era*, but also in *e shkuara mbetet*.

3. Calques and borrowings

The Albanian language has borrowed and made its own property a lot of phraseological units, which are related to the Italian-Roman world, as for example: it: *dare a Cesare quel che e di Cesare*; alb: *jepi Çezarit atë që i takon Çezarit*; lat: *aut Caesar, aut nihil*; alb: *o Çezar o asgjë*; *Caesar laughs, Pompeu cries; Rome was not built in a day, mid-arts: lat. aura mediocritas*, etc.

We have got other phraseological borrowings or untranslated units mostly from Latin, but also from Italian, for example: lat: *ad incunabulis; ad augusta per augusta; ad hoc; ad usum Delphini; advocatus diaboli; alter ego; lama mater; aperto libro; ars longa; vita brevis; audiatur et altera pars; aurea mediocritas; avis rara; bos in lingua; caput mortuum; caput mundi; carpe diem; casus belli; castigat ridendo mores; circulus vitiosus; cogito ergo sum; consummatum est; de lana caprina; de te fabula narratur; deus ex machina; divide et impera; dixi et animam (mean) salvavi; ecce homo; errare humanum est; exegi monumentum; ex nihilo nihil fit; extra viros; fiat lux; flagrante delicto; fructus belli; fuit Troja;*

gutta cavat lapidem; hic sunt leones; homo homini lupus est; honoris causa; imperum in impera; incredibile dictum; in hoc signo vinces; in medias res; intra muros; in vino veritas; lapsus calami; lato sensu; magister dixit; manus manum lavat; mea culpa; mirabile dictum; modus vivendi; nec plus ultra; nil sub sole novum; nosce te ipsum; o tempora, o mores; pater patria; post festum; primus inter pares; punctum saliens; quod scripsi, scripsi; qio vadis?; spira, spera; summa cum laude; tabula rasa; urbi et orbi etc., it. dolce far niente; dulce in fundo, salto mortale etc.

A part of the units mentioned are used as calques and as borrowings. We can even use the same unit within a context in the both forms. This happens because it is felt necessary from the author to give the borrowing in Albanian, explaining it. Of the units used as

calques and borrowings we can mention: : *aura mediocritas; circulus vitiosus, o tempora, o mores; vox in deserto* etc.

It is worth mentioning that the Albanian has got a large number of phraseological units borrowed from Italian (Latin) notably in colloquialism. The Albanian language has translated and saved unchanged those units, which are widely used in press, translated literature, speeches, discussions, debates, interviews and other negotiation, notably in political, economical and social matters.

4. About the translation of the phraseology from Italian to Albanian

Our attention has been attracted by one last problem. The one who deals with translating must know the Italian and the Albanian very well. This is necessary, especially in phraseology, because, people misunderstand phraseological unit, which is a figurative transformation of two or more components of a syntagma, with minimal structures, where the figurative meanings occur.

This inconvenience reappears even when bi-lingual dictionaries are compiled. We have very qualitative dictionaries compiled by lexicographers, but also dilettante dictionaries, where a lot of problems appear, especially in phraseology.

In most cases when translating we can not find a "satisfactory" equivalence for the word, especially for the phraseological unit. The interpreters must be responsible, because we can not achieve the equality in some cases and this is possible with only some components of the phraseological units.

Phraseological units should be considered semantic units, because their meaning cannot be easily analyzed. Being such complex units, the translator has to find the equivalent in the proper language.

When talking about equivalence, we mean that of translating a situation with another one identically with it (Vinay, Darbelnet 1973: 25).

Another difficulty regarding to phraseology is that in many cases dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual dictionaries) can't help translators, because they give only the literal translation, without indicating the equivalence (Ulrych 1992:249).

We should consider that translation of phraseologisms is a very complicated problem. The dictionary we have taken into consideration (*Big phraseological dictionary Italian-Albanian*) made possible that a lot of Italian (Latin) phraseological units to be displayed and translated well into Albanian language. Right translation is stipulated with finding the most concordant and equivalent words. Some of right translating examples are shown below: *it: vendere cara la pelle - alb: e shet shtrenjtë lëkurën; it: alzare le mani su qualcuno- alb: vë dorë mbi dike, rrah, godas; it: uscire dal seminato - alb: dal nga tema; it: non c'è rimedio - alb: nuk ka ilaç; it: questo li serviva di scuola - alb: kjo do t'i shërbejë si mësim; it: portare uno alle stelle - alb: e ngre dike në qiell; it: proteggerli le spalle - alb: mbrojtje krahët; it: agire dopo le spalle - alb: vepron prapa krahëve; it: soffrire le pene di Tantalo - alb: shih me sy e plas me zemër; it: tu non sei da tanto - alb: nuk je nga ata burra ti; it: far da palo - alb: rri si dru; it: non avere la testa a posto - alb: nuk e kam kokën në vend; it: vedere lontano - alb: shoh larg; it: andare in tanto veleno - alb: bëhem pike e vrer etc.*

At the other part, there is the possibility of a non phraseological translation of a unit, especially in cases when the denotative meaning of the translation act is chosen as a dominant.

There are two possibilities in case of non phraseological translation: to make a lexical translation or to calque. Both cases are displayed when translating the Italian phraseologisms into Albanian. We have units used as calques, as: *aura mediocritas; circulus vitiosus, o tempora, o mores; vox in deserto* etc. The lexical translation consists in explicating through other words the denotative meaning of the phraseologism, as for example: *soffrire le pene di Tantalo - alb: shih me sy e plas me zemër; it: non c'è rimedio - alb: nuk ka ilaç* etc.

In fact, confronting Albanian and Italian language in phraseology we see that the equivalences of phraseological units in Albanian testify about the great asset of phraseology of Albanian language and in front of Italian phraseology

they form verses synonymous in a lot of cases.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion we might say that Albanian language in confrontation with the Italian displays a lot of interesting phenomena. This way the Albanian language responded to Italian language with all its lexical semantic power and syntactical agility, showing an unimaginable creative ability. In many cases, phraseologisms are translated into Albanian, meanwhile in other cases, as Latin phraseologisms they are used unchanged. There are also other cases when these units are used both as calques or borrowings.

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Empowering Youth Volunteerism: The Importance and Global Motivating Factors

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Abstract

The positive impacts that volunteerism carries are undeniable, as it does not only mould quality human capital for the nation, but through it, we are also preparing future generation to lead the country. Malaysia currently has 1.2 million university students, however, unfortunately there is a lack of recent study of the involvement of the university students in volunteerism. Realizing the importance of the involvement of the undergraduate student in volunteerism as it acts as a tool to inculcate the sense of morality in self and social responsibility towards the country, this study seeks to highlight the importance of volunteerism as a tool for educating the youth. It also analyzes a global overview of youths volunteerism with a comparison being made to the local scenario. Most importantly, factors that motivated them in volunteering are also discussed so as to provide a guideline in empowering youth volunteerism.

1. Introduction

Volunteerism generally can be described as the act of giving without expecting any return. Social workers get paid for their work while it might not be the case for volunteers. Volunteering can be categorised in four ways, namely: mutual aid or self-help, philanthropy or service to others, civic participation, and advocacy or campaigning (United Nations Volunteer, 2011).

A survey in the UK suggested that volunteering was worth up to 40 Billion Pounds per annum, making it the third largest contributor to the nation's Gross Domestic Product. In Canada, 7.5 million out of 24 million aged 15 or above are volunteers. Voluntarism also creates job opportunities. The volunteering activities carried out through non-profit organizations in the USA have been estimated to be equivalent to 9 million full time jobs according to Independent Sector (2001) as cited by (Maniam, 2004).

The history of voluntarism in Malaysia did not differ much from other societies. It begins with individual commitment to religious and charitable altruism. It is also a form of response towards human tragedies due to wars and political conflict as well as economic crisis (Ali, 2002).

The question is why should the focus be on youth?

According to Datuk Seri Hj. Mohamed Khaled Nordin, the Minister of Higher Education, there are currently 1.2 million students of Higher Education Institutions in Malaysia and they should be empowered to play their roles that would certainly contribute towards the development of the country. One of their roles is to build strong characters, idealism, skills and leadership qualities so as to become assets of the society. These characters could not be attained simply through hearing lectures in classes, but they should have an active participation in social activities and volunteering programs that will help mould strong characters and valuable human capital for the country (Nordin, 2011).

Sadly, the majority of people who join volunteer activities are retirees, while time and energy are the main obstacles for

younger generations to be fully involved with volunteer activities.(Ali, 2002). Recruiting youth volunteer is becoming an important issue as their motivation and energy levels are higher, which can provide good returns (Hj Hussin & Mohd Arshad, 2012).

2. Importance of Youth Volunteerism

According to Spanier & B (2010), the principle that colleges and universities exist, first and foremost, is to educate the students. No matter how much brilliant research generated, or how many award-winning books published, and how many people being served through outreach activities, the primary mission is the education of students. Thus, there is a need to continuously find new strategies to enhance student success.

Educating the students should not be narrowly defined as to emphasis on the academic achievement *per se*. Volunteerism is a method to promote active learning, providing experience that will strengthen their commitment to civic participation, expand their educational experience, and better serve our communities.

In the Malaysian National Higher Education Strategic Plan :Laying The Foundation Beyond 2020 speech, the Prime Minister highlighted the question of whether the quality of our education system has moved in tandem with its growth in quantity; whether the younger generation passing through the national education system is adequately equipped to thrive in an increasingly global and competitive environment. He also emphasized on the need to have an 'education revolution' to ensure that the aspirations to instill a new performance culture in the public and private sectors is not crippled by the inability to nurture a new kind of human capital that is equal to the tasks and challenges ahead.

This is in line with the National Policy on Education 1986 which highlighted that 'higher education provides people with an opportunity to reflect on the critical, social, economic, cultural, moral and spiritual issues facing humanity'. One of the tools to inculcate pro-social behavior in the students such that they would be inclined towards social and humanity issues is through volunteerism. Thus, there is a strong need to build this human capital and volunteerism is one of the medium to build such character.

According to the United Nations Volunteer (2011), in their commonality as well as their complementarity, volunteering and social activism help promote social inclusion by providing opportunities for marginalised groups, such as poor women, to engage in participatory development processes. Volunteers serve as important reservoirs of knowledge for development programmes and can help ensure that development-related advocacy campaigns are relevant and legitimate. By participating in volunteering or social activism, or both, people can be empowered with the confidence, skills and knowledge necessary to effect change in their world.

During the academic year 2009/10, volunteering units at eight London-based universities joined forces in order to measure the impact of volunteering on university students on a) Personal development including confidence, self-discipline and motivation b) Development of transferable skills such as communication, problem solving, teamwork, time management and leadership skills c)Academic life such as development of understanding of course content d)Future career prospects including the creation of opportunities and influence on career choice and e)Social impact such as a sense of belonging and understanding(Konidari, 2010). Findings have shown that volunteering whilst studying at university provides opportunities for learning a wide range of different skills which in turn are useful for students' future employability, regardless of age or degree type.

Thus, it can be said that volunteerism would not only benefit the students from an increased skills portfolio but also an enriched educational experience, increased social capital and deeper socio- political awareness. It would also inculcate a sense of responsibility in giving back to the society.

3. A Global Overview of Motivating Factors for Volunteerism

Understanding the motivating factors for volunteerism can help in to encourage and manage volunteer participation and activities. However, it should be noted that the factors may vary according to the needs of each individual.

There are many factors that influence volunteerism among youths. A study in 2005, highlighted that students in the United States attending different types of universities possess differing motivations for engaging in volunteering activities. Findings show that the influential factors are to enhance and enrich personal development , conform to the norms of, or establishing norms for significant others, escape from negative feelings, learn new skills and practicing underutilized abilities, express values related to altruistic beliefs (Burns. et al, 2005).

In China, a case study of the 2009 World Games volunteers showed that "participation motivation" is a high motivating factor for the youths to participate as volunteers. They do not want to miss an event that they can learn

relevant experience and knowledge (Liao, Chang, & Tsai, 2012). Thus, this shows that young people would be interested in volunteering if it provides an unforgettable experience that they can identify with themselves.

In the United States, in order to understand why the students volunteer and what they seek to achieve through their involvement, Holdsworth (2010) conducted a study using a mixed methods, a survey on 3083 student volunteers and an 18th in-depth biographies interview of university students showed different results. While the former cited enhancing cvs or employability as the main motivating factor, the latter showed that it is not a sufficient reason as individual orientation vary considerably with other factors such as acquiring particular skills, learning opportunities, personal values and opportunities to volunteer.

In Turkey, a study conducted on 175 youth community volunteers showed that the most important motivational factors for volunteerism is altruism, followed by affiliation and personal improvement. Recognition, by contrast is not a vital factor for them (Boz, 2007). Whereas comparatively, in Africa, a study on 50 youth community volunteers in Tazmania showed that recognition and respect is one of the main motivating factors for volunteering, apart from other factors such as wanting to make a difference, education and the desire to be a volunteer (Wijeyesekera, 2011).

In Australia, findings showed that there are no difference in what motivates the young Tasmanians as compared to others. However, their motivations may be held in different priorities to older volunteers, with more value for most young people on skill development, as well as giving something back to the community/pursuing personal interests/being with friends. (Moffatt, 2011)

Factors that hinders youth volunteers should also be taken into account. In 2009, a survey asked participants who had not yet volunteered what factors had prevented them from volunteering. The results show that the key factor was being too busy with academic work (41%), not being able to find a volunteer role linked with their future career (34%) and not finding any roles suitable to their course (20%)(Konidari, 2010).

4. Malaysia and Youth Volunteerism

Altruism or the act of helping another without expecting any reward, is identified as one of the motivational factors for youth volunteerism in a cross-sectional survey involving 240 youth volunteers which founded significant positive relationship between both. This is in line with previous researches that had been conducted. (Hj Hussin & Mohd Arshad, 2012).

Another factor for youth volunteerism would be self-motivation. A study conducted on 120 university students using the "Volunteers Function Inventory" (VFI) scale showed that there is a significant relationship between self motivation and youths involvement in volunteerism. (Johar, 2008). Isak (2007) had also highlighted the same factor in her study which showed that when the youths prosocial personality and self motivation increases, their involvement in would also increase.

Apart from those, friends, previous experience and aiming for merits for academic purposes were also identified as influential factors for youth volunteerism (Mohd Kasim, 2008).

Interestingly however, findings show that there are no relation between gender and race as factors that influence volunteerism (Mohd Kasim, 2008). Even more so, there are no relationship between the income of their family and their locality (Johar, 2008) or even CGPA results with volunteerism (Mohd Yasin, 2005). This shows how the act of volunteerism goes beyond personal gain for race, gender, money or intelligence.

With regards to participation in volunteerism however, according to the Malaysian Red Crescent Kapitan chapter chairman Dr Sia Tih Kong the spirit of volunteerism seems to be declining and this may be caused by the fast pace of development and modernisation, which has left many busily trying to cope with the demands' of their own daily lives(Borneo Post, 2011).

Previous studies have shown that the involvement of youths in volunteerism is only at a satisfactory level and this should be improved. According to a study done by Mohd Kasim (2008), out of 100 respondents who are university students, 96 percent of them have low involvement in community volunteerism while only 4 percent have moderate involvement.

This is consistent with a previous study in 2005 on multiracial undergraduates which showed that only 48.7% of the respondents were involved in volunteerism whereas 51.3% of them are not involved (Ahmad Salim, 2005). Another study on 254 university students in 2005, showed that although 77.2% of the respondents have the experience of being a volunteer, 76.4% of them have low participation with volunteerism and only 0.8 percent of them are actively involved (Mohd Yasin, 2005).

Thus, it can be said that although students have been exposed to volunteerism, the number of active volunteers

are still low. This is unfortunate as the positive impacts that volunteerism carries are undeniable. There also need to be more recent studies of the youths involvement in volunteerism.

Ali (2002) has criticized the Malaysian public and authorities concerned with social development for not recognizing the importance of voluntary sector as a mode of social intervention for the development of Malaysia social care system. She highlighted that while the concept is popular, voluntary participation in voluntary sector is very limited and many voluntary organizations are facing a 'crisis of volunteers' as well as suffering from severe financial constraints.

Attrition of volunteers is a serious issue and it needs to be highlighted. It is worrisome to note on a study conducted in 1992 on 100 welfare voluntary organizations in Peninsular Malaysia of which the following results were obtained: 1) excluding those who have become committee members, 59 percent of the organizations said they did not have volunteers 2) the shortage of volunteers is due to the following reasons: 64 percent claimed that it was difficult to find people ready to become volunteers, 32 percent did not have confidence in volunteers, 29 percent felt that volunteers have low level of commitment and 31 percent felt that volunteers did not have clear purpose in organization. Similar findings were found in the next 1999/2000 study (Ali, 2002).

5. Recommendations

Having looked at the motivating factors globally, factors such as altruism, participation factor, opportunity to learn new skills, employability and recognition should be used as appealing factors for the government, voluntary organizations, teachers, parents and youths to attract new youth volunteers and to sustain existing ones.

Malaysian Prime Minister Dato' Seri Najib Tun Razak had announced that year 2013 would be declared as Year of Volunteer to instill the spirit of volunteerism amongst youth and have allocated RM100million seed money for IM4U volunteer program (The Star, 2012)). He also announced that 2013 will be declared the year of Volunteerism to further instill the spirit of volunteerism in youth. This step and the government promotional activities of volunteerism are most welcomed in order to empower the youths in giving back to the society.

The IM4U volunteer program is a good initiative by the government to rejuvenate the spirit of the youths in giving back to the society. Under the initiative, an RM130 million fund called the Dana Sukarelawan 1Malaysia (DRE1M) provides financial support for youth to carry out volunteer activities that are aimed at helping targeted communities and social groups. The website also provides information as to the list of voluntary organizations, latest volunteering events and activities as well as it helps to register new volunteers online (IM4U, 2013).

Be that as it may, promotion as to the IM4U volunteer program alone is not sufficient. Apart from encouraging new youth volunteers, there must be activities made to sustain the volunteers as well. The success of the program should also be measured of its impact factor towards youth and be disseminated to the public. Funds granted for youth volunteerism projects should also be made known so as to inspire other youths to come up with their own ideas and initiatives.

Aside from government initiatives, Ali (2002) suggested that voluntary organizations should be made attractive so that it appeals to the volunteers and promotes self confidence for the organization as well. The disparity between advance and ordinary volunteer one is too wide and should be narrowed done by providing proper support for the organizations. The function of media and technology should also not be denied in making volunteerism appealing to the youths.

Moffatt (2011) opined that we should suit volunteerism with its digital age, and as such, we should embrace websites and social networking. To target young volunteer audiences, we must understand how to effectively use the digital communication media. Her study in Tasmania showed that the current lack of consistently provided web-based information and application processes and the under-use of social networking, such as Facebook, for keeping volunteers updated, is clearly showing as a disconnect with Gens Y and Z.

Those who are in the influential circle with youths such as teachers, parents and peers should play their role as well. Surprisingly, an inspirational teacher is a more influential figure than parents in volunteerism. Parents are normally described as too busy to be involved with volunteerism (Holdsworth, 2010). Thus, teachers should enhance volunteerism spirit in their students and parents should strive to change this negative perception. Youths should also be inspirational to their other peers as well.

Having said that, several issues need to be addressed in creating young willing volunteers as well, like reassuring their confidence through offering peer ambassadors and mentors, accessing their influencers (including schools and other educational institutions, families and peers), adapting the length or regularity of their volunteer role to address their transient time commitments, addressing their access to transport, and understanding how young people prefer to communicate – in terms of media and styles (Moffatt, 2011).

Although there are studies on the involvement of students in volunteerism, its importance as well as influential factors, there has yet to be a study on how to analyze these and come up with a model to further enhance the spirit of volunteerism among youth in our country.

A model of which how can we utilize and encourage the volume of students that we have to be involved in volunteerism in line with the aspirations of our leaders should be created. Factors that motivates and barriers that hinders youth volunteerism activity as well as interviews with students, volunteers, volunteerism related NGOs and Higher Education Institutions Student Division officers should be analyzed in coming up with a model of volunteerism empowerment. Building a youth volunteerism empowerment model would help in capitalizing the number of 1.2 million university students that we have into giving back to the society and to mould quality human capital for the nation. This model can be used as a reference for the Ministry of Higher Education as well as Higher Education Institutions and volunteerism related NGOs.

6. Conclusion

Motivating factors that had been discussed should be taken into account in enhancing youth participation in volunteerism. It is important to not only to know the factors, but also to know the needs and expectations of the youths in volunteerism. What is also equally important is to have sustainable volunteers. Thus, aside from the fact that everyone should play their role in enhancing youth volunteerism, a youth volunteerism empowerment model should also be created.

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Some Albanian Socio-Cultural Problems in the Framework of the Theory of Linguistic Deficit

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Abstract

After some research and observations of the role of external linguistic factors of natural character such as: age, sex, ethnic group, after several treatments of social character factors such as, level of education and new empiric observations of socio-economic class, we have reached some conclusions about the area of linguistic prejudice, especially regarding the role of language in the learning performance of students. At the epicenter of this research is the theory of linguistic deficit. So we are supporting Bernstein's data, enriching them with the findings of his followers and detractors, even though we are convinced that Bernstein's works have been appropriate seeds of much discussions and subsequent achievements. (Klein 1977) For this reason, after these treatments we have opened new windows of studying which lead us on the grounds that linguistic deficit prevents not merely academic performance (or vice versa), but prevents the individual to be successful for the other socio-cultural spheres (or vice versa). This is considered by Hudson as a lack of linguistic competence: closely linguistic inequality. It is on this basis that we consider to extend our thesis in this study, having as its object the Albanian linguistic community.

Keywords: sociolinguistics, language deficit, productivity, Albanian community.

Surveys and observations of the role of external language factors of natural character such as: age, sex, ethnic group, level of education, we have materialized through examples from the southern Albanian Dialect – Cham's dialect, within the interaction "standard language-dialect". These observations were incentive for further sociolinguistic reviews (Troplini 2012).

Initially we took a test of reviews in the Albanian social community of external factors of social character, socio-economic class (Troplini a, b, c, 2010), after which we came to some conclusions about our Albanian society and opened a new window of study on the factors detailed above, under the current theory of linguistic deficit, the role of language in learning performance of students, language planning, language prejudices etc.

In this flow moves the paper in question, which addresses a new topic in the field of sociolinguistic studies in Albania. In this paper are thrown some new ideas in the form of hypotheses, which later will be treated separately from us, through empirical research, through examples and details, arguments and counterarguments, believing that this work will be expanded in the future in the form of a monography.

Although sociolinguists have generally talked about external factors to language, we preferred list below some data collected by Berruto (1994: 97), according to which external factors of social and natural character are:

1. AGE. According Berruto young people speak differently from the elderly ones(...), young people are renovating and the elderly are preserving (...).

This is proven by sociolinguistic researches in Albania, which have been more or less dialectological following issues. Academician Shkurtaj initially makes a research on the dialect of the city of Lezha (Shkurtaj 1981) making a division of speakers by three generations: the older generation, middle generation and the younger generation. The researcher is thereby reviews initiator within the report of the new with the old, but also a mentor for young researchers in sociolinguistic reviews of the speech, precisely in this point of view.

2. Gender (SEX). Women speak differently from men, (...). Despite this claim, which we find on many sociolinguists Berruto said that (...) this is not proven, even there is evidence to the contrary proving that the majority of female sex-speaking tend to innovation. (...).

According Eqrem Çabej, the euphemism show a kind of differentiation of the dialect of women or womanly lecture (Shkurtaj 2009). However this great scholar has written to the Albanian early euphemism, when the dialect of women showed a clear differentiation from the type of men dialect.

From the research we have done this factor, I would add that, are precisely educated women, to a certain status, which, regardless of age, differ in their dialect precisely because they are more innovative than the rest

of the uneducated women. Also, in Albania day by day is apparently progressing the trend to integrate the image of women everywhere in society. This has been the object of many foreign-funded training, which contribute more and more to leveling the gender gap, closing the deficit to carry social and cultural consequence of disengagement as well as women should have in different spheres of life .

3. Ethnic origin. The claim that ethnicity conditions manner of speech has nothing to do with racism (...), ultimately, - says Berruto, any difference of linguistic behavior that comes from the geographical origin is an ethnic difference (...).

If we analyze the situation of the Albanian dialects, will understand that Berruto really has fair. This can be proved quite easily if we examine the behavior of individual language speakers in all the Albanian dialects today, namely:

- In the early dialects of Albanian diaspora: Arbëresh dialect of Italy, Greece Arbëresh, Arbëresh of Zara ... etc;
 - In the Albanian dialects within Albanian state before and after the 90-s. We recall the big change after years of democracy (after 90-s), which dominated the mechanical movements of populations from rural to urban areas and especially towards the center (Durrës-Tirana - Elbasan).
 - In a separate group mention the dialect of Albanian immigrants, who underwent the immigration process after 90s onwards.
 - The dialect of Albanian ethnic territories (in Kosovo, Macedonia and Montenegro)
 - In a separate group also highlight the province's southern dialect (the term used by Çabej) of Albanian language, the dialect of Cham, whose inhabitants after the '44-es were subjected to ethnic cleansing from their homes in Greece wandering in the form of a disheveled diaspora throughout Albanian state.
4. Social- Economic Class, according to the author deals with the differences between the linguistic behavior of the respective speakers of medium-high grade and corresponding low grade speakers. According to him, this difference is highly significant (...) In particular, -he says, - linguistic behavior seems quite closely related to the income which bring not only goods, but also cultural goods available to different types of socio-economic classes.

As claims the author, but as we will mention in the paper, the initiator of this issue has been Bernstein, who through his theory of linguistic deficit is the subject of a long discussion, paving the way for a series of sociolinguistic studies.

5. Education Level: according Berruto school education and intellectual capacity rate significantly penetrate to linguistic behavior, both interlocutors of the same sex, the same social class, if one is educated and the other not, the possibility exists that the linguistic behavior the first to be formed, richer...etc., than that of the latter especially, in terms of the selected registers.

As can be understood from the explanation of each of the factors, the interplay between them is inevitable, as regardless of a particular individual may or may not be educated, he may belong male or female sex, there may be some age, may belong to a certain social stratum and so on So, all these ingredients combine and differ according to the case and what is most important is that all these factors create social differences of linguistic behavior.

As we shall see below, the linguistic diversity in the behavior of individuals is created not only due to the aforementioned factors as age, sex, ethnicity, class and level of education, but also due to social class, social group, status and role, include clear here, origin, race, religion, politics, intelligence, personality, who are valued variables in Sociolinguistics. Furthermore, should not overlook the fact that for one moment that diversity always created in accordance with the historical and cultural context, the situation, the development of each country, therefore the life of each of the speech.

All these factors give us the possibility of multiple treatments within the deficits they cause not just in teaching performance (from which was shaped the theory of linguistic deficit itself), but also in achieving social goods, values and virtues, in our job and relationships, in culture and anywhere etc.

Let us see how reflex the mentioned factors in Albanian social community. We are retaking once again in consideration ethnicity belonging.

As I mentioned above, the situation of the Albanian dialects is more or less this: the dialects within the state territory of Albania know more or less developing an orientation toward general Albanian. After the 90s, with the change of systems, mechanical movements of the population had an orientation from rural to urban areas, mainly towards the center (Tirana, Durrës, Elbasan, etc., as developed areas of Albania).

As in many countries, we can't even talk to the standard (conventionally created language, artificial language),

without first talking to dialects, true and natural language of the nation (Troplini 2011). We have both existed and continues to exist a convergent relation between the so-called "official Albanian" and "regional dialect". But, on the other hand, can't claim that this kind of report do not accept development, as well as changes in each version of divergent terms.

Sociolinguists have fallen into the same opinion when they say that in the war of dialect words like to withdraw and leave the place opened to features of literary language or have a place to the latter (Gjinari 1985), wins the change and the orientation towards language with greater prestige as the official language standard (Shkurtaj 2003). On the other hand, should not be overlooked even Hudson's opinion that it carries with it the risk because leads to underestimate many of characteristic linguistic forms of his group ... "Children who leave the group local forms and make their own those forms that are accepted at the national level, do actually own forms that are symbols of identification of another group." (Hudson 2002: 234)

Without denying the quotes above, after a thorough study of the dialects to affirm that the above conclusions (about the report convergent / divergent) for "the prestige dialect" or so-called "family dialect" are substantially in line with life of each of the speeches.

In Albanian language we do have even the diaspora dialects (here include only the early Albanian dialects spoken by the Arbëresh, Albanian detached from their territories before Ottoman conquest). The condition of these dialects is more or less like this: they have inherited and inherit a common base that identifies them with Albanian people and development towards general Albanian is slower defined as those dialects are threatened every day by the danger of extinction. Of course, we all know that the speeches or dialects will disappear and new dialects will arise, but within a later documented Albanian and all the problems still unsolved, especially in the field of Albanian history (branch of the Indo-European family but documented too late, c. 15 AD), the values these dialects have, we must anticipate this risk. As Berruto say, "Different languages and cultures even those minority ones should be preserved and protected and not to push them towards extinction." (Berruto 1994)

Another dialect is the dialect of immigrants. Here is the way to see all the advantages of teaching Italian to Albanian immigrants, examining all internal linguistic factors, as well as taking into consideration external factors and psychological and socio-cultural factors that influence this process. An important factor in this regard is the example of Italian language learning as a communicating need of individuals, to be integrated into host communities. But we can't overlook the disadvantages that such a process leads to the cognitive aspect of language, where the first language (the language family) passes at a disadvantage; also can not overlook all the potential problems that may arise with the violation rate standard in both languages (Albanian and Italian).

In Albanian language we also have some other dialect spoken by ethnic Albanian lands subject to the situation of languages in contact as the dialect of Macedonian Albanians, Kosovo and Montenegro. The situation of languages in contact, especially in the context of possible interference in Albanian of slavish words have already been examined by researchers of these areas. But I think that will be of great interest the study of interference in the Albanian dialects by which the Albanian is in daily contact.

Albanian language recognizes internal displacement, as is the case of the Chameria Dialect. Residents underwent Cham ethnic cleansing in 1944 and moved to Albania's state lands in the form of a disheveled diaspora throughout Albania. Less or more the situation of this population is clearly defined by this statement: "The Albanians are moving freely in our land, with them, ideas, traditions, words. For many reasons, it is broken the linguistic enclave concept and the territory as a geographical concept serves no more for the definition of the dialect, which under the pressure of global society, is entering into a sociolect relationship with standard language and all language." (Rrokaj 2010)

In all of the above dialects is clearly distinguishable the features of two variants or types of speech, the traditional version, which show stable storage elements of the old system and the new version, which reflects the broader transformations and changes of the system under macro system pressure (Shkurtaj 1998). But, although apparently the two sides of language development process in Cham environment, as elsewhere in Albania, are preservation (conservation) and restoration (renewal) of the dialect in the direction of standardization and globalization flattening, would add that, in this dialect is prominently displayed a third process which is as important as that of the presence of the first two. In a conventional way we called it "an Inter-process (interaction)", which plays the role of a liaison between the archaic Dialect and moderate Dialect. Evidently this kind of process occurs in Cham's middle generation who maintains the largest balance. His role here resemble that of a communication "channel" (corridor) between two generations (Troplini 2012).

After all these descriptions can't deny such occurrences worth in Sociolinguistics as: linguistic diversity, linguistic prejudices in speaking etc. Consequently, can't be denied the linguistic deficit that is inevitably caused to speakers

thanks to the inequality gap created by factors diversity and the consequences of these factors. Therefore rests of this deficit are all the dialects of the above.

Thus, for an analysis of emigrants speech in this regard come to help not only the pre socio-pedagogical Bernstein's or Labov's studies, in Italy first ideas in this direction belong to the 70s, specifically Tuglio de Mauro. Another Italian researcher Don Milan calls the immigrants "desert", because according to him they are victims of a linguistic deficit that prevents the possibility of taking an active part in social and political life of the community (Melone & Poggiali 2005).

From concrete data, is proved that the degree of difficulty of a child in emigration, a child displaced by a social community to another even within the country, is inevitable. In this way, like it or not we pass to another topic, to the factor socio-economic class, after evacuations in most cases are made from a poorer to a richer place (excluding the Cham case). But we also fully agree that in all cases, life has proven that the children of emigrant workers, displaced children from less desirable areas in the most privileged areas, have had a good performance in school regardless of their linguistic deficit, or social deficit, economic class (which language is related), and not only, but this deficit does not reduce the performance in school, at work, in life, to the extent that it becomes a limiting factor. Of course, individuals who are talking, pay a great tribute to overcome this kind of difficulty compared to the rest of the privileged ones. We are talking about the inequality gap, although it is always an attainable gap.

However, we cannot say that Bernstein's theses are irrelevant. A genuinely (socio) linguistic deficit by Brenstein's descriptions, which among other things has been quite pronounced in the past and continues to exist, is that among the so-called civic layer (Albanian citizenship) and rural strata (peasants) (initially distinguished from Shkurtaj Academician), which we intend to treat in another moment.

After all this we say that the role of standard Albanian, Italian, Greek and any relevant language of a host country is such that unifies language and flatten linguistic differences in the behavior of any individual if that native speakers, native or guest in a certain location. More than anywhere, standard's success is unquestionably observed in whole educational institutions of the state.

The question arises: is it enough for Albanian society?

Globalization primarily affects areas that are closer to the policy, such as the economy, public relations and external relations, all communication system written and oral and, in this broader context, the process undoubtedly affects interlinguistic relationships which (...) tend to follow the path of multiple interchange (Shkurtaj 2009).

In terms of today's contacts with the Albanian and its recent developments under the flow of communication, the model of "successful speech" sometimes contradicts the norm. Within the Albanian in the flow of communication in our Albanian society is noted deliberately that is created a kind of compelling bilingualism by society, which creates a deficit in linguistic behavior of individuals that among others, is also due to prejudices among speakers.

This refers to a type of inequality that Hudson calls "subjective inequality" (...) F simply said "XXXX", people who speak thus are of type (T) type people (T) are entertaining and F is so entertaining (Hudson 2002: 232). Within this assessment interlinguistic scholars problem arises in this way: (...) the language itself may be subject to evaluation (...) Let us assume a society that recognizes a social stereotype S, which assesses negatively, for example, people see as "crass" S members. It is understood that the S-characteristic behavior will attract the same assessment, for example, if members of S's smoking a pipe, is also a common behavior and crass. Linking the language is clear: people think that the way of speaking to members of S's is common. (...) This estimate is based on the evaluation of speakers and not based on forms of discourse itself.

In such situations, language development plays an important role in improving language policies. So, the standard language should have unifying value not only in educational institutions. Linguistic norms should flatten any disparity in teaching communication and control all registers of speech. So, as said Shkurtaj is not enough simply having a standard, but we must have a developed standard (Shkurtaj 2009).

Linguistic deficit begins with the distinction between written language and spoken language. Albanian suffered strokes after changing systems and besides colloquial language was hit badly the written one. Speech patterns are created through written language so official language (Konica according Jorgaqi 2007: 14), but on the other hand, practical experience has shown that there is even the reverse: Wrong speech models are often reflected in the written language . A typical example of this, although permitted (from the beginnings of language itself) is loan. By borrowing we displace the focus from the speech to language systems. Loan has to do with mixing systems themselves, because a unit "is borrowed" from one language to be a unit of another language. So cannot deny the fact that an isolated Albanian under a dictatorship, after borders opening felt the need to foreign languages (Islamaj 2010), but, despite this fact it wasn't prepared for such a large influx of foreign words. Individual speaker wasn't merely a carrier of linguistic deficit, but deliberately in him was early created a noted deficit in culture and mentality.

In this way, for various quite common reasons, we opened indiscriminately the path for unnecessary words. Victim of this situation became state institutions to which models were borrowed "copy-paste" documents; different bad translated school texts full of unnecessary foreign words, where the pitch was the English words, even texts literally translated. Crucial role in the spread of this disaster played for a long time Albanian media.

Everything described caused a big language deficit in society, school, etc. In the open media linguists began to hum Renaissance ideas to clean Albanian language and the famous phrase from Çabej, cleaning the language from the foreign meat is a scientific task, also national, became the subject of discussion in various scientific conferences, seminars, TV programs etc.

In this context, often, due to a lower performance in school was just incomprehensible terminology for foreign students. Of course we can also talk about other types of terminology that are caused by other factors as incomprehensible terminology relevant to the field that is related to the teachers and students level, or what Hudson has called one of the possible aspects of linguistic inequality: "academic" language vocabulary that is related with the lexicon and the structures used by teachers in the teaching and the fact that how much are the children able to understand them. Large cultural and social deficits caused serious deficits in education.

These types of deficits became more apparent after 90s, but it is a phenomenon which has existed even before these years. Although the dictatorial communist state shout for equality, the right law again was totally false. One of the most striking phenomena of the Albanian society was that of persecution. Although in most cases the persecuted children had a great performance as most of these families struck on knowledge and culture (this meant that they were generally the first anywhere), this fact deliberately influence on teaching performance. Students (children of persecuted) were put in front of two ways: either consciously neglected the study, or to devote themselves passionately to him despite the circumstances, being very successful even though the fate of the right to study depended totally by the dictatorial state. These unfortunates had the opportunity regardless of age, to fulfill their ambitions after changing systems. The persecuted became unwitting carrier of a compelling deficit by the system.

Religion is another important variable in Sociolinguistics. Scapegoat of the dictatorial system became even the civil right of the faith in God. Many words of the religious culture remained in limbo during the dictatorship. Passive vocabulary fate had also come to the surface after all these years. Linguistic diversity by faith, in Albanian society is in its infancy (although there existed long ago) Today, on these individual speakers of this social group has begun to sharply observed a kind of linguistic deficit which is likely to increase in the future . This deficit is caused mainly due to the use of different terminology. In speech are observed distinct forms of greeting, use of special terminology in everyday life by respective religions (most pronounced is this phenomenon on festive occasions, according to various religious rites, etc.). Solidarity with the observed social group in setting personal names mainly of their religion, rooted phenomenon of early recovery and a slightly different nowadays (Troplini 2013). Getting outside literary rate in such cases is exceeded. An important role for closing the gap that is created especially to children, play educational institutions even if they would be subject to private schools with predominantly religious shaft.

At the conclusion of this paper we can say that the "developed" standard should bear in mind all the above mentioned factors of linguistic diversity, as well as all those factors which give rise to diversity, cognitive aspects of language, mentalities and cultures, situations and certain contexts, that speakers are inevitably exposed from day to day. So we have always been of the opinion that the language policy cannot simply mean a standard language, but the standardization of individual behavior in general which includes in itself all possible links between linguistic structures and social structures.

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Music in Early Childhood Education: An Instrument for Preserving the 'Igbo' Musical Culture in Nigeria

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Abstract

The world is changing fast, so is all that are therein; ranging from people, fashion and even culture. And if cultures actually change as civilisation and people are demanding, then the one single means of knowing a people will be lost. Truth be told, every nation has a culture they can not do away with irrespective of whatever, hence the importance of preserving that culture can never be overemphasised. Nigeria as a nation has diverse ethnic groups and tribes with different languages and cultures. Igbo tribe is one of the ethnic groups. Igbo tribe is rich with very relevant cultures which are embedded in its music, this musical culture need be preserved; and one easiest way through which this can be done is through its introduction in the early childhood education. Hence, this paper seeks to reveal the ability of music to preserve Igbo musical culture through early childhood education.

1. Introduction

Music is embedded with a strong power to transform, influence and affect the life of people all over the world irrespective of their position, colour, race or gender. It unarguably enjoys the place of the most influential form of art; hence it is the universal language of the soul. A language understood and appreciated by all beginning from the cradle to the grave. Many scholars have given different definitions to music. Blacking (1973) says it's a humanly organised sound (p.57). Elliot (1995) believed "it is a diverse human practice of constructing aural temporal patterns for the primary values of enjoyment, self growth and self knowledge" (p.128). Walker (1998) says "it is a living analogue of human knowing, feeling, sensibility, emotions, intellectual modus operandi and all other life-giving forces which affect human behaviour and knowing" (p. 57). And Agu (2006) sees it as "an aesthetic art of combining or putting together sounds that are pleasant to the ear.

Music is a gift from God through which we strive to express our joy for the things that are real to us and our longings for the things that might be. The power of music can not be overemphasised hence Abeles, Hoffer and Klotmann (1984) asserts:

Music directly emanates (shows) the passion or states of the soul – gentleness, anger, courage, temperance and their opposites and other qualities; hence when one listens to music that imitates a certain passion, he becomes imbued with the same passion, and if over a long time, he habitually listens to the kind of music that arouses ignoble passions, his whole character will be shaped to an ignoble form (p.4)

This means music has so much power to influence and achieve its intended lyrics by the performer. Hence if we wish to produce patriotism in an individual, we sing or perform patriotic and stimulating music, if we wish to produce calmness and tranquillity in therapy, we perform music that is calm and tranquil. And if we wish to preserve our musical cultural heritage, music becomes an asset for it.

2. Culture

Every nation is an embodiment of culture. And culture is seen as a people's way of life. It describes the several influences on a group of people or a community which had to do with their knowledge, character and learned behaviour. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2000) explains culture as "the customs and beliefs, art, way of life and social organisation of a particular country or group" (p. 284). In other words every society and nation has a culture which they are known for and which defines them. For example, there is Western culture, Eastern culture, Middle Eastern culture, African culture and so on. Each of these cultures is defined by the values, traditions, social habits, behaviours, language, dress codes, belief system; food and even music that distinguishes them from other nations. And this cultural knowledge is no doubt passed on from generation to generation, and hence it is referred to as the cultural heritage of that people. This cultural heritage which indirectly signifies the flag of a people needs to be preserved if that people are to be remembered and not be forgotten.

Nigeria as a nation is an embodiment of ethnic groups and tribes, and each of these groups and tribes are very rich in culture. The *Igbo* tribe which is one of the three major ethnic groups in Nigeria are, according to Okafor (2005),

An achievement oriented people, egalitarian and hardworking, serious minded and fiercely competitive people; majority of them are professionals in various fields of life, and not many of them are farmers (p.45).

However, irrespective of what their professions are, one thing binds them together; their music. The *Igbo* tribe is very rich in culture. This culture as will be revealed in this paper is seen in their music which portrays their way of life in terms of their attitudes towards 'respect for elders, dress codes, names, acceptable attitudes within and outside their home environment, language and so on, is observed to be fast disappearing. If nothing is done in the next few years to come, the *Igbo* tribe itself will no longer be remembered or recognised outside its environment. Hence this paper is set out to proffer a preservative method through which this mayhem could be avoided.

Obviously, the nation Nigeria was colonised, and with the colonisation came the transmission of the Western culture in terms of language (Nigeria has a lingua franca of English, thanks to the British); dressings and education which no doubt had helped bring about civilisation. Yet, the tribal language, dress code, and way of life, through which a people are known, irrespective of whatever influence, should be adhered to and preserved so long as they are good. And music of a people especially the *Igbo* tribe, is so important that its preservation should be a concern. Hence, one important and fastest way this could be done is through music in early childhood education. The *Igbo* music preservation is so important because through it, other intrinsic cultures are preserved since music communicates those cultures. To this, Okafor (2005) affirms:

The whole point about music in Igbo culture is that it is integral with life and closely related with the other art forms. Under these circumstances music plays a double role as a medium of cultural transmission and as music itself. It is a life long as well as comprehensive activity. Every Igbo person is expected to make music or perform at a dance at certain point in life. It is an activity in which one participates in childhood or in age. All life rites have musical implications and involvement so that at any point in time, somewhere, somebody is making music or dancing in Igbo land (p.27).

The above shows music is integral to every day life of the *Igbo* tribe and it's embedded in the culture. Echezona (1963), in Okafor (2005), concurring to the statement above asserts:

To every Igbo person, life has a melodic and rhythmic orientation, and again... no event happens that is not associated with music. The Igbo has an ardent personal feeling for it (p. 12).

Okafor (2005) supporting the statement above also noted: the *Igbo* cannot do without music and one of the most important attributes of *Igbo* music is that it is not only to listen to, but also to learn from (p. 27). Meaning, its music transmits the way of life of the *Igbo*s (culture). Hence, the early childhood becomes a very important stage through which this preservation could be achieved, because of the position a child occupies in the culture of the *Igbo* tribe. Okafor (2005) in affirming this says:

The Igbo child is a product of nature and nurture. A child comes into the world enclosed with some natural traits. The child is influenced by the prevalent social habits of his time and place. Like culture, the child is largely characterised by his environment, and is therefore, attuned in the musical processes and products of his community (p. 45).

Okafor further affirms:

Igbo names are not mere tags of identity or appellations but very deep expressions of attitudes, sentiments, aspirations and straightforward commentaries on life's experiences. Therefore most Igbo names cannot be fully appreciated without adequate knowledge of the Igbo worldview. If you want to know how life has treated an Igbo man, a good place to look is the names his children bear. His hopes, his fears, his joys and sorrows; his grievances against his fellows, or complaints about the way he has been used by fortune; even straight historical records are all there (p. 46).

Okafor (2005), in his affirmations of the centrality and importance of the *Igbo* child further noted:

In Igbo land, children are the pride of their parents. Consequently, great affection abounds between them, especially between mothers and their sons. A man with many children is regarded as rich and blessed. Hence childbirth is regarded as a blessing and an honour from God. And that is why most traditional Igbo families do not resort to either abortion or artificial family planning methods. This also explains why some poor couples have large families, believing that God will provide for the sustenance of these "His gifts" – children. This high premium placed on the child partly accounts for the high birth rate among the Igbo, and why polygamy is very common. They believe also that wealth cannot buy children (p. 47).

Children actually occupy a central place in the culture of the *Igbo* tribe. This made it very imperative that the best way through which the *Igbo* music could be preserved is through the early childhood education. Hence at this stage the children are still very tender and sharp to grasp whatever they are taught.

3. Music in early childhood education

Early childhood is seen as the age before normal schooling, usually from one (1) to five (5) years of age in most nations as well as in Nigeria. It is when the brain develops most rapidly, almost to its fullest. It is also when talking, self-esteem, vision of the world and moral foundations are established in a child. It is a period of rapid change and development and the most critical period in a child's musical growth, and has been identified in literature as the 'music babbles' stage (Moog and Gordon in Levinowitz, 1998. internet source). It is also identified as "the period of 'developmental music aptitude' in children through which their musical acumen is enhanced (Gordon in Levinowitz, 1998). Early childhood education is "the time when children learn about their world primarily through the magical process of play" (Levinowitz 1998). Hence Education is defined by Akumah (2004) as:

The process of development which consists of the passage of a human being from infancy to maturity, the process whereby he gradually adapts himself in various ways to his physical, social and spiritual environment (p. 203).

Walker (1998), on the other hand defined it as the:

Quest to gain understanding or what it means to be human in all its illogicality, its unpredictability, its irrationality and in all its uniquely varied cultural ways of doing and thinking (p. 32)

Early childhood education can therefore be referred to as a system through which children are made to acquire knowledge which will stir up the spirit of creativity, acquisition of skills and enquiry in them, and at the same time understand who they are and what is expected of them. In order words, it is a means through which the system of life through which they are expected to live is inculcated in them.

However, anyone who had known children and work with them knows they love music, and can engage in musical activities on many levels. It is a very natural and important part of their lives. Researches abound on how children are tuned to the nuances of music. They turn everything around them into music, and the easiest language they understand even from cradle is music. In Nigeria and especially in *Igbo* tribe, music occupies a very central and sensitive place in everything from cradle to grave of the people. Hence a little child in Nigeria responds to the language of music naturally. To this Nnamani (2004) asserts:

The average Nigeria child begins to respond to music right from the cradle. He starts early to acquire some experiences in life through listening to lullabies, cradle songs, other songs or experiences of rhythmic activities he acquires as he is on his mothers back, or clap rhythms in game songs and other songs. As early as six months of age, some children start to respond to music by moving to drumming. With all these musical experiences around a child at various developmental stages, the child naturally absorbs the musical sounds and patterns already formed at pre-school age (p. 97).

In supporting the statement above, Okafor (2005) noted:

Three months after birth, the baby is again introduced to the society when his mother begins to tie him to her back while going to public places like the market and streams in pursuit of normal chores. The child is thus his mother's companion in her daily activities like when she washes clothes in the stream..., or dances with her peer group or classificatory fellow wives. In a practical way, this is the baby's introduction to the music of its culture; through rhythmic body movements and vocal effort (p. 54-55).

All the above shows children, especially *Igbo* children are tuned to the nuances of music, which before now, comes from their mother, who spends most of her time with the children from the cradle to the age of pre-primary schooling. But now, because of acculturation, civilisation and influences from the western world, such knowledge is no longer the case. This because mothers, who are the primary children caretakers no longer, seat at home to take care of the children; they now spend most of their time in the offices like the men, from morning till evening doing office jobs, while the children are left with nannies who are after their salary rather than the upkeep of the children. As a result of this, children no longer have the opportunity of listening to lullabies and cradle songs that are rooted in the culture of the *Igbo* tribe. Such circumstances no doubt, is gradually leading to loss of those vital cultures on which the *Igbo* tribe is leaned on. For example, the *Igbo* tribe are known to greet their elders, dress to cover up their nakedness, showcase their traditional wears, bear and answer *Igbo* names, speak their tribal language and never be ashamed of it irrespective of where they are or who they are with. But this trend is no longer the case today; the opposite is rather the case. The younger generation now expects the elder to greet and pay homage to them; they seem to feel ashamed of themselves speaking their tribal language before people even among themselves. The pride of their names is being replaced with English names.

Besides, the traditional dressing which showcases the *Igbo* personality is now replaced with other forms of dressing and those who are still upholding those principles seem to look off and old fashioned in the eyes of the younger generation. The *Igbo* music, which is the bedrock of these other cultures, is now being replaced by the westerners' as well as other tribes' music. This no doubt is as a result of acculturation and absolute abandonment of the *Igbo* culture to a borrowed one. This situation has led to the pursuit for solution to help preserve the culture. And one important way is this could be achieved is through music in early childhood education.

Pre-schools are found in every nuke and cranny in *Igbo* tribe, and every child in *Igbo* land is given the opportunity to attend any of such kindergarten or pre-schools depending on the financial status of the family. (the *Igbo*'s value education, whether Western or traditional). And irrespective of the financial ability of the family, these children are taught and they learn. It is obvious from researches that have been done that the children learn all the subjects such as English language, mathematics, social studies, *Igbo* language and so on, and the easiest way these subjects are taught is through music. And if this is the case, then the *Igbo* music which is embedded in the *Igbo* culture, which the mothers no longer have time to pass on to their children can now be done through the teachers in the kindergarten schools who also have their root from the *Igbo* tribe.

So many *Igbo* songs abound that are embedded in *Igbo* culture which communicates respect for elders, dress codes, encouragement to work hard and so on abound. Two of these songs are expressed here. One is song advising the child to respect both his parents and elders. The other one shows the punishment a disobedient child takes when he disobeys and a song for encouragement to work hard. The first song teaches, advices and encourages the child to be obedient, the second song serves as a deterrent to breaking the law, since it reveals the punishment that will be meted to the offender and the third, encourages diligence.

The following are the songs (music).

Cradle song for respect to elders titled: Kelee Onye Muru Gi (Greet Your Parents).

<i>Kelee Onye Muru Gi</i>	Greet your parents
<i>Kelee onye toro gi</i>	Greet your elder
<i>Nne gi gwa gi nuru</i>	Hear (obey) the instructions of your mother
<i>Nna gi gwa gi nuru</i>	Hear (obey) your fathers instructions before
<i>Tupu onye ozo</i>	heeding to those of another's
<i>Ma gba mgbo ruwere</i>	And persevere to respect your elders
<i>onye toro gi isi.</i> (Okafor 2005)	

When this music is sang or performed to the children, it instils in them the consciousness of respect and obedience to both their parents and the elders. One hardly sees a child who is disrespectful either within the home or outside the home environment. When children are seen disrespecting their parents or elders as it is these days, the

statements that are often made is usually, this child is not raised at home, or, that the child lacks home training or, the family didn't really give birth to them in Igbo land. This is so because, such circumstances shows where that child is raised, whether at in *Igbo* land or outside.

The music above is followed up by another song which serves as a deterrent to children who would have wanted to take the wrong part. And it is performed thus:

Tufuo nu nwa melu alu. Throw away the child that has desecrated the land Eru echi a muta ozo tomorrow we get a new one. (Okafor, 2005).

This music helps in instilling discipline in children and helps them to conform to the cultures that they have grown up to see, being practiced. It was proven to have served as a good deterrent instead of the cane. This is because, no child will want to be thrown away or deny the kind of super affection he or she is getting from parents, siblings, relatives and friends. Hence, they willfully conform to the dictates of the culture.

The following is music to work hard and never get distracted because a labourer will always be rewarded. In order words, it is music for encouragement. It is performed thus:

<i>Na lu n'olu, anyi g'enwe nmeri</i>	Continue to labour, we'll be rewarded
<i>Na lu n'olu, anyi g'enwe nmeri.</i>	Continue to labour, we'll be rewarded
<i>Onye olu nwere ugwu olu,</i>	A labourer has a reward,
<i>Anyi g'enwe nmeri</i>	we'll be rewarded
<i>Jisike n'olu,</i>	Be strong in your duty,
<i>anyi g'enwe nmeri.</i>	We'll be rewarded.

This music, whether it is performed to a child or an adult, has the power to encourage the hearer to actually work hard, because there is a reward that must come. This reward can be in the form of a gift, applause, money or whatever. This is one of the songs that made the *Igbo* people very hard working people. Every where an average *Igbo* man or woman is seen, he or she is an epitome of hard work, and they have their reward to show for it. This reward is seen in their wealth shown with many houses they own, many employees they have, many wives they marry and are responsible for. It is an abomination to see an *Igbo* man begging, because they are not associated with laziness. These reasons and many more are the reasons why the *Igbo* music culture is very vital and must be preserved; and that through its introduction in the kindergarten for the new generation to learn, so as to get acculturated with the system.

There are other music that teaches other habits such as the way to dress, when to sleep, when to go out and play, what to do in the face of trouble and so on as well as music for praise when the child does what he or she is expected to do. All these are embedded in the music of the *Igbo* which made the *Igbo* music very sacred to the *Igbo* tribe.

In summary, this paper has showed that cultures reveal people, who they are and where they are from. When cultures are lost, it is obvious that the root of people have been lost. This paper has also proved that most of the *Igbo* cultures is embedded in their music. It has also shown the reason why their music should be preserved and that through the early childhood education.

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Intended' and 'Experienced' Meaning: Reevaluating the Reader-Response Theory

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Abstract

Typically, Immanuel Kant's *Critique of Pure Reason* has been discussed in the context of epistemology, the study of human knowing. However, one aspect or implication that scholars seem to have missed is the relevance that Kant's theory has for the field of literary criticism; in particular, its relation to the "Reader-Response" theory. In this paper, we will reexamine the basic claims of the Reader-Response and ask whether one may draw a connection between the assertions of Immanuel Kant – that truth is construed by the observer – and of proponents of the Reader-Response theory. As it is commonly accepted, the Reader-Response proponents believe that the reader of a given text should receive a more prominent role than he or she is given in the traditional schools of literary criticism. That is, "instead of asking 'what does this sentence mean?' one should ask 'what does this sentence do?'" (R. Williams, *Literary Meaning*). In other words, as soon as a reader approaches the text, he or she "compromises" its meaning by the mere fact of experiencing it. Accordingly, we will want to examine the link between Kantian thinking and the premises that operate behind the logic of the Reader-Response arguments. Without attempting to acknowledge a direct influence of Kantian logic on the Reader-Response theory, we will show that Kant's epistemology did influence the wider context of philosophy, science and literature and that this influence must be taken into account. We will also want to ask whether criticism of Kantian epistemology may be used against the Reader-Response logic. We will consider the arguments of several of the more important authors who have written on this subject, but will state a more personal, and perhaps controversial, understanding of the issue.

Keywords: literary criticism, Kant, Reader-Response, Formalism.

1. Introduction

Ever since Kant wrote the *Critique of Pure Reason*, literary critics began to wonder whether human reason and the imagination were more successful in the area of literature than in sciences or philosophy. As Kant argued (1991),

We indeed, rightly considering objects of sense as mere appearances, confess thereby that they are based upon a thing in itself, though we know not this thing as it is in itself, but only know its appearances, viz., the way in which our senses are affected by this unknown something (p. 314).

What Kant postulated was that neither the philosopher, nor the scientist could trust their sense perception with absolute certainty. According to Kant, it is within one's own mental apparatus where the final product of perception or understanding comes into existence. The individual who experiences outside realities does not remain a passive observer. He becomes a "constructor" or reality, one whose mind transforms the raw data from "out there" into convenient appearances that can be personally understood and analyzed. This shift from *passive observation* to *active reconstruction* also means that there exists no such "given truth" – something that would bypass the human cognitive powers and appear to the human mind as it is "in itself." Now, what about "literary" truth? Could a reader hope to understand the meaning that a given author intended in the text that he wrote? Or, does a writer have an intended meaning that can be objectively known by him, if not by his or her audience as well?

Reader-Response criticism is the literary current that emphasizes the role of the reader as the "creator" of meaning. Reader-Response criticism argues along the lines of Kantian epistemology, denying the reader the ability to access the "objective truth/meaning" of the text. It changes the question "what does this text mean?" to "what does this text do?" In this paper we want to examine some of the claims of Kantian epistemology in relation to the worldview of the Reader-Response criticism, a movement that has applied a similar mode of reasoning when dealing with the interpretation of literary texts. We do not claim that Kantian epistemology exercised a direct influence on Reader-Response criticism. We are aware that, between Kantian epistemology and Reader-Response criticism, there arose other schools of thought (e.g., Phenomenology) that served as foundational links to Reader-Response criticism. Given

the constraints and focus of this paper, we will refer to these schools only in passing. What we affirm is that Kantian epistemology, and particularly his *Critique of Pure Reason*, altered irremediably the confidence that subsequent philosophy, science and the arts placed in the power of human reasoning. And that, Reader-Response theory has been the modern, literary embodiment and expression of the Kantian revolution in philosophy.

2. Kantian Epistemology

Immanuel Kant attempted to bridge the gap between the Empiricism of Hume, Locke and Berkeley, and Idealism. In essence, he wanted to show that "sense perception in general is unable to produce objective knowledge into the natural makeup of things exterior to us" (Botica, 1996, p.1). Against *Empiricism* he argued that "there were dimensions of our knowing and judgment which precede and configure sense experience; the so-called "a priori categories" (Coppleston, 1964, 4:217). He called them concepts of "necessity" and "universality," which are "sure marks of a priori knowledge." In other words, that any perceived reality is subjectively "constructed" reality. Against *Idealism* Kant held that "that things exterior to us are ontologically real, and exist apart from whether we perceive them or not" (Botica, 1996, p. 2). As Kant (1977) pointed out,

On the contrary, I say that things as objects of our senses existing outside us are given, but we know nothing of what they may be in themselves, knowing only their appearances, i.e., the representations which they cause in us by affecting our senses. Consequently, I grant by all means that there are bodies without us, that is, things which, though quite unknown to us as to what they are in themselves, we yet know by the representations which their influence on our sensibility procures us, and which we call bodies (p. 33).

Kant (1977) called his project "transcendental idealism" (p. 37); *idealism*, because he still agreed that what we are presented with in perception are *appearances* (of real objects, nevertheless), and *transcendental* (or rather "critical idealism"), as a reference "to our faculty of cognition." As David Oldroyd (1986) noted, for Kant "any philosophical system that was wholly 'pure' or rationalistic, making no allowance for the input of information through the senses, was doomed to disaster" (p. 120). The experience of evaluating external realities is *a priori* conditioned (note especially Oldroyd and W.H. Walsh, 1976, p. 9, and Paul Guyer 1992).

Now Kant generally agreed with Hume that, "in sense perception, one is presented only with the appearance of the object, not with the object as it is in itself" (Botica, 1996, p. 4). Furthermore, in all experience, "the knower experiences an object by virtue of the mediation of *space* and *time*." In other words, "if we omit from the empirical intuitions of bodies and their alterations (motion) everything empirical, i.e., belonging to sensation, space and time still remain, and are therefore pure intuitions that lie *a priori* at the basis of the empirical" (Kant, 1977, 27). In addition to the categories of *space* and *time*, Kant identified a number of secondary categories of understanding which pre-condition our perception of reality. These become "concepts which are fundamental to all knowledge," and which are "merely intellectual, having their origin solely in the understanding" (Young, 1992, pp. 101-102; Kant, 1977, 46). Again, "Kant sees these categories as purely intellectual, a priori ideas which regulate and determine all human knowledge of external things" (Botica, 1996, p. 5).

The philosophy of Kant has been considered both revolutionary and a mixed blessing. For some, Kant introduced a number of concepts that have changed for ever the landscape of all subsequent philosophy (Hahn, 1988; Walker, 2006, pp. 238-268). But others have raised a number of objections, especially with respect his epistemology. For example, Olroyd argued that Kant might have made up his list of categories and then "constructed the list of judgments to fit it" (1986, p. 7). Coppleston noted that, on the one hand Kant argued that human beings may be "phenomenally determined," while on the other hand making the concept of "freedom" essential to the success of his moral philosophy (Coppleston, 1964, vol. 6:291). The question remains: "how could he trust the one and ignore the other?"

Furthermore, rather than postulating the a priori categories of *space* and *time*, it would make more sense to explain them as being conditioned by the everyday interaction between human beings and the external world outside. We believe that, unless one proves that people first engaged "in geometrical and arithmetical reasoning apart from their experiencing with everyday life situations," one may not conclude that "the concepts of space and time (vital to arithmetic's and geometry) can be derived apart from sense experience" (Botica, 1996, pp. 8-9). For example, how could a person who is "totally deprived of sense experience" think of, or "prove, the *a priori* nature of time and space"? We can ask the same questions with respect to the notion of "quantity," or, for that reason, "quality" or "relation." In others words, "what makes quantity a pure a priori, intellectual category independent of sense perception?" Could one meaningfully claim that he or she understands the idea of "quantity" in abstraction from *sense experience*? How so? Unless one admits the presence of the objective world, one cannot meaningfully argue about categories of space and time. It is worth

asking, then, to what extent has Reader-Response criticism been influenced by the epistemological perspective of Kantian philosophy? To put this into the context of our subject-matter, what good does it do to doubt or minimize the intended meaning of the author of a text?

3. The Revolutions of Science

Another current of thought that had a wide impact on the sciences and the arts has been “anti-logical positivism.” Namely, that all scientific laws are “theory laden” laws. Simply put, that all theories regarding the analysis of reality are pure “subjectively interpreted” theories. According to this perspective there appears to be “no privileged method of scientific inquiry which, if followed, will lead to the successful acquisition of knowledge” (Olroyd, 1986, pp. 135, 335, vs. Feyerabend’s argument in *Against Method*, 1993). As with Kuhn’s paradigm of “scientific revolutions,” Feyerabend argued that new scientific ideas are produced at the expense of proving former ideas wrong, or ineffective. This process of explaining the same “reality” by virtue of multiple different theories proves how finite human perception is. What Kant applied to epistemology others have applied to entire paradigms of scientific progress.

Referring to Kuhn’s concept of “revolutions in science,” Stephen Bonnycastle (1991) noted that “once you become aware of the existence of paradigms, ...you can see that the ‘truths’ about the world – about religion, politics, and even science – are not absolute truths; they depend on particular paradigms” (p. 42). In a similar way, since the literary critic approaches the texts from one’s own paradigm, the meaning that he or she derives is, by necessity, a “paradigm-relative” meaning. Bonnycastle believes that Kuhn’s argument “is illuminating about the study of literature” because there is no agreement as to what form of criticism truly characterizes the study of literature. The only hope that one can cherish is that one day the new paradigm that will evolve and “work in literary study will seem less chaotic” (p. 48).

Evidently, science and literary theory operate with relatively different data. We believe that this critical distinction has not been weighed properly by much of contemporary literary criticism. To a certain extent, scientists agree that a lot of the data from the world out there is yet to be understood and explained. Yet science must start from the premise that the outer world is objective and that it can be examined and known. Otherwise, many of the inventions in science today would have been unimaginable. As Kimbell (1989) pointed out, “the very power science has given us to manipulate and control reality shows that its truths, though reductive, are genuinely universal.” Even a philosopher of science like Kuhn defended himself against the label of “relativist.” True: science has developed in paradigm shifts: the failure of one giving rise to the birth of another. But admitting the fact of “change” and “progress” does not necessarily imply the rejection of objective truth. Yes, Kuhn believes that scientific theories cannot claim access to the ultimate, ontological form of reality, since that would contradict the nature of science as revolutionary progress. Yet he also noted (1970) that,

Later scientific theories are better than earlier ones for solving puzzles in the often quite different environments to which they are applied. That is not a relativist position, and it displays the sense in which I am a convinced believer in scientific progress (p. 206).

For Kuhn (2012), progress means reaching for an objective that is attainable. In this sense scientists are “fundamentally puzzle-solvers” (p. 204). Indeed they cannot operate with the assumption that all scientific truth is relative, even though a number of scholars have charged Kuhn with this view (P. Hoyningen-Huene, 1993, p. 260ff., N. Capaldi, 1998, pp. 62-63, and D. Stanesby, 2013, pp.145-146). In this sense, we believe it is essential to be aware that Reader-Response criticism has not developed in a cultural/philosophical vacuum.

4. Reader-Response Criticism

Before evaluating the claims of Reader-Response criticism, it is important that we describe some of the elements of Formalism, the very movement against which Reader-Response criticism rose.

4.1 Formalism

Traditionally, authors have argued that the vehicle of “value” or “meaning” in the exercise of literature is the text, the work of a given author. That is why, perhaps, many critics have charged that traditional criticism so values the text itself that the reader risks becoming almost non-existent or “transparent.” In Bonnycastle’s view (1991), “the reader is supposed to be transparent – to make himself or herself conform as closely as possible to the mind of the author. But most people

don't want to be invisible – they want to gain authority and presence themselves” (p. 55). This leads us now to focus more closely on the logic of Traditionalism and Formalism, two schools that emphasized the integrity of the original text. This, in spite of the fact that certain Formalist critics distrusted the emphasis that Traditionalism put on criteria such as the historical, socio-cultural and personal context of the author of the text.

When studying attentively the content of a poem, with attention to its form and structure, the critic should be able to understand and experience aesthetically the work as such. For example, applying this critical method, the school of Formalism emphasized the “intensive reading” of a text, “with a sensitivity to the words of the text and all their denotative and connotative values and implications. An awareness of multiple meanings, “even the etymologies of the words, will offer significant guidelines to what the work says” (Guerin, 1992, p. 66). For this reason the Formalist critic believes that there exists some underlying value in the work itself, and that this can be understood and aesthetically experienced. In other words, that the work has an “intended meaning” *in itself*, one that may reflect – to a certain extent – the very purpose of the author itself. Hence, the concern of the reader should be to let the text speak for itself and find its value apart from any personal, subjectively or pragmatically conditioned, impositions on the text.

Now, neither Formalism, nor the Tradition schools of criticism that have operated with these assumptions, has excluded the factor of the personal experience of the reader when “experimenting” with a text. Permitting the text to speak for itself does not depersonalize the reader; neither does it neglect the inherent subjectivism that he or she will bring to the reading experience. Rather, one will cultivate the concern with the “primacy of the text” in order that all subsequent evaluation, experience, personal enjoyment, and criticism be possible in the first place. As Guerin (1992) pointed, “after we have mastered the individual words in the literary text, we look for structures and patterns, interrelationships,” for these “reveal a form, a principle by which all subordinate patterns can be accustomed and accounted for” (p. 66). This analytic approach – where “all the words, phrases, metaphors, images, and symbols” are studied “in terms of each other and of the whole” – eventually yields in the text’s displaying of “its own internal logic.” According to the Formalist critic, “when that logic has been established, the reader is very close to identifying the overall form of the work.”

The poem need not be “all truth bearing,” in the sense of claiming some spiritual or scientific authority to be recognized and accepted by all readers. One may think, for example, of the *Call of the Wild*. Now, the “naturalist” worldview of the author need not be entirely adopted by the reader as an a priori condition for either agreeing to read the text in the first place, or to understand the meaning and literary value of the work itself. London’s artistic merits ought to be judged *stricto sensu* by literary criteria alone. It is in this context that the usage of metaphors and the plot, along with the ability to reflect the struggle of life in an aesthetically wonderful manner, convince the reader to recognize the value, and understand the authorial meaning, of the work. In this way, at the end of the literary analysis, the reader will have been offered enough details to understand the meaning that Jack London intended. That is, a meaning independent of the reader’s acceptance of, or disagreement with, London’s world view. A reader may be touched by London’s superb portrayal of the experiences of the Buck character, and still not surrender to London’s hopeless world view. Evidently, artistic beauty and truth about life may blend together. However, since not everyone shares the same worldview, the only criterion that all may accept remains the literary vehicle of the text, its greatness and the aesthetic qualities that the reader will recognize and experience. Unless some standard of objectivism is assumed, all subsequent efforts toward evaluating a work of art will be jeopardized.

In this sense, the formalist or the traditionalist critic will insist that questions about the subjective experience of the reader have always been asked by these schools. The problem should not be whether the reader is important or not, but what is his or her place in the hierarchy of the meaning of the work itself.

4.2 Reader-Response Criticism

We believe that Immanuel Kant instilled in the philosophical discourse that followed after him an attitude of “epistemic pessimism.” While he might have not had a direct influence on Reader-Response critics, this pessimism spilled over into the fields of *science* and *literature*, and that literary critics have used the change of paradigms in philosophy and science to advance an attitude of “anti-foundationalism” against traditional norms (Kimbell, 1989). Scholars have also shown that Reader-Response critics have been influenced by subsequent developments of Kantian epistemology, such as the school of Phenomenology (Barber, 2010, p. 231-34). With Kant, Husserl argued that one cannot be certain of the world outside, but only of the construct that he or she has formed inwardly. Husserl coined this process a “phenomenological reaction.” In essence, what the observer experiences are the “phenomena” that are being constructed within his or her mind, at the moment he or she perceives reality. Husserl believed that the aesthetic consciousness is “concerned with

the way in which an object *appears*, and not with its existence" (Brough, 2010, pp. 151-53). Husserl's emphasis on "subjectivity" had a sizeable impact on German literary critics like Wolfgang Iser and Hans Robert Jauss (Kharbe, 2009, p. 386, and Wolfgang Iser. 1980, p. 50-69). In the Anglo-Saxon context, the first efforts toward a theory that developed later into the Reader-Response school were made by authors like I.A. Richards, D.W. Harding, L. Rosenblatt, and especially with Walker Gibson (Burke, 1988, pp. 1-19, S. Suleiman, 1980, pp. 3-45, Tompkins, 1980, and Leitch, 1988, pp. 210-3).

Reader-Response criticism "arose as a critical theory in response to formalist interpretations of literature" (Kharbe, p. 380). Against Formalism, Reader-Response criticism argued that one cannot experience reality but through his or her own "cognitive categories." This has meant that even the beliefs that an author may share in his or her text are "author-relative" beliefs. In other words, "imprisoned in our convictions, incapable of stepping outside of the institutions that define us, we can never know the differing from oneself so frequently associated with literary experience" (Kharbe, p. 169).

Questions such as these have been best conceptualized by the Reader-Response school of literary criticism (Berube, 2004, pp. 11-13, and Kharbe, 2009, pp. 380-83). According to Reader-Response critics, instead of asking 'what does this sentence mean?' one should ask "what does this sentence do?" (William, 1984, p. 154). What makes reading critical is the experience itself. As Fish noted (1980b), "the meaning of any utterance, I repeat, is its experience – all of it – and that experience is immediately compromised the moment you say anything about it" (p. 65). There exists, then, no pure subject and no pure object in the encounter between the reader and the text itself (see Babaeae, 2012, pp. 18-24). There only exists an "interpretive community." Meaning becomes the temporal fruit of experience and, as soon as experience changes, meaning changes itself as well. That is why one needs to reexamine the sense of the word "literal," as in the "literal sense of this passage is..." Fish (1978) explains that

[. . .] we usually reserve 'literal' for the single meaning a text will always (or should always) have, while I am using 'literal' to refer to the different single meanings a text will have in a succession of different situations. There always is a literal meaning because in any situation there is always a meaning that seems obvious in the sense that it is there independently of anything we might do. But that only means that we have already done it, and in another situation, when we have already done something else, there will be another obvious, that is, literal, meaning [...]. We are never in a situation. Because we are never in a situation, we are never in the act of interpreting. Because we are never in the act of interpreting, there is no possibility of reaching a level of meaning beyond or below interpretation (pp. 625-44).

That is why, since there exists no inherent meaning apart from what is conditioned by the experience of the reader, the ontological status of meaning becomes irrelevant or, at best, marginal for the critic. This position shares the assumption that "meaning is not some 'thing' to be found, for it is itself the finding – and that finding can only occur to the extent that it already has" (Ray, 1984, p.164). The situation in which one finds himself or herself will always determine one's understanding of the text. In this sense, all interpretation of literary texts can only be contextually relative to the world view and life-situation of the reader.

Ironically, in addition to casting doubt on human reason, this approach invests the observer with a new role: *constructor* of reality. If one is unable to access ultimate reality, at least he or she may construct a temporary and relative version of the original, whatever that might be. Either directly or indirectly, this line of reasoning appears to have informed the worldview of Reader-Response critics. Here too, the essential assumption is that human reason is incapable of knowing the real text as it is in itself, because the reader is a constructor of reality. Knowing becomes constructing. The ontological essence of reality is broken down into information that can be fed to human reason. There is no "given" insight into the nature of reality that the scientist can claim. There is not "objective meaning" of the text that the reader may possess. All interpretation means, essentially, reconstruction.

As we will argue, what is at stake here is the underlying assumption that the Reader-Response theorists worked with and whether its claims are justified or not. Now, if one thought of the text as a datum that must be examined and understood, should he or she expect the same limitations in discerning the intent of the author of the text? Does the analogy have the same explanatory power or relevance in literature as the theory does in science? As we have noted so far, a number of literary critics believe that both the scientist and the reader are conditioned by the same subjective limitations and that the final result will eventually have to be identical: temporal, subjective knowledge at best, but never pure objectivity. We believe, however, that there exist a number of differences between this Kantian scenario and the world of literary criticism.

There exists a fundamental difference, both in worldview and in methodology, between the aims of the scientist as a puzzle-solver and Reader-Response's critic as "creator of meaning." As Michael Berube (2004) pointed out, at least "Kuhn offered an account of how ordinary science produces anomalies that challenge paradigms, and Fish has not" (p.

23). And indeed he can't, because science views the outside reality in a way that Reader-Response critics don't. Note Kimball (1989) too, for,

The simple fact of scientific progress—relying as it does on there being some descriptions of phenomena that are demonstrably more objective than others—effectively undercuts the anti-foundationalist ambition to disenfranchise the notion of truth and transform facts into a form of exotic political capital generated by “interpretive communities.”

In this sense, we want to argue that one critical element is missing in scientific research, but not in literary criticism: the factor of the *author of the data*. For example, many scientists today would disregard the notion that God exists and that, as Creator of the universe, he may be consulted about the ultimate makeup of the universe. This is so because, unless the possibility of the existence of God is reasonably established, the very suggestion to asking God about the essence of the universe would seem utterly meaningless to them.

However, the existence of the author of a given text cannot be denied. We believe this remains a painful thorn in the flesh of Reader-Response critics. Obviously there are minor exceptions to this rule, especially as is the case with ancient anonymous texts like *Enuma Elish*, the ancient *Egyptian Funerary Texts* or *The Book of the Dead*. Yet, even in situations like this, the best a critic can do is to doubt knowledge of the author, not of the fact that the text can be understood or that it has an author. One may also think about known circumstances or historical events that might have influenced the authors themselves. For example, we can pinpoint with some accuracy the historical events that spurred authors like Plato (*The Apology*), Dostoyevsky (*The House of the Dead*), and C.S. Lewis (*A Grief Observed*) to pen their works. It would be unrealistic to dismiss the data that a critic can obtain from the historical, social, cultural and religious context in which the author lived, or from accounts about his or her own personal history.

Now, an alternative solution for the critic would be to contend that once the poem became public reading, it loses its originally intended meaning. When reading a text, the reader has access to data that were created by another human being. The author of the text operates with syntax, grammar, figures of style and other tools through which he or she conveys meaning. Unless there existed a background that the writer shared with the reader, the experience of reading would be hard to imagine. Even texts in which an author employed ambiguity, equivocation, or allegories follow rules that have been consciously agreed upon by a given community or communities.

It is true that the reader, conditioned by his or her own subjective experience, is not merely a participant, but an active creator of meaning. But the mere fact of subjectivity on the part of one or countless readers does not, by itself, invalidate the ontological integrity of the text. As C.S. Lewis (1961) argued, “a work of art can be either ‘received’ or ‘used’” (p. 88). Unless the reader discovers first some part of the intended meaning of a work there hardly remains any possibility for a critical evaluation or even true personal enjoyments of that work. “Ideally, we must receive it first and then evaluate it. Otherwise, we have nothing to evaluate,” explains Lewis. Indeed, “the effect must precede the judgment on the effect” (p. 92). In fact, the very existence of literature as a self-corrective discipline implies some inherent authority or value to which people must refer. We believe that Lewis’ notion of “discovering” rather than “creating” meaning remains worthy of being considered

We agree with the notion that the reading of the same text by one person, at different times, may induce dissimilar meanings in the perception of that person. It is also true that a text can produce various or even contradictory experiences, and thus meanings, in different readers. As various scholars have shown, for Stanley Fish the force of literature is “an affective one” (Babae, 2012, p. 20). Literature is an experience, is “something you do.” However, what we want to question is not the subjective experience of the reader, but the assertion that the work itself – the reality out there – cannot be known in its objective state. Or that an objective reality even exists! We believe that once the author has decided upon sharing a given experience, at a given time, and has employed figures of speech, syntax, grammar and content in a coherent manner, the final product becomes a datum that ought to be known as it is. This should be true whether we think of fiction, biography, history or university textbooks. Our basic assumption is that the paradigmatic Kuhnian theory, employed as comparative model for literary criticism – breaks down at a certain point, unless one restricts them to their own fields of expertise.

Now, it is true that poems, for example, can elicit different feelings at different occasions in the experience of the reader. No one will deny that each particular reader brings to the reading experience his or her own worldview, along with the personal struggles, feelings of joy, sadness and other emotional states. Just as no one will contend that subsequent readings of the same text may elicit new or even contradictory dimensions of experience or insights in the life of the reader. Note that for Reader-Response critics, the reader will always be part of an interpretive community which evolves and changes its own ways of interpreting reality. As Fish (1980c) argues, the interpretive communities “are no more stable than the texts because interpretive strategies are not natural or universal, but learned” (p. 172). What we state,

however, is that the Reader-Response critic needs to do a better job explaining why is it impossible for the reader to access the one meaning that the one author intended to convey at one given time? Or why the critic should not approach the text with the assumption that an objective meaning even exists, or that it is relevant for the reading experience? To use a cliché argument: why should one trust the coherence of the Reader-Response theory, if the notion of “coherent objectivity” is denied by the very logic of this theory?

The assertion is made that the reader is conditioned by his or her life situation, which makes all meaning an „experience-relative” meaning. Yet, what if an author were asked to identify the meaning that he or she intended for a given text? Let us assume, for the sake of the argument, that the American poet Emily Dickinson (1993) had been asked if, in the poem *Death and Life* (Apparently With No Surprise), she sought to convey the inconsistency between the belief in loving God and the evil of the “frost” killing a “happy flower” (p. 98).

*“Apparently with no surprise
To any happy flower
The Frost beheads it at its play
In accidental power
The blond assassin passes on
The sun proceeds unmoved
To measure off another day
For an approving God.”*

Suppose that in the last three decades Reader-Response critics have come to various conclusions as what Dickinson might have intended to convey in the poem. For the sake of the argument, let us assume that in 2013 a scholar named Francis discovered a letter in which Emily Dickinson detailed the exact meaning that she had intended in the poem. Finally, Francis would write an essay about *Death and Life*, underlying the exact meaning that Dickinson had intended in the poem, yet without disclosing the fact that Dickinson herself revealed that particular meaning. Francis also relied on knowledge of Dickinson’s own (melancholic) personality and (frail) physical health and the circumstances of her religious beliefs. And, as a response to Francis’ essay, a Reader-Response critic challenged the thesis of the essay, arguing that Francis’ interpretation could only be a “construction” of his own understanding of the text. Would the publication of Dickinson’s own explanation change the view of the Reader-Response’s critic?

We may surmise that, unless the critic were unfaithful to the inner logic of Reader-Response criticism, he or she would have to question even Dickinson’s belief that the text has an objective, author-intended meaning, and that such a meaning can be ascertained. He or she would have to argue that not even Dickinson’s own purpose matter for us today, since she wrote in a particular “life situation” and was conditioned by her own “world view,” cultural background and subjective experiences. For Fish, the attempt to locate meaning “in authorial intention” is doomed to failure for the simple reason that the intention of the author “is necessarily beyond the reach of the critics” (Babae, 2012, p. 24). However, in each of these scenarios what follows is the demise of the author’s own authority; that is, the “death of the author” (Barthes, 1977, pp. 42-48, Freund, 1987, p. 80). Or, as is the case with the example above, to remain true to his or her philosophical commitments, the critic would have to deny the author the right to explain the meaning that he or she had intended in the first place. As Kimball (1989) pointed out, the Reader-Response critic “cannot claim truth for his own theory without denying the relativistic principles upon which it is based.”

Now, in a sense no one denies that different texts have different levels of difficulty and that in some cases it is hard, if not impossible, to reach even relative certainty with respect to “authorial meaning.” At times, multiple meanings may emerge during the reading of a text, especially in the case of long and (intentionally) complicated literary works. There is also the case when authors create suspense by empowering conflicting world-views with the same authority, without allowing a final arbiter to impose a resolution (Garcia, 1995, pp. 113-14). As Garcia noted, we can also imagine scenarios when the author himself may not even be fully aware of all the ramifications of the meaning that he or she intended. Or when authors write under the spell of pure artistic emotions, without consciously imposing a discernible meaning in the text. Or when they “change their minds about the meanings of the texts they have created” (pp. 116). What we are trying to say is that the difficulty or even the impossibility of discerning the meaning of a text cannot be the basis to deny that the text has an intended meaning.

In essence, we agree that the Reader-Response critic may be justified in questioning the possibility that one can discern the intended meaning of a text. The experience of subjectively appropriating one’s own meaning is what makes reading all the more special and unique. Nevertheless, the difficulty or even the inability to discern the intended meaning of a text does not mean that such a meaning does not exist. Since the poem itself is written by intelligent human persons,

there exists a certain dimension of literary meaning, a purpose, an assumed end which appeals – more or less – to the reader's own existence, and to which the reader can relate. Writing a text is a non-repeatable, time and space-bound, unique experience, regardless of how many subsequent interpretations and reinterpretations will have been performed. This final work can indeed be called a "given," even if its semantic significance is passed through the grid of the ever-changing literary community. We agree that what makes a text a literary masterpiece may be its limitless ability to stimulate – with every subsequent reading – profound, but also conflicting aesthetic experiences in the life of the audience. It still remains worth asking why one cannot accept this aspect along with the fact that a text might have an intended meaning and that one can expect to discover it.

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New Technology and Language for Specific Purposes: The Benefits of Moodle Platform

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Abstract

Using Moodle platform in teaching language for specific purposes is an innovation in the Albanian context, as teachers are mainly introduced and trained how to use this platform. This platform is very useful when speaking about using it in such an in consolidated field as language for specific purposes is in Albania. Its implementation and an efficient use seeks specialised help and group work which we have already started in the framework of a two year inter-regional project of the UAF, with a Moldavian university and two French Universities. In this paper, we aim at describing and analysing the advantages that Moodle Platform brings in teaching French for specific purposes and especially in French for economics and law, based on our experience with the above-mentioned project. We will firstly point out the features of the platform, why we have chosen half presentiel teaching method and the implied amount of work for the professor and the learner. Furthermore, we are going to bring a module example that we will use for the both above-mentioned fields. At the end, we are going to make some suggestions of how to integrate new technology in consolidating the main three fields we have at present in the Faculty of Foreign Languages: methodology, translation and communication.

Keywords : Moodle platform, language for specific purposes, innovation, economics/law

1. Description du Contexte Albanais et de l'Enseignement du FOS

Le français de spécialité en Albanie est un domaine où actuellement les enseignants/chercheurs s'investissent beaucoup, tenant compte des besoins au niveau de la méthodologie du travail et des contenus à proposer à un public spécifique. Quand il s'agit encore d'alterner les nouvelles technologies avec l'enseignement du FOS très peu a été fait, car les dispositifs de formation ne sont pas encore complètement adaptés à une intégration des technologies. Il est vrai quand même que de plus en plus de projets développés de la part des universitaires, tentent à travers un travail en équipe de consolider l'enseignement du FOS profitant des échanges avec les pays de la région qui travaillent depuis longtemps sur des DNL (disciplines non linguistiques) ou qui visent le perfectionnement des compétences langagières et communicatives dans des domaines particuliers du français sur objectifs spécifiques. (Nasufi/Vishkurti 2012)

En Albanie juste après la mise en place de la Convention de Bologne les matières dispensées dans les cursus universitaires se sont diversifiées, dépassant ainsi largement celles liées aux axes de la langue/littérature/traduction. Le FOS et les technologies nouvelles sont maintenant une partie intégrante des curriculums à l'université, mais il n'y a pas forcément un effort de harmonisation entre ces deux aspects et c'est comme s'ils étaient divergents. Ceci est dû à plusieurs facteurs dont les plus importants ce sont les refontes fréquentes des curricula, le manque de salles d'informatique ou le manque de formations pertinentes. Or, les besoins des étudiants en FOS sont de plus en plus nombreux, car les débouchés professionnels ont considérablement changé il y a presque une décennie. Dans la Faculté des Langues Etrangères de Tirana le contingent le plus important des étudiants a depuis toujours été formé pour devenir professeur de langue du lycée, mais actuellement on délivre aussi des diplômes pour de futurs traducteurs/interprètes et dans le domaine de la communication interculturelle/touristique.

2. La Plateforme Moodle et ses Caractéristiques

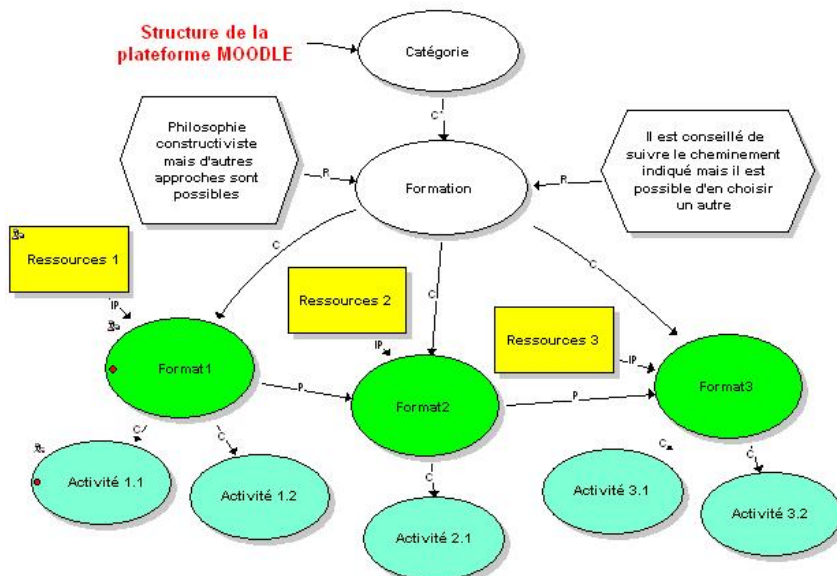
Cette plateforme FOAD est adoptée déjà par beaucoup d'universités avec lesquelles nous avons des partenariats ou

dans les manifestations scientifiques desquelles nous participons depuis longtemps. En plus il paraît que dans ces établissements on reconnaît facilement l'utilité et l'intérêt d'une telle plateforme. Il paraît que les trois dimensions du triangle didactique ici, à savoir l'apprenant/ le professeur/ les supports sont reliés de la meilleure manière possible à travers l'interaction que nécessite ce format. Les raisons de son succès sont dues à l'aspect attrayant de son interface pour sa simplicité, sa compatibilité et son efficacité. Il est important de souligner que Moodle permet de prévoir une richesse d'activités comme des forums, des blogs, des conceptions de tests, des créations de bases de données ou des glossaires ce qui répond aux besoins des apprenants et de concepteurs en même temps. Des supports multimédias sont parfaitement compatibles avec la nature de cette plateforme, donc ils pourraient y être introduits si le formateur le retient nécessaire.

L'évaluation à travers Moodle est une tâche qui devient très intéressante pour les formateurs, car à part les calendriers que la plateforme gère très bien, il existe aussi la possibilité d'obtenir des rapports d'usage détaillés du public avec lequel on travaille. Un autre élément qui fait le succès de Moodle c'est son caractère modulaire, ce qui veut dire qu'à de différents niveaux peuvent être introduites ou supprimées des fonctionnalités quasi quotidiennement, mais également elle peut convenir à des personnes isolées et à des groupes.

Les scénarios d'apprentissage peuvent être choisis par le formateur, que ce soit le 100% en ligne ou le semi-présentiel comme forme complémentaire des cours dispensés sous la forme traditionnelle. De différentes formes de communication et d'apprentissage peuvent être d'ailleurs choisies en s'adaptant aux consignes reçues : la communication synchrone ou asynchrone, l'apprentissage collaboratif, la réflexion critique. Tous ces éléments attestent d'un contenu dynamique qui ne peut que favoriser la motivation et réaliser une multitude de tâches différemment à chaque fois. En plus six contenus interactifs peuvent être incorporés aux cours : devoir à rendre, choix (une seule question), carnet (journal en ligne), leçon (activité de branchement conditionnel), questionnaire (test en ligne) et sondage. (Moore, 2010, p. 28)

La théorie servant de base de conception de Moodle c'est le socio-constructivisme qui met au centre de son attention le champ social dans lequel se réalise l'acquisition de connaissances durables. Selon cette conception les expériences et les compétences des apprenants devraient nécessairement être prises en compte par les enseignants, mais parallèlement ils devront essayer de forger parmi les apprenants une aptitude à développer et à gérer des interactions sociales. Voici un schéma qui nous semble représenter au mieux ce que la plateforme Moodle représente :



Source : http://www.ingegraph.com/editables/fr/modeles/Plateforme_Moodle/

3. Définition du projet en cours

Notre projet porte sur la mise en ligne de modules FOS en droit et économie et bénéficie du soutien de l'Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie qui dans le cadre de sa programmation quadriennale 2010-2013 promeut la diversité linguistique et culturelle. Le consortium des universités qui se sont engagées dans ce projet se compose par l'Université d'Etat de Moldova, l'Université de Tirana, l'Université Polytechnique de Tirana, l'Université Clermont Ferrand et l'Université Paul Valéry Montpellier III. Les universités françaises jouent le rôle de l'expert dans notre projet, car elles utilisent depuis longtemps les nouvelles technologies dans leurs formations au niveau licence et master.

Le projet a démarré en janvier 2012 et il vise la conception commune de supports de cours en ligne pour les étudiants albanais et moldaves désirant se former en français du droit et de l'économie. Les cours seront conçus en se basant sur les orientations du CECRL et ses descripteurs de niveaux, mais également en respectant la pédagogie de la tâche et de l'interculturel. Le niveau des contenus proposés sera le niveau B1 tenant compte du niveau de la plupart des étudiants qui utiliseront ces cours.

Pour les universités albanaises qui sont partie prenantes de ce projet les bénéfices sont multiples.

En premier lieu il va contribuer à l'amélioration du niveau de l'enseignement du français à visée professionnelle et va intégrer de nouvelles pratiques d'enseignement dans ce domaine en les adaptant aux innovations les plus récentes.

En deuxième lieu il vise à renforcer le lien entre la recherche et l'enseignement en rendant moins évident le fossé qui existe entre ces deux aspects, pour que l'enseignement s'oriente vers l'adaptation la plus rapide aux nouveaux besoins qui naissent dans le domaine de l'enseignement de la langue de la profession.

En troisième lieu ce projet va influencer à changer ou à modifier les représentations des professeurs sur l'enseignement de la langue française à caractère professionnel en l'orientant plutôt vers une meilleure communication des jeunes dans de différentes situations où ils pourraient se retrouver pendant leur carrière professionnelle.

En dernier lieu il a comme objectif de créer et consolider une nouvelle conception sur la langue française comme langue de communication interpersonnelle et professionnelle au niveau international, à travers l'utilisation de Moodle, par les étudiants albanais et moldaves en échangeant leur opinion et en communiquant en langue étrangère. En même temps le rôle du professeur se voit changer ici, car il est vu comme une relation complexe où sont enchevêtrées de différentes composantes de son activité professionnelle. Pour Karsenti (2001) le formateur "doit se présenter en personne et comme une personne quand il travaille avec son public, en fait la personne même du formateur devient un moyen du travail interactif". (p. 105)

Tenant compte du contexte albanais de l'enseignement de la langue à visée professionnelle, à travers ce projet on a comme objectif de passer d'un enseignement basé sur l'exercice d'activités passives en langue (compréhension et production écrite) à l'utilisation de la langue dans de différentes situations de communication orale et écrite grâce auxquelles les étudiants devront utiliser la langue étrangère dans la réalité quotidienne et professionnelle.

Le projet apporte aussi d'autres innovations que nous présentons succinctement :

- le choix des contenus fait en fonction des situations de communication professionnelle et non pas en fonction des compétences langagières.
- la formation de spécialistes dans le domaine de l'enseignement du français à visée professionnelle, tenant compte que la plupart des professeurs ont reçu une formation littéraire ou linguistique.
- la conception de curricula communs dans le domaine du FOS, donc une meilleure intégration des universités albanaises dans des réseaux interrégionaux de chercheurs qui partagent les recherches en français et sur le français.

Pourtant il ne faudrait pas considérer que l'intégration des nouvelles technologies et dans ce cas de la plateforme en question c'est un processus qui se fait du jour au lendemain et les professeurs ce sont les premiers acteurs qui passent par quelques phases à cet égard. Comme le souligne également Karsenti (2005) l'utilisation des TIC se fait en quatre stades : le stade de la sensibilisation, le stade de l'utilisation personnelle, le stade de l'utilisation professionnelle et le stade de l'utilisation pédagogique. (p. 89)

Pendant le premier stade il faudrait tenir compte que les professeurs à travers des personnes de leur entourage entendent parler de l'utilisation de TIC, mais n'ont pas encore utilisé ou été en contact direct avec les technologies. Pendant le deuxième stade le professeur explore et s'approprie de règles à caractère technique qui lui permettent de profiter des technologies plutôt pour des besoins personnels. Le troisième stade correspond à une autre motivation pour utiliser les TIC, celle à pouvoir satisfaire à des besoins d'ordre professionnel, comme la production d'un bulletin informatisé ou besoin de consulter des informations en ligne suite à un atelier. Le dernier stade est celui où le professeur inclut aussi ses apprenants dans ce qu'il fait à l'aide des technologies, donc les apprenants sont obligés eux aussi à les

utiliser en classe de langue. Quand il faut travailler sur un projet lié aux nouvelles technologies tous les formateurs d'une manière ou d'une autre vivent ces étapes et ceci est valable aussi pour le cas de l'utilisation progressive de Moodle pour les quatre raisons qui correspondent à ces quatre stades.

4. Un exemple de modèle à suivre pour les modules

Déterminer l'ébauche commune sur laquelle il nous a fallu commencer le travail n'a pas été une tâche facile pour les équipes de ce projet, parce qu'il y a eu beaucoup d'aspects à déterminer par rapport aux différences légères ou importantes entre nos contextes, au nombre d'heures consacrées aux cours en ligne, à l'approche privilégiée, aux modalités d'évaluation ou encore aux aspects techniques du choix des activités. Grâce à la formation assurée par une formatrice de Clermont Ferrand, en mai 2012 à Tirana, nous avons pu établir un modèle d'une unité que les équipes sont en train d'utiliser pour leurs modules. Chaque membre des équipes devra concevoir deux modules aux thématiques différentes, mais tous vont travailler sur le modèle ci-dessous. Ce module comme nous l'avons mentionné un peu plus en dessus quand nous avons traité les caractéristiques de la plateforme Moodle, pourra être enrichi encore en fonction de la spécificité de chaque module et de ses thématiques.

- Unité numérotée +titre+ visuel
- (=une section sur Moodle)
- Descriptif de l'unité: pré-requis, niveau, objectifs, compétences visées
- Support de travail
- Consignes de travail : compréhension, lexique, production
- Corrigés : compréhension, lexique
- Forum des questions
- Rubrique Interculturel
- Aides: liens, dico-grammaire, exercices complémentaires, glossaire
- Test final : une production à rendre pour chaque unité

Pour chacune des parties composantes de ce schéma nous avons discuté sur les modalités de travail et nous avons eu entre autres des réponses aux questions suivantes :

- comment faire en sorte que les étudiants participent aux forums proposés
- quelle typologie de questions faudrait-il concevoir autour des supports de travail
- comment établir des calendriers de travail pour les étudiants
- quels types de fichiers vidéo proposer sur Moodle
- quelle place et rôle pour le tuteur
- comment créer des exercices pour Moodle

Nous listerons ici la typologie des questions qui se prêtent le mieux à une élaboration aux supports que nous visons mettre sur Moodle, car cela constitue en réalité un grand travail à fournir par les concepteurs et bien évidemment pour les futurs utilisateurs aussi. Ainsi dans le cadre de nos modules nous avons convenu grâce aux discussions pendant la formation, que les types de questions les plus adaptées à nos contenus ce seront :

- questions vrai/faux : ce sont surtout des questions prévues pour des supports courts ou au début des activités de compréhension, pour permettre aux étudiants d'aller du plus facile au plus difficile.
- questions closes : il s'agit de l'intégrer à un texte qui est complet, mais auquel on tente de donner une réponse en choisissant une forme précise.
- les questions d'appariement : c'est une forme de questions qui convient très bien pour des notions en droit et économie qui sont difficiles à saisir et dont on donne une explication prédéfinie.
- questions à choix multiple : ce type de question se prête très bien à des réponses multiples surtout pour des documents longs pour lesquels il faudra faire un plus grand travail de repérage.
- composition : c'est ce que nous avons prévu surtout pour la production écrite à rendre à la fin de chaque unité, car ce type de question permet aux apprenants de porter des éléments d'informations organisés en paragraphes donc en texte.
- questions nécessitant une réponse courte : ces réponses peuvent avoir la longueur d'un mot ou d'une phrase.
- question numérique : la réponse de ce type de question peut être donnée avec un degré d'approximation. Ce sont les modules de l'économie qui se prêtent le mieux à l'intégration de ce type de réponses, vu le plus grand nombre de tableaux, de graphiques ou de données statistiques à analyser ou commenter.

La manière dont on doit configurer ces types de questions concrètement sur Moodle a été un des objectifs d'une autre formation qui a eu lieu à Tirana en juin 2012. Cette fois-ci son objectif c'était surtout des aspects techniques de l'utilisation de Moodle comme par exemple la conception d'exercices à l'aide de Hot Patatoes, ce qui a été une grande aide pour l'équipe des professeurs albanais. La collègue bulgare qui assurait la formation nous a aidés aussi à mieux comprendre et sélectionner les types d'activités à prévoir sur la plateforme en tâchant de les diversifier et de les introduire dans les sections adéquates.

5. Conclusion

Travailler sur le FOS à travers la plateforme Moodle est un atout pour aller vers la consolidation de la langue de la profession en Albanie, mais aussi dans un avenir proche pour d'autres disciplines qui n'ont pas nécessairement affaire avec la langue étrangère. En ce qui nous concerne, beaucoup a été fait jusqu'à cette phase du projet, mais cet environnement hybride comme Moodle est une innovation pour nos contextes, donc à la fin de la conception des modules il restera à évaluer la pertinence du dispositif en faisant une expérimentation auprès d'un établissement français ou notre propre établissement.

Une partie des modalités de travail sur la plateforme sont différentes de celles traditionnelles, ce qui demande un très grand travail pour la conception de toutes les activités, des supports, des formes d'interaction envisagées avant de proposer des cours complets. Même s'il s'agit par exemple de mettre en place une évaluation sommative et formative selon les cas, il faudrait faire un travail méticuleux pour trouver les astuces qui permettent de faire fonctionner toutes les roues du mécanisme. Il n'est pas uniquement question de proposer des forums de discussion, mais de porter les étudiants vers le but final, c'est à dire déclencher une réelle communication entre eux.

Moodle ce sera un moyen d'accroître également l'intérêt pour le français et en particulier pour le français de droit et économie, parce que la plateforme pourrait remédier au manque de supports ou de manuels de spécialité dans le contexte albanais. Or, nous sommes de l'idée que cette plateforme pourrait servir d'exemple de travail même à l'intérieur des départements de langue à la Faculté des Langues Etrangères, pour les matières les plus importantes de nos curricula. Une partie des cours pourrait être mis sur cette plateforme, car cela aide aussi les étudiants à changer quelques représentations sur le processus d'acquisition des savoirs, en les rendant plus réflexifs et interactifs pendant leur apprentissage même des disciplines à caractère plutôt théorique comme la communication, la didactique ou encore les cours magistraux de la traduction. Les liens vers des glossaires, vers des documents authentiques, les formes de passation des examens partiels, l'illustration par des vidéos de pratiques de classe, l'analyse en ligne de différents systèmes de communication dont la communication par l'image seraient tant d'aspects et non pas les seuls qui pourraient motiver considérablement nos étudiants. Introduire les nouvelles technologies ne doit plus signifier introduire des logiciels qui deviennent parfois encombrants pendant les cours, mais donner une solution pertinente à une lacune ou satisfaire à un besoin réel du public avec lequel nous travaillons.

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Implicit Learning is a General Predictor of Professional Development Success and the Achievement of Expert Level

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Abstract

Searching cognitive predictors of effective professional development need for the HR practice and science cognitive research. This study is directed towards a definition of integration of intellectual abilities as predictors of practical success in different professions. Correlation between the level of psychometric intelligence structures, creativity and implicit learning in different professions: specialists in information technologies, economists, educators had been identified. Hypothesis that performance on implicit learning tasks are related to professional success through different professions and specific patterns of cognitive characteristics are promoted real achievements in different professional sphere were examined. Data analysis was made by statistical software WizWhy, Mathlab.

1. Introduction

Effective workplace learning, quick entry into professional field and forming of competences, rapidity in qualification growth are required by today's labor market from applicants, young specialists and employees. Searching cognitive predictors of effective professional development is important for HR- practice and science cognitive research.

IQ is traditional predictor of professional achievements in sophisticated forms of activity, in high –technology fields. In some cases, the general intelligence is not sufficient for accurate prediction of achievement, and then adds the creativity, learning, adaptability and other parameters. Which option is the stronger predictor for a specific area of activity?

Hypothesis of this study: the intersection of cognitive function is a predictor of real performance in the forms challenging professional activities. On the other hand, the universal predictor not excluded. Perhaps intelligence works as predictor in some professional field, learning works in the other field, and creativity works in others forms of activity, something else works in other. The special role in predicting professional success may belong to implicit learning.

Appeal to issues of opportunities and mechanisms of increase individual and intellectual potential, intellectual performance, natural and artificial intelligence effectiveness has led to an exponential growth of empirical researches of implicit learning and implicit knowledge. Interest in the implicit cognitive processes has been grown since the work of Arthur Reber and Michael Polanyi publication. This increase is associated with the development of the methodology of the empirical study and formation of specific fields of study of implicit cognitions.

This study addressed to the various cognitive correlations with the implicit learning ability as patterns of properties. These patterns are predictive of success.

2. Theory, Methodology and Philosophy.

The implicit learning in the number of implicit cognition is the most mysterious process give to growth intellectual potential and exit for any intellectual system to the next level. For example, social knowledge typically develops in an implicit form and only later become known. The reason for this is the implicit initially - is that it develops in a relatively slow process of induction, in which many different particles of social information are gradually pieced together through statistical learning processes (Cleermans, 2008). The human can take on various forms of knowledge, including abstract declarative knowledge during implicit learning (Cleermans, Jimenez, 2002; Rey; Goldstein; Perruchet, and others). Acquiring knowledge through implicit learning is critically important for the implementation of activities in various fields, such as the development of speech (Saffran, Newport, Aslin, Tunick, & Barrueco, 1997), the development of the social context (Lewicki, 1986), the perception of music (Dienes & Longuet-Higgins, 2004:), perceptual ability and complex perceptual skills (Kiesel, Kunde, Pohl, Bemer, and Hoffmann, 2009). Implicit learning processes are responsible for the practical

achievements in the intellectual-intensive areas and the expertise of professional development (Gobet & Charness, 2006; Kostrikina, 2010, etc.).

Studies of implicit learning and implicit knowledge was began as two independent lines, but at the time there was a crossing of these empirical areas, as obtained evidence that the implicit learning process a person can take different forms knowledge, including abstract declarative knowledge is critically important for the implementation of activities in the various areas such as the language development , development understanding of the social context, the perception of music, perceptual competence and complex perceptual skills. Implicit learning processes are responsible for practical achievements in the intellectual-intensive areas and the expertise of professional development. Thus, the individual intellectual efficiency largely depends on the processes implicit training and learning.

Reber A., identified this phenomenon in materials and artificial grammar for the first time and defended it as cognition, necessary for the survival of homo sapiens, as adaptive ability to identify patterns of the environment, not independent of conscious attempts to learn and acquire explicit knowledge on learning, the ability of an alternative intelligence (Reber, 1967, 1993).

System-forming role of the category of consciousness in cognitive processes (Vygotsky, 1994) are not sufficiently represented in both Russian and western cognitive studies. Adaptive, creative, predictive functions as common consciousness and intelligence in cognitive researches are still little. Insufficient light of consciousness is manifested in the dominance of the computer metaphor in its early formulations, although consciousness - is not only process information, but also an experience that is beyond a simple calculation (Chalmers, 2008). Investigation of the processes of implicit learning phenomena integrates cognitive processing, subjective phenomenal experience and metacognitions that allow us to study the mind and intelligence in a variety of functional manifestations.

Little empirical research in cognitive psychology and technical developments, taking into account the definition of consciousness as a system provides the most flexible control and behavior management, while knowledge (cognition) are defined as the most important factor in shaping the content of conscious experience. For research of implicit learning in graded, dynamic perspective need identification philosophical foundations. Learning forms the mind and consciousness and reflects the adaptive assessment of the dynamics of the current situation. The question of how to develop and learning is increasing consciousness complexity remains open. It is therefore necessary philosophical appeal and to further methodological appeal to a special sub-symbol level of consciousness, as a unique phenomenon of the human psyche.

Philosophical community should identify the main methodological aspects of research and modeling of implicit learning, and other implicit cognition with the main aspects of the prevailing psychological science and practice, and practice of creating artificial intelligence. It is the following:

- evolutionary aspect is related to the presence of qualitative and irreversible cognitive procedural characteristics to the outcomes of implicit learning intellectual system. For example, the artificial intelligence system with a component of implicit learning is not only a self-learning, but also locally evolving.
- dynamic aspect is manifested in the fact that implicit learning, as well as any cognitive process, providing an effective intellectual activity is not static, as well as the variation in the forms and is in a dynamic, process and interval of changing relations with other cognitive processes and meta-cognitions.
- resource's aspect is manifested in ensuring of the behavior system effectiveness in emergency situations and explication previously involved cognition, i.e. intellectual resources. A resource can be spent or incremented by realizing the potential that determines the range of productivity. Implicit learning is the process of providing cognitive growth and hence the stability of the system in a changing intellectual or obscure circumstances. Perhaps implicit memory or attention distribution has this feature.

The researching implicit cognitions open new perspective on the relationships between conscious and unconscious processing and on the function of consciousness in cognitive systems. Philosophical conceptualization of human cognitive resource allows integrating the accumulated methodologically empirical cognitive research and paradigmatic diversity measurement of implicit cognition. Cognitive sciences closer to solving the mystery of human evolution and co-evolution of consciousness and unconsciousness throw integrating different theories of knowledge and epistemology directions, general branches of philosophy.

Modern methodological study phenomena of implicit cognitions as mechanisms of growth of intelligence bases on the concepts:

- Post-nonclassical science philosophy, priorities interdisciplinary studies the effect of "paradigmatic transplants" and understand science as part of the socio-cultural system that operates with such concepts as social codes and worldview universals;

- Epistemology implicit knowledge, in which it was introduced the notion of implicit, personal knowledge;
- Philosophy of comprehensive knowledge and the concept of knowing the whole man;
- The theory of the evolution of consciousness and awareness, defining "dynamic calibrated perspective" of consciousness and implicit learning as a mechanism for the development of consciousness;
- The concept of implicit learning as the acquisition is not practical knowledge, pushing the limits of intelligence beyond the practical importance of it;
- The philosophy of artificial intelligence, we denote the value of open meaning of the concept intelligence, covers the basics of modeling intelligence as a process of implicit learning subsymbol level of consciousness;
- The ideology of learning information environment as central to the study of cognition;
- The concept of the hierarchy of processes in the system "consciousness - knowledge - learning";

The modern practice of measuring the cognitive processes in the context of predicting success and professional achievements forms a series of dichotomies in the interpretation of empirical data. These are some of them:

Expressed ability vs. adaptive functioning;

Structure vs. function;

Quantity vs. quality;

Common vs. rare;

Academic vs. social-emotional and practice.

Still open questions:

Can we modify cognitive ability general intelligent or implicit learning, or other? How can we modify implicit learning ability for example?

What are the effects from everyday outcomes of modifying implicit learning? Far-transfer effect, long-term changes are possibility?

General methodological problems persist:

Illusive and difficult to define cognitive abilities

Difficult measurements.

In total, the flow of questions and contradictions is created by the volume of empirical data. Empirical data are waiting for their reflection and restructuring, new empirical researches are waiting for new methodological schemes.

3. Empirical issue

This study is directed towards a definition of integration of intellectual abilities as predictors of practical success in different professions. Correlation between the level of psychometric intelligence structures, creativity and implicit learning in different professions representatives with different necessary levels of social activity: information technologies specialists, economists, educators, government servants, had been identified.

Then the hypothesis that performance on implicit learning tasks are related to professional success through different professions and specific patterns of cognitive characteristics are promoted real achievements in different professional sphere were examined in a samples of 560 specialists (age 18-38; information technology specialists, economists, educators, government servants). The experiments on different samples have been being carried out since 2001. Parameters of successful and achievements: High standard of wages, high standard of employment place, successful own business-projects, high category of the government tariff, PHD- degree, expert consulting activity.

Measurements: German intelligence test (Test (1ST), Amthauer, Brocke, Liepmann, & Beauducel, 1999; Russian modification), Group-Embedded Figures Test (GEFT, Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, Karpis), Torrance creativity test (Russian modification), Reber's tasks of artificial grammar (Gebauer and Mackintosh, 2007).

Statistical possessing is performed on different groups and for whole participants. Traditional methods such as correlation analysis, dispersion analysis were used. However findings from results of fuzzy logic methods were more interesting and practical. Data structuring allowed finding more strong and universal predictors and systems crossing of cognitions.

According to data analysis correlates between different structures cognitive abilities are different for group which have practical achievements, professional successful and group without practical achievements, professional successful. Same correlation from group "achievements and successful" is consisted of participants from different professional areas: verbal subtest # 4 and mathematic subtest #6 (IST, R. Amthauer), $p < 0,0000$; originality and perception constructive Activity (Torrance creativity test), $p < 0,001$; subtest #6 (IST, R. Amthauer) and artificial grammar task (Reber's paradigm), $p < 0,004$; time of Group-Embedded Figures Test (GEFT, Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, Karpis) and artificial

grammar task, $p < 0,0003$.

Correlations demonstrate the structural connectivity components. We are interested in the presence of predictive patterns of cognitive functions. Forecasting problems is solved by different methods. Decision trees and constrained combinatorial sorting, subtractive classification methods may give new possibility for regularity and pattern extracting in multidimensional data. Two instruments were chosen for this research. These WisWhy system and algorithm subtractive clusterization of Matlab system. Methods of this kind are often used in the economy and marketing prognostic research, technical modeling. For psychology it is rare. WizRule is a data auditing and cleansing tool based on data mining. WizRule automatically reveals all the rules in a given data, and points at the deviations from the discovered rules as suspected errors. We use WizWhy system and WizRule tool as system supporting for diagnostic decisions and search predictors professional development for researches and HR-practice. The following possibilities were most important:

- Finding maximum quantity *if-then - rules* for a short interval of time;
- WizWhy will determine how the values of one field are affected by the values of other fields-defining the best segmentation of numerical variables;
- Calculating the forecasting power of each attribute;
- Revealing unusual phenomena in data;
- Using the discovered rules for forecasting;

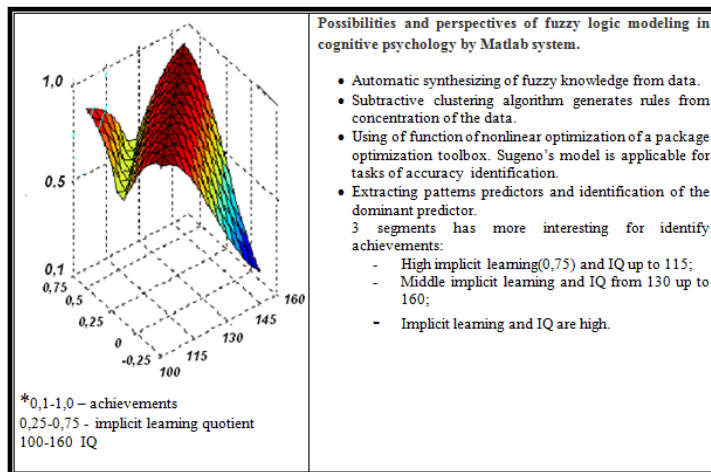
Data analysis throw whole sample allowed identify cognitive ability patterns are predicts practical achievements of different professionals (Table 1).

Table1. The results final analysis of 160 “if-then” rules and trends were extracted by WizWhy system.

Participants: the young experts and postgraduates		
IT-specialists (age 16-28)	Business Managers (age 23-33)	Educators (age 22-34)
<i>The real practical achievements</i>		
Author's softwares, license, patents, PHD-degree, expert consulting activity.	High standard of wages, high standard of employment place, successful own business-projects, consulting activity.	Work place at school gymnasiums, high category of the government tariff, PHD-degree, own projects.
<i>Measures: German intelligence test (Test (IST, R. Amthauer), Russian modification), Group-Embedded Figures Test (GEFT, Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, Karpis), Torrance creativity test, artificial grammar tasks (Reber's paradigm).</i>		
<i>Informative variables</i>		
1) Implicit Learning Quotient = 0.45; 2) Number Series (Subtest 5) - 121; 3) Sentence Completion (Subtest 1) - 122; 4) Verbal Analogies (Subtest 2) - 115; 5) Verbal Originality - 30; 6) Perception Constructive Activity - 22;	1) Implicit Learning Quotient = 0.5; 2) IQ = 118; 3) Number Series (subtest 5) - 121; 4) Transformation Stimulus - 45;	1) Implicit learning quotient = 0.7; 2) Verbal Similarities (subtest 4) - 126; 3) Cubes (Subtest 8) - 126; 4) Verbal Originality - 50;

The general intelligent and general implicit learning ability are most interesting options in the interval-crossings because these crossings predictive success. You can see from Table 1, the implicit learning takes place through the different professional fields. IQ is general predictor effectiveness in professions high level according all history psychometric. Effect of both parameters was evaluated using Matlab system. Subtractive clustering algorithm was used for understanding the contribution of both parameters to achieve.

Table 2. Surfaces «input – output» of Sugeno model (Matlab system)



4. General Conclusion

On the one hand, modern cognitive psychology has approached the methodological restructuring empirical studies of implicit processes, on the other hand modern philosophical community has approached to the study of implicit cognition as a general mechanisms of intelligence, mind and knowledge increase.

Statistical methods, which new for psychology, such as fuzzy logic, opens new possibilities and perspectives for experimental and empirical models, for change methodology direction and data interpretations.

- the fuzzy logic modeling is perspective forecasting method for identification cognitive predictors of real practical achievements and expert level of professional development;
- the patterns cognitive processes (the interval crossings) are predictors of real practical achievement;
- the implicit learning is a general predictor of professional development success and the achievement of expert level. However implicit learning is more significant predictor for achievements in social professional domains and under middle level IQ.

Implicit learning option is manifested in the ties of cognitive properties of the stable. However, the system provides an implicit learning skills only, while achieving a new level of professional development or acquisition of a new form of effective behavior is provided a compound of implicit learning and general intelligence, it is possible that the knowledge of implicit learning, involvement of metacognitive processes.

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The Elbanisht and Literary Committee of Shkodra

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Abstract

There are various ways of creating a national standard variation of a language. Highly significant roles in its creation, among others are the social factors such as: the general historical background, social development etc. Elbanisht as a part of Gheg dialect has been discussed for a long time to be the standard Albanian. In this context, it is important to know when the first idea of Elbanisht as a standard language was. Which was that institution that made such a decision for the first time? On the basis of which criteria was Elbanisht selected as a representative language variation of the Albanian people? Why did this decision fail? These questions constitute the basis of this study which aims to shed light, to reflect and present the role and importance of the literary Committee of Shkodra (1916-1917), the issue of creating the standard Albanian. The paper will also treat by whom and how was the idea of selecting Elbanisht as the common language variation disposed; the linguistic criteria which determined the selection of Elbanisht; the Albanian outstanding linguists who supported this decision. The paper might help all linguists who deal with the study and formation of the standard languages and to all those interested in creating the standard Albanian.

Keywords: *standard language, Literary Committee of Shkodra, Elbanisht, criteria supporters.*

1. Introduction

The formation of standard Albanian language, as the most elaborated variant of Albanian language, has been a long process that began during the centuries XI-XIII, but its elaboration entered in a new period of the century XIX, during the National Renaissance. This process is closely related to social-historical changes that happened in our place during different periods. At this long itinerary, the Literary Committee of Shkodra took a very important step for the unification of the standard Albanian language.

This Committee of writers and linguists, created to help in the formation of a common literary variant, through the union of the two literary variants in use, assessed the middle literary variant, local language of Elbasan, as a bridge between Gheg and Tosk dialects. The Committee also determined some rules for the orthography of this variant, that affected in the unification of written Albanian language.

2. Comitee of Shkodra, as the institution which contribute to the foundation of the future standard Albanian

The Literary Committee of Shkodra is a very valuable institution that is related to the setting of the bases for the process of the creation of standard Albanian language. It is founded on 1 September 1916 and it represents a key problem for the Albanian language and Albanian nation. The most important purpose of the Committee was the orthography issue and the determination of a literary variant in which will be supported the standard Albanian language. At that time, this issue consisted as a necessity for the Albanian nation, and for the preservation of Albanian's identity, despite unfavorable social conditions.

The Committee was concentrated in some problems, but starting from the great and important duties that assumed, it exceeds the dimensions of a committee, and can be compared to the literary and educational congress held in Albania. During the development of the Literary Committee, obviously stand out some important characteristics:

- The high rank of its organisers. In this committee participated some representers, patriots and personalities of the national life and culture as L. Gurakuqi, Gjergj Pekmezi, Ndre Mjeda, Mati Logoreci, Sotir Peci, Hilë Mosi, Aleksandër Xhuvani, Gjergj Fishta, Luigj Naraçi, Ndue Paluca, Ambros Marlaskaj, Rajko Nachtigal dhe Maxsimilian Lambertz.

- Objections and major tasks that committee assumed laid for solution as the important decisions that took by using political circumstances , the albanian common standard time without disconnecting this major issue of nation with orthographic and above all taking into consideration approachment of the task of bringing both literary variants .
- The splendid organization of committee and its activities.

As it could be obviously identified the composition at Committee was quiet heterogeneous; the greater role-played the progressist and democratic elements with Luigj Gurakuqi on the top. Its most important decisions aimed the unification of orthography, which it was signed as a link of national literary language. One of the issues that was discussed at Committee and it was very important related properly to the creation of union Albanian language. Achieving such a purpose conditioned by different factors as political social, cultural and educational factors. This issue was rightly considered as a node from the national renaissance time (Osmani, 2002 p.59).

The issue of a common language creation first opened to the collection on 11 December 1916 and consisted in itself when issue of fundamental importance. The chief of the Committee was Gjergj Pegmezi and in his speech, he said: " There is no doubt that every one of us knows very well that nowadays orthography it is not our first goal. It is known that where there is no language there is no orthography. The common language is what we lack and need necessarily and obviously all of us want it "(Osmani, 2002, p.59).

According to him the problem should be treated in two plans at the theoretical and practical, and introduce three alternatives which may rely on start working.

1. Taken based on dialect and from this to become a scheme, which after will be dressed and will be adorned with the phraseology and lexicology of all the other dialects.
2. To remain written dialects close to each other bringing them down and spread in any way , in other parts of Albania to become rubbing which undoubtedly would cause that flame which we want (Osmani, 2002 p.60) .
3. To be considered only typical changes between the two dialects refering its one language. "I want to say sing what the language has done in these cases to go after it (Osmani, 2002, p. 60). Meanwhile, since Luigj Gurakuqi played an important role to the committee who asked to be chosen "a dialect to be as a connecting bridge "(Osmani, 2002, p.60).

In fact, when he was expressed that way he was refered to local language of Elbasan that according to him should be the base on this must be built the standard Albanian language. However, although was supporter of this idea he was introduced more rational when he expressed that did not like the local language of Elbasan as it was. So, according to him should have been found middle forms with improvements to put them in common language (Osmani, 2002, p.60).

On the other side, Pekmezi did not appear enthusiastic about this solution because it needed specialists and a long time for this to be achieved. He proposed for this to be called an albanologist that was obtained by studying the Albanian language and to be sent into Elbasan to study all the forms of this speaking. He between three languages liked to remain both existing dialects. Pekmezi believed that every beginning is difficult and should be thought in cold blood. "Better slowly and less work, but qualitative that fastly, much work but full of mistakes (Osmani, 2002, p.60).

There were included in this discussion many other members, Fishta one of the members with enough influence at the committee who didn't contradict such an idea and asked that common language shouldn't last anymore this issue which must be used. He was convinced and liked fully to consider the Elbasan's dialect (Osmani, p. 60).

If we would make a summary of attitude and opinions expressed at the Committee regarding the problem of creating a literary common language and its dialectal base, will be clearly distinguished in two main groups:

- One party thought to be held a literary bilingual system, Gheg dialect based on local language of Shkodra and literary dialect of Tosk.
- Luigj Gurakuqi who proposed the dialect of Central Albania supports the other opinion or local language of Elbasan to put based on literary Albanian language.

The discussions between the parties were harsh and continued for a long time. Meanwhile, it should be confirmed that in this line of discussions were not included only Albanian researchers and linguistics. Visibly were presented the transparent and clear attitude of foreign albanologies who were included in determinations issue of literary Albanian language.

Related to this problem, Rajko Nachtigal holds the position that the choice of one by the main dialects as a base of common language did not seem possible due to provincial and religious disunity of Albanians, as the use of two dialectal bases. In north Gheg, in south Tosk creating a natural approach road till to a definitive conclusion which will last this for a long time .

An artificial production of phonetic and morphological of Tosk and Gheg dialectal characteristics. It's not a priority

to be accepted by the reason of its arbitrary nature (Ismaili 2005, p.71). Nachtigal proposed to be considered the central dialect identified with the local language of Elbasan, because due to central geographical position which is understood by all (Ismaili 2005, p.71).

In this stream of thinking was the scholar Gustav Vajgand who confirmed south Gheg dialect which must not be considered as the mixed dialect Tosk and Gheg, but in its phonetic condition summarizes all Gheg characteristics. It is not understandable only for Albanians but even the dialect can be learned more easily. The simplicity of name and pronoun bending against small number of verbal traits, all these are enough relief to learn Gheg against Tosk (Ismaili, 2005, p.71).

German researcher George Von Hahn described as the father of albanology discussing the division of albanian dialect has indicated that the future of our common language must be requested there where couldn't be done the final separation between Gheg and Tosk, where elements of both main dialects approach and mix to each-other (Ismaili, 2005, p.71). Its attitude lets you know that this albanologist was for literary Elbasan's local language.

After numerous scientific debates, it was decided animously and it was approved Gurakuqi's thesis for the selection of Elbasan's dialect as a writing language. Gurakuqi proposed his opinion through this formula. Being that Elbasan's dialect, according to syntax point of view, is like a bridge between Gheg and Tosk, must be chosen as a writing language with orthography rules that seems to us right and rational. Giving this decision, the Literary Committee should keep in mind the duty, to become necessary research, to find a middle form, which approaches the dialectal changes of both dialects (Çeliku, 2002, p.25).

This thesis he managed to formulate and presented to the Committee, given the fact that he was good expert of Elbasan's local language speaking, of writing traditions and Normal School achievement, director of which he has been himself and simultaneously expert of contributions by Elhanan's intellectuals to linguistics.

There were great discussions about in which pieces of Kristoforidhi should rely on linguistics to create the common language, discussions which took place the day after, on 12 December 1916. Specially it was claimed that the debates were held for the new testament of Kristoforidhi, the saint history supporter of which was Aleksander Xhuvani as about the grammatic of southern Gheg dialect supported in Durres, Tirana and Elbasan speaking (1913) of G.Vajgand.

Well as it seems, was not asked an empirical solution but scientific and reasonable. So was called as a correspondent of Committee Elbasan's philologist, Aleksander Xhuvani, to help in the improvement of standard language selection. It was thought that after start working Xhuvani, to be required the assistance of foreign albanologist for studies in areas where it was spoken. For that, reason was sent a linguistic expedition in Elbasan for three weeks composed by Gjergj Pekmezi, Ndre Mjeda and Rajko Nahtigal, at that time professor at the University of Austria Gracy.

The researches in the Central Albania were realized for a period for about two and a half months (15 March-30 May 1917).

The achievement of each group was presented in Literary Committee in order to become a summary and detailed analysis of linguistic. Although the problem quiet delicate, this issue was discussed without necessary attention and had its echo in all intellectual forces. What were the reasons for the proposal and selection of Elbasan's local language as a common language for all Albanians? The selection of Elbasan's local language as a writing one and it is setting up in the foundation of common official language, does not represent a spontaneous solution. This speaking fulfilled truly some basic conditions in which were based the decision of Shkodra's literary committee. Among them, is worth mentioning:

1. Elbasanisht was a Gheg talk of common traits with north Gheg and Tosk. As Gurakuqi and Xhuvani said, it was a bridge between the Gheg and Tosk.
2. Elbasanisht was a Gheg talk with written traditions without dialect dismissals, this tradition coincide in many features more with Tosk than north Gheg.
3. Elbasanisht as a sub variant of an important economic and cultural centre offer the writing tradition of notable figures, which were very important in the study of Albanian, as well as its practical use. This tradition was led by the father of the Albanian language Kostandin Kristoforidhi, whose authoritative role as the first application of the dialects approaching in writing process. The role of scripture northern classical authors, significantly contributed to the decision taken by the authorities in Shkodra Literary Committee.

The writing tradition of Elbasanisht is early and wide. We can mention here the religious translations of Kristoforidhi, his "Abetare shqip" published in 1872, Kostandinopol, "The grammar" which has information for southern Gheg and Elbasanisht etc. It should be noted that the enrichment of this tradition from "Normalja e Elbasanit" (which was a noted school), which drafted and published textbooks and materials for students, teachers and language courses, some grammar and reading books and publications of various sciences, operating at the same time as lab text of use concrete Elbasanisht. In the recognition of Elasanisht played an important role the work of outstanding Albanologist

Gustav Vajgand.

The resolution of standard Albanian language constituted one of the goals of Committee, as another important aspect was the spelling. The Alphabet of Manastiri Congress opened the way towards unifying the phonemic system of written language; this solution got a solid character and became a true policy in Shkodra Literary Committee.

During its sessions determined the following general rules:

- To be preserved unstressed –ë- in written words
- not to be reflected graphically the quantity
- to write the full diphthongs
- the limited-use nasal sign
- To write and pronounce unassimilated the consonants groups: *mb, nd, ngj*, these are almost features of Gheg.

These decisions were historical and had paved the way of final solution to the problem. B.Beci claims: "They have been the main drivers towards the approach of the written language of both basic variants of written Albanian, and not as often has been stated approaching two Albanian dialects" (Beci, 1998).

What remains to be resolved after these decisions related to what can be called "intermediate choice " (Beci, 1998): *hëna ose hana (Monday)*; *dimër ose dimën(winter)*; *kam punuar (have worked)*, *për të punuar(to work)*, *i punuar ose kam punue (worked)*,; *mësues ose mësonjës (teacher)* that actually were the main distinctive features of the both Albanian dialects. So:

- The presence of stressed vowel ë in the southern dialect and its lack in the northern one: ã in Gheg and ë (< ä) in Tosk.
- The presence of differences phenomena in the southern dialect and its lack in the northern dialect, for Gheg *dimën (winter)* and in Tosk *dimër (<dimën)*.
- The presence of vowel group *ua* in Tosk and *ue* vowel group in Gheg.
- The presence of infinitive in Geg and its lack in Tosk.

Meanwhile, the position of the two other features like the presence of opposition by length and by nasality in Gheg and in their lack in Tosk, was resolved through decisions of Shkodra Literary Committee, which played an important role to join in literary writing both Albanian variants.

As it was mentioned in the above discussion, decisions of Literary Committee gave a big push forward the establishment of a common standard language and its orthography. Especially, in Elbasan these decisions had a large impact. They embraced and began to be executed by different authors in their publications. It is worth noting at this point A.Xhuvani said in "Librin e Gjuhës" ("grammar") for the third primary grade school, published in 1919, in which the author's preface notes:

"The in the grammar boundaries and orthography, I consider to protect the grammar boundaries as orthography rules ,which had been founded in Shkodra Literary Committee , the author adds:." As for the other orthographic linguistic traits, such as in the way of writing infinitive and adjectives etc. The work that had did not been done even in that Committee, I followed a medium track in using Tosk traits but not leaving out of the fundamental principle of Committee that language orthography will be based on the dialect of Elbasan ". (Çeliku, 2002, p. 128-129).

Let us also mention another author from Elbasan: Dhimitër N.Paparisto (director of Shkolla Normale) who in his book "Reading for elementary school", published in 1919, Elbasan says in the preface:

"The lack of reading books and Literary Committee decision of Shkodra that Elbasan dialect should be used in school books, was the purpose of writing this book" (Çeliku, 2002, p. 128-129)

What should be noted is the fact that in the writing tradition of Elbanisht with a conscious effort to approach literary Elbanisht with Tosk, had been started by Kristoforidhi. The same had done Dhimitër Shuteriqi in his ABC published in Manastiri in 1911, five years before the Literary Committee. Even its title, "ABC in Albanian common language "expresses the author's attitude to the use of a common language.

Let us treat some more concrete language phenomenon that endears the author' language (Elbanisht) with Tosk:

- It does not mark the stressed nasal vowels: *asht(is)* , *ban(do)* , *vena(go)* .
- It saves as in Tosk groups *mb, nd, ng, kombin (nation)*, *krymbi (worm)*, *mban(hold)*, *u mbarua(finished)*, *këndoni (sing)*.
- It writes complete as Tosk two vowels: *ie, ye: qiell,(sky)*, *diell(sun)*, *krye(top)* , *fyelli (pipe)*. *top, pipe*.

- It uses the two vowels of Tosk instead of *u* (*u*) of Elbasanisht: *grua* (woman), *muaj* (month), *duar* (hands), *kuaj* (horses), *u mbarua* (finished), *u mbulua* (covered), *shkruajmë* (write).
- It is near parotasizuar traits: *gjarpën-i* (snake), *dreni* (reindeer), *freni* (brake), *dimëni* (winter), *ullini* (olive), using partial with Elbasanisht endings or rotacizuar.: *blemun* (bought), *Bamut* (done), *Lemu* (lemon). Adjectives like, *i tërbuar* (furious) etc.
- It uses as Tosk the vowel in the middle and the end of words: *shtëpia* (house), *thërrime* (crumb), *sëmundë* (illness); *bukë* (bread), *i mire* (good), *i forte* (strong), *e vërtetë* (true), *të shëndoshë* (fat), *të bardhë* (white); *katundarë* (villagers); *këndon* (sing), *shkruajmë* (write), *banojmë* (live).
- The author consider as long vowels only the ending stressed vowels in feminine nouns adding an *ë* after them, such as : *thellësië* (depth), *shtëpiën* (Mouse), (muret) *e shtëpiës* (the walls of house), *pleqëniën* (elderly), *ngrohtësinë* (warmness), but does not result the long vowel when it is followed by another vowel : *rakia* (brandy), *shiu* (rain), *njeriu* (man), *hardhia* (vine).

As in the Tosk, vocal vowels are deafen at the end of word: *shtek* (path), *pëllump* (pigeon), *komp* (nation), *funt* (skirt), *i math* (big) etc.

- Use regular ending *nj* to a present tense of verbs and plural suffix- *-nj* to the plural names etc.: *besonj* (believe), *ullinj* (olives), *mësonjës* (teacher), *shëronjësi* (doctor); *të mëdhenj* (big).

Perhaps we have discussed a lot about the description of the linguistic features of ABC, but we have done it because we find realized in practice the vast majority of "Rules of orthography collection written in Albanian language", established by Literary Committee five years later (1917) (Çeliku, 2002, p. 129).

If we return to the practice followed by Elbasan authors based on the decisions taken at the Committee, we must say that:

- They practice the historical and morphological criteria, especially in the writing of the unstressed *ë*.
- They do not reflect the nasality and quantity of vowels in writing stressed vowels.
- They save groups *mb*, *nd*, *ng*.
- They save two vowels *ie*, *ue*, *ye* etc..

This shows that Elbasan had had an early writing tradition in the conscious approach of Gheg (mainly Elbasanisht) with Tosk and being close to "rules of orthography in the written collection of Albanian language". In the writing tradition of Elbasanisht and Tosk, putting in their bases the dialect of Elbasan with some modifications, it has been scientific and responding to the linguistic reality.

Decisions taken in Literary Committee to unify the spelling of Albanian national literary language had echoed across the country. In addition, the Educational Congress of Lushnja passed them in 1920.

However, if we look later the history associated with the creation of standard Albanian, should be acknowledged that, despite the decision of the Committee, selecting Elbasanisht as the variant on which to rely standard Albanian language, despite all the efforts and dedication Elbasan authors, this did not occur completely. Social and political changes in Albania and the consequent decisions of this nature (after liberation), brought a new era and they gave the standard Albanian another face.

3. Conclusions

Literary Committee of Shkodra with its decisions carried further unification of Albanian standard language and its spelling. It carried out the Renaissance conscious intention to bring the two written dialect literary variants to the unification of written Albanian. It developed orthography rules, which serve as the basis for subsequent orthography, compiled extensive lists of words, where the rules were applied, it paid attention drafting technical terms, terminology principles (justice, the administration, and school), it paid attention to the treatment of school textbook etc.

Literary Committee of Shkodra due to its purposes and decisions that approach two variants of literary writing marks a major step in the unification of Albanian standard language and it is ranked near the Manastiri Congress, Elbasan Congress and other similar Congresses. Obviously if the term referred to the standard Albanian, it is inevitably associated directly to Shkodra Literary Committee.

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Toward Greater Implementation of Motivating Factors for a Better Quality of School: Case in Kosovo

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Abstract

Changes in recent years in the field of education show that our country seems to be reformed based on European standards, making it comparable to other countries education system. However the experience in practice shows the gaps which limit creation of an environment that promotes and motivates human society best values. This paper is focused on factors which facilitate/obstruct development of quality in the field of education by offering examples which allow solution. In this case, the paper presents factors that contribute to more successful and safer school development, starting from the reasons which obstruct/facilitate success, such as improper application of teaching methods, teacher and parent accountability towards students, punitive and preventive measures for different occurrences such as school drop-outs, low social-economic levels, closer cooperation between MEST and schools, faster and wider application of the ICT, etc. The essence of the request for greater integration of all these factors toward student motivation in aiding school work is a need for conditions which currently should be entwined in our schools in the service of placing better quality, systematic, selected and functional education in our schools by creating the circumstances for the students to have an internal push to work on activities and tasks which enrich their spiritual and intellectual knowledge.

Keywords: *factors obstructing/facilitating success, student motivation, quality education,*

1. Introduction

School serves as a necessity to transmit knowledge, experience, customs, features, and civilizations from one generation to another and by a full change in our country education has stepped onto the path of overall democratization, yet at the same time bearing many disturbing problems. Education, being the brain of every society, is tasked in preparing the individual for a life with a better future, giving them the necessary abilities to adapt to an ever changing society and also contribute to its development. ¹

Like all other countries in the world, our country also faces the challenges in enhancing the education system in general, starting from the need to include various motivational factors towards standardization of the general education processes. ²

The importance of raising this issue is essential in order to identify the problems in the future and evaluate necessary factors and to implement in practice the need to increase the quality of teaching and learning.

Also, the purpose of this paper is to inform on how did the implementation of reforms affect education whereby different problems emerged in teaching and learning and in general created barriers in the overall educational process.

¹ http://www.izha.edu.al/files/standartet/Standardet_TIK_BR.pdf

² Kryeziu, A. (2010), „Qeverisja dhe udheheqja ne arsim”, „Shkolla dhe komuniteti”, mars 10, KEC-Prishtine

2. Facing the Need for Change

Trying to improve the conditions in education teachers faced great obstacles in using new teaching and learning methodologies and students in dealing with these methods. There are teachers who are against these reforms because they are unable to change and this is one of the reasons reform was misunderstood. A large number of teachers are not implementing these new techniques in practice. Non-implementation of new methodologies calls for an urgent need to organize and prepare permanent monitoring for all school structures, by the competent people, in order to support and advance the work in schools. Developing a modern education system depends upon teacher's continuous professional training.

Our institutions and the society in general must support this process by creating systems and programs that address the teachers need for various trainings related to increase the quality of education. Education development institutions should also prepare curricula for all institutions dealing with professional specialization of teachers and educators.³

Parents warning system, used to immediately inform the parents if their child is absent from school, is still not present in many schools. Telephone communication or parents visiting the school are still the only methods by which the parents can receive information on the state of their child.

Schools also are not offering any extra curriculum activities to children, therefore students themselves organize entertainment in their free time, which is usually not constructive. Most of students say they do not feel comfortable talking to their parents about various problems, and about many problems which could manifest later as is the case of lack of security in schools.⁴

Another factor which is a point of concern for the students is drugs use. Approximately 20% of high school students use different types of drugs, the average age for first time drug consumption has dropped and now it affects even the age of 12 – 13, respectively grade VIII in elementary schools. Cannabis is sold in most of the bars around elementary and high schools in Kosovo and teachers are not well trained on drugs, therefore they cannot respond to this in the best possible manner. Although there is a National Strategy against Narcotics in the Republic of Kosovo this Strategy is not being implemented due to the lack of cooperation and coordination between different sectors in the Government of Kosovo.⁵

3. Strengthening cooperation school – community

Also, school cooperation with parents equally affects the family to change, have new opinion about the school and take part in joint responsibility.

In Kosovo there can never be successful changes if there is no improvement in creating a very professional partnership or cooperation between the school and society at large.

School cooperation with the community brings many benefits to education: school efficiency increases, teaching quality increases, functional governance, great results in learning, training people for work and professions, economic and living standard increase... Human values and life skills are encouraged, especially lifelong learning.

Partnership can be achieved through the following forms:

- Teacher and school principals training
- Help for schools
- Support in strategic planning
- Creation of dominant vision and orientation towards teaching and learning
- Pursuing advances in school efficiency and quality of work in schools
- Establishing learning professional cooperation networks

There are so many forms of advanced school – institutions partnership in higher education, aiming to verify problems and work on correcting them.⁶

Naturally, an unsafe and negative environment damages children's readiness and motivation to learn, which

³ Gajraku, G. & Mexhuni, A. hulumtim „Ndikimet e trajnimeve ne procesin mesimore”(2008), Prishtine

⁴ http://www.fiq-fci.org/repository/docs/siguria_ne_shkolla_shqip.pdf

⁵ <http://www.assembly-kosova.org/?cid=1,128,5618>

⁶ http://sq.wikibooks.org/wiki/Shkolla_dhe_komuniteti_dy_sisteme_t%C3%AB_nd%C3%ABrvarura/2

consequently brings bad results in teaching, conflicts and misunderstandings with parents and as well as with teachers. This phenomenon further demotivates students and increases the tendency to make dropping school a possible solution.

Dropping out of teaching process is becoming a serious issue in our society and we should know the factors driving the youth towards this choice, the family should be the first safety, sometimes by the lack of establishing effective relationships and the second safety are the teachers, with whom they are in contact outside the family process; having in mind the importance and necessity of these two institutions, family and school, and concrete responsibilities of both parties in school dropout.

Not knowing the facts obstructs success:

- Lack of motivation and seriousness
- Non-preparation and the fear of low marking
- Overburdened curricula
- Lack of communication and positive relationships
- Students' lack of patience
- Lack of clear rules sensitive towards the students needs
- Lack of accountability and interest by class supervisors
- Overcrowding classes makes student testing very rare. ⁷

4. Comprehensive integration of Technological Achievements into Schools

In a world which is constantly orienting itself toward technology and globalization, understanding, use and establishing Information Technology and Communication (ITC) culture has become a very important factor which enables a more modern student education, capable of facing the challenges of development. In teaching the necessary technological skills to students new teaching methods should be used compared to methods used in traditional teaching. Students, using these new technological tools gain computer skills, the skills which they will be able to use in the future at their working places.

Main benefit coming from the efficient use of new technologies is the increase of student ability to focus on learning, which improves understanding and transfers the content to long-term memory. Based on this justification the aim is to transform traditional classes into classes conceptualized on the basis of technology. ⁸

Wide incorporation of technological systems into learning process aims to make the students confident and productive technology users at the end of their study cycles, and prepared to be capable competitors at the European labor market. Pursuant to this, it is also required that the teachers also possess basic ITC (Information Technology and Communication) skills and contribute to the increase of quality of teaching by integrating and wide usage of ITC in teaching processes. ⁹

School evolution requires well prepared staff, but the students should also be in line with the newest trends of time. It is exactly the use of computers and information technology in classes which stimulates student imagination and makes the student creative and investigative for continuous learning. It is necessary to teach the students the skills of 21st century, in which we live, and this can be done only if their teachers are functioning towards achieving their mission in the best possible manner. ¹⁰

5. What is the opinion on what the school offers currently and what changes should be made for empowering schools ?

5.1 Discussions and parents and teachers requests

Analyzing discussions and opinions of some parents of children attending school in low secondary schools in Prishtina we are trying to answer these questions which continue to preoccupy our society.

Some categories of different education staff acknowledge that current teaching conditions are insufficient to bring

⁷ Pode, R. (2012), „Braktisja e shkolles, fenomen qe kercenon arsimin shqipetar“, may 7,

⁸ <http://infoalbania.org/lajme-home/lajme-intervista/32702-dixitalizimi-i-shkollave-nis-projekti-ne-gjithe-vendin.html>

⁹ <http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Albania/Albania-Strategy-Pre-university-2009-2013-alb.pdf>

¹⁰ Kryeziu, F. (2013), „Rendesia e perdorimit te teknologjise dhe informacionit ne mesimdhnenien e gjuhes angleze“, february 01, 2013

sustainable improvement in teaching system performance and student achievements. They express their concern by addressing insufficient commitment, initially to highest instances (MEST), on restraints characterizing modern teaching methods and their efficient implementation in the teaching process due to the fact that teachers are not prepared accordingly and this requires great commitments.

One of the important conclusions emerging is that regardless of the teachers commitment to organize modern teaching in the learning process, there cannot be increase in teaching process performance as long as the number of students remains to be very high (even over 40 students).

Moreover, in general teachers' opinion, in many cases they stress that students are under very low parent care although they are important factors in the forming of them, therefore closer cooperation of parents and students and teachers shall bring positive effects.

The nature of the work changed and continues to change by combining an all-inclusive approach for the students to take on the role of knowledge and information receivers and hence it is more than necessary to include interactive approach which enables broad selection of knowledge sources in order to prepare students for full and productive life. Despite the fact that the largest number of students has the knowledge about technological equipment, however it is the school itself doesn't offer this.

All main and many other strategies highlight the need for urgent intervention by the high national institutions, expecting them to play a progressive role in achieving the objectives and by bringing a new climate for the purpose of increasing the standards in educational structures.

6. Conclusions

- In order to respond to ongoing changes and challenges I believe that the phenomena outlined above and many others, which are the main links in the chain of subjects which consequently brought to debates, should be supported by experience gained throughout the years and incite fruitful integration into the European network of educational structure.
- Several qualitative researches compare our schooling with many other democratic countries and here I believe that education, as a discipline for evolving mind and character, should work as an institution for wider formation, in regard to respecting opinions, ideas and methods, by accepting every change and problem and linking what is learned with their experiences, raising questions over the truthfulness and by building other examples which are a need and necessity of this time and the profession we exercise.
- Today, to function in the time and environment with ever growing demands for sustainable development is necessary to transform the educational process in all its segments.
- The fact that education is in the middle of efforts to support it towards the modern challenges for creating a new climate and make it comparable to educational structures in developed countries, the biggest responsibility falls over local state institutions in accelerating this process by identifying problems in planning and facing the changes which touch upon today's educational process.
- In order to identify factors which are obstructing the effective development of the educational process the entire work and attention should be addressed on the basis of respecting the law by supporting, stimulating specialized organisms to actively partake by undergoing a series of quick and qualitative changes.
- In this view school institution is preconditioned by the qualitative modern technology and information preparedness in the fields of educational system and cannot remain indifferent to rapid technological progress which exercises direct influence over the society.

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A Comparative Study of the Story of Esfandiar in Ferdowsi's Shahnameh and Achilles in Homer's Iliad

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Abstract

Epic is a kind of descriptive poem which is based on describing heroic and manhood actions and prides of a nation or person so that it includes different symbols of their life. Iliad and Odysseys of Homerus, Ramayana and Mehabeharatay of Indians and Shahnameh of Ferdowsi are three great epics of the world. These three epic works are related to Aryan race which has been divided into different branches and everyone has been settled in a land and this is why that there are some common characteristics between them. As epic of every nation is a mirror that shows their culture, nature and endogenous life, these relations and coordination of two Iranian and Greek epics, Shahnameh and Iliad and Odysseys show proximity of the two nations in mirror of history. .Shahnameh has been divided into three mythological, heroic and historical parts Iliad and Odysseys has been also composed by Homerus, famous Greek poet. Iliad book includes explanation of ten years war between Greece and Troas in 24 chapters and Odysseys, which has 24 poems, is about Olis, one of heroes of Troas war and figures his braveries. These two great epics which show two known old culture, can be compared from different characteristics. There are many behavioral likenesses in view of individual, social relationships and acquaintance with different kinds of their natures in addition to structural likenesses. Existence of heroes such as Esfandiyar and Achilles, greedy and chimerical kings such as Keykavous and Agamemnon, experienced masters such as Piran and Odysseys, beautiful and sly women such as Soodabeh and Helen and devoted and portentous teenagers such as Bahram and Patrocelos, all show much likeness of these two epics. As one of important elements of epic texts is heroic element and Esfandiyar and Achilles are two considered heroes in shahnameh and Iliad and their life is similar to each other and both are invulnerable heroes of Iran and Greece who their bravery determined fate of two nations, we decided to introduce story of Esfandiyar and Achilles after defining epic and its elements and introducing Shahnameh of Ferdowsi and Iliad of Homerus and explaining likeness of them and explain likeness and difference between these two story while figuring bravery of this two invulnerable heroes of Iran and Greece.

Keywords: epic, Shahnameh, Iliad, Esfandiyar, Achilles, invulnerable.

1. Introduction

The word Epic means "courage, bravery, praise and it is a kind of poem in which one talks about war and bravery" (Safipoor; 275), and as a term it means "a long poem about behavior and deeds of heroes and championship and honorable events in the ancient life of people" (Mokhtari, 1368:21). The characteristics of this genre are greatness and glory of the warriors and prominence of the theme and the heroes of the Epic events that need to be complete in every aspect in a way that their errors are part of the heroic side of the story (Seyyed Hosseini, 1351: 52-53).

There are two different kinds of Epic: natural and artificial. The origin of the natural Epic is a historical or quasi-historical event. From a basic and mythological point of view, this kind of epic does not have a specific compiler but people from all generations compile this kind of Epic (Razmjoo, 1374: 51). In other words natural epic is "the result of thoughts, Talents and emotions of a nation to express the greatness and genius of the people throughout the time, and it is full of descriptions on battles, sacrifices of the heroes, and dedications of that nation" (Safa, 1352: 5-6). Some examples for this type of epic are Homer's Iliad and Odyssey, Ramaya and Mahabharata from India, and Ferdowsi's Shahnameh.

Artificial epic is a duplication of the natural epic, because its elements are borrowed from epic. In the artificial epic not all the people are involved in forming the stories; but only one poet forms and creates it. In fact this kind of epic is a reinvention rather than a creation (Razmjoo, 1374: 5-6). Some examples for artificial epic are Aeneid by Virgil and Khavaran Nameh by Ibn Hessem.

Epic can also be classified in to Mythological heroic, historical and religious based on the theme and content.

Mythological epics are stories with unknown historical origins. For nomadic tribes, mythology was the basis of

beliefs and faith; but by the development of nation's knowledge and information, mythology lost its value as a source of belief and remained a story. (Daad, 1378 : 26). Mythology was often considered as a source of inspiration for poets and authors. In epical texts of every nation a great part of the stories which express a nation's culture and civilization are expressed through myths. Two world's famous epics are Ferdowsi's Shahnameh and Homer's Iliad with an ethnic and national mythology include national heroes' bravery and courage. Shahnameh was composed by Hakim Abol-Ghasem Ferdowsi. Ferdowsi was from the farmers' class in Toos. He was interested in the Iranian culture and decided to write Shahnameh at the age of thirty five. He used different references like Mansour Abu-mansouri's Shahnameh and Khodainameh and tried to express his own thoughts in various fields such as advice, praise of wisdom, truth and goodness.

Shahnameh is about the history of Iran from the creation of the first human being and the first king until the Imperial extinction in Iran by the Arabs. The content of this book is organized into three mythological, heroic and historical parts.

Iliad was written by Homer, the famous poet and story teller of Greece, who lived around 800 B.C. There is not enough information about Homer's life and there are mostly myths and fictions which were compiled and written later. According to these legends, he became blind at the end of his life and travelled to different cities to play harp and sing his lyrical poems for people. What made Homer an everlasting feature in Greek literature is that he described about the history and mythology of the Ancient Greece for the first time in his two epical works of Iliad and Odyssey. Iliad is Greece's most ancient epic. This book contains twenty four poems the topic of which is the battle between Greece and "Troy". This historical event is mixed with myths and legends. Gods and legendary heroes of Greece are talked about in this epopee. Both Shahnameh and Iliad have the fundamental mysteries of epic as an art. Both epopees express the successful and permanent attempts of the artists who tried to perpetuate a nation's glory and identity (Rastegar Fasaei, 1384: 12).

Comparison of Shahnameh and Iliad reveals that Ferdowsi was influenced by Homer's Iliad in some of the stories of Shahnameh. Professor Mehrdad Bahar believes that this influence is the result of the Iranian, Indian neighbor and the attacker Greece's cultural integration at the time of Kushanian reign in the East of Iran (Bahar, 1384: 240). This integration makes some epical stories in India, Iran and Greece similar to each other. In fact these similarities are by no means accidental, but due to some historical events. Immigration of the Greek to the Eastern part of Asia and establishing a Greek government made people from East of Iran familiar with Greek mythology and influenced by Greek stories, and throughout the years there were common grounds between Iranian and Greek mythology which resulted in similarities between Epical stories of Iran and Greece (The seam source: 58-65).

One of the stories in Shahnameh which is influenced by Homer's Iliad is the story of "Rostam and Esfandiyar". This story can be considered as an example of the Iranian and Greek cultural integration. Although this story is part of Shahnameh and the story of Hector and Achilles is formed at the end of Iliad during the war between Greece and Troy, they have many commonalities from the beginning up to the end. These common points can be seen in the characters, geographical location of the events and the endings of the two stories. In the present article, after narrating a summary of both stories, a comparative analysis of the similarities and difference between these two stories will be made.

2. The story of Rostam and Esfandiar

Esfandiar is an Iranian hero and an invulnerable prince. He is the son of Goshtasb, the Kiani king. Goshtasb who was crowned when his father Lohrasb was still alive, repeatedly promises handling over the kingdom to his son, but does not keep his promise. The first time was when Goshtasb wants to send him to fight Arjasp, king of the Turanians, because of revenge for zarir. Goshtasb promises to leave him the crown if he wins the battle. After that Goshtasb promises him the throne if Esfandiar spreads Zoroastrianism in the world and brings infidels into this religion. Esfandiar spreads Zoroastrianism all over the world, but again Goshtasb fails to carry out his promise. He not only does not bestow the crown upon him but also orders to jail him in Gunbadan fortress because a person called "Gorazm" speaks ill about Esfandiar. Arjasp attacks Iran. Goshtasp is unable to confront him, therefore, he asks Esfandiar, who is imprisoned, to stand against Turanians, and he accepts. After defeating them, Esfandiar goes to Royin fortress according to the Kayanian king's wish. He rescues his sisters who had been imprisoned there. He takes a lot of risks to save them and passes the Seven Trials, but once again the king reneges on his promise and resorts to another trick so he consults with his minister, Jamasp, to know about Esfandiar's fate. Jamasp, who is an astronomer and predictor, predicts death of Esfandiar by Rostam in Zabol. Knowing about this event, Goshtasp asks Esfandiar to go to Zabol and bring Rostam bound. Esfandiar rejects at first but accepts after discussing it with his father and prepares himself to go to Zabol.

His mother, Katayun repeatedly tries to dissuade him from his decision but the Kayanian prince does not pay any attention to his mother's words. Rostam warned him repeatedly not to fight in Zabolestan, but he refrains and finally war breaks out between them. Rostam becomes wounded and helpless. Zal, Rostam's father, asks Simurgh to help him and Simurgh shows Rostam how to kill Esfandiar, and teaches him how to make an arrow to hit the eyes of Esfandiar, his weak spot, so Esfandiar is killed by Rostam.

3. The story of Achilles and Hector

The story of Achilles happens on the tenth year of the war between Greece and Troy. The main cause of this war was that Helen, Agamemnon's brother's wife, was kidnapped by Paris, the Troy's prince. The story begins with the conflict between Achilles, the Greek general, and Agamemnon, the king of Argos. Agamemnon kidnaps a girl called "Briseis" who was imprisoned by Achilles. Being resentful, Achilles refrains to fight and returns back to his tent.

The goddess Tethys, Achilles' mother, asks Zeus, the king of Greek gods to punish the king's troops for this action. Therefore, Agamemnon and his troops are defeated by Troy's people and Hector, their commander. Regretting his behavior, the Greece king sends his representatives to Achilles and asks Achilles to help him during the battle. First, Aulis, the Greek commander talks to Achilles but the champion still refrains to fight. Then, Patroclus who is Achilles' friend goes to him and asks him for help. Achilles does not accept and provides him with weapons. Patroclus accepts the weapon and goes to fight Hector, but is killed.

Being mad about his friend's death, Achilles wears the armor gods had made him and attacks Troy's troops and kills many of them. One of the dead is Hector, the Troy's corps commander. Achilles fastens the Hector's body to the chariot and turns around Troy's fortifications. Paris, the Troy's prince, shoots the invulnerable Achilles in the heel with an arrow and he is killed. After a hard battle, Greeks return Achilles body back. Achilles' mother, Tethys, buries her son's body magnificently. Finally Greeks defeat Troy's troops and win the battle.

4. Common points of the two stories

We have already mentioned about the influence of Homer's Iliad on Ferdowsi's story of "Rostam and Esfandiar" and also its similarities with the story of "Achilles and Hector". One of the common points in these two stories is the geographical location of the events. The story of "Rostam and Esfandiar" happens in Zabol and the story of "Achilles and Hector" takes place in Greece. Greece to Troy is just like Iran to Sistan, a big country to a small region.

The other similarity is the characters and champions. Characters in these two stories such as Esfandiar and Achilles, Goshtasp and Agamemnon, Hector and Rostam, Katayun and Tethys, Zal and Paris have many features in common. Esfandiar, the son of Goshtasp is not only a prince but also a champion. None of the other characters in Shahnameh have both of these features "(Eslami Nodoushan, 1376: 353)". "His life is short and he spends all his life in conflicts; but his short life is full of victories and glories. He is the hero of the Zoroastrian religion and claims that he was the one who made the entire world follow it "(Eslami Nodoushan, 1351: 122)". Esfandiar constantly defends Iran against enemies. Achilles, similarly, defends the crown of the Greece king against the Troy.

These two heroes are in conflict with the kings. Esfandiar desires to take his father's kingdom and thinks he deserves it as an award for his deeds. Achilles is also resentful about Agamemnon because he kidnapped his beloved girl. Both heroes talk about the battles and their services to the king, and complain about the king's unkindness towards them. Esfandiar talks to Katayun, his mother, about his bravery and courage in the battle field, his fight with Arjasp and releasing his sisters from the prison of Turanians and complains about his father's inattention (Ferdowsi, 1381: 712-713). In the ninth poem of Iliad, Achilles also mentions about his championships and complains that Agamemnon has ignored his deeds and kidnapped his wife (Homer, 1385: 302).

The other common feature between these two heroes is their invulnerability. "Based on Mzdysna tradition and legend, Zarathustra washes Esfandiar in holy water so that he becomes invulnerable and immortal. But because of an instinct and erroneous fear he closes his eyes when he dives into water and his eyes are not washed over and they remain vulnerable (Meskoob, 1342: 29).

Achilles is also believed to be dipped in styx or river of immortality which makes all his body except his heels invulnerable and immortal (Pin Saint, 1380: 199). Both heroes are invulnerable except for a single part of their body which remains vulnerable. One of the most prominent features of Epic is the prediction of events. "Prediction is prevalent in the myths of the world. In Shahnameh most historical events are revealed to the king and champions by priests, astronomers and predictors (Sobhani, 1372: 164).

As an answer to Goshtasp who asks for the Esfandiar's fate, Jamasp looks at "the ancient horoscopes" and predicts that he would die in Zabolistan. Knowing about his decision about going to Zabolistan, Katayun, Esfandiar's mother, advises him and tries to persuade him not to go. "she feels an ominous fate for his son in her heart as a result of her maternal affection, however, Esfandiar does not accept her mother's advice" (Eslami Nodoushan, 1376: 1362).

Moving to Zabolistan, Esfandiar's camel kneels at a crossroad, one to Zabolistan and the other to Gunbadan fortress to prevent the prince. Esfandiar takes it as a bad omen and orders to kill the camel to turn the infelicity back to the animal (Ferdowsi, 1381: 717).

There are similar predictions in Iliad too. It was predicted that "if Achilles does not help, they cannot take the Troy and he will win near the city walls and die there" (Homer, 1385:20). Achilles' mother constantly mentions about the early death of her son and prevents him from going to the battle (the same source: 61). Before Achilles goes to the battle field, his swift horse, Xanthus starts to speak and predicts his death (the same source: 90). The death of the two heroes is also similar as both of them are killed by supernatural forces. Esfandiar is killed by Zal and Simurgh, and Achilles is killed by gods. At the moment when Esfandiar is dying, he believes that Goshtasp is the reason for his death and warns him that in the other world he will ask for justice about his father in the sight of God. (Hamidian, 1383: 339).

Rostam and Hector are two other similar heroes in these two epics. Rostam is a great Iranian champion from Sistan. During his long life Rostam greatly helped Iran and the kings; However, when he gets old he stands against Esfandiar and starts an unwanted fight with him. Hector is also an experienced champion who has constantly supported the Troy and the people there. The war between Troy and Greece is unwantedly imposed on him and he is forced to fight with Greek champions (Bahar, 1384:242).

These two champions have got the same physical power and strength. Rostam has sword and mace. He is full-bodied and not every horse can carry him. His food is also much more than a normal human being. Hector is also a very powerful man. When nobody can move a heavy stone, he carries it just like a sheepskin. A common scene in these two stories is when Esfandiar sees Rostam healthy after he was wounded in war. He addresses him and says, "it is because of Zal's tricks that you are healthy now, but I fight with you and defeat you so Zal will never see you healthy again" (Ferdowsi, 1381: 736).

Hector is also wounded in one of the wars with the Greeks. His enemy says, "you disobedient, you could survive after you were near death, and Zeus again saved you....if you come across me again in future, having God by my side, I will kill you" (Homer, 1385: 359).

The other two similar characters in these stories are Goshtasp, king of Iran and Agamemnon, king of Greece. Egoism is their common feature which makes the two champions indignant.

"Goshtasp is an example of a person that has nothing divine as the result of his desire for power. He only thinks about keeping his power. Power is not means for him but ends. To reach this end, he sacrifices the most natural and sacred blessings that is affection for his child" (Rahimi, 1369: 141). He causes Esfandiar to die because of his egoism and ambition not to bestow him the crown. Agamemnon, who is forced to give up Chryseis, Apollon temple priest's daughter, takes Briseis, Achilles beloved, from him to make him annoyed.

Both kings are insipient. Because of indiscretion and ignorance to the country, Goshtasp neglects Arjasp's attack, and this makes Turanian's king attack Iran and Goshtasp's father, Lohrasp, is killed (Ferdowsi, 1381: 673-674). Agamemnon also offends Achilles because of his indiscretion so a lot of problems are made for Greece in the battle with Troy.

Hypocrisy is another common feature of these two kings. When Goshtasp understands about Jamasp's prediction on Esfandiar's death, he appears to be upset, but in reality evil thoughts and fate takes him into dysfunctions (Ferdowsi, 1381: 713). After the offensive behavior of Agamemnon, Achilles also talks about dishonesty and hypocrisy of the king. "....I consider the one whose heart and tongue is not the same as the gate of enemy's hell...." (Homer, 1385: 303).

One of the common points in these two epics is the sanctity and high position of the kings in a way that the others are completely obedient. Although Esfandiar is offended by Goshtasp in Shahnameh, he accepts his demand to fight with Rostam. Achilles can also prevent Briseis to be taken by Agamemnon envoys but he does not stop them. Zal and Paris are the other two similar characters in these stories. From the first beginning day of his life, Zal is considered as a sinister and ominous child and he is rejected by his family and his father, Sam. Simurgh brings him up and helps him do great things. Paris is also rejected at a young age because of his infelicity; because it was predicted that his existence leads to the destruction of Troy. He is brought up by a bear, later on he is connected to gods and does supernatural actions.

The other common characters are the mothers of these two heroes. Their behavior, their words and advices to their children are the same. Katayun, Esfandiar's mother, becomes sad when she understands about Goshtasp's demand and when she sees her son's determination to go to Zabolistan. She calls her son as "suffered" with tearful

eyes and advises him not to desire for the crown at the expense of his life (Ferdowsi, 1381: 716-717). Tethys, Achilles' mother, also advises her son with tearful eyes as she knows about Agamemnon's oppression, "...My son, woe is me that I should have borne or suckled you. Would indeed that you had lived your span free from all sorrow at your ships, for it is all too brief; alas, that you should be at once short of life and long of sorrow, therefore, was the hour in which I bore you.....nurse your anger and hold aloof from fight" (Homer, 1385: 64).

The other common feature in these two stories is the presence of supernatural elements and their involvement in the events. In the story of Esfandiar, when Rostam is injured by the Kayanian prince, he goes to his father, Zal, and Zal asks Simurgh to help him save Rostam's life. Simurgh pulls out the arrows from his wounded body and puts his feathers on his wounds as salve. Immediately after, Rostam, the Iranian world champion, recovers (Ferdowsi, 1381: 747-748).

In Iliad also gods help the heroes in the battle field. Achilles meets Athene, Greece's goddess, and asks why she is there. She replies: "I came from the heavens to quell your anger". (Homer, 1385: 215).

Elsewhere, when the distressful Achilles goes to the waterside, and starts to cry and calls Tethys, his mother for help, sitting beside her father, she hears Achilles' words and rises from sea's depths like white steam and stands in front of her son (the same source: 270).

These two stories can also be compared from the tragedy point of view. "Tragedy is the illustration of important and serious deeds that are generally disadvantageous to the protagonist, i.e. the main core of a serious story leads to a tragedy at the end. This tragedy is usually the death of the hero in the story. This death is not accidental, but a logical and direct result of the events throughout the story" (Shamisa, 1367: 93).

In the story of "Rostam and Esfandiar" events develop in ways that result in the death of Esfandiar at the end. Goshtasp asks Esfandiar to bring Rostam to him; Katayun insists to prevent Esfandiar from confronting Rostam; the camel kneels and does not move and the prince does not pay any attention to it; Esfandiar ignores Rostam's words for peace and compromise and straying away from fight; Rostam doubts about fighting Esfandiar which all lead to the death of this great Iranian champion. All these events show that there is a force from the very beginning of the story up to the end. This inevitable force forms the tragedy at the end.

The story of Achilles is also an example of a tragedy. In this story, the events happen in ways that lead to the death of the hero at the end. Kidnapping Achilles' beloved by Agamemnon, the murder of his friend, Patroclus, in the battle of Troy, Achilles ignoring his mother's words when she prevents him from fight, the horse's prediction and going to fight while being reluctant all lead to a tragedy. Both stories end with the death of the heroes and they are full of sorrows and griefs.

5. The differences between the two stories

Although there are many similarities between the two stories, there are some differences too. The story of "Rostam and Esfandiar" has more unity of theme than the story of Achilles and Hector in Iliad. The focus is not on two or more characters in Iliad. Even gods appear during the story and show their power. But the story of "Rostam and Esfandiar" focuses on the conflict between the two champions and their conversations. The outside elements and characters like Katayun, Bahman, Zal, Simurgh etc. are talked about peripherally (Mohammad Kashi, 1386: 105).

The other difference is about the way the two stories start. "In the story of Iliad, the main reason for the fight is saving Helen, the wife of Menelaus, Agamemnon's brother, that leads to Greece and Troy battle for ten years. However, in the story of "Rostam and Esfandiar" the reason for the conflict between Rostam and Esfandiar is Goshtasp's refusal to bestow the crown to Esfandiar". (Rastegar Fasaee, 1384: 13). In other words in Iliad, kidnapping of a woman creates a tragedy but in the story of "Rostam and Esfandiar" the tragedy occurs through the hegemonism of the Kayanian prince and his conflict with Rostam and the bravery and courage of these heroes lead to a tragedy. In the story of "Rostam and Esfandiar" Katayun just acts as a mother, while Achilles' mother not only has a maternal role but also is the goddess of the seas and she makes major decisions. For example in the battle of Greece and Troy, she asks Zeus to finish the fight in favor of the Troy and her request is fulfilled (Ghasemzadeh, 1388: 43).

Revenge is more harsh in Iliad. Achilles goes to fight to avenge the death of his friend, Patroclus. However, in the conflict between Rostam and Esfandiar this revenge is less harsh and it forms a small part of the story. Esfandiar's sons, Mehrnoosh and Azarnoosh, are murdered by Rostam's relatives and this makes Esfandiar more intent to fight Rostam but revenge is not the main reason of this fight.

Although the supernatural elements like Simurgh in the story of Rostam and Esfandiar is involved in the death of Esfandiar and causes the tragedy, it only has an indirect and guiding role in the story. However, in Iliad gods have direct roles in the humans' fate. For example, Achilles' mother who is a goddess is present from the beginning of the story to

the end and she plays a major role in her son's fate. The other difference between the two stories is the death of the two heroes. In Iliad Achilles is not murdered by Hector but he is killed by Paris, Troy's prince. Whereas Esfandiar is killed by Rostam.

6. Conclusion

The comparative analysis of epics like Ferdowsi's Shahnameh and Homer's Iliad and Odyssey reveals some similarities. These similarities show that Ferdowsi has been influenced by Homer when he creates Shahnameh. This influence originates from history and the neighborhood of the Iranians from the East and Greek Immigrants from Eastern Asia. The story of Rostam and Esfandiar is one of the stories which has been affected by the story of Achilles in Iliad. The comparison of these two stories shows that there are many similarities between the protagonists, Esfandiar and Achilles. These common points are championship, invulnerability, courage, bravery prediction of their death and supernatural powers that cause their death.

The other characters in these stories like Rostam and Hector, Goshtasp and Agamemnon, Zal and Paris, Katayun and Tethys also have many similarities. Moreover, the specific characteristic of the two stories is the tragedy that leads to the death of the two champions. The points of differences between the two stories are unity of the theme, main reason for the fight, and the status of the women. In the story of Rostam and Esfandiar, more unity is observed in the theme of the story compared to the story of Achilles and Hector. The major reason for the fight in Iliad is kidnapping a woman, while in Shahnameh it is Hegemonism. Revenge in the story of Achilles is also more harsh compared to the tragedy of Esfandiar.

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The Role of Mobile Technology in Supporting the Learning Process of Adults in the 'Network Society'

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Abstract

The Internet has changed the perception of the world and influenced many areas of human social activity. Today's society is called 'information society', 'knowledge society' and but also 'network society'. The development of the media and new technologies has caused that today's teacher and student of all ages can enjoy a variety of tools to improve communication, gathering information and learning. The author in an article describes and analyzes the example of mobile technology tools used in the learning process of adults. The research was conducted in Poland by the experiment on a group of 72 students of pedagogy. The presentation focuses on the IT applications Q MINDshare™ as an innovative educational tool. This utility has been used thus far in the field of business and during the research has been applied to education. It facilitates learning and memory through repetition of small portions of knowledge at different time intervals. It is based on the idea of spaced learning. As a complement to the paper the author presents the reflections on the phenomenon of network society in the context of Polish reality.

Keywords: new technology, education, ICT tool, 'network society', learning

1. Introduction

The disposition towards creating, maintaining and existing with a society of groups and communities is characteristic of humankind; we are social animals (Aronson, 2003). At the same time, people are still redefining and describing new social environments in which they participate. These changes apply to all of us and are also an object of interest for many social and humanistic sciences. J. Bierówka (2009) describes an incompatibility in the discourse of the purpose and character of society: According to A. Giddens (2001) & U. Beck (1986), we still live in an industrial society (for: Bierówka, 2009). Others, for example Z. Bauman (2000), F. Fukuyama (2000), R. Inglehard (1997), and A. Toffler (1997) claim that since the 1960's, society has gained features which are not associated with industrial society (for: Bierówka, 2009). The plurality of the changes concern different spheres of human functionality. In this article, I will focus mainly on the development of communication and information technology. Transformations of the media and development in teleinformatics influenced the metamorphosis of relations between people and the creation of social structures. 'Modern reality', a theoretical model or concept, which we often refer to, is being analyzed and called the 'Information Society' (Bierówka, 2009). Sometimes the term 'Knowledge Society' is used, or the 'Network Society'. The conception of the Network Society had been spread by M. Castells' publications, in which he spoke of a new social structure based on modern communication and information technologies and microelectronics (Kollányi, Molnár, Székely 2007). The process of communication has changed, which is especially visible following the development of media and media instruments. Castells (2006, for: Kollányi, et al.2007) stressed the global and at the same time local, character of the media, digitalism and interactivity of communication channels and also the possibility to create and distribute contents by the users themselves (blogs, vlogs, podcasts, etc.)

We can currently observe an increase in the popularity of social media and the so called 'Web Revolution' became real. Today, the content is created collectively; information has to be transmitted immediately, and the modern user of the media – especially of the internet – would like to be on-line all the time. Indeed media devices and technological novelties are increasingly mobile and versatile. Communication and cooperation is accessible 24/7 (Solomon, Schrum, 2007).

The changing reality is a new field of action for education, and a challenge for practitioners of, and theoreticians associated with, the area of education. It is not without reason that people talk about the 'Knowledge-based Society' (e.g. Juszczak, 2012). The concept of learning for one's entire life without regard for sex, age or social status is dynamically developing. An increasing number of people in Poland decide to continue their education at university, but they also

continue learning after their formal education has ended, whether in courses, workshops or postgraduate studies. Different forms of self-improvement are increasingly used. Education can be conducted in the traditional model of face-to-face interaction between tutor/lecturer/trainer and the student. In that case, the education is stationary and takes place in a classroom or training room. However, mobile courses are becoming increasingly popular. They use e-learning platforms, in which the contact between the teacher and student is much more limited. In some cases, both these models are used, which is effective. In blended learning, the traditional process of learning is strengthened by mobile forms, modern multimedia tools and a modern approach to education as a process of creation, transference and modification of the educational content by the student themselves. In that case, social media, such as social networking, blogs, podcasts, on-line games, the wikis, which enable the student to learn through participation, is of growing importance (Frانيا, 2012).

The theory of connectivism, popularized by G. Siemens (2005), is progressively becoming popular. It is sometimes called a modern theory of learning in a digital world. Its author described current trends associated with education:

- Many learners will move into a variety of different, possibly unrelated fields over the course of their lifetime.
- Informal learning is a significant aspect of our learning experience. Formal education no longer comprises the majority of our learning. Learning now occurs in a variety of ways – through communities of practice, personal networks, and through completion of work-related tasks.
- Learning is a continual process, lasting for a lifetime. Learning and work related activities are no longer separate. In many situations, they are the same.
- Technology is altering (rewiring) our brains. The tools we use define and shape our thinking.
- The organization and the individual are both learning organisms. Increased attention to knowledge management highlights the need for a theory that attempts to explain the link between individual and organizational learning.
- Many of the processes previously handled by learning theories (especially in cognitive information processing) can now be off-loaded to, or supported by, technology.
- Know-how and know-what is being supplemented with know-where (the understanding of where to find knowledge needed) (Siemens, 2005).

Knowledge is not a complete portion of information, it is rather a form of communication; a way of forming networks and connections. This statement is a basis for the network-based pedagogy. MOOC (massive open online course) is a typical example where the users can learn from one another, by creating their own educational content. It provides traditional and modern sources of information and creates an enormous society of learners and scholars. Participants from all over the world often have free access to cooperate, gain experience and create their own content.

Mobile learning plays an important role in such a developing, technological and educational environment. Learning, improving memory, and developing skills with the help of such mobile devices as laptops, mobile phones, smart phones, tablets etc. is a dynamically growing phenomenon. They became another instrument which can be used in a modern process of learning. They can become one of many teaching aids, or the main element of the learning process. The modern educator is not only a teacher. They are also an educationalist and creator of content that is available to access from mobiles devices in a way that is student-friendly and appropriate for all ages.

The rapidly growing market of mobile devices and software is a pretext for the use of new technology in school and privately. I conducted my own research which concerns new media-communication solutions used in learning according to unity students' needs. The results of this scientific exploration, its analysis and my reflection upon it that are presented below, are selected parts of a bigger project planned for 2012-2014, at the University of Silesia in Katowice, Poland.

2. Methodological context of research

The aim of the presented part of research was to verify whether the communication and education device Q MINDshare™¹ is effective in maintaining the knowledge related to ICT, elements of media and media education acquired by the students during stationary classes. The assumption was to present the relation, or a lack of, between repetitions of the material using Q and the level of knowledge about the subject after the course.

The process was focused on the main problem and the following research question was posited:

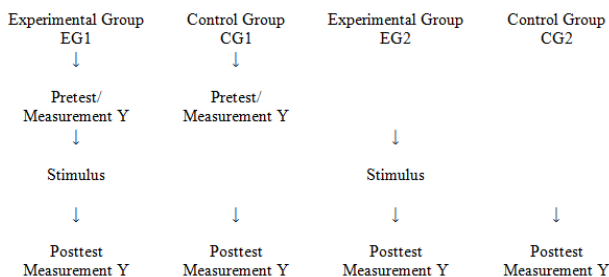
"Does using Q MINDshare™ mobile application influence the level of knowledge and the amount of memorised

¹ The full name of 'Q MINDshare™' and its abbreviated form, Q, in this article are used interchangeably and have equal meaning.

information contained in the course programme of a given subject among pedagogy students and what influence does it have?"

The dependent variable Y, as specified by A. W. Maszke (2004) was the subject of this research. This variable defines direct or indirect results of interactions between independent variables, occurrences that are being examined by the researchers and the values which the researcher is looking for. In the case of the author's own research, it was the level of knowledge defined by the information test. The main independent variable, X, was the use of the application Q.

The research was experimental and the pedagogical experiment was designed and conducted by me, according to Solomon's four-group plan, which is considered to be the best of the so called "0-1" plans (Brzeziński, 2004). It allows for the control of the results of the pre-test without the necessity to give up an initial measurement. It is believed to be somewhat difficult to put into practice but, at the same time, it has a great cognitive value.



As a part of the experiment, by means of a knowledge test, I measured the dependent variable at a pre-test stage in the experimental group EG1 and the control group CG1. The test consisted of 20 questions of varied nature. Each answer could earn two, one or zero points. The student could get 40 points in total. Then two experimental groups EG1 and EG2 used the Q application in the course of one semester. All of the students were participating in a regular, stationary study programme. People who were randomly assigned to supervisory groups were not obliged to use additional programmes, tools or applications. Learning and memorizing the content in after-school activities was beyond the teacher's control, and the type of activity, or lack thereof, was entirely the choice of the student. Members of the experimental groups were obliged to use the Q MINDshare™ application on their personal computers or other mobile devices. It is an interactive education and communication tool which allows for many possibilities of use. One such possibility is the revision of material learned earlier according to the idea of spaced learning. The material was revised in intervals of time such as to enable students to absorb the information and not forget it, as in the case with a single presentation of information (Wick, Pollock, Jefferson, 2010). Participants of the experiment received a packet of two questions / tasks twice a week during one semester. The material learned earlier during the classes had been divided into parts and reformulated into: single-choice questions, multiple-choice questions, adjustments, ranking, gap filling and other questions. The question was automatically shown on the mobile device's screen. The student didn't have to remember to check the inbox regularly or log in the platform. When the task had been accomplished, the student was given access to short, educational material (feedback), e.g. a text, reference to web page or book, material, video, etc. The progress of the group – both individually and as a whole – was being observed and recorded. A student who gave the wrong answer to a question was given two more chances. After a scheduled period of time, the task was provided again. After the end of the semester the students of all groups: EG1, EG2, CG1, CG2 sat the post-test in which – by means of the same device that was used in the pre-test - the level of knowledge in a given field was measured. 72 full-time students in the first year of pedagogy at the University of Silesia, in Katowice, took part in the experiment. The sample was randomly divided into equal experimental groups: (EG1, EG2) and control groups: (CG1, CG2).

3. Results and Discussion

In social science, null hypotheses (H₀) are frequently tested in order to enable the assessment of a given variable. This test is a type of inductive statistical reasoning in which the research hypothesis is not tested directly, but the opposite assumption, the null hypothesis, is considered first. While making the null hypothesis, we assume that the independent variable does not influence the dependent variable; therefore there are no differences between the groups.

Subsequently, with reference to probability theory, the H_0 probability is estimated. If it is small, the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of an alternative hypothesis, H_1 , which states that differences between the groups exist (Bedyńska, Brzezicka, 2007). For this research, the following working hypotheses were formulated:

H_0 The use of the mobile application, Q, by students has no impact on the level of knowledge and memorised information related to the curriculum within a given subject.

H_1 The use of the mobile application, Q, by students has an impact on the level of knowledge and memorised information related to the curriculum within a given subject.

Statistical orders that concern Solomon's experimental four-group plan predict two ways of conducting an analysis of the obtained results: basic analysis and additional, advanced analysis that takes into consideration multi-dimensional statistical models such as: variance analysis, contra variance analysis and multiple regression analysis (Brzeziński, 2010). For the purpose of analysing my own research results, I decided to use the basic analysis of data that I supplemented with the ANOVA variance analysis conducted in Statistica software. The traditional analysis required the following comparisons in order to confirm the research hypothesis (see: Brzeziński, 2010):

$$Y_{1k} > Y_{2k} \quad Y_{3k} > Y_{4k} \quad Y_{1p} = Y_{2p}$$

$$D_1 > D_2, \quad \text{where } D_1 = Y_{1k} - Y_{1p}, D_2 = Y_{2k} - Y_{2p}$$

Y – The dependent variable

Y_p – The initial measurement (pre-test) of the dependent variable Y before the media education classes. Next to the symbol, p, the following specification of a given group will be found:

1 is EG1; 2 is CG1; 3 is EG2; 4 is CG2

Y_k – The final measurement (post-test) of the dependent variable Y after the introduction of classes on media education; next to the symbol, k, the following specification of the group will be found:

1 is EG1; 2 is CG1; 3 is EG2; 4 is CG2

Because of the non-directional character of the hypotheses in the research, the sign ">" had been replaced by ≠ (Brzeziński 2010). I presented the individual scores achieved by students in the pre-test (EG1 and CG1) and the post-test (EG1, EG2, CG1, CG2). It is worth noting that all students who had taken part in both the pre-test and the post-test achieved more scores at the end, which can be interpreted as an increase of knowledge. The group that was using the mobile technology tool to strengthen memorizing displayed a much higher increase in the level of knowledge.

Table 1. Points achieved by the students in the initial and final test of knowledge ($N_{EG1}=18$, $N_{EG2}=18$, $N_{CG1}=18$, $N_{CG2}=18$)

EG1	Pretest	Posttest	EG2	Posttest
Pedagogy, Student 2012/1	5	33	Pedagogy, Student 2012/2	28
Pedagogy, Student 2012/4	13	36	Pedagogy, Student 2012/3	29
Pedagogy, Student 2012/5	8	34	Pedagogy, Student 2012/15	39
Pedagogy, Student 2012/6	6	29	Pedagogy, Student 2012/16	32
Pedagogy, Student 2012/7	20	28	Pedagogy, Student 2012/17	21
Pedagogy, Student 2012/8	3	21	Pedagogy, Student 2012/18	33
Pedagogy, Student 2012/9	5	28	Pedagogy, Student 2012/19	27
Pedagogy, Student 2012/10	8	34	Pedagogy, Student 2012/20	30
Pedagogy, Student 2012/11	8	19	Pedagogy, Student 2012/21	30
Pedagogy, Student 2012/12	4	20	Pedagogy, Student 2012/22	34
Pedagogy, Student 2012/13	10	34	Pedagogy, Student 2012/23	19
Pedagogy, Student 2012/14	6	30	Pedagogy, Student 2012/24	28
Pedagogy, Student 2012/28	11	29	Pedagogy, Student 2012/25	23
Pedagogy, Student 2012/30	12	30	Pedagogy, Student 2012/26	34
Pedagogy, Student 2012/31	5	35	Pedagogy, Student 2012/27	17
Pedagogy, Student 2012/32	11	14	Pedagogy, Student 2012/29	31
Pedagogy, Student 2012/33	5	21	Pedagogy, Student 2012/35	28
Pedagogy, Student 2012/34	5	19	Pedagogy, Student 2012/36	17
CG1	Pretest	Posttest	CG2	Posttest
Pedagogy, Student 2012/37	6	16	Pedagogy, Student 2012/55	17
Pedagogy, Student 2012/38	10	15	Pedagogy, Student 2012/56	18
Pedagogy, Student 2012/39	9	13	Pedagogy, Student 2012/57	22
Pedagogy, Student 2012/40	6	10	Pedagogy, Student 2012/58	17

Pedagogy, Student 2012/41	11	20	Pedagogy, Student 2012/59	11
Pedagogy, Student 2012/42	7	12	Pedagogy, Student 2012/60	15
Pedagogy, Student 2012/43	10	22	Pedagogy, Student 2012/61	20
Pedagogy, Student 2012/44	6	9	Pedagogy, Student 2012/62	22
Pedagogy, Student 2012/45	8	13	Pedagogy, Student 2012/63	12
Pedagogy, Student 2012/46	5	6	Pedagogy, Student 2012/64	18
Pedagogy, Student 2012/47	10	11	Pedagogy, Student 2012/65	9
Pedagogy, Student 2012/48	6	10	Pedagogy, Student 2012/66	19
Pedagogy, Student 2012/49	16	17	Pedagogy, Student 2012/67	24
Pedagogy, Student 2012/50	8	18	Pedagogy, Student 2012/68	9
Pedagogy, Student 2012/51	7	19	Pedagogy, Student 2012/69	11
Pedagogy, Student 2012/52	8	13	Pedagogy, Student 2012/70	15
Pedagogy, Student 2012/53	6	16	Pedagogy, Student 2012/71	21
Pedagogy, Student 2012/54	4	15	Pedagogy, Student 2012/72	22

Source: Own research

In the traditional analysis recommended in the four-group experimental plan, all groups had been compared. Each group consisted of 18 members and it was possible to achieve together 720 points in every stage. In the initial measurement, EG1 achieved 145 points and CG1 achieved 143 points. In the post-test, EG1 achieved 494 points; EG2 - 500 points; CG1 - 255 points and CG2 - 302 points.

$494 > 255 \Rightarrow$ condition $Y_{1k} \neq Y_{2k}$ is met

$500 > 302 \Rightarrow$ condition $Y_{3k} \neq Y_{4k}$ is met

$145 \neq 143$ – the result is not equal, but the disagreement is not statistically significant

$349 > 112 \Rightarrow$ condition $D_1 \neq D_2$, where $D_1 = Y_{1k} - Y_{1p}$, $D_2 = Y_{2k} - Y_{2p}$ is met

Similar calculations and reasoning can be performed with reference to the average points obtained in particular groups.

According to basic analysis, the use of the mobile technology tool has an impact on the level of memorized information. Furthermore, it is associated with an increase of knowledge.

Nevertheless it is necessary to control the pre-test effect as it may signify that people who undergo the initial measurement, to a certain extent, become more “sensitive” and learn how to answer the questions during the final measurement. In this case, the condition of inspecting the pre-test had not been met:

$494 \neq 500$ and $255 \neq 303$.

However; the differences are relatively small. The F-ANOVA test may indicate not only the real significance of the pre-test, but also the variable, X, and the interactions between X with the pre-test Y. Table 2 presents the results obtained.

Table 2. The results of the test F-ANOVA

Effect	One-dimensional test of significance for the result of the test of knowledge Parameterization with sigma-restrictions Decomposition of the effective hypothesis				
	SS	Stages	MS	F	P
Absolute term	33411,13	1	33411,13	1080,255	0,000000
Experimental factor - using Q	2652,35	1	2652,35	85,756	0,000000
Pre-test	39,01	1	39,01	1,261	0,265335
Experimental factor - using Q* Pre-test	23,35	1	23,35	0,755	0,387996

Source: Own research, Statistica software calculation

In conclusion, the influence of the pre-test was not significant enough from a statistical point of view, which confirms that the respondents were not in any way sensitised towards the tasks included in the test during the initial measurement. Similarly, the interaction of the pre-test and the experimental factor had little significance for X. However, the experimental factor itself proved highly significant in this case. Hence, the working null hypothesis saying that ‘using the Q device does not influence the level of knowledge and memorised information’ can be rejected. It can be inferred from

the results that the students who revised, by means of the application, memorised a significantly bigger amount of new material than those who did not use it.

Table 3 presents the average points achieved by each group taking part in the experiment depending on the participation in initial measurement and the kind of the group they had been assigned to.

Table 3. Average points achieved by each experimental and control group in pre-test and post-test

		N	average
In general		72	21,54167
With the use of Q		36	27,61111
Without the use of Q		36	15,47222
The group with the pre-test		36	20,80556
The group without the pre-test		36	22,27778
With the use of Q	The group with the pre-test	18	27,44444
With the use of Q	The group without the pre-test	18	27,77778
Without the use of Q	The group with the pre-test	18	14,16667
Without the use of Q	The group without the pre-test	18	16,77778

Source: Own research, Statistica software calculation

4. Conclusion

The research confirmed the effectiveness of the Q MINDshare™ device, used by the students as a tool for additional revision of material learnt in classes. Questions and tasks in Q helped to increase the level of memorised information and to broaden their knowledge. The effectiveness of this device in the research group should be evaluated positively.

It should be noted that the application was not a separate and independent form of learning. In the assumed model of research, it was combined with the traditional classes. In my subsequent planned analyses, I will try to indicate which element (e.g. revision of small amounts of material; quizzes and competitions, mobile learning style, etc.) associated with technology particularly influenced the effectiveness of the learning process.

Undoubtedly, in the face of the emerging network society, devices of this kind are a great help. Nevertheless, they also change contemporary education. A. Kukulska-Hulme and J. Traxler (2005) list the types of functionality of mobile devices such as: phones, video, cameras, organisers, the web, e-mail, games, e-books, movie players, GPS compasses, music mp3s, etc. The variety and availability of options creates new possibilities of education. The process of learning is subject to time and organisational changes. The master-student relationship undergoes a metamorphosis. The system of assessment and verification of students' or pupils' progress should be modified. It is a challenge for the future – a task for the emerging network society.

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Obesity and the Factors Related to it in a High School Students Study in Tirana, Albania

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to investigate the body weight models among adolescents school students. Overweight and obesity is a global public health concern. There is limited information on overweight and obesity in Albanian adolescents. A cross-sectional study on a stratified sample of 1786 adolescents who attended school, 705 (39%) males and 1081 (61%) females was conducted in Tirana city in 2012. They were interviewed and examined for weight and height using standardized techniques. Referring to the 2007 WHO classification for the BMI scale it resulted that 4.4% 95% CI 3.5 -5.4 adolescents resulted overweight where 32.9% were females and 67.1% were males with a statistically significant difference among them, $p < 0.01$. The overall prevalence of overweight in adolescent females was 2.4%, while in males was 7.5%. The prevalence of obesity class I resulted 0.4%, the obesity class II was 0.3% and obesity class III was 0.1% 95% CI 0.02 – 0.3 from the total of participants. A remarkable finding of our study was that 70.8% of adolescent school students were in normal weight, 20% of them underweight, where 71.7% were females, $p < 0.01$.

1. Introduction

Recently childhood and adolescent obesity has achieved epidemic ratios in developed countries (World Health Organization 2004). The high levels of adolescent overweight will have an economic consequence. According to WHO adult overweight and obesity contribute to six per cent of health expenditure in the EU (Branka F, Nikogosian H, Lobstein T, 2002). Some studies propose that obesity after 3 years of age is related in the long run with a higher risk of obesity in adults, enlarged morbidity and mortality, CVD and some categories of cancer (Powers et al. 1997; Freedman et al. 1999; World Health Organization, 2000). There are numerous reports in the literature about childhood obesity and its undesirable effects on health from different parts of the world (World Health Organization Technical Report Series 2000; Mohammadpour-Ahranjani B, Rashidi A, Karandish M, Eshraghian MR, Kalantari N 2000-2001). During a phase of their life that is distinguished by essential psychological and physiological changes, adolescents are often attracted to unhealthy lifestyles (Reilly JJ, Armstrong J, Dorosty AR, Emmett PM, Ness A, Rogers I, Steer C, Sherriff A 2005; Yang RJ, Wang EK, Hsieh YS, Chen MY 2006) and hardly ever choose food with the best nutritional importance (Cooke LJ, Wardle J 2005; Storey KE, Forbes LE, Fraser SN, Spence JC, Plotnikoff RC, Raine KD, Hanning RM, McCargar LJ 2009). Surveillance data have indicated a high prevalence of overweight and obesity not only in developed countries but also in developing countries (Popkin BM 2001). Prevalence of overweight and obesity has increased in Albania too, a country, which has gone through fast urbanization and alterations in nutritional traditions.

Obesity estimation in childhood and adolescence would imply the hope for preventing obesity and evolution of disease which would be linked with many diseases in adulthood. The present study was designed to determine risk factors for overweight and obesity among adolescents in different regions of Albania.

2. Methodology

This is a cross-sectional study carried out on a national representative sample of the adolescent population in Albania aged 14-20 years from a stratified listing based on a population census available at the time of the study design. The study was conducted in January-December 2012 and the sample was composed of 1786 individuals.

The study protocol considered the invitation to fulfill a standard questionnaire that covered demographic and socio-economic information (age, sex, place of residence, economic level) and health behaviors (cigarette smoking, alcohol

intake, physical activity at school and during leisure time and dietary habits like food preferences) and anthropometric measurements including height, weight and the calculation of BMI. Participation was voluntary and written informed consent from the adolescent students was obtained. Measurements of body weight and height were performed by school medical doctors and students of the Faculty of Nursing in Albania, who were trained to perform this task. Height and weight were measured, using "Seca" Stadiometer (UNICEF) with beam balance, with a sensitivity of 0.1 cm and 0.1 kg, respectively. Zero error was set after every 10 measurements. Height was measured without any footwear. The student stood straight with heels, buttocks, back touching the vertical limb of the instruments, and stretching upwards to the fullest extent with arms hanging on the side. The head was aligned so that the lower rim of the orbit and the auditory canal were in the horizontal plane (Frankfurt plane). Mild upward pressure was exerted on the mastoid region bilaterally. Weight was measured without any footwear with minimal clothing (school uniform).

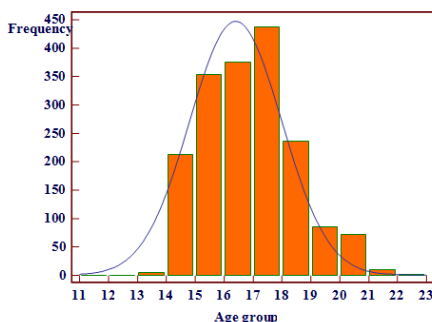
BMI was calculated as the weight (in kg) divided by the square of height (in meters). Participants in the study were divided in categories regarding their relative body weight status using WHO (WHO, 1997) criteria (underweight BMI < 18,5 kg/m², normal: BMI= 18,5-24,9 kg/m², overweight: BMI = 25,0-29,9 kg/m², obese : BMI≥ 30,0kg/m²)

Estimation of the prevalence of overweight and obesity was based on the cut-off points of the International Obesity Task Force (IOTF) standards (Cole TJ, Bellizzi MC, Flegal KM, Dietz WH 2000). In addition to the 2007 WHO reference, prevalence data were calculated using the widely used 2000 Center for Disease Control (CDC) reference for comparison. The dietary history was assessed by asking the students what meals did they consume regularly, if they took their food in a fast-food two or more times in a week, what kind of cereals, vegetables, fruits or juices did they have last week etc. While the physical activity was estimated by asking the students about the frequency of being physically active for a total of 60 minutes in a day, and the average of the outdoor games(dancing, football, volleyball, basketball), while the sedentary lifestyle was evaluated by asking the duration of watching television and using computers and internet. The psychological perception of weight was appraised by questions related to the self-definition of weight, dieting and the actions taken regarding the subject's weight. The statistical analyses were performed with SPSS 15.0 software for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). For each survey, means and standard deviations were calculated for each sex. Mean values were compared using the Student's t test. To define overweight and obesity based on BMI, observed and expected numbers in each category were compared using the χ^2 test. Pearson's correlation analysis was used to reveal the relationships between obesity and age groups. It was decided to use a conservative statistical significance of P = 0.01 to reduce the Type 1 error.

3. Results

The histogram (figure.1) is related to normal distribution. It is perceived a domination of the group age 14-17 years old. The median of the participants in the study is 16 years old.

Figure 1. Histogram of the age of the participants in the study.



79 (4.4%) students result in severe underweight considering the classification of BMI scale , 63 (79.7%) from them were females and 16 (20.3%) males with a statistically significant difference among them, $p < 0.01$

357 (20%) of the participants were underweight 256 (71.7%) from which were females and 101 (28.3%) males with a statistically significant difference among them, $p < 0.01$.

It is noticed a predominance of the normal weight with 1264 (20%) of the participants, with a statistically significant difference with the other categories of weight ($\chi^2= 66.8$ $p < 0.01$). 735 (58.1%) students were females and 529 (41.9%) males where $p < 0.01$.

79 (4.4% 95%CI 3.5 -5.4) adolescents were overweight where 26 (32.9%) were females and 53 (67.1%) males with a statistically significant difference between them, $p < 0.01$.

Prevalence of overweight in females was 2.4% (26/1081) while in males was 7.5% (53/705).

It is observed a majority of overweight in males compared to females where $p < 0.01$ (Table.1).

Table 1. Classification of the students prior to BMI scale and gender

BMI scale	Females	Males	Total
Severe underweight	63	16	79 (4.4%)
Underweight	256	101	357 (20.0%)
Normal	735	529	1264 (70.8%)
Overweight	26	53	79 (4.4%)
Obese Grade I	0	3	3 (0.2%)
Obese Grade II	0	2	2 (0.1%)
Obese Grade III	1	1	2 (0.1%)
Total	1081	705	1786

It is detected a weak positive correlation, but statistically important between BMI and age of the participants in the study. As the age of students increases, the level of BMI grows up too ($r = 0.18$ $p < 0.01$) (Table.2)

Table 2. Correlation of BMI with Age

Sample size	1786
The Pearson coefficient of correlation r	0.1835
Significance level	$P < 0.0001$
95% Interval of confidence for r	0.1383 - 0.2279

We identified that 4.3% (9/210) of the participants with high economic level, 4.5% (67/1496) of the students with medium economic level and 3.8% (3/80) of them with low economic level were overweight. It is not detected an important significance difference between the economic level and overweight ($\chi^2= 3.3$, $p = 0.1$)(Table.3)

Table 3. Classification of the students concerning BMI scale and the economic level

BMI scale	Economic level			Total
	High	Medium	Low	
Severely underweight	11	63	5	79 (4.4%)
Underweight	50	295	12	357 (20.0%)
Normal	140	1065	59	1264 (70.8%)
Overweight	9	67	3	79 (4.4%)
Obese Grade I	0	3	0	3 (0.2%)
Obese Grade II	0	1	1	2 (0.1%)
Obese Grade III	0	2	0	2 (0.1%)
Total	210	1496	80	1786

It is noted a weak positive correlation but statistically important between BMI and smoking of the adolescents. Increase BMI values increase in the participants that are regular smokers and ex-smokers ($r = 0.127$ $p < 0.01$)(Table.4)

Table 4. Correlation of BMI with smoking

Sample size	1786
The coefficient of correlation of the ranks of Spearman (ρ)	0.127
Level of significance	$P < 0.0001$
95% Interval of Confidence for ρ	0.083 - 0.1

The majority of students in normal weight, 1011 or 80% (1011/1264) of them have a right perception of their weight with a statistically significant difference with the other categories of perception ($\chi^2= 2906.1$ $p < 0.01$). 43 (54.4%) of the participants have a proper perception that are "slightly overweight" with a statistically significant difference with the other categories of perception ($\chi^2= 61.2$ $p < 0.01$) (Table.5)

Table 5. Comparison of BMI scale and the psychological perception of the weight from the subjects

BMI scale	Psychological weight perception					Total
	"nearly in the proper weight"	"slightly overweight"	"slightly underweight"	"considerably overweight"	"considerably underweight"	
Severely underweight	52	1	21	0	5	79 (4.4%)
Underweight	269	7	73	2	6	357 (20.0%)
Normal	1011	160	80	9	4	1264 (70.8%)
Overweight	30	43	4	2	0	79 (4.4%)
Obese G. I	1	2	0	0	0	3 (0.2%)
Obese G. II	1	0	0	1	0	2 (0.1%)
Obese G.III	2	0	0	0	0	2 (0.1%)

4. Discussion

Despite economic, social, cultural and religious disparities among them, overweight and obesity are turned into a widespread matter common for all uncommonly distant countries.

Regarding the data provided from a previous study conducted in Tirana, the capital of Albania in 2001, about body weight patterns it was found that the prevalence of obesity in men was 22% and 30% in women (Laidon Shapo, Joceline Pomerlea, Martin McKee, Richard Coke and Agron Ylli 2001).

Concerning our study we have noticed that there was quite a big change in the levels of overweight and obesity in 2001 that were very high in the adult population, while in the adolescent school students they were very low (4.4%). The increase in the levels of prevalence of overweight and obesity after the communist regime till the year 2000, was dedicated to the economic and cultural changes after the communist regime and the establishment of democracy and the opening of borders in Albania that has followed a free market economy as well as in the media influence and the nutritional changes mainly a growing fast food availability. People in big cities such as Tirana have experienced an evident progress in the standard of living and have become attracted to a more consumptive lifestyle which may lead to the rising prevalence of overweight and obesity. Based on the data on other countries in transition (Pudule I, Grinberga D, Kadziauskiene K, Abaravicius A, Vaask S, Robertson A, et al 1999; Pomerleau J, McKee M, Robertson A, Vaask S, Kadziauskiene K, Abaravicius A, et al 2000), it has been possible that the increased urbanization and the modernization of lifestyle (dietary changes, increased inactivity, smoking) have played a key role in this change.

While nowadays, regarding our study we have to say that the levels of overweight and obesity concerning adolescents in Albania (4.4%; 0.4%) are among the lowest in Europe, regarding the data from IOTF international cut off points for global trends in obesity. So we may compare our data on overweight with the data of Latvia, Estonia and Turkey.

There has been a wide range of prevalence of overweight and obesity worldwide, ranging from India, where only 0.7% of the population is obese, to French Polynesia, where nearly 40% of the population is obese (Nguyen DM, El-Serag HB 2009). In countries such as China and Thailand (Wang Y, Wang JQ 2002; Zhou H, Yamauchi T, Natsuhara K, Yan Z, Lin H, Ichimaru N, et al, Kim SW, Ishii M, Ohtsuka R 2006), the incidence of overweight and obesity is more frequently observed in boys than in girls, whereas in the United Arab Emirates there are more girls diagnosed as overweight and obese (Malik M, Bakir A 2007). It is the same in Albania where the prevalence of overweight and obesity is higher in boys than in girls.

Regarding the data provided from IOFT cut off points for Albania in 2008, the prevalence of obesity for males was 8.5% and for females was 9.7% (International Association for the Study of Obesity 2012). So, there was a big difference in the prevalence of overweight between the adolescent and the adult population in Albania. The high obesity prevalence noticed along with the recent decrease in physical activity, dietary changes and increase in smoking prevalence has led to considerable increases in many non-communicable diseases in Albania in the coming decades. Health promotion strategies are needed that prevent excess weight gain in the Albanian adult population. One of the strengths of this study

would be that it has been anonymous and based on a large nationally representative sample. Among the limitations would be the cross-section nature of the survey preventing any conclusions regarding causality and the non-inclusion of adolescents who have dropped out of school and who might be more vulnerable. As a result further research is needed to include in the study also the adolescents who did not attend school.

5. Conclusions

An argument related to these low levels of adolescent overweight and obesity in Albania would be the Mediterranean diet with plenty of fruits and vegetables, the meals consumed at home or more healthy foods, the increase of physical activity, gym, aerobics, the tendency of boys and girls to take care about their image, influenced by the media and TV that promote the slim and elegant individuals as a way to be successful in life. The more recent increase in social pressure on males setting somewhat an unrealistic body ideal consisting of a low body fat and a high muscularity figure could lead to a considerable increase in disordered eating (McCabe MP, Ricciardelli LA 2004). Actually, body and weight concerns are universally considered as typical female concerns. So, the social pressure to be thin has a greater influence on girls.

An interesting finding in our study was that a high percentage of adolescent school students almost 70.8% were in normal weight. Identifying pathways would seem essential for the design of programs in the field of adolescent health promotion and positive health. In our opinion, the low levels of overweight and obesity and the huge proportion of normal weight within the adolescent population was dedicated to a popularity of healthy lifestyles among the youngsters.

However, another exciting conclusion of our study was that 20% of the participants, mostly girls reflected underweight problems. This is a serious issue, as a consequence strategies should be implemented to tackle this problem in Albania, in the near future.

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An Empirical Research on Consumer Innovativeness in Relation with Hedonic Consumption, Social Identity and Self-Esteem

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Abstract

Consumer innovativeness indicates the the degree of consumers' tendency to buy new products, services or brands. The focus of this research is the relation of consumer innovativeness with hedonic consumption, social identity and self-esteem. With the purpose of detecting the relations of hedonic consumption, self identity and self-esteem with consumer innovativeness, a quantitative research has been carried out. The survey instrument has been formed by using four scales from the existing literature. The universe of the research has been detected as the students of University of Turin – Italy. Due to the fact that the universe comprised of Italians, the survey instrument was translated from its original language English to Italian by using the methods of back-translation and pre-test. In accordance with the descriptive and relational model of research, several tests were applied to the data using SPSS and Lisrel. Finally results have been analyzed and discussed.

Keywords: *Consumer innovativeness, innovation diffusion, hedonic consumption, social identity, self-esteem.*

1. Introduction

Recently within the field of marketing, innovation has been one of the most popular research topics. "An innovation is an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption (Rogers, 1995: 11)". Many innovation studies are directed to the emergence of a new product, service or a process. In other words, they are directed to the innovation itself. Along with innovation studies which focus on the innovation itself, another critical field of study is consumers' adoption of innovations. Right at this point, the issue of consumer innovativeness emerges. Consumer innovativeness indicates the the degree of consumers' tendency to buy new products, services or brands.

Consumer innovativeness has a relation with many factors such as need for uniqueness (Roehrich, 2004), quality, attributes, social environment (Gladwell, 2000), characteristics of adopters (Glanz, 2008), intrinsic motivations (Fishben, 1975; Ajzen, 1991; Davis, 1989), innovations' own characteristics (Greenhalg et.al, 2004; Rogers, 2003; Wejnert, 2002), characteristics of individuals (Rogers, 2003; Silverman, 2011), culture (Daghfous, Petrof & Pons, 1999) and nationality (Lynn & Gelb, 1996). Within the scope of this research, it has been hypothesized that hedonic consumption, self-identity and self-esteem have a relation with consumer innovativeness. The hypotheses were empirically tested and evaluated.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

In the literature review of the study, the concepts of consumer innovativeness, hedonic consumption, self identity and self-esteem are revealed. Evidence from existent research have been cited to understand these concepts and their relation with other factors which influence consumer behaviour and innovativeness. Finally, hypotheses of the research have been developed.

2.1 Consumer Innovativeness

The success of innovations depends on consumer innovativeness because innovativeness introduces the innovation to the social system (Grewal, Mehta & Kardes, 2000: 234) and thereby determines innovations' acceptance by targets. "Consumer innovativeness, or consumption of newness is the tendency to buy new products more often and more quickly than other people (Midgley & Dowling, 1978 as cited in Roehrich, 2004: 671)". Consumer innovativeness connotes to the early purchase of a new product (Cestre, 1996), but is also considered as having the tendency to be attracted by new products (Steenkamp et al., 1999 as cited in Roehrich, 2004: 671)". What is meant by consumer innovativeness is how consumers embrace innovation. In other words, it indicates the adoption status and personal closeness to innovation. Theories of innovation diffusion have been used to explain consumers' adoption to innovative products. It is important to clear out what is meant by 'diffusion'. Diffusion is the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system (Rogers, 1995: 6). Hence, there are four main elements in the diffusion of new ideas; the innovation itself, which is communicated through certain channels, over time and among the members of a social system (Rogers, 2003: 36).

Consumers' adoption process to innovations are affected by many factors, thereby several research draw attention on different aspects of diffusion and adoption of innovations. Some researchers have evaluated the concept focusing on intrinsic motivations on the individual level (Fishben, 1975; Ajzen, 1991; Davis, 1989) while some focused on developer based theories (Surry, 1997). Some researchers highlighted the strong effects of innovations' own characteristics in the speed and extent of the adoption and diffusion (Rogers, 2003; Greenhalg et.al, 2004; Wejnert, 2002). According to the results of these studies; relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability turned out to be factors which affect the own characteristics of innovations and thereby the attributes of the diffusion (Glanz, 2008: 319). In some research, the characteristics of individuals have been evaluated as an important factor for the adoption of innovation (Rogers, 2003; Silverman, 2011). Rogers (2003) identified five adopter categories: innovators, early adopters, early majority adopters, late majority adopters and laggards. From 1 to 5, these adopter categories form a bell shaped curve where innovators are the most inclined to innovations and laggards are the least. Daghfous, Petrof and Pons (1999) state that individuals' adoption of innovations is strongly affected by culture. Daghfous et. al also discovered a relation between consumer innovativeness and hedonic consumption. According to Goldsmith and Hofacker (1991), there is an effect of individual's personal interest to innovation and emotional bond with it. Waarts and Van (2005) highlight the effects of national culture on the adoption status of innovations.

As seen from the antecedents of existing literature, consumer innovativeness may be related with many concepts. The focus of this research is the relation of consumer innovativeness with hedonic consumption, social identity and self-esteem.

2.2 Hedonic Consumption

In the past decades, the hedonic dimension of consumption has been gradually increasing its importance. This is basically grounded on the tremendous increase in brands, products/services and the changing characteristics of consumers. Thus, it is getting almost impossible to attract consumers by depending only on utilitarian features.

Hedonic consumption is described as "those facets of consumer behavior that relate to the multisensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of one's experience with products (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982)". Hedonic consumption is closely related with emotions, rather than rationality. It is associated with concepts such as; pleasure, arousal, fantasies, feelings, fun and the role of the individual (Hopkinson & Pujari, 1999: 274).

Products used for consumption purposes can be categorized as hedonic or utilitarian (Lim & Ang, 2008: 226). Hedonic products are defined as those "whose consumption is primarily characterized by an affective and sensory experience of aesthetic or sensual pleasure, fantasy, and fun (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000: 61)". While consuming hedonic products, consumers are more likely to think of enjoyment, excitement, captivation and escapism (Babin et. al., 1994). Utilitarian goods are for practical purposes while hedonic goods exist to fulfill emotions. In the case of utilitarian goods functionality and rationality are important, but for hedonic goods feelings, emotions and experiences gain greater importance. Mano and Oliver (1993) found out that people tend to exhibit stronger affective reactions to hedonic consumption (Roy & NG, 2012: 82). The main reason beyond this is the emotional attachment, which does not exist for utilitarian products.

Hedonic consumption and hedonic goods have been the subject of various research. In many research, hedonic consumption has been evaluated together with utilitarian consumption (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Chaudhuri, 2002; Chitturi

et. al., 2007; Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2010; 2012; Okada, 2005; Roy & NG). Hedonic consumption has been an important field of research for luxury studies (Allison, 2008; Dubois, Czellar & Laurent, 2005; Hagtvedt & Patrick, 2009; Snell & Varey, 1995; Vigneron & Johnson, 1999). It has been associated with impulsiveness and impulse buying (Tifferet & Herstein, 2012; Urminsky & Kivetz, 2003). Some studies on hedonic consumption focused at cultural differences. Evidence from these studies (Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Scitovsky, 1976, 1986) suggest that, consumption, of hedonic consumer products, is highly important for happiness among modern consumers, therefore highly developed economies have an increased emphasis on hedonic consumption (Zhong & Mitchell, 2010: 153). There are also some studies which evaluated the subject within the scope of a sector e.g. wellness, travel, hospitality, wine (Bruwer & Alant, 2009; Miao, et. al., 2011, 2013; Stoddard, J. E., Evans, M. & Shao, 2012; Zhong & Mitchell, 2010). Daghfous, Petrof and Pons (1999) discovered a relation between consumer innovativeness and hedonic consumption. They noted that consumers with hedonic consumption values can adopt to innovations in a shorter period of time. Carrying on the antecedents of existing research, it is likely that there is a relationship between consumer innovativeness and hedonic consumption.

Hypotheses 1. There is a relationship between consumer innovativeness and hedonic consumption.

2.3 Social Identity

Social identity contains information about individuals' commitment and attachment to a specific group and the status and characteristics of this group (Tajfel & Turner, 1986 as cited in Jacobs, 2013: 44). Social identity function serves as a way to communicate something about the self to others.

According to Hugstad, Taylor and Bruce's (1987) research about effects of social class on consumer information search, consumption is an issue of identity, thereby consumption choices are made in order to become a member of a social class. In this way, the social identity function in consumption generates importance. Consumers are often attracted to products and brands which are linked to their social identity. This tendency results from the fact that consumers are inclined to purchasing brands that symbolize their own personality traits, or brands that represent the person that consumers wish to become (Reed & Forehand, 2003: 3). Either way, consumers' social identity stands out as an important factor which motivates purchase. By no means, this fact directs marketers to build and position brands according to the characteristics of their target audiences's social identity.

Research have been directed to social identity within the field of consumer behaviour from many perspectives. Jacobs (2013) investigated the relationship between social identities and innovation as a collective art. She focused on how multiple social identity processes create positive commitment and motivation for collaborative innovation. Reed and Forehand (2003) present a framework on how consumers come to socially identify with specific groups, products, and brands, and how and when these social identifications influence reactions to marketing stimuli. Yorno, Postmes & Haslam (2007) explored the effects of social identity and group norms on the creativity of individuals and groups. They argued that norms influence creativity and and creative endeavor. Research have been directed to social identity based positioning techniques (Forehand & Deshpandé 2001; Jaffe & Berger 1988; Shavitt & Nelson 2000; Wooten 1995). They came up with the result that effective planning of positioning includes to detect the social identities of the target consumers. Grewal, Mehta and Kardes (2000), directed their research to the role of the social-identity function of attitudes in consumer innovativeness and opinion leadership. The results of their study showed that social identity function exerts a strong impact on innovativeness and opinion leadership. The authors cited that innovations are primary for eliciting the social identity function and the social identity function plays an important role in the adoption and diffusion of innovations. Many research have been directed to social identity's influence on organizational behaviour (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001; Ellemers et. al., 2004; Highhouse et. al., 2007; Massimo & Bagozzi, 2000; Wieseke et. al., 2008). Within these research, social identity has been evaluated as a function which effects individuals in an organization. Social identity perspective's basic premise is that individuals have a personal identity as well as a range of social identities. Social identity is an aspect of the self which is derived from memberships of social groups of their own values and norms (Yorno, Postmes & Haslam, 2007: 411). While these values and norms are internalized by the members of the group, they shape people's ideas and influence their behaviour. Thereby, social identity is likely to have an effect on consumer innovativeness. This argument forms the second hypothesis of this research.

Hypotheses 2. There is a relationship between consumer innovativeness and social identity.

2.4 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is an important driver of consumption. Consumers purchase decisions are made within the context of enhancing or protecting self esteem (Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967 as cited in Banister: & Hogg, 2004: 850.). A brief definition of self-esteem would be, individual's perception of his or her own value. It includes variables as person's likeliness, appreciation, approvement and value given to ownself.

Many studies on consumer behaviour have been directed to self-esteem because it is key construct to understanding human behaviour. Self-esteem has a central role in explaining human psychology which makes it an important factor to designate consumption choices. Consumer behaviour research indicates that acquiring goods help improve self-esteem (Arndt et. al. 2004 as cited in Truong, & McColl, 2011: 556). Marketing strategies directed to self-esteem need to include self-respect, sense of accomplishment, prestige and fame (Lamb, Hair & McDaniel, 2012: 219). Many of the luxury brands have contexts related to consumers' self-esteem.

Researchers have came up with some important findings about self-esteem. These include aspects such as: People with high self-esteem are more likely to participate in the affairs around them, mainly due to their confidence, they are more tolerant of deviance, less authoritarian, less anxious and less authoritarian (Lane, 1995: 183). Janis (1954) found that individuals with low self-esteem are more easily influenced by others (Clark & Goldsmith, 2005: 294). Thereby, suggestions are considered to be more important and effective for individuals with lower self-esteem. Drawing on this fact, it may be argued that individuals with high self-esteem will have a higher level of consumer innovativeness, while individuals with lower level of self-esteem would be more inclined to follow their suggestions and behaviour.

Due to the fact that self-esteem has important effects on influencing consumer behaviour from many aspects, within the scope of this research it is argued that self-esteem may have a relation with consumer innovativeness. This argument generates the third and final hypotheses of this study.

Hypotheses 3. There is a relationship between consumer innovativeness and self-esteem.

3. Method

3.1 Research Objectives and Model Development

Objectives of this research are: To describe factors which may have an effect on consumer innovativeness and detect the relations of hedonic consumption, self identity and self-esteem with consumer innovativeness. For these purposes, the research is designed with a descriptive and relational model. While descriptive research models aim at detecting a situation concerning a subject (Erdoğan, 1998:60-61), relational models aim at investigating the relation between variables (Iftar, 2000). The research model may be seen in Figure 1.

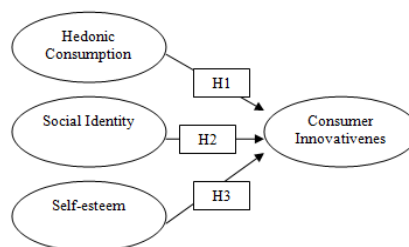


Figure 1: Research Model

3.2 Measures

Measures of the research were selected after a detailed literature review on the concepts of consumer innovativeness, hedonic consumption, self identity and self-esteem. Measures used in the research compose of the following scales: Martinez and Montaner's (2005) innovativeness scale, Babin, Darden and Griffin's (1994) scale on hedonic and utilitarian shopping value, social identity function scale of Grewal, et. al (2000) and Rosenberg's(1965) self-esteem scale. Using these scales a questionnaire was formed. The original scales were in English, because of that the participants

were Italian, the questionnaire was translated to Italian.

Research instrument's translation is a critical process. "Generally, direct translation of an instrument from one language to another does not guarantee content equivalence of the translated scale (Brislin 1970, Sechrest & Fay 1972 as cited in (Cha, Kim & Erlen, 2007: 387)". Therefore, in this research, translation methods suggested by experts were used to ensure the validity. Four techniques were offered by Brislin (1970) for maintaining the equivalence between the original and translated measures: back-translation method, bilingual technique, committee approach, pretest procedure. In this research, the back-translation method and the pretest method were used, as it is suggested by experts to combining different translation techniques to overcome limitations of a single technique (Jones et al., 2001). "Researchers agree that back-translation of an instrument is essential for its validation and use in a cross-cultural study (McDermott & Palchanes 1992, Jones et al. 2001, John et al. 2006 as cited in (Cha, Kim & Erlen, 2007: 387)". In his well known method, Brislin (1970) recommended a repeated independent translation and a back-translation from different translators. According to his back-translation method, first, a bilingual translator translates an instrument from the original language to the target language. Second, another bilingual translator independently back-translates the instrument from the target language to the original language. Afterwards, the two translations are compared for concept equivalence. Until the errors are eliminated, a third translator retranslates the problematic items (Cha, Kim & Erlen, 2007: 388). The second translation method used for this research is the pre-test method. This method is a pilot study to foresee any problems which may occur in the clarity of the research instrument.

The research instrument was first translated from English (original language) to Italian (target language) by a bilingual professor who is half Italian and half British. Then, another half Italian and half British bilingual law masters student, did the back-translation of the instrument from the target language to the original language. The two translations were compared for concept equivalence. 3 problematic items occurred in this process and they were eliminated with the translation of a bilingual lawyer. After the back-translation, the pretest method was used to make sure that there are no problems with the clarity of the questions. The questionnaires were filled by 60 participants among the sample and it was proved by the consistency of the answers and low number of missings that there were no misunderstandings of the research instrument.

3.3 Sample

The universe of the research was determined as the students of University of Turin – Italy. Then data were collected from the students of University of Turin, using judgement sampling. A total of 283 questionnaires were handed to students face to face, after the elimination of the forms, 279 were used for the analysis. The demographics of the sample may be seen in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographics of the Sample

	Frequencies (F)	(%)		Frequency (F)	(%)
Gender			Year		
Female	165	59.1	1st	59	21.1
Male	113	40.5	2nd	49	17.6
Not specified	1	0.4	3rd	64	22.9
Total	364	100.0	4th	45	16.1
			Post-graduate	46	16.5
Income			Not specified	5	1.8
<200 €	136	48.7	Total	279	100.0
201-400 €	51	18.3			
401-600 €	19	6.8			
>601 €	48	17.2			
Not specified	25	9.0			
Total	279	100.0			

3.4 Findings

The results of the research have been analyzed using SPSS 17 and LISREL 8.80. First, demographic breakdown, reliability analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were done. After the factor loadings and reliability tests were proved, further analysis were carried out. Means and standard deviations of dimensions were determined. Finally, multiple

regression analysis was applied to test the three hypothesis of research.

Table 2: Scale Items, Reliability Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis

<i>Scale Items</i>	<i>α*</i>	<i>Variance</i>	<i>Standardized Loadings</i>	<i>t-values</i>	<i>Mean</i>
Consumer Innovativeness	0.87	% 14.668			
INNOV-1			0.72	13.25	1.50
INNOV-2			0.79	15.33	1.62
INNOV-3			0.77	14.70	1.78
Social Identity	0.70	% 12.501			
SOCID-1			0.41	6.25	1.70
SOCID-2			0.72	12.28	1.45
SOCID-3			0.77	13.28	1.79
SOCID-4			0.58	9.51	1.86
Self-esteem	0.68	% 6.781			
SELFE-1			0.66	10.14	1.79
SELFE-2			0.43	6.42	3.36
SELFE-3			0.49	7.36	3.17
SELFE-4			0.75	11.53	2.62
Hedonic consumption	0.85	% 19.381			
HEDC-1			0.73	13.87	3.34
HEDC-2			0.69	12.84	3.00
HEDC-3			0.72	13.37	2.07
HEDC-4			0.65	11.96	1.93
HEDC-5			0.83	16.85	2.54
HEDC-6			0.86	17.61	2.61
HEDC-7			0.76	14.76	3.01
HEDC-8			0.76	14.71	2.60
HEDC-9			0.63	11.28	2.57
HEDC-10			0.65	11.86	1.89
HEDC-11					2.61
Fit indices:					
χ ² /df=	3.72	CFI=	0.96	Total Explained Variance=	%53.331
GFI=	0.87	NFI=	0.94	Overall Reliability=	0.902
AGFI=	0.73	NNFI=	0.90		
KMO=	0.89	RMSEA=	0.091		

All items were designed on a 5 point likert scale. (5=strongly agree, 1=strongly disagree). A Cronbach Alpha value more than 0.70 proves the reliability of the scale, but in cases where there are less questions, this value is 0,60 (Sipahi, Yurtkoru, Çinko 2008:89). As seen in Table 2, all factors have Cronbach Alpha values greater than the suggested value of 0.60.

Table 2 shows the total item correlations and reliability coefficients of this study's dimensions and items. As seen in Table 2, coefficient alfa values for all four factors are between 0.68 – 0.87, which means that they are above the level of 0.60 determined by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Total item correlations are between 0.35 – 0.84, which indicates they are as high as Saxe and Weitz (1982) have suggested (0.32). This proves that the instrument purveys the minimum standards for collison validity. Also, the ultimatae mean values of all items may be seen in Table 2. There is no significant problem about the mean values. To be able to see the mean differences, all mean scores for each item have been counted with the mean score related to the item.

Table 3: Means and Standard Deviation

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Means</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>1.Consumer Innovativeness</i>	1.973	0.924	0.000*
<i>2.Social Identity</i>	1.720	0.799	0.000*
<i>3.Self-esteem</i>	2.741	0.868	0.021*
<i>4.Hedonic Consumption</i>	2.578	0.854	0.001*

*p < 0.01 level, **p < 0.05 level

As seen in Table 3, the mean value of self-esteem dimension turned out to be the highest (2.741), while the mean value of social identity turned out to be the lowest (1.720). Mean values indicate that consumers are ambivalent about self-esteem and hedonic consumption dimensions while the mean values are higher 2.74 and 2.57, which are close to 3 (neither agree nor disagree). On the other hand, consumers are closer to disagree with consumer innovativeness and

social identity dimensions while the mean values are closer to 2 which indicates the state of disagreement.

It is seen in Table 2 and 3 that all mean score differences are evident ($p < 0.01$) and t-values are greater than ± 2.00 (Nunnally&Bernstein, 1994; Hair, Money, Samouel&Page, 2007). Values of standard deviations show that participants are consistent in their answers but do not have sufficient clarity (Tabachnick&Fidell, 1996). Mean scores of Italian participants were lower than 3.00 which shows that they are more inclined to being ambivalent or in disagreement. Using these composite scores, further analysis of two variable correlations have been made. Results of this analysis show that all correlations among dimensions are significant in the level of 0.01. Correlations are between 0.87 (consumer innovativeness) and 0.68 (self-esteem). Lowest level of correlation is seen in social identity and self-esteem and the highest level of correlation is seen in consumer innovativeness (0.87). These results show evidence for the discriminant validity of the scale. Assumptive relations were tested by regression analysis.

The standard deviation is on the highest level for consumer innovativeness and on the lowest level for social identity. Though, there is a small difference between the standard deviations, it may be said that people have more varied opinions on consumer innovativeness while they more likely to agree on social identity.

By regression analysis, the assumptive relationship was tested. Regression analysis "relates a single criteria variable with a one or more dependant variables. While one or more dependant variables are held in a constant level, this criteria calculates the frequency distribution of the variable (Churchill ve Iacobucci, 2002: 981).

Table 4: Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple R = 0.802				R² = 0.643		Adjusted R² = 0.635		Standard Error = 0.552	
F = 81.20				P < 0.001					
<i>Independent Variables:</i> Social Identity Factor(SOSID), Self-esteem Factor(SELFE), Hedonic Consumption Factor(HEDC)									
<i>Dependent Variable:</i> Consumer Innovativeness Factor(INNOV)									
Independent Variable				Beta^a		t-value		Sig.^b	
SOSID				0.39		7.137		0.000*	
SELFE				0.12		2.323		0.021**	
HEDC				0.18		3.488		0.001*	
Notes: ^a Standardized coefficient, ^b p < 0.05, * p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05									
Assumption:									
Normality				: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Statistics 0.076 < 0.184, 0.001 significance level.					
Linearity				: Confirmed by the analysis of partial regression plots					
Homoscedasticity				: Confirmed by the analysis of partial regression plots					
Independence of Residuals				: Durbin-Watson test, score = 2.049					
Multiple Linearity Statistics:									
		Condition		Variance Proportions					
		Index	Constant	SOSID	SELFE	HEDC			
1		5.688	0.05	0.98	0.03	0.08			
2		6.863	0.00	0.01	0.50	0.56			
3		9.986	0.95	0.00	0.46	0.34			

In the multiple regression analysis, social identity, self-esteem and hedonic consumption were independent variables and consumer innovativeness was the dependant valuable. First of all, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of residuals were tested and the regression analysis was confirmed. Results show that "residuals are normally dispersed according to the expected dependant valuable value. Residuals have a linear line relation with the expected dependant valuable values. Homoscedasticity of residuals' expected dependant valuable values are the same for all expected values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996: 136). Also there is no evidence of multicollinearity problem (Hair vd., 2007) since "...each conditioning index is lower than 30, and at least two variance proportions are lower than 0.50" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996: 87). The R² value shows that 64% of consumer innovativeness may be explained by social identity, self-esteem and hedonic consumption dimensions.

Significance values for all three independent variables prove a significant relationship with consumer innovativeness while all values are smaller than 0.05. Therefore, all three hypothesis of this research which have anticipated a relationship between consumer innovativeness and the concepts of self-esteem, hedonic consumption and social identity have been proven right.

4. Discussion and Implications

Consumer innovativeness indicates the the degree of consumers' tendency to buy new products, services or brands. The focus of this research was the relation of consumer innovativeness with hedonic consumption, social identity and self-esteem. With the purpose of detecting the relations of hedonic consumption, self identity and self-esteem with consumer innovativeness, a quantitative research has been carried out.

The objectives of this research were determined as to describe factors which may have an effect on consumer innovativeness and detect the relations of hedonic consumption, self identity and self-esteem with consumer innovativeness. Measures of the research were selected after a detailed literature review on the concepts of consumer innovativeness, hedonic consumption, self identity and self-esteem. After this literature review, measures from the antecedent research were involved in this study. The universe of the research was determined as the students of University of Turin – Italy. In the results, the mean value of self-esteem dimension turned out to be the highest , while the mean value of social identity turned out to be the lowest.. As a results, mean values indicate that consumers are ambivalent about self-esteem and hedonic consumption dimensions. Consumers are closer to disagree with consumer innovativeness and social identity dimensions. Significance values for all three independent variables proved a significant relationship with consumer innovativeness. Therefore, all three hypothesis of this research which have anticipated a relationship between consumer innovativeness and the concepts of self-esteem, hedonic consumption and social identity have been proven right.

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Parental Stress in Families of Children with Disabilities: A Literature Review

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Abstract

A lot has been written about the stressors in the lives of parents of children with disabilities. Several studies indicate that parents of children with disabilities experience higher levels of stress compared to parents of children without disabilities. Studies have focused on understanding the types, causes and the effects of these stresses, discussing further implications for family intervention. Anyway, little research is done in this area in Albania. This paper examines the existing research on stress in families of children with disabilities, highlighting different variables related to stress. Through a literature review and conceptual framework the aim of this article is to help professionals to a better understanding of variables related to stress, and to create some basis and guidelines for further empirical research in Albania. Suggestions for research in the future are discussed.

Keywords: *parental stress, children with disabilities, literature review, typically developing children*

1. Introduction

Parenting, a wonderful and rewarding experience, is often accompanied by high levels of stress, because of the difficulties, frustrations, and challenges that parents face in everyday life. The coming of a child with developmental disabilities brings unexpected demands and challenges to parents, for which they are often not prepared. Having a child with developmental disabilities brings life changing implications and long-lasting effects in the life of the whole family (Simmerman, 2001; Martin & Colbert, 1997). Many studies conducted on this area show that parents of children with developmental disabilities experience higher levels of stress compared to parents of children with typical development (Sanders & Morgan 1997; Roach et al 1999). The impact that a child with developmental disabilities has on the family is not only linear and it does not lie on only on direction. The impact is multidimensional, reciprocal, it affects the whole family system, it affects the relationships between the family members (Harris 1994; Rodrigue, Gefken & Morgan 1994; Breslau 1982; Breslau & Prabucki 1987). The wellbeing of the siblings of children with developmental disabilities may be compromised due to the stress experienced in the family (Rossiter & Sharpe 2001).

This paper examines the existing research on parental stress in families of children with developmental disabilities (DD), highlighting different variables related to stress. The papers selected for literature review met two criteria: a) the papers were focused on parental stress (or its correlations with other variables) in families of children with developmental disabilities, b) the child's developmental disability was one from the above mentioned; Down syndrome, autism, intellectual disabilities, ADHD.

According to Stein dhe Jessop (1989) the caregivers of children with chronic conditions, experience similar concerns and needs for support. This paper was designed upon the assumption that different diagnosis of developmental disabilities affect families in similar ways. The term Developmental Disabilities (DD) refers to a wide range of disabilities. It would have been unrealistic and out of the researcher's possibilities trying to cover all types of DD on this paper. The before mentioned types of DD were selected by the researcher as many studies were conducted on them and their impact on families.

2. Why is it important to study stress experienced by parents of children with DD?

Research suggest that parents of children with DD not only experience higher levels of stress compared to families of children with typical development, but their mental health in general might be complicated as well. Parents may experience depression, anxiety (Beckman 1991; Dyson 1991; Emerson 2003; Bristol & Schopher 1984; Hoppes &

Hoppes 1990), higher levels of hopelessness, failure, guilt (Jones 1997; Powers 1989; Tommasone & Tommasone 1989), they report less parental skills and less marital satisfaction (Rodrigue et al 1990).

Parents' psychological well-being is considered to be very important. Research stress the importance of intervention programs in parental stress in order to alleviate it (Davis 1985; Schilling & Schinke 1984), because high levels of parental stress may have a negative impact on the functioning of the child with DD. Parents may behave ways that have a negative impact on children (Hastings 2002). Studies suggest that parents who experience higher levels of stress interact differently with their children, compared to parents who experience lower levels of stress, and they respond differently to their child's problematic behavior (Conger et al 1995). According to Floyd & Phillippe (1993) self reported depression from parents was a strong predictor for their efforts to manage actively and successfully their child's problematic behaviors.

The child with developmental disabilities is not the only one who affects his family's life and dynamics. The family also affects positively or negatively the child's development. Research suggests that higher levels of parental stress predict less positive outcomes from the early intervention programs for children with disabilities (Brinker et al, 1994), whereas early interventions for children with disabilities are more successful when family problems, parental stress included, are addressed before the intervention program begins (Rhodes 2003). Thus knowing and dealing with parental stress is important for professionals. At last, not only it seems that parental stress interferes with success of intervention programs for children with DD (Robbin et al 1991; Brinker et al 1994), but parents as well, while experiencing high levels of stress, have less positive outcomes from intervention programs designed to improve parental skills (Rhodes 2003; Baker et al 1991).

Many variables have been related to stress experienced by parents of children with DD. In this paper they are conceptualized in three categories: stress related to child characteristics, parental cognitive appraisals of the situation, and family resources and support.

3. Child related stress- Diagnosis, child characteristics and behavior

According to research parents' psychological well-being is strongly affected by their child's primary diagnosis. Shock, denial, disbelief, grief are parents' common reactions in this case (Martin & Colbert, 1997). A considerable amount of literature show that at first parents deal with their loss of expectancies, with lost possibilities and dreams of their perfect child, and all this process of loss that they go through, results in emotional distress (Martin & Colbert, 1997; McCubbin et al., 1982). Nevertheless, according to Martin & Colbert (1997), some parents report some sense of relief after the diagnose is set, because it finally puts an end to their doubts, and provides them with answers.

Waisbren (1980) underlined that having a child with DD requires that parents reformulate and readopt new roles and identities as parents of children with DD. This may result in ambivalence or/and anxiety, which does nothing less than increasing stress' levels.

Other studies suggest that maybe it is not just the diagnosis the source of stress experienced by parents, but instead child's characteristics and behaviors related to diagnosis are the source of stress. According to them parental stress may be strongly related to the level of the child's disability (Minnes, 1988), to child's characteristics and his challenging behaviors, and all of them are time consuming for the parents. (Simmerman et al 2001).

Maladaptive behaviors, challenging behaviors and self mutilation of children with DD may be strong source of stress for parents. Children require constant supervision for their own safety, and their siblings' safety as well (Cole 1986).

Many parents relate stress to their children's demands for constant care (Minnes 1988; Beckman-Bell, 1981). Many children who have DD may not be able to take care of themselves, or perform behaviors that are expected from other children of their age and who have a typical development. This means that parents have to commit more to their child and invest more time and energy on him. The possible result is alleviated stress in parents (Martin & Colbert, 1997). Parenting a child with DD does not only affect the intensity of caretaking, but its extension on time as well. The child's autonomy may be delayed or compromised by the disability.

It seems that certain child related characteristics like communication skills or the level of difficulties the child has while performing a behavior, are all strongly correlated to levels of stress experienced by parents (Frey et al 1989, Quine & Pahl 1991). Special health care demands, continuous accompany of the child by parents or constant supervision interfere with parents' everyday activities. Their limited possibilities, because of lack of time, to take a rest, to have fun or to take some time for themselves, results into tiredness, burnout, distress (Martin & Colbert, 1997; Cole, 1986). Children's abruptive behavior is correlated to low levels of self efficacy of parents and to mental health problems

(Herring et al 2006).

Normally, parents' involvement in their children's education process is very important. When it comes to children with special needs, parents need to engage more than they would do with normally developed children (Westling, 1997). Because of new responsibilities for which they are often not prepared, they participate in special trainings and instruction sessions for parents, they need to interact regularly and very often with teachers, etc, and all this means less time for other activities. Parents can easily get discouraged because of their children's failure to meet educational goals. All this adds up to stress (Martin & Colbert, 1997).

4. Parental Cognitions

Parental cognitive appraisals of the child's disability mediate levels of stress experienced by parents. Whether having a child with disabilities leads toward stress or towards positive coping and adaptation this will depend upon the family's perceptions on the child's disability, the explanations made by the family, their understanding of why events occur and what can they do to alleviate stress. Many studies have focused on the role of parental cognitive appraisals on stress. Mash & Johnston (1990) suggest that a combination of child characteristics and parental cognitions may affect levels of parental stress. Others studies suggest that when it comes to cognitions they may be stronger predictors of parental stress than the child's maladaptive behavior (Plant & Sanders, 2007; Hastings & Brown, 2002). Being able to reframe the disability in a positive way and perceiving themselves as competent rather than passive was found helpful to family adjustment in a study conducted by Lustig (2002). Some of the studies on the role of parental cognitions on stress have focused on parental self-esteem (Johnston & Mash, 1989), some on self-efficacy (Hastings & Brown 2002), and others on locus of control (Hagekull *et al.* 2001; Hasall *et al.* 2005). It seems that parental cognitions mediate the role of different variables on parental stress. Quine & Pahl (1991) found that cognitive appraisals mediated the child's behavior problems on parental stress. Hastings & Brown (2002) found that self-efficacy mediated the effects of child's maladaptive behavior on anxiety and depression experienced by mothers of children with autism. According to Hasall *et al.* (2005) most of the variance in parenting stress that they measured was explained by parental locus of control, parenting satisfaction and child behavior difficulties. They also found that the strong correlation between family support and parenting stress was mediated by parental locus of control.

5. Family resources and support

When a family member is diagnosed with a chronic disease the whole family functioning may be affected and change as a result (Seligman & Darling, 1997). On the other hand, the way the family functions in respond to the child's disability affects levels of stress experienced by parents (Abeduto, 2004). Some studies suggest that family functioning and couple functioning may be stronger predictors, than just the presence or absence of the disability, to higher levels of stress and depression experienced in family. According to Oliver & Innocenti (2001) family functioning is a stronger predictor of parental stress than the child's poor skills.

Other studies show that raising a child with developmental disabilities can have negative impact on family functioning and on family's relationships with others outside the family (Cole, 1986; Martin & Colbert, 1997).

Family cohesion is another variable related to parental stress. It seems that high levels of family cohesion predict lower levels of parental stress in the families of children with DD. When mothers perceive support from within the family they report lower levels of stress related to child-rearing (Warfield *et al.* 1999). Some studies show that raising a child with a disability may be related to parents' difficulties with maintaining a cohesive relationship (Bristol *et al.* 1988). Helping parents build and maintain a cohesive relationship while taking care of a child with a disability might help them lower levels of stress. Anyway, some other studies suggest that poor family functioning, while is a risk factor for stress, is not found in families of children with disabilities more often than in other families. According to research many families of children with developmental disabilities function quite well (Lustig, 1997).

There's a considerable amount of research on the role of support in the families of children with DD (Minnes, 1988; Perry 1989; Jones and Passey, 2004; Thompson 2006) . All of them agree that support formal or informal can pile up stress. When parents perceive lack of support while talking to doctors or other professionals, or when they have trouble in dealing with relatives, and this results in lack of support, parents report higher levels of stress (Perry 1989, Thompson 2006). Jones and Passey (2004) found that lack of perceived help from social support was a predictor for levels of stress experienced by parents.

6. Differences between mothers and fathers

Though the child's disability affects the whole family there is considerable evidence that mothers experience greater impact than fathers by their child's disability (Hastings et al., 2005; Oelofsen and Richardson 2006; Gray 2003). For example in a study conducted by Gray (2003) on families of children with autism, he found that mothers and fathers were affected on different ways and levels by their child's condition. Fathers claimed that their child's condition didn't affect them personally as it did with their wives. They also admitted that the way their child's autism affected them was through the stress that their wives experienced. According to Gray different levels of stress experienced by mothers and father may be explained by gender roles connected to work and child rearing. While mothers usually are more involved in child rearing, fathers are more into working harder in order to support their family's financial needs.

There is difference between mothers and fathers in the coping strategies they use. While fathers tend to suppress their feelings, or to avoid them by working until late or staying away from home, mothers tend to vent their feelings. Mothers tend to experience a wider range of feelings (from grief, sadness, anger and crying) and talk more about their emotional distress with others. Mothers are found to be more stigmatized by their child's disorder (Gray, 1993).

There are also differences in mothers' and fathers' perceptions or cognitive appraisals. For example, research suggest that they may perceive family cohesion and adaptability differently. When asked about family cohesion and adaptability mothers reported having a significantly more cohesive and adaptable family as compared to the reports from the fathers (Kraus, 1993).

Yet, findings are contradictory. While many studies describe mothers as suffering from increased symptoms of depression, increased burden of child rearing, and increased stress compared to fathers, some other studies have found little to no differences between mothers and fathers (Dyson, 1991)

This literature review points to different factors related to stress for professionals and researchers to bear in mind while working with families of children with DD. There is a large variation in the experience of caring for a child with a disability. Professionals working with these families need to be aware of the fact that care giving produces both positive and negative experiences. This review of literature points out that healthy family functioning is important for the well being of the family, and that practitioners need to support the needs of the entire family and not just the needs of the child with a disability. Practitioners working with young children can play an important role in helping family members reframe their care giving experience in positive ways and assisting family members in feeling like they have the knowledge, skills, and ability to successfully advocate for what their children need.

There's the need for additional research on the role of these variables on the Albanian context.

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Kadare's Work , an Emancipating Factor in the Albanian Literature

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Abstract

In the Albanian literature, Kadare with his genius encompassed the Albanian thinking and culture. Based on real events to which he gave universal proportions, he has added new characters in the family of great archetypes of world literature, that of Judas Iscariot, Agamemnon, Marcus Brutus, Joseph K, etc.. In the case of Kadare the Albanian word found a great master or a virtuous wizard of its artistic elaboration, as a foreign critic has said about him. Seen in its entirety, his work shows us an impressive array of characters, like a universe which shocks us infinitely with the grotesque and the human tragedy, epic rumbles and fine lyricism. His work is a challenge to isolation, which is a standard of traditional proportions. His work served a model where, except other things at that time, was also a moral act. Kadare's work is great character-wise but also because of its values, is a work which has become an inseparable part of the entire Albanian nation and has even become part of the cultural fund of mankind.

Keywords: Kadare, History, character.

Time does not survive without history. Ismail Kadare is one of the most distinguished writers of the Albanian Literature. Being a poet with a conspicuous talent, and an artist with an innovatory spirit, Kadare has played a significant role in the process of the development of deep regeneration that our literature had ever known. The strengthening of realism and active emotional attitude towards life, the enrichment of our literature with ideas and other means of artistic expression, the depth of thought, of militant breath and civic pathos are all closely tied with the contribution of Kadare, who brought in our literary development a new experience. The literary creativity of Kadare, born on the ground of reality, of great concerns and problems of our time, in the resistance of the Albanian people, has increased the social role of Albanian literature in the struggle of the time. With the significance and depth of ideas it carries and with its artistic level, it has raised in a new higher level the values of artistic word. Ismail Kadare joined the literary life in the years 1950 at a time he was still a student in high school and he began to write in the literary press of the time. In his initial volumes: "The Boyish Inspirations" (1954) and "The Dreams" (1957), which are a result of juvenescent inspirations, a mirror of a poetic world which sought to utter its new and fresh word in Albanian poetry, it seemed that a genuine poet was born, an artist who during his whole life would be accompanied by the spirit of exploration. It is the time when Kadare will begin to cultivate the long prose, where his talent will show up with the same force that it showed up in the genre of poetry. It is worth to remind her that "The Great Winter" was published in the year 1973, "The Emblem of the Past" (1977), "The Three-Arched Bridge" (1978) and "The Cold Blood" (1980). Journalism and Essays are another genre where the talent of Kadare appeared. A part of his journals he included them in the summaries "The Southern Town" (1976) and "The Emblem of the Past", whereas his notes from his journeys abroad he collected them in the book "Distant Lines" (1971). His work:

"The Autobiography of People in Verses" (1980), a more complete variant of the first publication of the year 1971, is the synthesis of his continuous research to penetrate into some essential sides of the historical tradition. Even though peripheral in his creativity, but its part, are the writings for children among which are the poems: "Argyro, the Princess" (1958), "The stonemasons" (1967), "In the museum of weapons" (1978) and the theatrical piece "The fortress and the poison" (1977).

In its wholeness the work is wide and multilateral. In his work are reflected the most subtle problems of the life of the Albanian society, which the creativity of Ismail Kadare has followed in every step during the last thirty years. The work not only enriched the fond of ideas and made history with the ideas and the issue of our literature, but it also brought the diversity of ideas and artistic tools where every endeavor to characterize even the creativity of Kadare in general brought the contribution in the development of the Albanian literature. Albanian men like Kadare were not fighters with swords, but they were fighters with their pen. In addition to that, in determinative moments for the history of Albania he had not played primary roles as a politician, although he had valued the men of the sword and diplomacy such as Scanderbeg, Abdyl Frashëri, Bajram Curri etc. He had a way of development but also oscillations between a liberal democracy and

socialism, in the most climacteric moments of Albania.

It is understandable that in this short writing we can not claim a full view and objective exhaustive judgment on the creativity of one of the greatest writers. The aim is to remember and shed light in this great personality. The work of Kadare even in the periods of social crises of reappraisal of man, philosophy etc., in periods of contradictions and human suffers, makes the reader to frequently go back to it. In his creativity take place conspicuous figures which unfold a giant in Albanian history and literature. This man with a great heart who put the talent, human mind and experience close to human sorrow, sought the men and the ways of their survival. It is the man who made his work immortal, because it is written with pain, with love for the people, by one of the most talented people that has emerged in Albania and the whole humanity. His works rank in such a way that they determine the logical and chronological continuity. Some of his works had thematic closeness. The isolation and emphasis of the articles is achieved in two directions: from his direct experiences, from the direct efforts facing the reality and inspiration as a result of active contemplations. This is the window through which the men enter into the world of characters and from where the concern penetrates into the world of the author. In this way, the author through a character, who enters from inside to a time of certain relationships, from all the experiences, the author feels the need to invent and express more thoroughly as inclination and features of cleverness, the narration which has at its disposal an origin of stereotypes of expression, to hyperbolize and fix the superlative, thus bringing another work in our prose to open the world in the width of the streams of its life.

Considered in its wholeness, the work of Kadare appears as a universe which overwhelms you with the endless gallery of characters, with human tragedy, with refined lyricism and epic thunders, and apocalypses of Tyrants and rebirth of peoples. As a literary personality, Kadare faced two trials:

The first was intra-literary and had to do with him, with the exigency and creative spirit. It seems that his works passed the trial of the time distance, which is being witnessed by the warm literary inclination in literary circles. It seems that his works passed the time distance and this appeared in the role of this creativity as an emancipating factor and influent in literary circles. Besides the influence this writer has, rightfully our scholars express their opinions that this prose initiated the doors of Albanian genuine story telling prose, despite the fact that this should not be limited only as a value, within the inauguration of an envied literary genre, far from possible naiveties of an author who had to walk through a tradition almost inexistent in this genre. The cultivation of the genuine prose, for the specter of reflections and interrelations among the characters he creates, for the compositional and expressive structures, a tradition is more than necessary. Owing to his talent and wide culture, Kadare compensated this making another challenge, while he was trying to bring also a modern breath and vision in our prose. It was exactly this inclination which made this creativity to have its followers and admirers in ranks of the future writers, among whom the author will declare openly that he had one of sources of his literary building up, the Albanian nation. The writer was led by some theoretical and literary principles, which not only he had absorbed for himself in advance, but he had also formulated them openly through various writings especially at: "Chronicle in Stone". Without doubt the author was well informed for this problem, treated especially in our century. He insists in the thought that our criticism is a part of our literary science, which on the contrary, is a kind of literary work.

The writer can not escape from the oscillation between that what he claims and that he accomplishes in reality, which proves the superiority of the opinion that criticism is a part of literary science. Another exigent vision, (significant), Kadare unfolds also for the analysis of literary works within the specific laws. Aware in the sky of the Albanian culture, as it has been accepted, he appeared and remained as an extraordinary personality, an elegant arbiter of Albanian letters, a lion of literature and diplomacy. Let us not forget that to this writer the Albanian word found a grand master or a virtuous magician of its artistic treatment, as an English writer is expressed. This culture and this Albanian intellectual thought, the whole culture and Albanian intellectual thought collected in him the dimensions of such a phenomenon which come indeed rarely, but are remembered for a long time. This emancipation i.e. the contemporary, civilizing and progressive inclination, is a feature which not only is manifested and poured in every tissue of his literary work, but also has been also transformed into a emancipating and influential factor in the literary process of the time. This can be observed in some planes:

First of all, his prose carries a multitude of bridges of communication with great literatures, embodying naturally enough messages and segments.

Secondly, the work of Kadare has manifested always an active position toward the standards observed in our literature. The synthesis as an artistic principle which multiplies the artistic information and the interrelationships of the work with the reader, make these features be features of great work and have the fate of communication through generations and through time.

Thirdly, Kadare, in the traces of the great writers of Albanian letters, since his first works and in continuance, he is

dedicated to the awareness of the cult of Albanian literature and language considering it as an importance with inexhaustible capacities. The language atlas of Kadare is rich with outstanding figures because the work of Kadare overwhelms you with the endless gallery of characters, with the thrown trajectories of epochs, with grotesque and human tragedy of those times.

The same notes cover the poem "Notes for My Generation". In this creation he has found expressions, as exultation for the rhythms with which life in Albania changes, plus the thought for the continuance of traditions of the past generations in the work of the new generations. The author unfolds in his works in a more or less crystallized shape, some of the features of the talent of I. Kadare as a prose writer. The innovatory spirit and artistic thought rises above the simple facts and penetrates into their generalized historic and philosophic meaning, the lyrical way of narration which intertwines some planes and uses widely the mixture of subjects, as a nucleus which reinforces the idea of resistance, of force and historic dynamism, the belief in his future and in the victory of the ideals of progress. If we consider the poem: "Why are these mountains thinking" (1964), this poem is in some sense a synthesis of all the history and motives, in the nucleus of which is formed the idea of resistance, historic dynamism of the Albanian people, belief in the future and the ideals of the national progress. The force of the thought is seen as an essential factor of Albanians, their progressive spirit, dreams for a new epoch, freedom and society, which were embodied in the great social movements of our people. This new force would realize many dreams as ideas of historical turn which denoted life and the necessity of the result of the development of society. If the poetry is the lymph which flows in all the work of Kadare, prose is the most important chapter of his creativity. There are some advantages in this genre compare to other genres for the representation of life and where the writer has found potentials to develop in the historical and philosophical plane. But having in the foundation the meditations and problems of the time, or the fate of the fatherland as a force for his poems which stands in the depth of generalization, living actively the events and experiencing deeply the historical moments that the country passes, I. Kadare in his creativity was gradually reaching in and artistic discovery with significance for the fates of creativity and our literature as a whole. If we consider the novel: "The Guests are frozen", seems that it offers scope for interpretations in different planes, in the flow of time. The horizontal level is related with factuality of the events, with biography as sketches of the characters, with the flow of the real time. In this work there are many records held in 13 February 1979, which is entitled "On the article published in the newspaper "Drita", "On the Epos of the Brave Men" of the writer I. Kadare. Precisely at this time for the first time some of the most distinguished Albanian intellectuals, including I. Kadare were invited to participate in cultural, historical and intercultural polemics that were held at that time. The works showed that the generations were moving where the political scientist Ukshin Hoti has named it the "moment 0". Kadare brings an essential change which he has included in one of his own poetic volumes. Through this character he becomes the premature spokesman. The author in three works of the prose: "The Southern Town" (1967), "Chronicle in Stone" and "Issues of Foolishness" (2005), treats the subject of his birthplace and evokes the time of his childhood in Gjirokastra.

The author pronounces: "I would have felt myself very difficult as a universal writer, if I had not been firstly a national writer". In the research "Linguistic presentation", Bashkim Kuçuku writes about a wide range of time and for a wide range of understanding in his work, for breaking of the time and the ways of use of metaphors.

If I would say that my first prose has been the novel "Chronicle in Stone", this means that this is so much true as it is untrue. Indeed, because I have written parts of this novel before other novels, but it is untrue because they have been just pieces, i.e. saplings. The sapling of the novel has been the "Southern Town" but it has also had a first sapling, the story "The Big Aircraft". With the vertical of the time are intermingled the present time, the past and the future. Thus, Kadare is a point of reference in this aspect in Albanian literature and in contemporary literature.

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Academic Cheating in Egyptian Universities: Is It All about Corporate Code of Ethics?

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Abstract

Academic cheating is one type of unethical academic behaviors or academic dishonesty. It is crucial as it affects the credibility and predictive accuracy in university admission criteria. Dealing with academic cheating requires identifying the main causes of the problem. This study aims to explore the impact of a written code of ethics in Egyptian academic institutions on cheating among undergraduate students. The study uses two cases of a private and a public academic institution. Both universities are located in Cairo. Findings indicate that the public academic institution tends to have an organizational culture that enhances ethical practices compared to the private institution. Academic cheating in both universities is influenced by a number of organizational factors including communication of ethical behavior, severity of punishment, the likelihood to be caught or reported, and influence of peer behavior. More concern for communication of ethical behavior is needed in private academic institutions to reduce the level of academic cheating among undergraduate students.

Keywords: academic cheating; ethical culture; code of ethics; undergraduate students; organizational forces.

1. Introduction

Managing ethical behavior is a critical problem for business organizations. However, it is difficult to understand the different factors which influence ethical behavior of organizational members. Researchers have been highly concerned with relating the ethical behavior to the corporate code of ethics, professional codes, and mission statements. The effectiveness of the corporate code of ethics has been widely examined by many researchers (e.g. Marnburg, 2000; Schwartz, 2001; Sims & Brinkmann, 2003; McClearn, 2004). Despite research disagreement about the impact of code of ethics on the behavior of organizations, it is agreed that codes of ethics can be useful for decision making. Also, codes of ethics are valuable in conveying organizational values to stakeholders.

Meanwhile, several studies have examined the content of a corporate code of ethics (e.g. Singh et al, 2005; Kaptein, 2004; Wood, 2000; Lefebvre & Singh, 1996; 1992; Hite et al, 1988; Mathews, 1987). Cressey & Moore (1983) analyzed the corporate ethical code by focusing on three major elements (contents): the behaviors and actions discussed in the code, the enforcement procedures mentioned in the code, and the penalties associated with illegal actions. The three elements of analysis were the basis for a large number of studies that have focused on analyzing the content of a corporate code of ethics

Corporate codes of ethics differ from professional codes and mission statements. However, the three terms are being used interchangeably and overlap (Stevens, 1994). In its simple form, a corporate code of ethics is described as a *'statement setting down corporate principles, ethics, rules of conduct, codes of practice or company philosophy concerning responsibility to employees, shareholders, consumers, the environment, or any other aspects of society external to the organization'* (Langlois & Schlegelmilch, 1990; p.522). Similarly, Kaptein (2004) explains that the code of ethics clarifies the company's values, norms, objectives and what the company can be held accountable for.

Professional codes demonstrate the *'goals and beliefs for a specific group of professionals'* (Stevens, 1994, p.64). They are used to guide practitioners in their practice (Stevens, 1994). Professional codes evolve in response to social, environmental and economic standards. Nevertheless, mission statements attempt to address *'strategic management issues'* (Stevens, 1994, p.64). According to Pearce & David (1987), mission statements define the fundamental unique purpose that sets a business apart from other firms of its type and identify the scope of business. Compared to corporate ethical statements, mission statements directly address issues related to strategic planning. Mission statements are similar to corporate codes of ethics when they cover more metaphysical concepts such as values and ideals (Stevens, 1994).

In academic institutions, the issue of ethics is considerably important. Researchers have been highly concerned with discussing ethical and unethical actions including academic dishonesty. Academic cheating is one type of unethical

academic behaviors, or academic dishonesty. Understanding causes of academic cheating is important, given the widespread and rise of cheating (McCabe et al, 2001).

Many researchers have discussed factors causing academic cheating. Despite this, there is a lack of the research discussing this issue in the Middle East, particularly in Egypt. Studying academic cheating and its causes in academic institutions as well as relating this behavior to organizational code of ethics is significant to improve the educational process. Academic cheating might take place among undergraduate and postgraduate students as well as academics. However, the level of cheating among undergraduate students has tremendously increased (e.g. Young, 1998; Donahue & Heard, 1997; Diekhoff et al, 1996; McCabe & Trevino, 1997; Baird, 1980). This study investigates the existence of a code of ethics in the Egyptian universities and its impact on the creation of an ethical climate. Further, the study explores the influence of codes of ethics on the level of academic cheating among undergraduate students. The aim of the study is to provide guidelines to reduce the level of academic cheating and enhance the quality of education in Egyptian universities.

2. Ethics in organizations: climate, culture, and code of ethics

Ethics are usually related to morality. As explained by Aldag & Stearns (1991), business ethics reflect a set of rules that specify the sort of behaviors that the business and its employees have to follow. In business term, ethics reflect who you are and justify your actions. It is usually assumed that what is right or wrong is the same to everyone. Thus, there is no need to communicate it in a written form within the organization. Business ethics are applied ethics that reflect what is perceived as appropriate in the organization (Ralston et al, 1994; Velasquez, 1992). However, this might cause serious problems. as, It is manager's responsibility to ensure that business ethics are clear enough to all organizational members (Gbadamosi, 2004). The challenge is to communicate ethics in a way that recognizes that ethics are not obvious and similar in everyone's understanding. Gbadamosi (2004) argues that managers need to avoid too much moral dialogue that might lead to endless dilemma about ethics.

For the past 15 years, there has been an increased interest in understanding the ethical behavior/actions as well as the ethical decision-making. The growing body of literature about business ethics ensures that ethics play an important role for management both from an academic and a practitioner point of view. Also, there has been an increased concern with understanding the ethical organizational culture and climate. Ethical climate has been defined by Schneider (1975) as the stable, psychologically meaningful perceptions which the members of an organization hold concerning ethical procedures and policies. Further, Victor & Cullen (1988) defined ethical climate as the predominant perception of organizational practices and procedures that have ethical base (Victor & Cullen, 1988). Thus, the ethical climate of the organization is affected by the organization's politics, procedures, practices, and reward systems. These are referred to as organization's normative systems (Barnett & Vaicys, 2000).

Using the same approach of Erben & Güneşer (2008) and Dickson et al (2001), the term 'climate regarding ethics' will be used in this study instead of the term 'ethical climate'. As justified by Erben & Güneşer (2008), this is because of two main reasons. First, ethical climate implies that the behaviors are seen as ethical in the large society. However, behaviors that might be seen as ethical within the organization may be unethical at the society level because climate is locally defined. Second, although ethical climate can be interpreted as a strong climate for ethical behaviors, identifying what is ethical differs among organizational members. Nevertheless, the term 'ethical climate' implies a macro-level analysis/construct. However, the term 'climate regarding ethics' focuses on the micro-level and individual decision making in the organization (Erben & Güneşer, 2008; Wyld & Jones, 1997). This is useful for this research that focuses on the individual perception of ethics and its impact on decisions and behaviors within the organization.

Different organizations worldwide are concerned with developing what is referred to as a 'corporate code of ethics'. A corporate code of ethics is one of several influences on business ethics. Stajkovic & Luthans (1997) explain that individual's perception of business ethics standards and conduct is influenced by institutional, personal, and organizational factors (e.g. code of ethics). Corporate code of ethics has been differently defined in the literature. Langlois & Schlegelmilch (1990) define a corporate code of ethics as 'a statement setting down corporate principles, ethics, rules of conduct, codes of practice or company philosophy concerning responsibility to employees, shareholders, consumers, the environment, or any other aspects of society external to the company' (p.522). These documents differ in their length, i.e. number and depth of topics covered (Singh et al, 2005).

Singh et al (2005) discuss the research concern with business ethics in general and code of ethics in particular. According to Singh et al, a code of ethics enhances organizational reputation and image. It affects the organizational internal and external stakeholders and hence creates a negative or a positive impression about the organization. Further,

the code conveys a message that the corporation is committed to ethical behavior. Also, a corporate code of ethics could gather employees around a corporate culture, the values of which are expressed in the code. In addition, Berenbeim (2000) justifies the increased importance of corporate codes of ethics by the globalization of markets and the need for core principles that are universally applicable.

Research about ethics demonstrates that organizational climate is important in shaping employees' behaviors and attitudes. As, they provide information about what is acceptable and what is unacceptable within the organization. Further, researches report that organizational climate influences some organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance and commitment (Weeks et al, 2004; Cullen et al, 2003; Treviño et al, 1998; Deshpande, 1996). However, there is a research disagreement on the effectiveness of a corporate code of ethics and its impact on the behavior of organizational members. Adams et al (2001) found that employees from companies with codes of ethics consider themselves more ethical than employees from organizations without codes of ethics. Further, Adams et al (2001) found that employees from organizations with codes of ethics are more satisfied with the outcomes of their organizations than their counterparts from organizations without codes. Similarly, Somers (2001) and Schwartz (2001) found that codes of ethics influence the ethical behavior of the organization and enhances employees' commitment. This is similar to other researchers who demonstrate a significant relationship between the code of ethics and the ethical behavior of organizational members (e.g. Stohs & Brannick, 1999; Pierce & Henny, 1996; McCabe et al, 1996; Ferrel & Skinner, 1988).

Conversely, there is another body of research that reports no impact or a little impact of ethical code on organizational performance (e.g. McKendall et al, 2002; Wotruba et al, 2001; Clark & Leonard, 1998; Mathews, 1988). Despite research disagreement on the impact of codes of ethic on the behavior of the organization, it is argued that those codes are valuable in corporate decision making and it provides a signal to stakeholders about the value of the organization (Singh et al, 2005). Singh et al (2005) argue that the existence of a code of ethics is not enough as it is important for the organization to support this code by strict compliance measures and other ethics initiatives.

Discussion of codes of ethics and their impact on organizational performance, commitment, and employee satisfaction draws attention to the existence of a code of ethics in Egyptian universities and its impact on the organizational behavior and academic cheating. Accordingly, it is important for this study to answer a number of questions including: Is a written code of ethics available in public and Egyptian private academic institutions? What is the impact of a written/unwritten code of ethics on organizational climate towards ethics? Specifically, what is the impact of a written code of ethics on academic cheating?

3. Academic cheating: a case of unethical behavior

Academic cheating is one type of unethical academic behaviors or academic dishonesty (McCabe et al, 2001). It may take place among undergraduate as well as postgraduate students. This study focuses on academic cheating among undergraduate students. Many researchers argue that the incidence of cheating among undergraduate students has tremendously increased (e.g. Young, 1998; Donahue & Heard, 1997; Diekhoff et al, 1996; McCabe & Trevino, 1993; Baird, 1980). McCabe & Trevino (1993) indicated that more than 67% of students confessed to cheating at least once. Further, Brown (2000, 1995) argued that over 80% of students admitted to committing cheating at least once.

The problem in academic cheating is that it is usually unreported by faculty staff (Rawwas & Isakson, 2000). With few exceptions (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2004), there is a lack of research on students' ethical conduct that relate academic cheating with business ethics (Brown, 2000; Rawwas & Isakson, 2000). The importance of relating business ethics to academic cheating comes from the assumption that students, who are likely to be involved in academic cheating or at least perceive it as an acceptable behavior, would hold similar perception of business ethics and ethical value assessment (Lin, 1999; Khan, 1997; Glenn, 1992; Small, 1992; Preble & Reichel, 1988).

The causes of academic cheating have been widely discussed in the literature. The most common reason for academic cheating, as reported in the literature, is getting a good grade (Meade, 1992; Nuss, 1984; Baird, 1980). Other reasons include, a lack of study time, a heavy course workload, and a low risk of getting caught (Meade, 1992; Nuss, 1984; Baird, 1980). Rawwas & Isakson (2000) along with Michaels & Miethe (1989) found that cheating as an unethical behavior was inversely related with the severity of punishment. This supports Buckley et al (2001) in their argument that unethical behavior is inhibited with the perceived probability of being caught as well as the severity of punishment of the behavior.

Academic cheating is crucial as it affects the credibility and predictive accuracy in university admission criteria (Gbadamosi, 2004; Khan, 1997). Dealing with academic cheating requires identifying the main causes of the problem.

Research on academic cheating can be divided into two types: studies that focus on individuals' characteristics and their impact on cheating, and studies that relate academic cheating to organizational or situational factors (Gbadamosi, 2004; Rawwas & Isakson, 2000). For example, gender is one of the factors that were studied in the literature to show their impact on academic cheating. Research shows different results regarding the influence of gender differences on academic cheating. Some researchers found no impact of gender differences on cheating (e.g. Sikula & Costa, 1994; Stanga & Turpen, 1991). Others have reported a difference between males and females with respect to academic cheating (e.g. Buckley et al, 2001; Ameen et al, 1996; Davis et al, 1992; Aiken, 1991). However, research results differed regarding which gender tends to cheat more than the other. Whilst Ameen et al (1996) found that male students engaged in unethical behavior than female students, Buckley et al (2001) reported that female students had a higher probability of being engaged in unethical behavior than their male counterparts. Age is also one of the factors that were studied in the literature to show their impact on cheating. Research argues that younger students tend to cheat more than older students (McCabe et al, 2001; Haines et al, 1986; Anton & Michael, 1983). However, it is unclear whether this relation is due to age or class rank.

Despite the concern with studying the impact of individual factors (e.g. age & gender), it is argued that they are less influential than contextual factors on academic cheating (McCabe & Trevino, 1997). Contextual factors include factors such as peer cheating behavior, peer disapproval of cheating behavior, and perceived severity of penalties for cheating. Research demonstrates that peers' behavior is a crucial factor that influences academic cheating (McCabe & Trevino, 1997; McCabe & Trevino, 1993; Bandura, 1986). The degree to which students perceive that their peers engage in a cheating behavior was significantly related to students' cheating behavior (McCabe & Trevino, 1993). McCabe & Trevino (1993) concluded that peers' behavior provides a normative support for cheating. In such a climate, *'the non-cheater feels left at a disadvantage'* (McCabe & Trevino, 1993, p.533).

Gbadamosi (2004) discussed academic cheating as one type of unethical academic behavior or academic dishonesty. Gbadamosi (2004) discussed the mediating factors in academic dishonesty and referred to them as interventions. Interventions may be presented in other students who call the attention of the examiner to the incident of cheating by other students. However, research has not clarified whether calling examiners' attention to unethical behavior would make a difference in reducing academic cheating. Another intervention is teaching a course of ethics. Researchers argue that teaching a course in ethics does not make a difference in reducing unethical behavior including academic.

Discussion of different causes of academic cheating draws attention to the impact of organizational ethics. Specifically, it is important to explore the impact of codes of ethics and organizational climate towards ethics on academic cheating. Despite the importance of individual factors, this study focuses on the impact of institutional/organizational factors on academic cheating among undergraduate students. The impact of contextual factors (interventions) is also taken into consideration.

4. Research objectives

This study aims to explore the impact of a written code of ethics in Egyptian academic institutions on cheating among undergraduate students. To achieve this aim, the study has four main objectives. The first objective is to understand the main causes of cheating among undergraduate students. The second is to explore the impact of organizational climate towards ethics and examination misconduct. The third objective is to explore the differences between the contents of a code of ethics in private and public academic institutions. The fourth is to investigate the extent to which the contents of a code of ethics are communicated to undergraduate students in private and public academic institutions.

5. Methodology

This is a comparative case study research. To achieve the research aim and objectives, the study uses two cases of a private and a public academic institution. The public is the Faculty of Commerce & Business Administration, Helwan University (HU). The private is the School of Management, the Modern University for Information & Technology (MTI). Both universities are located in Cairo. A comparative case study allows a better understanding of each case. Further, it allows for an in-depth understanding of similarities and differences. This makes it easier to achieve the research objectives.

Three types of data were used: documentary, questionnaire, and interview data. Using different sources of data enhances the internal validity of the study. Further, mixing qualitative and quantitative sources of data increases the

research validity and reliability. The three sources of data are discussed below:

5.1 *Documentary data*

this type of data was used to provide a background about the main themes of the study including ethics, organizational ethics, ethical climate, ethical culture, code of ethics, academic cheating, and factors that influence examination misconduct (individual and organizational). This was influential in identifying the research aim and objectives.

5.2 *Questionnaire data*

Data was collected from undergraduate students in the Faculty of Commerce & Business Administration, Helwan University (FCHU) and School of Management, MTI University (SMMTI). Participants represented students in the departments of management, accounting and economics in Helwan University and students from the departments of finance, accounting, marketing and management in MTI University. Participants were randomly selected from undergraduate students in all academic years.

500 questionnaires were distributed randomly among undergraduate students in different departments and academic years. This included 250 questionnaires in each university. All questionnaires were returned however; only 450 questionnaires were completed and could be used. All questionnaires were anonymous. Thus, unusable questionnaires couldn't be returned back to students. Questionnaires response rate was 90%.

Questionnaires were designed using Likert scale. Students were asked to express their opinions regarding a number of statements using five levels of agreement: strongly disagree (SD), disagree (D), indifferent (I), agree (A), strongly agree (SA). Questions were driven from the literature. Review of the literature summarized a number of organizational factors that influence academic cheating among undergraduate students (e.g. Gbadamosi, 2004; Rawwas & Isakson, 2000; McCabe & Trevino, 1997; 1993). In this study, the questionnaire covered six main dimensions: students' cheating behavior, communication of ethical behavior, severity of punishment, influence of peer behavior, and the likelihood to be caught or reported. Each dimension was measured using a number of statements. This is shown below:

5.2.1 *Cheating behavior:*

1. I would ordinarily cheat in an examination.
2. I have never cheated in an examination.
3. If necessary, I would seek assistance from a colleague during an examination.
4. It is normal for any student to cheat, to some extent, in an examination.
5. Students must pass an exam by all means.
6. Religious beliefs have nothing to do with cheating.

5.2.2 *Communication of ethical behavior*

1. Academics and administratives spend a lot of time with students to explain the school values and ethics.
2. Students are encouraged to ask any question to know and understand rules of proper conduct during examination.
3. Seriousness of cheating and severity of punishment are stressed in every possible opportunity.

5.2.3 *Severity of punishment*

1. The seriousness of cheating is rarely mentioned by faculty staff.
2. Cheating behavior is very serious in our faculty.
3. Penalties of cheating are not strong enough to stop cheating behavior.
4. Students who have been caught cheating have not received a serious punishment.

5.2.4 *Influence of peer behavior*

1. It is less risky to cheat when all students do.
2. I never cheat even if my colleagues do.
3. There is a less opportunity to be caught when most of students cheat.
4. Although I am not brave enough, I get the courage to cheat when all students cheat during an examination.

5.2.5 The likelihood to be caught or reported

1. The faculty has a rigid ethical climate.
2. Invigilation during examination is very firm.
3. Invigilators are very clever and can easily catch any student who cheats during an examination.
4. Even clever students will get caught if they cheat.
5. If I find a student cheating during an examination, I'll call the attention of the invigilator.
6. It is an appropriate behavior, if a student reports another student cheating in an examination.
7. It is not my responsibility to report a cheating student or alert the invigilator.

5.3 Interview data

Although the questionnaire was useful in providing an explanation of students' cheating behavior and the main organizational factors that influence students' cheating behavior, a more in-depth understanding of these factors was needed. To achieve this, questionnaires were followed by semi-structured interviews to gain a better understanding of questionnaires' results. 30 interviews were conducted with undergraduate students: 17 in HU and 13 in MTI University. Interviews covered the same dimensions covered in the questionnaire. However, students were given the opportunity to better explore, clarify, and discuss their opinions. To gain a better and accurate understanding about code of ethics in both universities, it was essential to interview academics and administratives. As, students were unsure about the availability of a code of ethics, its content, and the extent to which it is used. 15 interviews were conducted: 6 in HU and 9 in MTI. Interviews supported questionnaires' results and allowed gaining a more comprehensive view of academic cheating in public and private academic institutions.

6. Findings

Research findings are discussed below. The words school, faculty, university and academic institution are used interchangeably.

6.1 Cheating behavior

The findings of this study suggest that academic cheating among undergraduate students in private academic institutions is more than cheating in public institutions. This is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Cheating Behavior in Private and Public Academic Institutions

	SD		D		I		A		SA	
	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI
1. I cheated in exams more than once	30.8%	20.3%	28.9%	16.7%	12%	8.9%	20%	40.8%	8.3%	13.3%
2. I might cheat in an examination	40.2%	8.2%	20.6%	9.1%	8%	11.1%	18.8%	38.3%	12.4%	33.3%
3. I have never cheated in an examination	50%	42.2%	20%	28.3%	15%	28.3%	5%	9.3%	10%	1.2%
4. If necessary, I would seek assistance from a colleague during an examination.	38.8%	3.5%	20.6%	12.6%	6%	20.9%	20.8%	38.1%	13.8%	24.9%
5. It is normal for any student to cheat to some extent in examinations.	30.8%	0.8%	22.2%	11.3%	8%	9.4%	20.2%	16.2%	18.8%	60.3%
6. Students must pass an examination by all means	30%	1.3%	37%	6.7%	3.6%	30.4%	15.7%	28.9%	13.7%	32.7%
7. Only careless students get caught when they cheat.	20.9%	20.4%	17.8%	11.2%	32.5%	22.7%	11.6%	33.2%	17.2%	12.5%

Academic cheating is influenced by a number of factors. This is shown by other research findings.

6.2 Communication of ethical behavior

Communication of ethical behavior reflects the faculty's code of ethics and is reflected in the organizational climate. It is possible to argue that organizations with a strong code of ethics are those that care about the communication of the organizational norms, values, and expected ethical behavior. Communication of ethical behavior to different members of the organization leads to an ethical climate that guides all organizational actions and the behavior of organizational members. Ethical behavior tends to be more important in the public faculty compared to the private one – Table 2.

Table 2. Importance of Communicating Ethical Behavior

	SD		D		I		A		SA	
	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI
1. Academics and administrators in my faculty spend a lot of time with students explaining the faculty values and ethics.	20.7%	40.1%	17.8%	22.9%	19.1%	13.8%	20.1%	11%	22.3%	12.2%
2. Faculty staff encourages students to know and abide by rules of ethical behavior in examination.	19.2%	39%	32.6%	30.1%	1.6%	3.7%	18.9%	9.9%	27.7%	17.3%
3. Seriousness of cheating and severity of penalties are highly stressed by faculty staff.	19.2%	39%	32.6%	30.1%	1.6%	3.7%	18.9%	9.9%	27.7%	17.3%

In the public faculty, ethics in examination conduct are stressed by different organizational members (academics & administrators) in every possible occasion. Although this is done informally, academics use the lecture rooms to stress the seriousness of cheating and the severe penalty that cheaters face. This is highly influential in reducing cheating behavior. On the contrary, organizational ethics are rarely discussed in the private school. Cheating behavior and cheating penalties are not serious points of discussion among faculty members and students.

Thus, the public academic institution tends to be more concerned with the discussion and communication of issues related to ethical behavior with undergraduate students, compared to private institutions.

6.3 Severity of punishment

Level of punishment and type of penalties are crucial factors that influence academic cheating. It is argued that severity of punishment reduces the level of cheating. Punishment of academic cheating in the public business school is severe.

Table 3. Punishment of Unethical Behavior

	SD		D		I		A		SA	
	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI
1. The seriousness of cheating is rarely mentioned by faculty staff.	37.2%	11.3%	41.2%	7.3%	16.2%	19.3%	3.3%	39.2%	2.1%	22.9%
2. Cheating behavior is very serious in our faculty.	20.3%	40.8%	8.2%	20.9%	0.7%	8.3%	33.3%	12.7%	38.1%	17.3%
3. Penalties of cheating are not strong enough to stop cheating behavior.	40.4%	0%	20.1%	7.6%	1.2%	12%	20.9%	23.7%	17.4%	56.7%
4. Students who have been caught cheating have not received a serious punishment.	30.4%	2.4%	38.9%	13.8%	9.8%	18.5%	20.1%	44.2%	0.8%	21.1%

Whilst cheating penalty in the private business school does not exceed failure in the subject, penalty for cheating in the public school ranges from failure in the entire academic semester to failure in the whole academic year. As reported by students in the private school, in most cases of cheating, the invigilator does nothing more than calling the attention of

the student. They reported that the most likely reaction to an incident of cheating would be failure on the test or assignment (41%), simple warning (32%), or nothing (27%).

The severe punishment and penalties of academic cheating in the public business school reflects the faculty's concern for an ethical climate. This is highly influential in reducing the level of academic cheating among undergraduate students.

6.4 Influence of peer behavior (Peers' engagement in cheating behavior)

Peer behavior is a crucial factor that influences academic cheating in private and public academic institutions. In general, students have more courage to cheat during an examination when their fellows do. As reported by undergraduate students, it is not easy to be caught when most of students cheat during an examination. Students believe that if most of the students cheat, punishment will not be so harsh. The influence of peer behavior on academic cheating in HU and MTI is shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Influence of Peer Behavior on Academic Cheating

	SD		D		I		A		SA	
	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI
1. It is less risky to cheat when all students do.	9.8%	9.3%	24.3%	12.2%	8%	9.9%	27.7%	40.3%	30.2%	28.3%
2. I never cheat even if my colleagues do.	8.6%	23.3%	37.8%	37.6%	12.2%	27.3%	12.6%	7.6%	28.8%	4.2%
3. There is a less opportunity to be caught when most of students cheat.	13.1%	7.5%	17.8%	6.8%	10.7%	16.2%	27.6%	36.6%	30.8%	32.9%

6.5 The likelihood to get caught or reported (i.e. The existence of clear rules regarding unacceptable behavior)

The cleverness of invigilators is influential in reducing examination misconduct. Invigilation represents a major difference between the public and private institutions. This is shown in Table 5. In FCHU, the faculty applies a rigid invigilation system to reduce cheating among undergraduate students as much as possible. Invigilators are well trained and clever enough to catch cheating students. Nevertheless, they are clever enough not to give students the opportunity to cheat. This is not the case in MSMTI. Usually, the subject instructor is the invigilator. The invigilator may not be available in the examination room most of the time. As students argue, some invigilators do not take an action when they observe a case of cheating. This is a good chance for students to cheat.

Table 5. Differences in the Existence of Clear Rules Regarding Unethical Behavior

	SD		D		I		A		SA	
	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI	HU	MTI
1. The faculty has a rigid ethical climate.	16.7%	30.2%	9.3%	32.7%	2.5%	15.7%	30.7%	11.6%	40.8%	9.8%
2. Invigilation during examination is very firm.	14.2%	32.2%	9.1%	32.7%	4.4%	14.6%	24%	8.6%	48.3%	11.9%
3. Invigilators are very clever and can easily catch any student who cheats during an examination.	14.7%	32.2%	9.8%	32.7%	2.4%	14.6%	27.8%	8.6%	45.3%	11.9%
4. Even clever students will get caught if they cheat during an examination.	11.2%	32.3%	12.8%	28.4%	2.1%	9.2%	40.6%	20.5%	33.3%	9.6%
5. If I find a student cheating during an examination, I'll call the attention of the invigilator.	50.3%	55.3%	22.7%	36.7%	7.4%	1.2%	9.6%	4.7%	9.2%	2.1%
6. It is an appropriate behavior if a student reports another student cheating in an examination.	33.6%	31.9%	41.3%	47.2%	5%	0.7%	11.3%	12.2%	8.8%	8%

7. It is not my responsibility to report another student cheating in an examination or alert the invigilator.	15.7%	6%	3.3%	13.5%	11.2%	0.6%	28.7%	48.2%	41.1%	31.7%
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The higher is the probability of a cheating student to get caught or reported, the less is the level of examination misconduct. This is all about invigilation system that reflects the code of ethics of the organization and contributes to the ethical climate.

7. Discussion

For many, organizational culture and climate are similar. However, they have differences and similarities (Collier & Esteban, 2007). The word 'climate' is used to refer to the atmospheric conditions that affect the organizational values and attitudes (Collier & Esteban, 2007). On the other hand, organizational 'culture' is related to 'the sensemaking devices that carry the different meanings within the organization such as rules, stories, codes, rituals, rewards and leadership' (Collier & Esteban, 2007, p.24). Treviño et al (1998) regard the organizational culture as a control system as it regulates actions, governs decisions and influences behaviors within the organization. Although organizational 'climate' is highly influenced by management, 'culture' has deeper roots in corporate identity (Downey, 1986).

In practical term, the organizational climate is a part of the organizational culture. Grojean et al (2004) explain the difference between the 'climate' and 'culture' in a simple term. According to Grojean et al (2004), the 'climate' refers to 'how things are', while the 'culture' expresses 'why things are'. It is possible to argue that the 'climate' is an invisible (intangible) part of the culture. Thus, an 'ethical culture' is the output of both organizational 'culture' and 'climate'. Meanwhile, the ethical 'climate' is highly influenced by the corporate code of ethics. Corporate code of ethics are written statements that clarifies the company's values, norms, objectives and what the company can be held accountable for (Kaptein, 2004). Thus, the ethical 'climate' encompasses the corporate code of ethics. It is argued that the corporate code of ethics is the tangible (written) part of the culture- Figure 1.



Figure 1. Organizational Ethical Context

As shown in Figure 1, the ethical 'culture' has its internal and external impact. It affects the way in which the organization is seen by outsiders, i.e. organizational 'image'. Organizational image reflects the public perceptions of the organization and how this affects organizational reputation. Also, the ethical culture affects the way organizational members perceive their own role in the environment, i.e. organizational members derive their identity from the organizational culture. Thus, in an ethical 'culture', an organization enjoys a positive 'image' and employees share a strong ethical 'identity'.

The findings of this study reports that there is an absence of a written code of ethics in the Faculty of Commerce, Helwan University (FCHU) and the School of Management, Modern University for Information and Technology (SMMTI). Despite this, FCHU tends to have an organizational culture that enhances ethical practices compared to the SMMTI. This reflects the degree of compliance to the rules and regulations of the Law of Organizing Egyptian Universities and explains differences in the image of public and private academic institutions. This law includes rules that arrange relationships within public and private universities. Penalties of cheating behaviors are also described in the law. Other issues related to academic misbehaviors are also described in the Law. The Law has two versions: the Law of Organizing Private Universities, and the Law of Organizing Public Universities. This draws attention to the importance of studying factors that cause difference in the degree to which academic institutions follow the rules and regulations stated

by the Law. It is important to explore whether differences in fulfilling the Law occur among public academic institutions on the one hand and private institutions on the other, or is it a difference among academic institutions regardless of their type. Also, the role of leaders in creating an organizational culture/climate that respects and applies the Law needs to be investigated.

Despite the absence of a written code of ethics, public academic institutions enjoy an ethical culture. The ethical culture in public academic institutions encompasses two main elements: the ethical climate and the unwritten code of ethics (based on the Law of Organizing Public Universities). The use of unwritten code of ethics is supported in the literature as it is argued that an organizational culture may supersede a written code of ethics however; a written code is a mere formality (Sims & Brinkmann, 2003). James (2000) argues that written codes are not necessary however; they can be useful in articulating the organizational values to the public.

The ethical culture in FCHU stresses the strong punishment of cheating. It is created through a heightened level of moral and ethical awareness. The ethical awareness creates a positive climate regarding ethics. As reported in the literature, ethical awareness and ethical climate compose an ethical organizational culture (Verbos et al. 2007).

Regarding cheating, ethics in the FCHU are transmitted verbally to undergraduate students. What is 'right', 'moral' or 'unethical' in exams is transmitted to undergraduate students informally using the word of mouth from the following sources: academic staff, administrative staff, and elder students. Thus, organizational culture in the FCHU conveys a message that cheating is a 'wrong', 'unethical', 'unacceptable' behavior that is strongly punished. However, this ethical awareness is created informally. This is because of the absence of a written code of ethics that clearly sets ethical norms, values, and standards. This written code obliges the faculty and its members to formally promote an organizational culture that encourages ethical conduct and a commitment to ethical behaviors. Creating an ethical culture against cheating is based on creating a moral awareness among undergraduate students. This culture influences the school image. Thus, students who join the school are aware in advance of the seriousness of cheating. Accordingly, undergraduate students in public business schools cheat less than their counterparts in private schools.

8. Reducing academic cheating in private institutions: recommended strategies

This study aimed to understand causes of academic cheating among undergraduate students and the impact of organizational ethics. The focus was organizational rather than individual factors. A comparison between a private and a public business school (faculty) reported that academic cheating is a serious problem in private academic institutions. Despite the absence of a written code of ethics in both private and public institutions, organizational culture in the public school promotes an ethical climate that is influential in reducing academic cheating.

The absence of a written code of ethics gives an opportunity to unethical behavior to take place. This emphasizes the importance of implementing different strategies for promoting ethical behavior and moral awareness as well as managing cheating behavior- Table 6. This cannot be achieved without supporting faculty members who apply serious charges of student dishonesty. Academic institutions must promote an ethical climate that convinces students that cheating is not the rule, it is an exception.

Table 6. Useful Strategies for Promoting Ethical Behavior

1	Create a faculty 'ethical community'
2	Develop and communicate a 'hidden ethical curriculum'
3	Clearly communicate expectations regarding ethical behavior including cheating
4	Establish harsh cheating
5	Clearly communicate the cheating policies to students
6	Develop fair and consistent grading policies
7	Provide deterrent to cheating (e.g. harsh penalties)
8	Reduce cheating opportunities (e.g. monitor tests, ensure sufficient space between examinee)
9	Use assignments and exam questions that don't emphasize memorization
10	Assign questions with untraditional answers

Source: Adopted from McCabe, D. L., Treviño, L. K., & Butterfield, K. D. (1999) 'Academic Integrity in Honor Code and Non-Honor Code Environments: A Qualitative Investigation', *Journal of Higher Education*, 70: 211-234. & McCabe, D., Trevino, L., Butterfield, K (2001) 'Cheating in Academic Institutions: A Decade of Research', *Ethics & Behavior*, 11(3): 219-232.

Findings of this study provide numerous insights that faculty, administrators, academics, and students can use to reduce the level of academic cheating. It is argued that institutional factors are highly influential in reducing the level of cheating. Although the existence of a written code of ethics can be a useful tool to reduce cheating, their absence does not

necessarily mean unethical behavior. Academic institutions are highly advised to create an 'ethical community'. This ethical community should be responsible for the formal communication of ethical rules and standards, moral awareness of organizational members, and promoting mutual respect between students and faculty member (McCabe et al, 2001). Whether in public or private institutions, this ethical community is expected to raise moral awareness, promote for ethical behavior and reduce the level of academic cheating.

Also, the use of a 'hidden ethical curriculum', as suggested by McCabe et al (2001), is helpful. This curriculum is useful in reducing the level of academic cheating especially with the lack of a written code of ethics. The 'hidden curriculum' is used to provide formal ethics instructions and to raise students' awareness about day-to-day ethical issues. Also, the curriculum can be useful in discussing ethical issues with students and how to act on them. Communication of the 'hidden curriculum' should be done inside as well as outside the lecture rooms (Trevino & McCabe, 1994).

Reducing cheating in academic institutions relies on linking faculty and students. It is significant to relate students to faculty in their views regarding cheating. This is influential in integrating faculty and students' efforts toward the goal of establishing an ethical community. Also, the type of exam questions influences cheating behavior. It is highly recommended to avoid traditional exam questions that measures students' ability to memorize. Whilst this type of questions increases level of cheating, questions with nontraditional answers that encourage creativity reduces cheating. Further, arrangement of exam area is significant. The exam room should be arranged in a way that provides sufficient space between students. Students should be seated in a way that makes it difficult for each student to read the answer sheet of any other student clearly. Invigilators must be well trained and clever enough to catch up any cheating intention.

As shown by the findings of this study, peer behavior highly influences cheating behavior. Although new faculty students (1st year students) represent only a small percentage of the total number of students, it is important to give them a message that cheating is unacceptable and harshly penalized. The most influential way to convey this message is through the peer behavior. When new students observe a cheating behavior from elder students that is ignored by faculty, they are convinced that cheating is acceptable or at least not harshly penalized. To survive and be competitive in this environment, new students are convinced that they must follow the same behavior of their peers.

9. Future research

This study is considered as the first step in the research about ethics and academic dishonesty in Egypt. However, the findings are limited to the Faculty of Commerce and Business Administration, Helwan University (a public business school) and the School of Management, Modern University for Information & Technology (a private business school). It is significant to study similar research issues in other public and private academic institutions in Egypt. It is useful to apply the same study in other public and private business schools as this is useful in generalizing research findings.

Regarding academic dishonesty, particularly cheating behavior, there is a need to study influential factors in academic institutions with other specialties (not only business and management). This is useful to demonstrate the impact of the functional area on organizational code of ethics and academic dishonesty. This is also useful to answer the questions: is the written code of ethics used in other academic institutions with other specialties? Does cheating have a different meaning in different specialties? i.e. Are ethics defined similarly, or is it something relative?

Further, this study reports that, with the absence of a written code of ethics, ethical climate is the reference. What factors forms an ethical climate is an issue that should be further investigated. There is a need to explore different factors that make a faculty climate ethical/unethical. An important question that arises here is regarding the impact of leadership: are leaders primarily responsible for creating an ethical climate? If yes, what is the type of leadership that can pursue an ethical organizational climate and support academic honesty?

Nevertheless, an interesting issue to be studied is the impact of national culture on organizational culture, ethics, ethical climate and academic cheating. Thus, applying the same study in other Middle Eastern countries would be a new area of research.

10. Conclusion

Managing ethical behavior is a critical problem for business organizations. Researchers have been highly concerned with relating the ethical behavior to the corporate code of ethics, professional codes, and mission statements. This study aimed to study the main organizational factors responsible for academic cheating in Egyptian academic institution and the influence of a corporate code of ethics. A comparative study was used to gain in-depth understanding of the research questions. The study concluded that there is an absence of a corporate code of ethics in its written form in Egyptian

public and private academic institutions. Despite this, the public institution has an ethical organizational culture that applies harsh penalties and punishment of unethical behaviors. The ethical climate along with the unwritten code of ethics is the heart of this organizational culture.

The ethical culture in the public academic institutions influences academic cheating. Findings of this study suggest that cheating among undergraduate students in the public academic institution is less than cheating among their counterparts in the private institution. Organizational factors that influence academic cheating among undergraduate students include: communication of ethical behavior, severity of punishment, the likelihood to be caught or reported, and influence of peer behavior. More concern for communication of ethical behavior is needed in private academic institutions to reduce the level of academic cheating. Also, punishment of cheating must be harsh enough to stop students from any intention to cheat.

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Changing Life Quality of Mental Health Patients During the Community Integration

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to explore the change of quality of life, according to the functioning areas of 10 women during the transition from the Psychiatric Hospital to an institutionalized household. This study was conducted during the transition from the hospital to an institutionalized household of these 10 women resident in the hospital. The study was based not only on subjective experiences of these women, but also on the perceptions of psychiatrists who followed this process. This is an exploratory and descriptive study. For the realization of this study were conducted semi-structured interviews with women participating in the project and the doctors of Vlora Psychiatric Hospital. Women with psychiatric disorders were on age from 30 to 58. During the study, were consulted the main theories on rehabilitation in mental health structures and recent studies in this field. The data obtained were analyzed and processed using the approach of Theory Based on Results. The study found support in previous studies conducted in other contexts.

Keywords: mental health, rehabilitation, institutionalized household, life quality.

1. Introduction

Most psychiatric disorders are associated with severe and prolonged in time disabilities, which requires the development of effective procedures for long-term improvement of the situation of patients. In this context, the term "psychiatric rehabilitation" is being used more and more in the field of mental health. Psychiatric rehabilitation began to take its place as a viable and credible intervention, thus being introduced gradually in jargon and work programs of mental health professionals. The field of psychiatric rehabilitation has progressed, so that already has a track record, can be described its conceptual basis and treatment strategies, work practices can be observed, monitored, and imitated, and improvement in the future be trusted to research studies.

People with psychiatric disorders previously should first be directed only to psychiatric care beds. But now a growing number of people with mental problems, try to rely on structures such as homes and families in the community with the help of professional outpatient services.

Such changes are affected not only by changes in the mental health sector, but also by the growing authority of people with psychiatric disorders and their stories in the rehabilitation process. Care should no longer focus only on symptom relief and management, but above all in the support of customers in their daily lives, in helping to integrate into the community and to develop their skills.

This considering the daunting conditions in which a part of the people found themselves after their release from a psychiatric hospital (due to delayed hospitalization), becomes a matter of special importance (Bonevik, Wolf, & Niuwenhuizen Schene, 1995a; Malm, May & Dencker, 1981; Oliver, Huxley, Bridges & Mohamad, 1996).

To make easier and less dramatic the transition from hospital to community, in Albania as well started the process of rehabilitation in the households.

Households functions as analogous family structures which provides a less traumatic transition from hospital to community.

Given that this is a new experience for our city, there is a need to assess what works and what does not during this transition, in order to positively intervene.

2. Quality of life, an important part of rehabilitation.

The concept of quality of life is a holistic perspective, which focuses on the totality of existence of the individual with

mental disabilities. One of the things it expresses is that health is not simply defined by the absence of a pathology or psychiatric symptoms. The central point is the welfare of people with psychiatric disabilities (Baker & Intagliata, 1982, Lehman, 1983, Oliver et al, 1996). Quality of life is subject to a number of definitions. They vary according to the degree of importance given to the subjective or objective aspects of the quality of life (Boevink et al, 1995b). The subjective approach understands the quality more as a universal paradigm that should be understood by phenomenological perspective. It focuses on subjective ideas, like welfare, pleasure and happiness. The objective approach focuses more on the conditions and quality of life and the quality comes from economic and social indicators. In psychiatry it is generally attempted to get the best elements of both approaches (Baker & Intagliata, 1982, Bigelow, Bodsky, Stewart & Olsen, 1982; Boeing et al, 1995; Lehmann, 1988; Malm et al, 1981). The quality of life refers to "the good" life. This "good" stands in the quality of life experiences which is evaluated subjectively and determined objectively by measuring the external conditions (Zaura & Goodhart, 1979).

In many descriptions, quality of life is seen as a test of the dynamic interaction between the individual and the environment.

It is often recognized that factors such as self-evaluation, sense of purpose, strength of ego and a sense of ownership of personal life can affect the welfare of the people (Baker & Intagliata, 1982, Bigelow et al, 1982; Lehmann, 1983). Others have emphasized the importance of a sense of personal achievement (completion of plans) and a sense of continuity in life (Cooper, 1990).

The rate at which people meet the goals and aspirations and the rate at which expect to be able to meet those, influences whether they formulate and how they formulate their needs (Waisman 1988, in Roeland 1995). Completion of the expressed need or demand is closely related to the individual's functioning in four integral areas to the quality of life. These areas are divided into subfields. Quality of life is divided into the following areas: autonomy (nutrition, hygiene, dressing, moves / acquisitions, orientation in time and space); social behavior (attitude toward others, attitude towards activities); language and communication and household activity (kitchen, laundry, maintenance of the house, clinging).

In the research on quality of life as well as in writings on methods and rehabilitation programs and on improving processes of persons with psychiatric disabilities, needs are often perceived in neutral or positive terms described above relating to pleasure obtained from life (Bigelow et al., 1982; Deegan, 1988, Farkas et al., 1981).

However, the psychiatrist has a lot dominant stream of thought that defines needs in negative terms, as a lack of health or welfare; the needs are narrowed to disabilities, symptoms and problems (Marshall, Hogg, Gath & Locwood, 1995, Phelan et al., 1995; Thomicroft et al., 1992; Weiner, 1995; Wykes, Sturt & creer, 1985). This approach orients itself towards achieving the minimum acceptable levels of health and social functioning (Brewin, 1992).

However, the work of researchers, psychologists, social workers and doctors will determine whether psychiatric rehabilitation will be a field of study and practice in development, or will remain simply a limited method. Right now, many mental health professionals recognize the need for rehabilitation interventions to complement existing approaches of treatment.

3. Methodology

The objective of this study was to explore the subjective experiences of women who pass from the Psychiatric Hospital to a household, their experiences (first in hospital and then at home protected), as they have experienced the transition and how it has changed their quality of life (feeding, dressing, hygiene, their social behavior, etc.). The study is descriptive and exploratory nature on the experiences of women. To suit the requirements of the study, qualitative research was used, applying the approach based on the Theory of Results (Grounded Theory) for data analysis (Willing, 2001; Camic, Rhodes, Yardley, 2003). In this study were involved 10 women, aged 30-58 years, diagnosed with psychiatric disorders, residents of the Psychiatric Hospital in Vlorë and 5 psychiatrists of Vlorë Psychiatric Hospital. These 10 women were selected after being involved in a project undertaken by the hospital to create a household. Doctors were included in the study, as were those who chose, followed and worked all the time with these women. As above, the sample was selected not randomly and intentionally.

Besides women, the interviewed persons were as well the doctors, in order to maintain the internal validity of the study. In this way the study ensures the objectivity of data, without risking the loss in the subjective reporting of patients.

The Interview process were also seen as a way to talk about the process and its mode of operation.

4. Results

From previous studies in other contexts is determined that the change in quality of life is closely related to the areas of everyday functioning, areas which in their totality determine the quality of life. Thus, in this study, in the first place it is classified the field that determine the needs associated with the patient's personal autonomy (feeding, dressing, hygiene, moves/acquisitions, orientation in time and space). Afterwards are the needs in areas such as social behavior (attitude towards others and towards activities), language and communication and households (kitchen, laundry, home maintenance, the clinging). The purpose of this study was to explore that how changes the quality of life during the transition from the life in a hospital in a analogous structure to family structure (household). Further, we will discuss the results in light of the two questions raised at the beginning of the study.

5. Results of the survey of women during their stay in hospital

From the questions asked during the first phase, when women were still living in the hospital, it turns out that the disease has been the main reason for their stay in this institution. 4 out of 10 of these women, in addition to the initial reason (illness) have influenced the desire and intentions of the family members to institutionalize them. For the rest of the women was just the disease, the reason for hospitalization.

Asked how life in the hospital was for these women, for all of them, although for different reasons life was quite difficult. For five women life was difficult due to misconduct ion of the staff "always screaming at me during the therapy." For the other three, was monotony, lack of activities because of the difficult situation "bored all day because I have nothing to do." For the other two was the lack of physical conditions (lack of heat, lack of toilets in the room, etc)

All women were in the same mindset when it came to pass from the hospital to a new environment, conditions which were similar to a house. They claimed that one of the main differences between the structures was the large number of persons accommodated in the hospital, unlikely from the household.

6 of the surveyed patients, answered that were continuously assisted by the hospital staff. 3 of them said they were not always supported by staff, while one woman claims that staff has not supported her during her life in hospital. Following their opinion, 6 women thinks that what has been achieved was thanks to the cooperation with staff, 3 women claims that their achievements are based on a minimal help from the staff and one of them says that the change has come only relying on her personal skills.

Asked to describe a typical day in the hospital (from morning till night), they generally responded equally (waking up, eat breakfast, get therapy), doing various jobs assigned by the staff (adjustment of bed, washing floors, help in the kitchen, etc.), eat lunch, sleeping, out in the yard, watch TV, eat dinner and then sleeping). While the free time, they all agreed that the activities were very limited. In general, they were sitting in the court benches, talking to each - other, sometimes drinking coffee and listening to music.

In the rest of the questionnaire, regarding specific sites in the fields of integral quality of life they answered as follows:

5.1 *Autonomy*

Based on the questions about autonomy and its component parts, emerged that 10 women generally were able to use a spoon and fork, but not a knife. 8 of them have a correct attitude to the table; while two of them lie on the table inappropriately (they need to bow to their elbows). In terms of dressing, they generally say that they love to dress up and buy new clothes, although this is a limited opportunity within the hospital. They do not have many opportunities to go out and a part of ALL pension is spend on medicines. On the other hand, they claim that not knowing to manage the money; they misuse money remaining with no income in the middle of the month. They claim as well that in the case they need to go out, (for example to get their pension) they are always accompanied by a caretaker. In terms of hygiene they claim to brush their teeth every morning, the only difference is when they stress that this activity need to verbal stimulus or not. About the orientation in time and space, 7 of them are able to determine time terms (yesterday, today, tomorrow) and the date, time and exact month of the year. Three of them were not able to define the above terms.

5.2 *Social behavior*

In doing questionnaire, the part focused on social behavior, focused on two aspects: the attitude towards others and the

attitude towards the activities.

Regarding the attitude towards others, all women state that they love to talk with others about various topics such as relationships with family, life in the hospital, movies and soap operas, but above all they prefer to talk about their past. 3 of women claim that they like that during the conversation, the attention should be focused only to them and their problems. Some of them states that they like group activities. At this point they have two different opinions: one of them is that the selection of members of the group is not important and the second group states that it is important not only the selection of the group members, but they also require selecting their group members.

5.3 *Language and communication*

In terms of language and communication, the question was a general one and aimed at telling a story to see how the sentences were articulated, coherence of words in sentences and the use of the proper tense and subject pronouns. 3 of women are able to put clearly and logically the words in sentences and also use the proper tense and manner. 4 women managed to communicate and build a conversation but have difficulty in establishing proper timing and subject pronoun. 3 of the women during the interview show incoherence in their thoughts and conversations characterized by short sentences.

5.4 *Domestic activity*

In relation to domestic activity all women like to cook although 4 of them state they do not know how to do such a thing. Work that they do in the kitchen are related to washing fruits and vegetables, washing dishes, etc.. Most of them responded that they had difficulties in using the stove.

Asked about the use of the washing machine, most women responded that they have difficulties in using it. The rest of them stated that they know to use the washing machine, but with verbal assistance. On the other hand all women stated that they know how to hang and take off the washing from wire, but some of them assert that they have difficulties in folding. Regarding the ironing only 2 of them know how to use it.

All women say they take care about their rooms and beds. During the interview with them, some changes emerges, which is evident in the work that they say or they do (someone washes the floor, someone adjusts beds etc.). They say that the factor that affects the division of activities is the assignment of duties by the staff.

When asked about the activity of clinging, they share in embroidery, awl, knitting and sewing buttons or disassembled clothes. Some of them claim to know how to work awl or knitting, others say that wove beautifully (in these moments show embroidery, socks, shirt and Centro). A part of the women said they know to sew a button, but they have trouble crossing the corners. The rest say they do not know how to sew.

6. **Results of the survey of psychiatrists when women lived in hospital**

At this stage of the questionnaire, the doctors that were asked what were to them this house and if these women were able to pass on such a structure, most of them replied that the household is a intermediate structure to pass from hospital to family life. According to them, such a structure, could allow women to be more independent and would help to reinstate those aspects of their operations that the hospital has hampered.

Doctors were of the opinion that not all women were at the same level of functionality, so with different women, the focus of work should be different. So their skills should be managed better and especially should be given enough time to adapt to the transition, thus avoiding the premature passing of their household from the hospital.

In terms of opportunities for these women to be rehabilitated, some doctors said that personal interests, independence and activity somehow, the desire to do something different and being in a state of mental and physical well enables them to best to change lifestyle and ultimately to be rehabilitated. The rest of the doctors stated that they possessed pensions, support staff and environmental change will impact positively on the rehabilitation of these women.

Regarding the question how diagnoses affect the quality of life of these women, doctors were divided into two groups. One group defined that diagnosis is not crucial, what most matters is the stage of the disease and the possibility that the hospital based on the work of staff, to ensure that these women have a better life quality.

The rest were more skeptical and decided by claiming that an immediate diagnosis affects negatively their quality of life. According to this group in the quality of group life affected as well the cultural and educational level of patients.

Asked about autonomy, doctors unanimously responded that women can do things themselves, but there are

other things that they need to respect not only verbal but also concrete help from the staff. In connection with the socializing behavior, doctors think that some women show interest to others especially when attention is focused on them. According to them, the rest of them are withdrawn and need constant verbal stimulus. In some cases, women demonstrate aggressive behavior as a response to dissatisfaction. Regarding the attitude towards assigned tasks (jobs), doctors stated that from the group of women, there are those who are more active and involved all the time in the tasks of the hospital, regardless of the given work. The rest of the women get involved in activities but the activities they do are stereotyped jobs (under the direction of personnel, and always do the same job every day).

Referring to the manner of communication and used language, doctors say that the language used by some women is euphoric and the oratory highlights. The rest is divided into women who are poor in thoughts and women who are incoherent in formulating the conversation.

Doctors say that women are able to contribute in domestic activity (laundry, kitchen, etc.), regardless of the quality of results achieved at work.

7. Results of the survey of women during their stay in the household

In the second phase of the survey, the stage at which women are not only accommodate the home, but also a year that lived there, they said they currently feel very well and they have found peace. Moreover, some of them say they feel like they are in their family, where they have all the conditions and where to make an independent life "are wonderfully comfortable, we found peace here."

Asked about comparisons between their life in hospital and at home, they immediately say that there was no room for comparison as the change was enormous. But the group was divided into women who had not at all difficulties to adapt and the rest of them, which stated that in the first moments they had difficulties recalling the hospital (nostalgia for friends in the hospital).

All women stated that a major change was that in the hospital they were living as in a hospital (collective life), but the house was otherwise quiet and just like a family.

Women say that in the first moments of entering the house they needed continued support from the staff. While over time they felt they needed less and less support, moreover stated that they would feel comfortable if the staff was not present anymore in their lives.

8. Autonomy

The first thing women say when asked about nutrition was that eating here was better and that can meet their preferences about food. They claimed that in the house they had the necessary spaces not only to organize the cooking menu of their choice but nice arrangement of table and with all the related vessels. They emphasized that now they can also use the knife while eating.

In terms of dressing, they said they now have greater opportunities to buy clothes and to be beautifully dressed. As for hygiene, they state that the house conditions allow them to better preserve it (can take a shower every day, nobody touches their brush teeth, etc.). Some of them do not forget to say that they have already learned to take care for their nails (manicure and pedicure).

In connection with the management of ALL, they say they still have difficulties in using them. However they now feel themselves more capable and more confident in dealing with Lek. They feel safer even if they have to move out of the house (taking retirement, going to a family doctor, walk, etc.).

During the survey, it turns out that the women surveyed were able to determine the date, month and year, but a part of them have difficulty in telling the story in accordance with the timing terms. There are women who present difficulties and confusion in determining the clock.

9. Social behavior

Women say that they like to talk with others and enjoy immensely when visitors come home. They say that they talk about various topics, but assert that a part of the discussions is about daily activities. They claim that they work together and go hiking or doing other recreational activities (birthday celebration, beach trips, etc.).

All women say they are constantly involved in housework, according to a schedule that they themselves have set. There are women in the survey who said they like to select the works, it depended on what they think they do better, but

also as a way to avoid works that for them are hard (cleaning the bathroom).

10. Language and communication

Some of the women by responding to the question posed highlighted their preference by well building the conversation in terms of grammar. Others manage to build conversation but sometimes exhibit incoherence and inadequate use of tenses and some words in the sentence.

11. Domestic activity

Regarding the cuisine all women said they like to cook. They claimed that in the home cook under a self-imposed schedule. They stated that were organized in such a way that together with a woman who knew how to cook could stay to help a woman who could not cook well. In this way one of them helped the friend that could not cook. Even in terms of the division of work in the kitchen (dish washing, paving, cleaning table, etc.) they claimed that were organized according to a schedule (e.g. the group that cooked did not wash the dishes or other work in the kitchen). They stated that already they were able to use the stove.

About the use of the washing machine a few women say they have no previous difficulties, while others say that even though they have a year at home still do not know how to use the washing machine. This group seeks the help of peers or staff. For hanging, gathering and folding clothes, they say they have no troubles anymore. Regarding ironing, it is done only by 4 women.

In terms of maintenance of the room, each of the women said that cares for her room (bed arrangement, sheet changing, washing the floor etc.), in collaboration with their roommates.

12. Results of the survey of psychiatrists during the period when women lived in the household

During questionnaire done to the doctors, one year after the living of women at home, they thought that this year women started to make a more organized life. They also said that women were in the process to set limits in order not to affect the rights and freedoms of each - other. According to them these women have begun to cooperate and if at the beginning of the year, when they went into the house that was almost spontaneous cooperation, little by little the cooperation already was beginning to become organized. Thus, they have learned to get adapted to the life at home in order to build a good life in this family.

Asked what difference was noticed in women's operation, most of the psychiatrists responded that women were more independent and more likely to be caring for themselves. In the view of quality of life domains, doctors thought that women had improved performance in each part of each area, depending on their level.

The rest of the doctors stated that although performance in the areas of quality of life had improved, women still needed support and time to achieve the desired result.

Regarding the impact of symptoms in home life women, doctors are of the opinion that it is not equally affected in all women, but in general has helped alleviate the symptoms.

Regarding autonomy, doctors say that women's skills are beginning to change. Now, they have become more independent towards different parts of autonomy. They are more attentive to hygiene, dressing or the way they lay the table or eat. According to doctors, during a year living in the home, women have learned to move themselves and to change the way they manage their incomes

Doctors felt that women's behavior after staying at home have changed. According to them, the aggressive response modes are reduced and women can better manage a pressure situation. On the other hand, they have learned how to be hospitable, going back to an old habit like the welcoming of people at home. Doctors added that this year, has served in better socialization of women between themselves and with others. Distinctive element in their involvement in activities is that now they can work better in a group. According to doctors it is noticed a small change in their language and communication. Even women who had more difficulty in building a story, now because of the tranquility of the surrounding environment can communicate more clearly, expressing their opinions freely. Doctors assert that during the stay at home, women have managed to regain skills and abilities related to domestic activity. Their practical autonomy is improved and this is evident in the functioning of the house.

13. Discussion

Results of the study reaffirmed the importance of the experiences of women as well as their main supporters in the transition from hospital to households, such as doctors.

During the data coding, based on opinions expressed by women and the doctors of the hospital, resulted that life in home was very different from life in hospital. Life at home is more relaxed, more comfortable and packed with activities, compared to the noisy life of the hospital, not organized and monotonous. Meanwhile a major difference consisted of physical and environmental conditions. If the hospital lack of personal spa room, lack of heat or private facilities this was a problem that was corrected over the household. The fact that was mentioned more was the "comfort" felt when passing from a place with many persons (240 beds), in a family environment where lived only 10 persons. From questionnaires emerged the difference of the assistance from the staff in both structures. Once women living in the hospital, they generally need more support and help from the staff (doctors, psychologists, social workers, nurses, caregivers). This support continued in the first moments of entering the house and was narrowed over time.

Also if in the hospital, women being adapted to the conditions were forced to make a routine life (always the same thing), and in accordance with the activities and tasks that do turn into a stereotype, in the household they were more organized in their daily life. Each of the women already cooperates with each - other doing different activities being organized into groups to work (e.g. to do housework, cooking, walk out etc.).

The passing of an ordinary day at home with a day spent in the hospital, is as well a change, including the free time. If at the hospital the activities were defined and schedules were set by staff, limiting the autonomy and ultimately their creativity, home life was filled with household activities as well as creative, always during the free time.

One important fact that emerged during the results coding was that these women had really been a change where the importance of life quality, was the focus, based on its component fields. The first significant change, associated with autonomy of women was organizing the eating process starting from paving of the table, to proceed further with their position on the table during meals and to end with the use of a knife as a tool that is added to the current use of spoon and fork.

Change occurred as well to the cooking menu. If at the hospital it was the personnel that decided when and what women should eat, women at home were organized in such a way that not only they were cooking as per the weekly menu, but the food was consistent with their preferences.

An important part in the change of the autonomy of the 10 women is their performance in hygiene, closely related to the opportunities created at home. In an environment such as the home, compared with hospital conditions are more favorable for keeping and maintaining personal hygiene. If in the hospital was noticed the lack of showers, personal toilets, etc., at home there is not such a thing.

Meanwhile, the best thing of the protected house is that women can now expect their friends and visitors at home. This is an indication that their relationships are not only focused on the group, but also with other people in the community. It is very obvious the fact that women love to stay in the company of others, to talk with them and create lasting relationships. Thus, both inside and outside the home has increased the number of recreational activities (birthday celebration, hiking, picnics, etc.).

In terms of language and communication, there is a notable improvement of their performance in this area. Emerges the developing of their ability to express and communicate, and to keep alive a conversation. However, it is noticed that some women continue to demonstrate the incoherence in communicating their thoughts and in some cases exceed the conversation from one topic to another. In conclusion, indoor activity during a year living at home is significantly improved. During this period, the new thing in cooking activity was that women, who knew how to cook in the hospital, gradually came to learn how to cook the other women who were not able to do so. It resulted that their selection according to graphs and determination of dishes they decided to cook themselves was successful. Some of them presented need for assistance in the use of the washing machine. The rest have improved their ability, and from the total non-use of this tool have learned to use it under the influence of verbal stimuli. An important step differently from the hospital is the selection of clothes that will be putted in the washing machine (separation of white fabric, from the color) and the selection of appropriate washing program.

However, changes occurred in their autonomy, their attitude towards others and activities, language and communication used or changes occurring in domestic activities, bring a positive impact on rehabilitation of these women and ultimately affect improving the quality of life.

14. Conclusions

In psychiatry, the changing of the life quality is closely related to the closure of the hospitals and the deinstitutionalization process. In this point of view, is better to support and cure the mental health patients in the community, offering to them shelters, daily centre or household.

The evaluation and the analysis of the process, such as the transition from a hospital structure to another one, that seems like family, is full of value and the universals rule and standards play a crucial role. However, an objective evaluation of the process is impossible and we have to avoid a subjective one.

The relationship is based on the common respect and on the willingness to learn from each-other. Professional and mental health users works together to build the situation in the past, in the present and in the future by providing in this way a contribution to theories and experiences.

Despite innovations in the mental health field is important to note that the psycho-social process just began. This means that there are many ways to do so that this process is efficient and sustainable.

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Disciplining the Body: Power and Language in Margaret Atwood's Dystopian Novel *The Handmaid's Tale*

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Abstract

This article explores the effect of power and language in dystopian society. I attempt to show that a novel may be classified as dystopian if it fulfills certain factors that posit language and discourse as fundamental devices of power. These three main factors are as follows: the establishment of an official, totalitarian language, evidence of opposing discourses, and the representation of the characters as a figure who deconstruct social reality.

1. Introduction

In *The Handmaid's Tale*, Atwood depicts a dystopian society. Although many critics regard her novel as a "feminist dystopia"; Atwood denies by saying that writing a dystopian work from a woman's point of view in comparison to all earlier works in this genre written by men does not make her work automatically a "feminist dystopia". Atwood had not intended to write a feminist work, she was interested in totalitarian system which women as margins become the victim of their society. On one hand, *The Handmaid's Tale* deals with a number of female characters and their circumstances as the margins in society that seems considerable for feminists, on the other hand, she was mainly interested on the destiny of humans in totalitarian conditions not specifically men or women.

The aim of dystopian fiction is to admonish the reader and make them think about all the catastrophes in their society. *The Handmaid's Tale* definitely works as a tale, where Atwood attempts to warn the reader of the inequalities in our world: the lack of freedom, constant surveillance, antihuman behaviour and fundamental beliefs that are merely some of the misfortunes of our age. A dystopian novel creates an atmosphere of fear and control. Dystopian offers a world where freedom and happiness gains its definition from the totalitarian regime and use or abuse of power are illustrated in different forms. There are various sources of power in the novel such as language, religious authority and control of information. The power through language has great control on the handmaids and like other dictatorship governments, creates an atmosphere of fear in the populace and uses language as an instrument of control. Through the novel, Atwood warns us how the power of language incredibly exploits the minds and disregards the reality.

Atwood composed *The Handmaid's Tale* with the aim to expose the desperations of people in modern era. The *Handmaid's Tale* shows a society that is colonized by a Republic that ironically coalesces two extremist ideologies: the Puritanical right that denotes women proper place in the home –like many extremist countries – as the property of men, and the feminist groups that protest against the objectification of women and their bodies under patriarchy. And the fundamental extremists who want to control every aspect of people's life and have constant power on society – totalitarian governments.

The story begins with a terrorist attack that kills the President and most Congress, a movement calling itself the "Sons of Jacob" that make a revolution to establish a new republic.

The story is presented from the point of view of a woman called Offred (a patronymic name that means "Of Fred", referring to the man she serves.) The Commander is the high ranking official in Gilead and Offred serves as his Handmaid.

The Handmaid's Tale is a good model of a docile society with the complexities of body image. Atwood uses the female body as a treatment of the mind/body concept and analyses the way in which her character responds to, and resists, its destructive effects. The bodies of women in Atwood's novel such as the handmaids are severely scrutinized to show how a body can be docile. As Foucault introduces, how he sees the human bodies are those accustomed to being disciplined and regarded as docile ones, and human bodies become docile so as to reach the controlling power's goal of order and regulation. That is, the energy of the body is controlled, disciplined and developed and later is reversed to be a restraint, a power of subjection.

2. Docile Body in Gileadean Society

The women in Gilead like the men are disciplined and organized. They are under the surveillance of the Eyes –Glidean secret police; there are posts everywhere with Guardians and machines that control and supervise everyone; no one is allowed to move freely in the city without passes. The control in Gilead is an extreme form of what Foucault calls a “carceral texture of society [with its] capture of the body and its perpetual observation” (304). The Glidean

Republic, like the prison in Foucault’s *Discipline and Punish*, justifies society’s disciplinary technologies and carceral forms. The bodies are controlled both spatially and physically, the female bodies in the novel, whether Wives, the Marthas’ or Moira’s and Offred’s, are by all means docile. As all the Handmaids are the object of surveillance, their movements, bodies, minds and attitudes are the targets of others, including men of different social categories,

Commanders, Guardians, Eyes and women as Aunts, Wives, even the Handmaids’ that unwillingly support the system of surveillance by spying on each other.

In Gilead society, femininity is constructed only through the female’s self-restraint and purification of the body, wherefore, discipline and punishment are useful for female bodies to make them respectable in male dominated society. In Red Center Offred learns from Aunt Lydia, who reminds all Handmaids “The Republic of Gilead knows no bound. Gilead is within you.” (32) This powerful statement indicates how much Offred and other Handmaids internalize the teaching and behave in accordance with other’s expectation, for they are forced to remember:

“The posture of the body is important, here and now: minor discomforts are instructive” (89).

The Handmaid’s bodies, furthermore, is turned to one body. In the Red Center the Handmaids are re-educated to reverse their view toward female body as a body of production, body of “freedom to” one body of “freedom from” various things done with body, in other word, from liberated body back to restrained body. Since Gilead’s new belief infuses new thought in society, the Aunts teach the Handmaids to recognize their bodies as one unison body that is the property of the nation and a body that is to be given freedom from, rather than a body that is free to do anything.

All the strict control of Gileadean women and in particular Handmaids’ mind and body embodies Foucault’s theory of disciplinary power and the docile body. Gilead’s discipline borrows Foucault’s words that “the individual body becomes an element that may be placed, moved, articulated on other. Discipline is no longer simply an art of distributing bodies, of extracting time from them and accumulating it, but of composing forces in order to obtain an efficient machine” (164). In this carceral society in Gilead, as I have attempted to illustrate, women’s identities have no meaning; they are completely alienated from their nature and identity. In Gilead’s society identities are simplified into few special roles, with each serving only one role and all forming an “efficient machine” of household or procreation.

3. Power and Language in Dystopian Society

The Handmaid’s Tale is a collection of diaries written by an individual who is restricted in a fundamental regime. Offred uses the language of past that she is used to it, however, the language of the past is an opposing discourse to the new language of the authority. The official language seeks to reject and repress the previous language and replace it with biblical discourse. Gilead as a fundamental regime attempts to abuse the biblical and religious values as their basic ideology to establish the social norms. Offred’s diary performs to be an explicit deconstructive scrip of the social and conventional norms that mock the present society through language.

The evident of the official language used in Gilead comes from Offred’s commentary and explanation of the new realm. The powerful regime can ignore the past but it is never possible to erase the human memories which serve to threaten the authority. Although actions and deeds can be controlled; minds and thoughts are not a system that can be easily dominated because people are not completely concomitant with the beliefs of the new realms. Aunt Lydia, who instructs and disciplines the handmaids according to the official language, attempts to indoctrinate them the importance of normalizing the regime’s idea and belief as something ordinary and acceptable. “Ordinary, said Aunt Lydia, is what you are used to. This may not seem ordinary to you now, but after a time it will. It will become ordinary” (Atwood 43). The official language must be accepted as normal and ordinary discourses and women whether to be Handmaids, Marthas, Econowives or Jezebels are forced to act according to the norms. The regime acknowledges them that ideal future will be gained when women accept the norms and attempt to forget their past. In this case, Aunt Lydia tries to persuade the handmaids as the transitional generation that should accept the new belief system: “You are a transitional generation. It is the hardest for you. We know the sacrifices you are being expected to make. It is hard when men revile you. For the

ones who come after you, it will be easier. They will accept their duties with willing hearts." (127)

In Foucault's term, knowledge is power and power has control over knowledge, therefore the Republic forces the transitional generation to gradually accept the ideal system of the Republic. The regime believes in future they will have ultimate control over the past generation's thought and belief in order to disempower their attack against the official language. As a means to gain the power of language, the authority manipulates the language for their own purposes. For instance, Gilead believes the kind of freedom existed in past was some of the reasons that anarchy occurred. Aunt Lydia tells the handmaids: "There's more than one kind of freedom, freedom to and freedom from. In the days of anarchy, it was freedom to. Now you are being given freedom from. Don't underrate it." (34)

By underestimating discourses of the past, the Republic can control and reinforce the language. As a matter of fact, language is the foundation for thoughts and those who can control the language can also restrict the thought, therefore the concept of "freedom" in Gilead for future generation will only exist as "freedom from". "Freedom to" which is the concept of freedom we know it, will no longer exist and the usage of the word "freedom to" will be strictly forbidden in future generation.

Gilead, also denies literacy for all women to have a permanent control on them. The regime forbids all literature and replaces it with biblical stories read by Commander. It is not possible for power to be exercised without knowledge; it is not possible for knowledge not to engender

power." (*Power* 52) No handmaids and apparently any other women are allowed to read and write, because the knowledge can empower them to resist against the rules. Therefore, the Republic keeps women at an appropriate level of subservience. These rules indicate that those who have control over the words and language have dominant power. For those who cannot read and write, there is no form of communicating that opposes the authority's belief and no form of thinking other than what the regime learns them to believe. Offred is consciously aware of the power of words and language: "[The Commander] has something we don't have, he has the word. How we squandered it once." (Atwood 99) However, words provoke discourses based on knowledge of the past and afford power, knowledge and power that are integrated with one another (*Power* 52); the only way to reinforce the power on generations.

Offred consciously deconstructs the social reality through her narrative discourses. She is aware of the power that surrounds them and produces knowledge, the knowledge that reinforces the power. Her narrative becomes a weapon to keep her sanity and struggle against the perpetual rules. For this reason, she narrates the situation as there is someone to hear and respond one day: "But if it's a story, even in my head, I must be telling it to someone. You don't tell a story only to yourself. There's always someone else." (Atwood 49) Offred tells her story because she knows that one day it will be heard. She knows that those who will hear her story will be beyond the Gileadean reign of power and will truly judge the regime. She knows it will be difficult for the future to believe this story as sometime real: "If it's a story I'm telling, then I have control over the ending. Then there will be an ending, to the story, and real life will come after it. I can pick up where I left off. It isn't a story I'm telling" (49)

Then Offred expresses that writing is something forbidden in the regime and the only way to communicate with the future generation is narrating her terrible story: "Tell, rather than write, because I have nothing to write with and writing is in any case forbidden." (49)

Therefore, she uses the power of language and words through narrating her story. She has strict control over her own language; however, she is aware that she is completely powerless in the Gileadean hierarchy. She believes if she chooses certain words, she will be able to achieve the meaning that will connect her to former self and reveal the situation of the new society. For instance, Offred refuses to say "my" room when she is compelled to live in the Commander's house, it is the way she rejects the social expectations and standards. The word "my" relates to some personal belonging, and "my room" means my privacy. She believes there is no privacy in Commander's house and she does not belong to that place, this is the way she attempts to hold on her former beliefs. In this way she shows the difference between her new society and former life. In contrast, Offred takes official words, such as "household" rather than "family", she finds the word "family" an intimate relationship between its members, which does not make sense in the new society: "Household: that is what we are. The Commander is the head of the household. The house is what he holds. To have and to hold, till death do us part. The hold of a ship. Hollow. (91) Offred alters the meanings of words so that the words lose their authority, in this way she has control over words and uses the power of language to deny the social standards. With using the power of language, Offred challenges the Gileadean official language and tries to survive herself both mentally and emotionally: "There are the kinds of litanies I use, to compose myself." (120)

Offred realizes, what is between knowledge and power is the issue of discourse. Power is held by those who create context and context is based on language, where language is related to the organization and regulation of knowledge. The relationship between discourse, context and knowledge creates power. Offred is aware of this

relationship between knowledge and power, because she examined two different ideologies, her former life and the new society that forces her to accept the standards.

In *The Handmaid's Tale*, Atwood depicts a society which establishes a rigid social belief through the domination of language. However, Offred, the protagonist deconstructs the language because she is not bounded to the struggle for domination of language and has control over the social reality. Offred narrates her diary in a language of the past and in this way she explores the opposing discourse to resist against the social authority. Therefore, regardless to what level of power the society achieves by the end of the novel power is undermined through the words and discourses of language used by the narrator. The reader also realizes the reality of Gileadean society through the leaning experience of the narrator. *The Handmaid's Tale* as a dystopian novel depicts a society that intends to achieve an ideal system of belief by empowering its own language and discourse and repressing other languages. Within this society, Offred, the narrator reveals the role of power and the real truth of the regime through language and discourses.

4. Conclusion

Margret Atwood claims: "There's not a single detail in the book that does not have a corresponding reality, either in contemporary conditions or historical fact" (McCombs 284). There are many totalitarian societies in the world, communist or religious extremist societies which have constant control on their citizens' mind and behaviour through the power of language.

Through dystopias the author makes the readers to think about the hidden dangers in the society where they live. The main concerns in Atwood's novel are relevant for the readers of today exactly due to the fact that they draw connections between democratic and totalitarian world orders and demonstrate what may happen if certain trend, that may lead to totalitarianism remains unnoticed in a democratic society. For Atwood language in addition to being a means of communication is also something one can use to execute power –to pursue their personal interests and show competence and control in a specific field of life. The use of language as a means to execute power and as a means through which to gain ultimate power is one of the central themes in *The Handmaid's Tale* to illustrate our modern society.

In *The Handmaid's Tale* Atwood reveals, however there are close relations between power and language but there are some ways to cross these borders and to change the positions in the power hierarchy.

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The Inclusion of Children with Autism Spectrum Disorders within the Albanian Educational System - A Complex Problem

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Abstract

Parents and pedagogical staff face real challenges because of the alarming growth of cases of Autism Spectrum Disorders, especially of those with symptoms mainly in the cognitive, social, and emotional area. The inclusion of children with ASD-s in normal classrooms, is a complex problem related to the difficulties children display as much as to the deficiency of their psycho-pedagogical treatment. Statistics of the Regional Educational Directorate of Tirana, highlight the fact that there are thirteen autistic pupils who are attending Grade 1 during the academic year 2012-2013. What about the others? It is not easy to define the number of those children who attend school or those who do not, and of those who are integrated into classrooms with normal children. This study is focused on analyzing the factors which influence the exclusion of children with ASDs in the elementary educational system and its consequences. The applied methodology is: study of the literature about education of children with ASDs, focus groups of parents, analysis of statistical data of the Regional Educational Directorate of Tirana. The aim of this study is to bring in facts and arguments about the elements that influence the exclusion of children with ASDs from the educational system, from the point of view of the parent-who has faced to this challenge, and of the schoolmaster- who determines the psycho-pedagogical concerns of the treatment of this category of children, intending to work so as to achieve their inclusion in normal classrooms.

Keywords: Autism Spectrum Disorders; Integration; Inclusion; Attendance; Psycho-pedagogical Treatment

1. Introduction

"Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) is a syndrome that is displayed the first three years of the child's life and it is defined by a form of qualitative abnormalities in communication, social reciprocal interaction and repetitive behaviors" – it is cited in the diagnostically and statistical manual of the American Association of Psychologists (DSM - IV). There are included five various disorders within the term – developmental disorders; these are autism disorders, Asperger's disorder, PDD-NOS, Rett's disorder and childhood disintegrative disorder (CDD). These conditions are referred to as Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASDs). (VOLKMAR et al., 2005)

"The neurobehavioral disorders during childhood are especially defined as social and academic behavioral problems. Dysfunctions have spread considerably since 2007. The Center for Disease Control and Prevention called it a big threat for the health. In fact, it is the most serious threat ever for children's health and well-being; it is reaching epidemic dimensions." (Disconnected Kids. Dr. Robert Melillo. 2010. pg.15)

Autism prevalence seems like growing rapidly every day. In 2009, 1 in 110 children were affected by autism, in 2011, 1 in 88 children, while in 2013 there are 1 in 50 children currently being treated for autism. (<https://stopcallingitautism.org/content/presentations/Juan-Rodriguez-SCIA-AutismOne-2013.pdf>)

In April 1, 2013, the "New York Times" wrote, "almost 1 in 5 school aged boys (11% of school aged children) in the United States, were medically diagnosed with attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, according to the data of federal centers for disease control and prevention."

Despite the possible problematic, children with autism spectrum disorders are educated in classrooms with normal children. Individual treatment is a step by step treatment – from intensive intervention during the first years of their life, special education, to individualized programs for their inclusion in classrooms with normal children. The complexity of difficulties for the inclusion of children with ASDs in normal classrooms in Albania seems like a combination between their disorders and deficiencies in their psycho-pedagogical treatment. Even in Albania, according to the legal rights of education, children with ASDs must be educated in normal classrooms.

The research objectives are exploratory ones. This study aims at exploring the psycho-pedagogical ways of treating children with ASDs in normal classrooms, around the world. It aims at exploring the complexity of factors which

makes the inclusion of children with autism in normal classrooms more difficult in Albania.

Methodology: this is a qualitative study based on the:

- Study of the literature for the treatment of children with ASDs.
- Focus group of parents of children with ASDs.
- Interviews with teachers of children with Autism Spectrum Disorders.
- Analysis of statistical data of the Regional Educational Directory of Tirana

The research was based on the focus group of parents, as they are a kind of experts of the problematic of children with ASDs. "Focus groups are a new tool of qualitative research." (Morgan and Spanish "Focus groups: A New Tool of Qualitative Research" 1984). The group consists of eleven parents who have children with ASDs. Their children are between the age of six and ten.

The combination of the semi-structured interview with the focus group of parents, supervision and teachers' interviews have served as a tool of research.

2. The treatment of children with ASD in the developed countries and in Albania

There are being performed several treatments of children with ASDs, all of which are based in different philosophies but which aim at lightening autism symptoms. Autism treatments have been applied from a long time ago, starting by DR. Ivan Lovaas. He is a pioneer of the Applied Behavioral Analysis to treat children with dramatic disorders in 1960 and 1970, in the University of California, Los Angeles. He was interested in finding ways of lightening self-destructive behaviors and dramatic disorders. From 1980s, students of Dr. Lovaas have worked to find ways of treating children with autism by using various methods. Some of the methods studied with the aim of improving learning of children with autism, were the study of major random learning behaviors by using more interior reinforcement. (One Step at a Time: ABA and Autism in the Classroom. Jennifer Krumins 2008. Pg. 16)

By the functional evaluation of the relation between the target behavior and environment, ABA methods could be used to change behaviors. (Mulick, James A (early 2006). "Positive Behavior Support and Applied Behavior Analysis". The Behavior Analyst 29 (1): 51–74. Retrieved January 12, 2013). Behavior modification is the traditional term for the use of empirically demonstrated behavior change techniques, to increase or decrease the frequency of behaviors through positive and negative reinforcement. Behavior modification supports positive behavior (PBS, a form of ABA). (Thompson, T. (1984). "The examining magistrate for nature: a retrospective review of Claude Bernard's An Introduction to the Study of Experimental Medicine". Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior 2 (41): 212–13).

While the ABA approach often achieves the child's compliance with its methods, the Miller Method treats the autistic child according to cognitive systems. By system we mean any organized behavior with an object or event that the child produces. Even "upsetting" behaviors—such as throwing or dropping things, opening and closing doors, or lining things up—are systems, although they do not seem to others to serve any particular function. We are interested in such behaviors because they are directed, are organized, and lead to some outcome—all parts of what we look for in functional behavior and in communication. If we can find a way to help the child modify or transform these repetitive action systems so that they become functional and interactive, then we have contributed to the child's development. Communication systems involve the integration of words and actions around objects in relation to another person. Symbolic systems involve the way in which a child organizes the relation between symbols and what they represent. (The Miller Method, Arnold Miller with Kristina Chrétien 2007. pg.23)

Dr. Robert Melillo assumes that the problem is brain dysfunction. "Fifty years ago, a hyperactive child was seen as a problem. Today, the deficit attention/hyperactive disorder, generally known as ADHD, is the most widely problem in children's world. In 1973, the concept "Disconnected Kids" is used to explain the symptoms of a so-called condition Alexia that is the inability to read. A functional disconnection does not come as a result of brain impairment. Brain zones, especially brain hemispheres, are not electrically balanced or synchronized. This electric imbalance interferes in the ability of both hemispheres to share information. This means that the brain can not work as an entire part. The Brain Balancing Program is based on a technique called the hemispheric integration therapy (HIT). First of all, a child was given several tests to evaluate his/her symptoms and functional skills so as to define the problematic hemisphere and its functioning. Moreover, several daily activities - sensory, physical and academic - were chosen for a direct impact on the problematic areas. At first, these activities were applied one at a time, to strengthen functional weaknesses and then, all of them were applied together to integrate large areas of the brain, especially both hemispheres, and to synchronize them." (Disconnected Kids. Dr. Robert Melillo. 2010. Fq. 210)

Although treatments were conceptualized and performed by corresponding specialists and therapists from genuine

schools, the level of these treatments` efficiency in children with ASDs is still ambiguous.

The semi-structured questions for the focus group refer to this trend: What kind of therapy did the child attend? What education did the therapist attend? Which principles is the treatment based upon? Who are the responsible people for individual therapy? What are the positive changes as a result of this treatment?

By the information given by the focus group it was stated that: in Albania it is performed mainly the developmental therapy. Sometimes they try to derive elements from ABA therapy or the Floortime approach. Therapists were not educated by a genuine school for the treatment of autistic children. They obtain a general psychological culture, or they have attended school subjects but not an oriented therapy according a certain philosophy. Parents are not introduced to the principles upon which the child treatment is based. In most cases repetition of the same activities until the child performs it is the methodology of work. From the parent point of view, that is hopeless. The therapist is the only person who works with the child, and consequently she/he is the head of the treatment and also responsible for it. Most of the parents had switched from one therapist to the other, without noticing any improvements on account of the individual treatment. Other parents had noticed that the child did the same activities with the therapist as with them or with the teacher in normal classrooms.

3. Early treatment and timing- as an important element of the development of children with ASDs

Those young children with autism that are fortunate enough to receive it, are trained in an intensive format (20-40 hours per week) by one or more trained therapists, supervised by Behavior Analysts and overseen by a behavioral psychologist. Early educational programs consist of the relation between cause and effect, development and attention and imitating skills. This early intervention, if it is done with the needed proficiency, paves the way for the child to learn more about the world and his/her country. The early intervention tries to treat these areas: the relation between cause and effect, concentration and imitating. Usually, infants use their senses to explore the environment, to experiment with people, toys and objects. This is the base of learning. Autistic children have not shown interest or capacity in this kind of exploration. They should learn how to understand and experiment. (One Step at a Time: ABA and Autism in the Classroom 2008 Jennifer Krumins. pg. 16-22)

Decades of research have shown that behavioral therapies for autism can improve cognitive and language skills. Still, it remained unclear whether behavioral interventions simply reduced autism's symptoms or actually "treated" the developmental disorder. In other words, could an effective behavioral intervention change the brain biology that underlies autism spectrum disorder? This year, researchers delivered compelling evidence that the Early Start Denver Model (ESDM), an intensive early intervention program for toddlers with autism, improves brain activity related to social responsiveness. The Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry published: "This may be the first demonstration that a behavioral intervention for autism is associated with changes in brain function as well as positive changes in behavior". This more-typical pattern of brain activity was associated with improved social behavior including improved eye contact and social communication. "The more you teach a child to become involved within the social interaction, the more it can lead to normal brain and behavioral development." (Dawson G, Jones EJ, Merkle K, et al. Early behavioral intervention is associated with normalized brain activity in young children with autism. 2012; 51(11):1150-9).

Could the early intervention in children with ASDs be performed in Albania? If yes, how?

Our focus group makes us clear that many of them have tried to perform the early intervention therapy, but they have come across several challenges. Firstly, we lack specialists which could give the correct evaluation of the specific diagnosis within the autism spectrum – according to which it can be planned the intervention. Secondly, the undertrained specialist executes the same scheme of intervention for all kids, without taking into account their specific skills. Thirdly, it seems like the need for therapy exceeds the capacity of institutions or therapists available, and consequently it is impossible to extend therapies more than one hour per day or week (referring to state institutions). Fourthly, it is difficult for the parent to afford more than one hour of therapy as the price is high. As mentioned above, it seems that the early intervention therapy is inefficient because of the way of performing and because of the inability to apply it in the needed timing.

4. Disorders` elements – difficult to be trained within educational environment

Disorders` elements such as: hyperactivity, lack of concentration, stereotypes, aggressiveness, self-aggressiveness and the inability to control ones emotions are some of the most difficult elements of to be treated or managed by the teacher

in normal classrooms.

“Most children do not feel their own bodies very well. They have no sense of themselves in space. They have poor or abnormal muscle tone, which is displayed through poor posture or an awkward gait. They are disconnected from their senses. Most children with disorders do not fully experience all five senses- sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell-which teach normal children to relate to and interact within the world. Many of these children cannot use more than one sense at a time. When they are forced to use multiple senses together, they become overwhelmed. They become easily distracted by anything they can see, hear, or feel, which make it impossible for them to focus. As a result, they become like slaves to their environment. They are socially and emotionally disconnected.” (Disconnected Kids. Dr. Robert Melillo. 2010. pg.20)

“While manifesting most of the problematic behaviors, could it be aggressive behavior, the child with ASDs does not intend to hurt others. On the other hand, these behaviors come as a result of the disability to take control of their emotions, including confusion, anger and anxiety. These behaviors must not be interpreted as malicious ones. Often, if they are depressed, it is difficult for children with ASDs to discipline ones emotions. So are they. That does not mean, “Do not stress the child”. That means that the child must be taught how to face to stress or keep calm. This would be the greatest present for him/her. Often, the stress factor in classrooms is one of these: language, social or school requirements are too high (or this might be the child’s perception); violation of expectations of the child, including frequent and unexpected changes of routine. The child with ASDs cannot withstand the noisy, messy or full of light environment, which seems nice and funny to normal children.” (Autism in your classroom. Deborah Fein, Ph. D & Michelle. Dunn, Ph. D 2007. pg. 284)

During interviews, teachers answered that they are not ready to enable the inclusion of children with ASDs in their classrooms, because they are not trained to analyze or intervene in them to manage behaviors of children with ASDs.

“Behaviors are really difficult to be managed if the staff does not have as much information as possible. The possibility to discuss the problems’ solution with the parents and professionals is done to get the opinion of people working with these children. Each person working directly with the child knows one part of the puzzle- every opinion put together creates the whole photo. The teacher needs the whole puzzle to become an effective educator.” (One Step at a Time: ABA and Autism in the Classroom 2008 Jennifer Krumins. pg. 23)

Difficulties of the inclusion of children with autism spectrum disorders in classrooms with normal children in Albania represent a challenge for parents and teachers. The only help seems to be the cooperation between teacher and parent. Open communication between them faces another conceptual barrier, as a result of lack of information or prejudice influence. According to the focus group of parents, the close link between parent and teacher, led the way to hopeful cases when children have achieved to attend the school environment. In absence of relevant structures that had the task to evaluate needs, make up individual plans and supervise children’s with ASDs performances, the cooperation is very important.

5. Teaching in pupils with Autism Spectrum Disorders.

How does autism impact on learning? Autism is a complex developmental disability that affects how an individual thinks, learns and experiences the world. All children with autism are different but they share difficulties in five core areas. These include: Communication, Social Interaction, Repetitive Behavior/Restricted Interests, Sensory Processing, and Information Processing/Learning Style. (<http://www.autismtraining.com>)

Team work is the right way to train children in school environment. The team of professionals that attends the autistic child during the treatment consists of: Behavior Analysts, Speech and Language, Therapists, Occupational Therapists, Teachers, SENCOs, Educational Psychologists. Each professional plays his own role for an effective treatment of autism. (UK ABA Autism Education Competence Framework November 2011 pg. 78)

Playing, as an important element for the emotional and social area, could be used as a means of help by the educator for the inclusion of pupils with ASDs. “Some children, for various reasons, do not have a natural approach to playing – and children with autism, among others, belong to this group. Children with autism find it difficult to interact socially with one another – and consequently they are often seen as children who cannot learn to play with others. But if the play is organized by grown-ups on the child’s terms, the children find a common platform where – through play – they can gain social experiences, which otherwise can be difficult for them to obtain.” (Autism, Play and Social Interaction Lone Gammeltoft and Marianne Sollok Nordenhof 2007 pg.10,)

According to teachers’ interviews it was stated that the teacher stands alone before the pupil with ASDs. In fact, there does not exist a real team to treat the child within the school environment. There is only one psychologist who has

to cover problems of tow thousand pupils, but who cannot contribute to the treatment of pupils with ASDs.

6. Involvement, inclusion or attendance!?

It is important to make it clear if the presence of children with ASDs within the school environment means that, he/she gets involved together with normal children by being part of educational activities; if he/she has been accepted as part of the group of normal children, or he/she is just present without getting involved within educational or other activities. This was one of the issues of discussion of the focus group.

From the data collected by the focus group of parents of children from 6 to 10 years old,- primary school age, (Table 1) – we notice that:

The overall No. of children	No. of kindergarten children	No. of preschool children	No. of first grade children, primary school
11 (6-10 years old)	7 (6-10 years old)	2 (8-9 years old)	2 (9-10 years old)

Table 1.

Parents thought that the term that best fitted their children was "Attendance". Attendance was the best opportunity offered to them.

Even teachers expressed that, in fact, children with ASDs, are just present, without trying to get involved in activities or perform learning tasks.

Referring to the Regional Educational Directory of Tirana, for the elementary cycle for the academic year 2012 - 2013(Table 2), we notice that:

The overall No. of pupils within the elementary cycle	23915	
No. of autistic pupils	61	0.2 %

Table 2.

If we notice the statistics in percentage, the results show that the percentage of autism prevalence among elementary school children is very low. But, how real is that?

If the percentage given in the table would show us the prevalence of autism within this age of children, autism dimensions then, would not be as worrying as they really are.

Even though this is a qualitative study, our focus group has answered this question. The majority of children with ASDs could not get involved within classrooms with normal children. Only two children with ASDs out of 11 could attend classrooms with normal children.

Why don't other children with ASDs attend educational environment? This is another question asked to the group of focus. Parents and teachers argue that behavioral disorders, especially: hyperactivity, lack of concentration, aggression, and stereotypes are symptoms that the teacher can not manage alone. Assistance is not offered and the parent is not allowed to assist his/her child because of the lack of legal basis.

7. Results of the exclusion of children with ASDs from educational environment.

What does it mean to live with autism? - it is another question for the focus group of parents. Parents range several problems which accompany the living with disorder, from the psychological shock when of parents when they notice abnormal signs of development, the hopeless diagnosis, facing the disorder every day, the inability to help the child with the right treatment to the exclusion from schooling, as the only one way to get closer to normality. The first years go by, hoping for a better treatment, or by thinking "he/she is still a little child, he/she will change". As the child need a person to accompany him/her or the impossibility to attend school, the mother, necessarily, becomes an unemployed person and the family faces big psychological and financial problems.

8. Results

According to data collected from the focus group of parents and from interviews with teachers can be stated that: The inclusion of children with autism spectrum disorders within the Albanian educational system faces several problems related to the problematic of the disorders and also faces the lack of the psycho-pedagogical infrastructure that is offered by the educational system.

Lack of early treatment and lack of efficient treatment during the following years of these children`s life, lead them unprepared toward primary school`s fundamental elements, that would help them understand and perform learning tasks and social relations.

The untrained teacher feels unable to treat the child with ASDs as a result of lack of information about the phenomenon and not knowing how to treat it. Moreover, the teacher faces alone to the disorders manifested by the child, without the assistance of a professional.

It seems like the problematic that affects even the family of the child with autism spectrum disorder is leading to a growing progression the number of people who suffer autism consequences.

Exclusion from school environment is the last alienation from reality for the child with ASDs and for his/her family.

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Barthelme's Vision of the Postmodern Society in His Short-Fiction

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Abstract

The paper examines short stories of the distinguished American postmodernist writer Donald Barthelme that make an assessment of the concept of the society by creating a world that reveals his vision of the society. Many of Barthelme's short-stories describe the social fabric that holds them together including the buying and selling of luxurious items, services, and even other human beings within an affluent, amoral social set, whose insatiable desire for travel, novelty, and escape also functions as a form of play. An appraisal of the world defined by the short stories "To London and Rome" "City Life", and "Perpetua" reveals Barthelme's vision of the contemporary postmodern society. Development of this theme in these individual stories in which it appears constitutes one of the Barthelme's achievements in literature.

Keywords: American Literature, Barthelme, short-fiction, vision of the society.

1. Object of Study and Literature Review

This paper will have at its main object of study the vision of the society in some of the short-stories of the American Post-Modernist writer Donald Barthelme (1931-1989). The short stories examines some his short stories which are considered in the context of the reflection of postmodernist society by attempting to shed light on this theme in the short fiction of this distinguished writer.

Barthelme's short stories were collected in *Come Back*, *Doctor Caligari* (1964), *Unspeakable Practises*, *Unnatural Acts* (1968), *City Life* (1970), *Sadness* (1972), *Amateurs* (1976), *Great Days* (1979), *Sixty Stories* (1981), *Overnight to Many Distant Cities* (1983), *Forty Stories* (1987), *The Teachings of Don B.* (posthumously in 1992) short-story collections that constitute the primary source of reference of this study.

In these collections he deals with consumerism (*To London and Rome*; *Concerning the Bodyguard*), politics (*Robert Kennedy Saved from Drowning*; *The President, Belief*), war (*A Picture of the History of the War*; *Engineer-Private Paul Klee*), fatherhood invoking a metaphor of power, the relationship between the past and present and past and present forms of art (*A Shower of Gold*; *The Agreement*) (McCaffery 1986: 267) and many other themes.

In this paper we focus on the theme of society as a theme that permeates many of his short stories and constitutes one of the most relevant achievements in literature. Although the short stories dealing with the social fabric of the modern life are numerous and include short-stories such as "To London and Rome", "I Bought a Little City", "The Captured Woman", "Will you tell me?" "Edward and Pia", "Moments of Waking and Sleeping", "Perpetua", "Critique de la vie Quotidienne", "The Party", "City Life", "The Indian Uprising", "Paraguay" etc.

A typical Barthelme story shatters what Wayne Stengel (Stengel 1985:20), calls "the morass of modern life," salvages the pieces, and regroups them in ways that may entertain and promote critical reflection on their origin. This paper has as its object of study only three of them, considered as the most representative:

1. "To London and Rome" included in the short story collection, *Come Back*, Dr. Caligari. Boston 1964.
2. "Perpetua", part of the short-story collection *Sadness*. New York, 1972.
3. "City Life" in Barthelme's collection, *Sixty Stories*. New York: Penguin, 1993.

An appraisal of the world defined by these short stories reveals Barthelme's vision of the contemporary postmodern society.

2. The horror coming from the hollowness of the society

To London and Rome describes two protagonists, Peter and Alison, a married couple, who try to evade the sterility of their relationship by using money to place themselves above their boredom and inability to communicate. Their

ludicrously hedonistic lives thus form a social orbit of their own devising. Such play suggests activities commonly associated with a child's play: ceaseless restlessness and a desire for new pursuits and simulations to avert boredom. Barthelme envisions a marriage whose partners base all their social actions on this concept of play. Peter and Alison, physical adults but emotional children, play with life by buying their way through it. Money fuels and propels their lives; it supplies the means by which they entertain themselves, avoid monotony, and remain insulated from the silences that engulf their relationship. (Stengel 1985:159)

The society depicted in *To London and Rome*, included in *Come Back Dr, Kaligari* (1964) parodies the flatness and terror of Harold Pinter's theater of menace and presents a thoroughly a debased world. "To London and Rome" becomes a morality tale because of its total lack of moral and humane concerns. The Necchi sewing machine that its protagonist buys his wife and Rolls Royce that he uses to impress his mistress both have more life and more motivation than any of this story's characters. "To London and Rome" forms a rigorously mechanistic society, which manufactures perfect models of its world's nightmarish imperfections. In this society the myth of acquisition as fulfillment has made purchase a device for momentary release from other desires. "To London and Rome" serves as an apt title for a society constantly in motion, searching for stimulation that can always be bought but seemingly never enjoyed.

The technique of *To London and Rome* gives the story a consistently imaginative sense of humor and play. Barthelme tells the story in a series of unpunctuated dialogues between Peter, Alison and their assorted serfs and underlings. In a narrow column running down the left-hand margin of the page, he inserts playwrights' directions which tell the reader either how to interpret a particular conversation or what occurs before or after the current speaker's comment. These marginalia sometimes constitute responses to the conversations. In this left-hand column, Barthelme prints all the long, short, frightened, or comic silences preceding and following conversations that make *To London and Rome* a parody of Pinteresque theater of absurd.

The materials of *To London and Rome* have conscious affinities with the emotionally sparse, laconic worlds of Pinter and Samuel Beckett, even though those writers often deal with the impoverished and the dispossessed, whereas Barthelme's subjects more frequently are affluent and the overindulged. But though these writers instill their vision of the society in their techniques, their styles reflecting a tense, anguished world, Barthelme makes his material self-consciously thin and then superimposes on it a prosaic vernacular style.

Barthelme's technical approach to the story consciously raises the question: if growing numbers of individuals form their only links with society or make their only connections with other human beings by buying and selling, how does innovative literature convey this reality without appearing to be simply refurbished absurdist drama? The column down the left-hand side of the page in *To London and Rome* forms a dialogue with the story proper and answers this question. In reasserting that the silences between the empty prattle represent actual silences, that these fictional people have countless vacuous counterparts in reality, the story recognizes that this society's decline taxes the descriptive powers of language. The story accomplishes a difficult task with a technique that consistently playfully amuses.

The hollowness of this society, its incessant urge to play, and the relationship between these qualities are mirrored in the story's humorous silences and pauses in its opening paragraphs. In *To London and Rome* Barthelme creates a world so uniformly one-dimensional that any single detail becomes as important as any other. The story becomes absurdist theater in prose and creates a vision of society as lifeless as much absurdist drama. Whatever values Peter's world contains, it lacks a sense of morality. Therefore danger exists in misreading *To London and Rome* and other technically innovative Barthelme society stories. These tales do not function merely as popular explorations of contemporary cultures that refuse to judge their findings.

In the visually and typographically interesting story *To London and Rome* Barthelme places the "narrative" on the right side of the page and a gloss on the left. "To London..." is a satire on contemporary marriage, about people who accumulate things to assure themselves they are alive. Their purchases, starting with a Necchi sewing machine and including a mistress, a big house, a piano, a Rolls Royce, a race horse, and finally a hospital that treats horses and Viscout jets, is an exercise in pataphysics. The story, in addition, is filled with "pauses" in the gloss which, unlike Pinter's famous pauses (which are always a mask for terror beneath), emphasize the empty silence of the typically respectable, affluent couple, and they, the pauses, are really the subject of the story. The horror we feel in reading this comes from our locating meaning only in the lines and pauses, in the absence of anything beneath. (Lois Gordon 1985:58)

Barthelme's initial efforts to redesign plot's architecture with spatial patterns are sometimes labored and self-conscious. An early collage experiment, *To London and Rome* renders plot into simultaneous narratives. Claiming almost three fourth of each page's textual space, the story proper catalogs Peter and Alison's obsessive purchasing and jokes toward a conclusion as rapidly as Peter can write checks. Conversely, in the page's narrow left-hand columns idle all the pauses, intervals, and silences that might delay the contrived plot. Frustrating the reader's habitual left-to-right march

across the page, the story generates horizontal, vertical, and diagonal cross-references. (Barbara L. Roe 1992:31).

Shortly after Alison and Peter buy a concert grand piano in the story proper, for instance, they discuss calling a piano instructor, learn they are overdrawn at the bank, and then leave for breakfast. Peter also ignores Alison's come hither-look. In the left-hand column, however, lurk a silence thick with sex, the couple's interlude in bed, and phone calls ordering a piano teacher and a piano tuner. If the reader disregards the narrative on the left to follow the predominant story, he misses not only the sex scene, but also the phone calls (Alison and Peter miss out as well). Consequently, when two mysterious strangers later appear unannounced in the living room on the right, the reader must back-track, take a diagonal leap to the left-hand margin, and mentally collate his findings in order to verify the intruder's identities.

With such heavy-handed, comic disruptions, Barthelme offers several possibilities for superimposing the alternative stories, but the process suffers limits, since, "To London and Rome" still relies on plot to mesh its narrative parts. A tire various yokes, belts, or shackles a goat. We note the anomaly and pass on. Certainly, more provocative displacements occur when Barthelme minimizes linear sequence to diddle verb tense, tone, speech patterns, and point of view. As he refines these prismatic designs, he borrows other artist's advantages too. (Barbara L. Roe 1992:31.)

This story is tour de force in linguistic virtuosity, where, although syntax and sentence structure remain traditional, meaning is continuously challenged and widened by juxtapositions of odd, banal, literary, or technical diction; at other points, ordinary language is violated by bizarre and fragmented action. Space and time maybe dislocated to reinforce the distortions of traditional language or narrative pattern. Identities merge; banality and horror are interchangeable; everything is equally meaningful and hence meaningless. Specifically, everyone is everyone's else's lover, child, threat and even nemesis. (Lois Gordon 1985:40)

3. The chaotic contemporary city

The story *Perpetua*, follows the exploits of a woman who attempts to make a society in her own image but finds instead a modern urban world composed of hundreds of thousands of individuals just like herself. Perpetua asks how spontaneity or individuality can ever survive in a society that automatically processes and merchandises those traits. The story focuses on the contemporary chaotic city as a place of refugee for its protagonist, who suddenly becomes bored with the routine and monotony of conventional married life. Quickly fascinated by the self-consciously new or distinctive, Perpetua enters the contemporary city, a world that reflects the transience of the modern life.

Attempting escape, distraction, and a surrogate existence, she constantly dresses her old self in instantly dated fashions. Moreover, the story implies that the trash formed from yesterday's refuse has taken on a life and value of its own, which society does not understand and cannot completely control. The voguishness of the city reduces much human activity to mere imitation. Perpetua, now living alone equates like Ramona and Elsa in "City Life" oiling her trumpet with finding a lover. A consumer who has bought the sell that the variety is the spice of life, i.e., one must have a post-divorce fling-she says: "Now I must obtain a lover...Perhaps more than one. One for Monday. One for Tuesday. One for Wednesday."

Although to the reader, her life is one would not call uneventful, to Perpetua nothing has the least consequence, she plays the trumpet with the New World Symphony, smokes dope with a bassoon player, discusses art and revolution, and sleeps with a variety of men, after "cruising around" to find them. She remains isolated from her son, who calls her only for money and really prefers the company of his snake collection. At Christmas she visits her mother, who this year will be cooking "the eighty seventh turkey of her life." Harold, her ex-husband, watches television, visits his son in boarding school, and devotes himself to tracking down some model (in fact, a friend of Perpetua's) who posed nude for a girlie magazine. The bleakness of their prospects is reminiscent of "Critique" underscored by the muted dialogue at the conclusion when they meet once again: "I just want to ask you one question," Harold said. "Are you happier now then you were ever before?" "Sure," Perpetua said. (Lois Gordon 1985:126)

This city is a labyrinth full of cul-de-sacs and unmarked doors from which professional eccentrics emerge. All its social relationships have a random and coincidental quality. Its citizens meet. Make love, and part as casually as pedestrians jostle one another in its streets at rush hour. These people seem like cardboard cutouts rather than three dimensional human beings, and their affairs and experiences can only be lifeless and brittle. By duplicating the gestures and styles of all those around her, Perpetua fails to realize that originality cannot be reproduced. Her story develops as a repetitive fable, which demonstrates that a satisfying society must be created from the ground up. Using the rubbish of her new world to escape the debris of her past, Perpetua quickly becomes trapped in the city's fads and clichés.

4. Searching a human vision in an inhumane civilization

The title of the story "City Life" sketches the humdrum existence of Ramona and Elsa, who have just moved into an apartment. Once again, everything in their world is equally significant-career, sexual partner, where to hang curtains and place the phone book. That life has lost its priorities is epitomized in Ramona's explanation of her Immaculate Conception pregnancy- a result, it would appear, of the subhuman isolation of urban life, if not the existential conditions. The Virgin Ramona has been impregnated by the indifference, absurdity, and sludge of the modern life. (Barbara L. Roe 1992:31.)

By contrast, "City Life" evolving through an investigation of the creative process, shows how creativity and the individual human imagination can be sharpened by constant contact with an urban environment. Ramona, a New Yorker and the protagonist of the story, gives birth to a child she fully believes has been conceived without sexual intercourse. The popular rock singer Moonbelly writes a song to commemorate his birth, entitled "Cities are Centers of Copulation." After Moonbelly receives a gold record for selling a million copies of the song, Ramona imagines channeling the collective energy of the New York City so that all nine million residents would refuse to pay their inflated electricity bills.

In this eccentric manner, "City Life" records the interrelationships between the individual human consciousness and the artistic process, which the city as a high voltage charge inspiring both qualities. Unlike Perpetua, Ramona finds a place where she can accept diverse lives. For Ramona, the city as a society becomes an enormous field of energy. She interprets her creative responsibility as finding a means of focusing this energy to influence artistic potential in those around her. Through her artistry and Moonbelly's she discovers that her urban society functions as a vast collage of possibilities for the creation of everything from pop art to her highly suspect announcement of a second virgin birth. In the endless, claustrophobic clash of citizen with citizen in this society, a huge array of signs, sign language, and sign systems undergoes continual transformation.

Naturally, this society has dangers. When its signs overwhelm their human receptors, the city becomes a jungle. The individual creative consciousness must control or regulate these signs or they will control the individual. At its most philosophical, "City Life" denies that city, as such, exists. The city, Ramona contends represents nothing more than the conscious attitudes of all its residents toward it. Thus Ramona finds the city the ideal place for the consciousness to create art. The art can host the eternal, imaginative tension between the men and the women, tradition and originality, rage and vitality, form and content.

"City Life" accomplishes what none of the other society stories mentioned above does. It imagines a livable world and then offers the ingredients from which an artistic sensibility might compose such a society. It presents a theory not only of society but of art and creativity as well. The story contends that though art rises from the tensions between an urban society and its residents, the role of the artist is ultimately to shape her own art and her own imaginative world. Though art presumes an affinity of feeling between the creator and audience, the canny artist shapes the rules and expectations by which her imagined society lives so that her public experiences the social vision she wishes to evoke. Reciprocally, the greatest art may even change the society it attempts to reflect.

Accordingly, Barthelme's art comprises both affirmations of Moonbelly's "Cities are Centers of Copulation" and Ramona's belief that her child was conceived without sexual contact. Yet because his art remains strongly committed to the integrity of his individual human consciousness, however original or perverse his views, it must frequently be at odds with the society.(Wayne Stengel 1985:162)

5. Conclusions

Barthelme's art has a moral function beyond specific social concerns. Above all, his art stands beyond empirical knowledge. Containing mystical or intuitive elements, his artistic process can be telepathic. Thus, Barthelme's concept of society rests in the eye and the consciousness of his artists. Not only in "City Life" but in "To London and Rome," and "Perpetua," the artist are individuals who attempt to create a society in their own images. Only in "City Life" however, does Barthelme create a society in which his protagonist can live happily while aiding, and not manipulating, her fellow human beings. *City Life* questions whether any artist can create and affirm a human vision from the garbage of a trashed civilization. It leaves the solution to the spirited consciousness of a maverick like Ramona in "City life." Therefore, of all the stories analyzed in this paper, only "City Life" offers hope from the creation of a productive, energized society.

The characters of these stories seem emotionless, fickle men and women attempting to escape the knowledge of their own wasteland while simultaneously fascinated with its debris these people are in flight from themselves. From the voracious society of these stories take the reader to more cities and locations around the globe but again depicts modern

society as restless, self-obsessed and confused in the horror coming from the hollowness of the society, the chaos of the contemporary city and the search of a human vision in a inhumane civilization.

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Tolerance Types and Features of Intercultural Adaptation in International Students

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Abstract

The paper presents the results of a study of the types of tolerance in correlation with the features of intercultural adaptation of the international students from different parts of the world. A total of 329 respondents took part in the research, including 175 young men and 154 women from five parts of the world: Latin America, Asia, the Arab Countries, Africa, and the Central Asian region. All the respondents were the first, second and third year students of the various departments of a multinational university. The level of tolerance was measured with the help of the express-questionnaire "The Index of Tolerance" by G.U.Soldatova, O.A.Kravtsova, O.Ye.Khukhlaev, L.A.Shajgerova. The Questionnaire of the adaptation of a person to the new socio-cultural environment (APSCE) by L.V.Yankovsky, in T.G.Stefanenko and M.S.Panov's modified version, was used to define the features of intercultural adaptation of the international students. Using the factor and cluster analysis, we identified four types of tolerance among the international students: "Real tolerant", "Tolerant in ethnic relations", "Tolerant in social communications", "Intolerant" students. The types of tolerance are related to the features of intercultural adaptation of the international students. The most significant difference is between the intercultural adaptation indicators of the "real tolerant" students and the students tolerant in social communication.

Keywords: tolerance, types of tolerance, intercultural adaptation, international students, multinational university.

1. Introduction

In Russian psychology the problems of intercultural adaptation have been actively studied only since the late twentieth century. Russian psychologists have studied the external (social) and internal (psychological) factors of adaptation of migrants and visitors (Stefanenko, 2009). In this case, Russian colleagues are using the great experience the Western psychologists have (H. Tajfel, O. Klineberg, H. Triandis, D. Berry, K. Ward, S. Bochner etc).

In the twenty-first century the academic mobility of students is growing all over the world including Russia. So the study of various factors of intercultural adaptation of international students is relevant. The study of this problem has a special importance for a multinational university such as the Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (PFUR). The PFUR, established in 1961, is a unique multinational university in which the representatives of about 140 countries of the world are trained. The mission of the PFUR is to unite people of different nationalities, races, and religious beliefs with the help of knowledge, and also to educate youth capable of working successfully in any country of the world. The team at the PFUR center for personality studies has conducted a number of basic and applied studies on ethnic characteristics and personality traits, cross-cultural communication and adaptation (Kovalenko etc, 2009). The scientists of the PFUR have also carried out a series of studies on problems of intercultural adaptation of students from Asia, Africa, South America, the Near and Middle East, and the former Soviet countries (Central Asia countries). In this research they have emphasized the role of such characteristics as the region, where the student comes from, the gender, the year of learning, emotional and social intelligence, ethnic identity, values, cultural distance, tolerance, hardiness, coping strategies, etc (Chebotareva, 2011; Maslova, 2011; Novikova, 2010 etc).

One of the most important factors of the intercultural communication and adaptation is tolerance.

In the modern Western psychology tolerance is considered from different points of view (Ibadova, 2011):

- as the value of personality, which creates the basis for peaceful coexistence in society, groups and individuals who have different views and lifestyles;
- as the attitude, which is the acceptance of the rights of other peoples to behave and think in a different from their own way. This attitude is based on sympathy and similarities, and increases the level of acceptance of originality;
- as a personality trait (personality disposition), which is associated with the Big Five personality traits

(Openness to Experience and Agreeableness).

In recent years the problem of tolerance has been thoroughly studied by the Russian scientists (not only the psychologists but the educators, linguists, sociologists, political scientists and others). Tolerance is considered in a wide range – from neuro and psychic stability to the moral imperative of personality: “Tolerance is an integral characteristic of the individual, which determines its ability in problem situations to interact with the environment with the purpose to restore its neuro-psychic balance, successful adaptation, conflict prevention and development of positive relationships with themselves and with the outside world” (Soldatova, Shaigerova, 2008, p. 9). Russian psychologists are studying different kinds of tolerance, for example, ethnic, social, communicative, and others (Soldatova, Shaigerova, 2008).

In our study, we examined tolerance as a personality trait (personality disposition).

Personality traits are significant predictors of social behavior that determine the 5 to 50% of the dispersion (Furnham, Heaven, 1999).

For example, the studies using the Five-Factor Model of Personality show that Extraversion and Openness to new experience are the predictors of a better adaptation to the new ethnic and cultural environment (Hannigan, 1990; Lievens, Harris, Van Keer, Bisqueret, 2003; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1986 etc).

Since 2007 we have been studying tolerance in the Russian and international students of the multinational University (PFUR).

For example, we compared the tolerance level of the international students from different regions of the world and revealed correlations between the parameters of tolerance and intercultural adaptation (Novikova, 2011). Firstly, it was found that, in general, the international students from all the studied regions showed medium levels of tolerance. Although Arab students showed relatively lower levels of ethnic and social tolerance, African students showed similar attitudes (especially toward interethnic relations), while the students from South America and China showed relatively higher levels of tolerance. Students from the Central Asian Region showed the highest levels of ethnic and social tolerance. Secondly, drawing from the results of the correlation and factor analysis it was concluded that the tolerance level is associated positively with the efficiency of the intercultural adaptation (especially for students from Africa, the Arab countries and South America), but it is necessary to pay attention to certain specificity of the relations of the studied parameters in the subgroup of the Chinese students, and also to consider that it is necessary to reveal factors, more closely, than the tolerance, is connected with parameters of adaptation in a subgroup of students from Central Asia (Novikova, 2011).

Also, we found out that there are four main groups of the Russian students of the PFUR with different types of tolerance:

- “intolerant” students have the lowest level of all the components of tolerance;
- “moderately tolerant” students have an average level of all the components of tolerance;
- “selectively tolerant” students have the dominance of the general and communicative tolerance over the ethnic and social tolerance;
- “real tolerant” students have the highest level of all the components of tolerance (Kovalenko et al, 2009).

In this paper we present a study of the tolerance types in the international students in correlation with the features of their intercultural adaptation.

The purpose of the study was:

1. to determine the types of tolerance in the international students from different parts of the world;
2. to reveal the relationship type of tolerance and the features of the intercultural adaptation of the international students from different parts of the world.

2. Method

In our research the level of tolerance was measured with the questionnaire “The Index of Tolerance” by G.U.Soldatova, O.A.Kravtsova, O.Ye.Khukhlaev, L.A.Shajgerova (Soldatova, Shaigerova, 2008). This technique consists of three scales: ethnical tolerance, social tolerance, personality tolerance:

- the Ethnic tolerance scale reflects a person’s attitude towards the representatives of the other ethnic groups;
- the Social tolerance scale reflects a person’s attitude to various minorities, criminals, refugees, etc.;
- the Personality Tolerance scale reflects a person’s tolerant or intolerant attitude to the world as a whole (for example, tolerance to the dispute, tolerance for another point of view, the calm attitude toward disorder).

The Questionnaire of adaptation of the person to the new socio-cultural environment (APSCE) by L.V.Yankovsky, in T.G.Stefanenko, M.S.Panov’s modified version was used to define the features of **intercultural adaptation** of the

international students. This Questionnaire includes six scales:

- the Contentment scale reflects the degree of personal satisfaction, feelings of social and physical security, a sense of belonging to a new society and the level of activity in the new environment;
- the Interactivity scale reflects the degree of disposition to the expansion of social relations in the new society, focusing on the cooperation with the others and following the social norms;
- the Conformity scale reflects the degree of the orientation on social approval, depending on the group, the need for affection and emotional relationships with people;
- the Depression scale reflects the level of helplessness in the face of life difficulties, feelings of hopelessness, doubt, anxiety, depression, emptiness, isolation;
- the Nostalgia scale reflects the degree of internal disorder caused by the separateness of traditional values and norms, and a sense of dreamy, anguish, melancholy;
- the Alienation scale reflects the level of rejection of the new society, claims of inconsistency and real opportunities, feelings of loneliness, impatience, helplessness.

The first three scales (*contentment*, *interactivity*, *conformity*) correspond to rather “positive” intercultural adaptation indicators, and the last three scales (*depression*, *nostalgia*, *alienation*) indicate certain adaptation problems. But our research showed that *nostalgia* is highly manifested in most international students and its level is positively related to the positive adaptation parameters (Chebotareva, 2011; Maslova, 2011; Novikova, 2010 etc).

The factor analysis, cluster analysis, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA), and Kruskal-Wallis test were used for processing the data.

A total of 329 respondents took part in the research, including 175 young men and 154 women (fig. 1) from the five parts of the world: Latin America, Asia (China), the Arab Countries (the countries of the Near and Middle East), Africa, and the countries of the Central Asian region (former Soviet republics). All the respondents were the first, second and third year students of various departments of the PFUR.

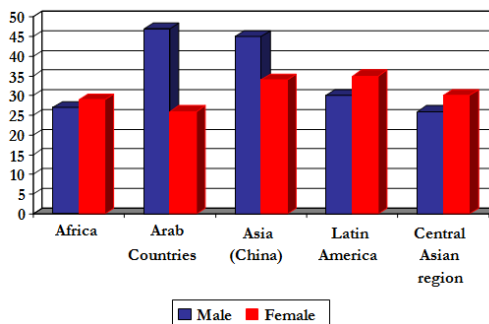


Figure 1. Quantitative composition of the sample by region of the world

3. Results

At the first stages of the study we have identified four tolerance types of the international students via cluster analysis. We conventionally named the selected group as “Real tolerant”, “Tolerant in ethnic relations”, “Tolerant in social communications”, “Intolerant” students (tab. 1, fig. 2).

Fig. 1 shows that the “Real tolerant” students have higher indicators for all components of tolerance; the “Tolerant in ethnic relations” students have high levels of the ethnic and personality tolerance and the low level of social tolerance; the “Tolerant in social communications” students have a high level of social tolerance, an average level of personality tolerance and a low level of ethnic tolerance; the “Intolerant” students have the lowest indicators for all the components of tolerance.

Table 1. Results of cluster analysis

Components of tolerance	Types of tolerance			
	"Intolerant" (n=42)	"Selectively tolerant"		"Real tolerant" (n=82)
		"Tolerant in social communications" (n=119)	"Tolerant in ethnic relations" (n=86)	
Ethnic tolerance	2,73	3,29	4,31	4,79
Personality tolerance	2,37	3,53	3,81	4,03
Social tolerance	2,32	3,92	2,87	4,15

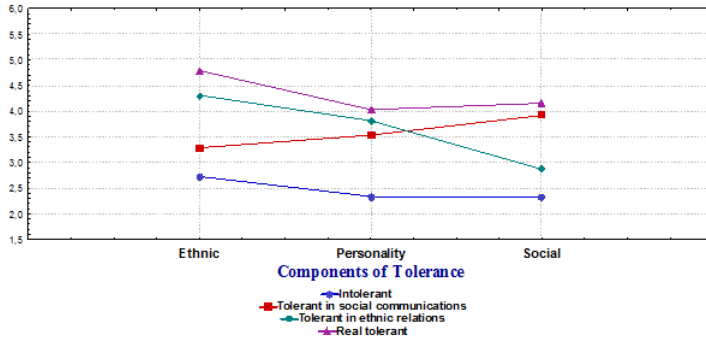


Figure 2. Types of Tolerance

Table 2 shows the distribution across clusters of students from different regions. It is interesting that the group of "Intolerant" students includes the highest number of the representatives of Latin America and China.

Table 2. Distribution across clusters of the students from different regions

Types of tolerance	Frequency analysis	Latin America	China	Central Asia	Arabian countries	Africa
Intolerant (n=42)	Frequency	15	16	4	3	4
	Expected frequency	8,3	10,1	7,1	9,3	7,1
	% in 1 cluster	35,7%	38,1%	9,5%	7,1%	9,5%
	% of the region	23,1%	20,3%	7,1%	4,1%	7,1%
Tolerant in social communications (n=119)	Frequency	19	27	17	35	21
	Expected frequency	23,5	28,6	20,3	26,4	20,3
	% in 2 cluster	16,0%	22,7%	14,3%	29,4%	17,6%
	% of the region	29,2%	34,2%	30,4%	47,9%	37,5%
Tolerant in ethnic relations (n=86)	Frequency	18	25	14	17	12
	Expected frequency	17,0	20,7	14,6	19,1	14,6
	% in 3 cluster	20,9%	29,1%	16,3%	19,8%	14,0%
	% of the region	27,7%	31,6%	25,0%	23,3%	21,4%
Real tolerant (n=82)	Frequency	13	11	21	18	19
	Expected frequency	16,2	19,7	14,0	18,2	14,0
	% in 4 cluster	15,9%	13,4%	25,6%	22,0%	23,2%
	% of the region	20,0%	13,9%	37,5%	24,7%	33,9%

The representatives of the Arab countries dominated in the group of “Tolerant in social communications student”. The small predominance of the representatives of China is in the group of the “Tolerant in ethnic relations” students. And the students from Central Asia relatively predominate in the group of the “Real tolerant” students.

At the second stage of the study we compared the types of tolerance with the features of intercultural adaptation of the international students from different regions (tab. 3).

Table 3 shows that the most significant difference is between the intercultural adaptation indicators of the real tolerant students and the students which are tolerant in social communication.

Table 3. Relations of the types of tolerance with the features of intercultural adaptation

Intercultural adaptation parameters	Types of tolerance			
	1. “Intolerant”	2. “Tolerant in social communications”	3. “Tolerant in ethnic relations”	4. “Real tolerant”
Contentment	4,62	4,30 ₄	4,59	5,27 ₂
Interactivity	5,67 ₂	4,30 ₁₄	5,09	5,13 ₂
Conformity	5,29	4,48 ₄	5,33	6,09 ₂
Depression	4,21 ₄	3,37	3,33	2,94 ₁
Nostalgia	4,57	4,16 ₃₄	4,97 ₂	5,30 ₂
Alienation	3,95 ₂₄	2,76 ₁	3,09	2,49 ₂

Note: Subscripts are the numbers of the clusters between which there is a significant difference (Kruskal-Wallis test).

Table 3 also shows that the tolerant students have high rates of positive parameters of the intercultural adaptation and the lowest indicators of the depression and alienation .The students, who are tolerant in social communications, have low rates of positive adaptation parameters, but at the same time low indicators of the depression and alienation. The students, who are tolerant in the ethnic relations, have average indicators of the majority of intercultural adaptation parameters both positive and negative. An interesting fact is that the intolerant students have average or even high levels of positive adaptation parameters, but at the same time high levels of the depression and alienation.

4. Discussion

Thus, the results allowed us to give the general characteristics of students with different types of tolerance.

The smallest group of intolerant students includes 49 people (12.8% of the sample). The students from Latin America and China dominated in this group. These students have the lowest rates of social, ethnic, and personality tolerance. They have ambivalent indicators of intercultural adaptation. On the one hand, they are satisfied with their adaptation to a foreign country, ready to interact with the new environment, and they do not feel a strong nostalgia for their homeland. On the other hand, their adaptation is difficult because of the strong feelings of doubt, anxiety, depression, emptiness, isolation, helplessness.

The group of students who are tolerant in social communication, is the largest, it includes 119 people (36.2% of the sample).The students from the Arab countries relatively predominate in this group. The members of this group show more tolerance in social communication than in interethnic relations. They are not very satisfied with their adaptation to a foreign country, they do not seek to be included in the new environment, but they do not have a strong nostalgia, anxiety or helplessness.

The group of students who are tolerant in the ethnic relations includes 86 students (26.1% of the sample). The students from China relatively predominate in this group. They show more tolerance in interethnic relations than in social communication. They do not have many problems with adapting to a new culture.

The group, which we call “really tolerant” students, includes 82 persons (24.9% of the sample). They have both the highest rates of all the components of tolerance, and the most harmonious character of cross-cultural adaptation. The high rates of nostalgia of these students do not prevent their adaptation to the new culture.

5. Conclusions

Summing up the results of the study, it can be concluded that:

1. the four typical variants of tolerance in the international students have been exposed;

2. the types of tolerance are related with features of intercultural adaptation of the international students

These data confirm the findings of the previous studies that tolerance is an important factor in the intercultural adaptation. The obtained data should be used in the trainings on intercultural communication and adaptation of the international students.

6. Acknowledgement

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Duality and the Importance of Dual Treatments' Inclusion in Teaching

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Abstract

Mathematics lies at the root of duality. In the category of essential meanings of mathematics there are many meanings that coexist in their dual plane. We think that some deficiencies still exist in the teaching process particularly in the way the teacher transmits this knowledge to the students. Aiming to help the teachers to give in an accurate manner the mathematical knowledge we have built a new model in learning and teaching, which includes dual treatments in elementary education. In this paper are described some deficiencies during mathematics' teaching and their elimination through implementation of dual treatments in teaching. The results from implementation of dual treatments in teaching are evaluated from the statistic analysis. ANCOVA and t-test were employed to determine that: 1) Experimental group versus control had significant difference in successful thinking in mathematics; and 2) Male versus female had not significant difference in successful thinking.

Keywords: elementary education, duality, dual treatments, teaching, successful thinking

1. Introduction

In 1990 Albania transitioned from a totalitarian state into a democratic system and the country entered to a new social, political and economical status, therefore these two facts created the possibility for the gradual realization of reformative processes. In the education the reforms included the legislative-administrative management, curriculums and the professional competence. The interaction of the Institute of Pedagogical Studies with some Organizations, Foundations (UNICEF; SOROS; UNESCO) and some foreign experts made possible the application of some projects in the function of a new conception of the entire educational system. The first project that was applied in the field of Albanian education was RIEDEA (Intensive Reform of Teachers and Educators in Albania). It began in November 1992 and was supported technically and financially by UNICEF. The methodical models presented in this project by Baçi (1995), Mialaret (1995), Muka (1995), Orlich et al. (1995), Sadger and Sadger (1995), Simeoni (1995), Xhanari (1995) guided the work of Albanian experts about the restructuring of curricula based on Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956) in order to realize teaching objectives. After RIEDEA, in Albania started AEDP (Albanian Education Development Project) (1995), followed in 1997 by "The Development of Critical Thinking through Reading and Writing" project, created and guided by International RWCT (Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking) Consortium. The project had the aim to bring in the class teaching methods which encourage the development of creative and critical thinking in all the subjects between the students of all ages (Antologji, 1998). The translations in Albanian language of Fisher (1995), Unrau (1997), Entwistle (1988), the publications Steele et al. (2000a,b,c,d,e,f), Temple et al. (2006), and also the models of Mita (1999), Musai et al. (2001) about the development of critical thinking in different subjects, brought new teaching experiences. Today the vision of Albanian education is the guarantee of an educational national contemporary system, which stimulates the development of economical stability, increases the competition and consolidates democracy (Ministry of Education and Science, 2009). The initiation of the countries of UE, "The little ones in change" as part of Europe's Strategies 2020 (Communication from the Commission, 2011) has been implemented also in Albanian education. Roles, aims and functions of educational institutions have changed significantly. School curriculum is now reformed completely and teaching environments are turning into contemporary ones. Nowadays, there is a growing request for teachers to answer the structure and the content of the new curriculum with much more comprehensive

strategy (see Gjini, 2004; Gjoci, 2008; 2009a,b,c; Gjokutaj et al., 2005; Kërënxi & Gjoci, 2008; Llambiri, 2007; Musai, 2003; 2005a,b,c; 2009). Annual analysis report of Regional Education Office - Elbasan (2011) noted that the most used methods by primary school teachers were student-centered ones (67.45%). Over 20% of teachers use two or three combined methods. Most used student-centered methods are those for the development of critical and creative thinking (57.09%). On the other hand the conclusions of the conducted survey by Rama (2011) express the high interest of teachers to new teaching strategies. The results show that 85% of surveyed teachers preferred new teaching methods and strategies, versus 15% who still tend to use traditional methods. There are teachers who give more importance to the textbook compared to those among teachers who prefer traditional methods. This learning method where the aim is explanation and not learning is considered as the text-centered teaching (Llambiri, 2007).

We can mention an episode described by Llambiri (2007): A test was done in mathematics with students who had just started the fifth grade on behalf of the project "Secret Abandonment"¹. One of the problems of the test was: five kilograms of oranges cost 400 ALL. What is the price of oranges? Surprisingly only 30% of students answered correctly. When teachers were asked why the score was so low, they justified it in this way: In the text this problem is not formulated as in the test. If the request would be directed otherwise, for example, -how much does 1 kg of oranges cost? Then there would be more students to answer correctly. Then Llambiri continues: As I was describing to an Australian colleague the text-centered teaching he smiled and said to me: even in Australia there are a lot of text-centered teachers. In fact, in pedagogical foreign literature, often you can find claims that teachers sometimes forget the student and are more interested in the subject (Llambiri, 2007, p. 27).

I mentioned this episode in order to understand the importance of implementation of dual treatments, which makes possible that similar cases to the one mentioned by Llambiri to be minimized. In this paper we describe the results of the study conducted during 2009-2010 academic year for the effect of teaching through dual treatments. In the study were included the students of two 9-years schools of Elbasan city, in Albania.

2. Effect of dual treatments in successful thinking

Purpose of the study was to take information about the effect of teaching through dual treatments in successful thinking. The hypotheses which were tested:

Ho1: Teaching through dual treatments will not have significant differences according to groups (experimental and control), in successful thinking.

Ho2: Teaching through dual treatments will not have significant differences according to gender, in successful thinking.

3. Method

3.1 Participants and instruments

The participants of the study were 53 students (24 females, 29 males), 6-7 years old, of the first grade of elementary education. They were separated in two study groups: experimental group (27 students, 14M, 13F) and control group (26 students, 15M, 11F). In the experimental group the teaching through dual treatments during teaching of mathematics was implemented whereas, and in the control group was used the traditional teaching method. The teachers, who taught in these classes, had a college degree, with a relatively long teaching experience (more than 20 years of teaching) with the same level of qualification. The teachers implemented the curricula in these classes approved by the Ministry of Education and Science for the school year 2009-2010. Teaching of mathematics was carried out using the textbook "Matematika 1" by Dedej, et.al., (2009).

Pre-test/post-test of quasi-experimental design with experimental group and control group was used in the study to evaluate the influence of dual treatments in successful thinking. Both groups were tested before and after treatment. As pre-test has been used the test which was done in the first week in the first semester to measure mathematics achievements, while post-test was developed in the end of May. A fourth-level scale was conducted to measure successful thinking. Eight categories (39 issues) were combined at four levels, that would classify as: Level 1 - comprehension, Level 2 - application, Level 3 - evaluation, and Level 4 – critical and creative thinking. The distribution of

¹ This project was implemented during the period 2003-2005 from the consortium "The Development of Education", together with Regional Education Office of five districts of Albania and was supported by UNICEF.

eight categories according to four levels and description of students' activities is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Evaluation of outcomes for successful thinking

Level	Categories	Description
Level 1	(1) The comparison between the two sets	Ability to compare two sizes, two quantities, two lengths and interpret them in duality
	(2) The comparison of numbers	Ability to compare two numbers and apply dual interpretation
Level 2	(3) Addition and subtraction of numbers up to 20	Ability to add and interpret in duality; use different methods of addition and subtraction implementing dual solution.
	(4) Addition of numbers up to 100	Ability to use different methods of addition implementing dual solution in new situations.
Level 3	(5) Solution of equations with proofs	Ability to solve the equation putting instead of the unknown, numbers selected from a finite set and make the dual analysis
	(6) Solution with proofs of the inequalities	Ability to solve inequation putting instead of the unknown, numbers selected from a finite set and make dual analysis
Level 4	(7) Application and problem solving	Ability to solve the problem implementing two different strategies, evaluates dual solution
	(8) Mixed problem solving	Ability to formulate the dual problem; to give original ideas for the dual solution making it clear through schemes

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of the total scale was .84, so the scale can be considered reliable with our sample. As Cronbach's alpha for each level varied from .76 to .83, all level were evaluated as acceptable. The inter-correlation between levels was investigated using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficient. The data are shown in Table 2. Can say there are strong and very strong relationships between levels. There are strong relationships between application and evaluation. This means that students taught with applied dual treatments, evaluate easier.

Table 2. Inter-Level correlation coefficients

Measures	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
Level 1	1.00			
Level 2	.655**	1.00		
Level 3	.628**	.848**	1.00	
Level 4	.589**	.544**	.672**	1.00

**p<0.01

3.2 Analysis and Results

The statistical analyses were done by using both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. For descriptive statistics the mean (M), standard deviation (SD), and histograms of covariate were presented. For inferential statistics in order to test the null hypotheses, statistical techniques named Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), Pearson correlation and Independent samples t-test were used.

In Table 3, there is shown data about the mean scores and standard deviation of the experimental and control groups in pre-test (covariate) and post-test (dependent variable). The means scores of the experimental and control groups in post-test were 44.0 and 40.8 respectively, so it is indicated that the mean score of post-test in experiment group is higher than that of the post-test of control group.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for variables

Measure	Experimental Group (n=27)		Control Group (n=26)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Pre-test	32.9	2.013	32.4	2.400
Post-test	44.0	6.373	40.8	6.627

One t-test for two independent samples was used to detect any significant difference between the treatment group and the control group on the pre-test scores. No significant violation was found. The analyses revealed no statistically significant differences in prior achievement of the students in mathematics [$t(51) = -.705, p = .484$].

For inferential statistics were used analysis of variance (ANOVA) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). We used an alpha level of 0.05 for all statistical tests. For assumptions ANCOVA were conducted: normality (Shapiro-Wilk Test, $p = .052$ and $p = .109$), equality of variances ($F(1,51) = .002$ and $p = .963$), homogeneity of regression slopes ($F(1,49) = 1.499$ and $p = .227$) and linearity. No significant violation was found. In order to make clear these scores we accompany them with the figures 1,2.

Figure 1 shows the histograms with normal curves related to 1-experimental group and 2-control group with respect to pre-test.

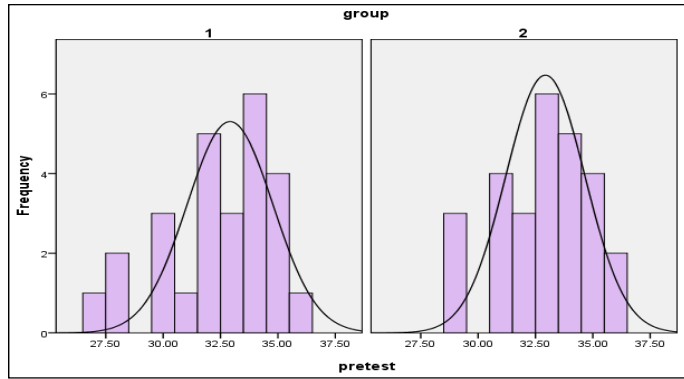


Fig 1. Histograms of pre-test scores with respect to pre-test

The slopes of the regression lines should be roughly parallel, that is the relationship between the covariate (pre-test) and the dependent variable (post-test) should be similar for all two groups (the assumption of homogeneity of regression). From Figure 2 we see that the slopes are parallel.

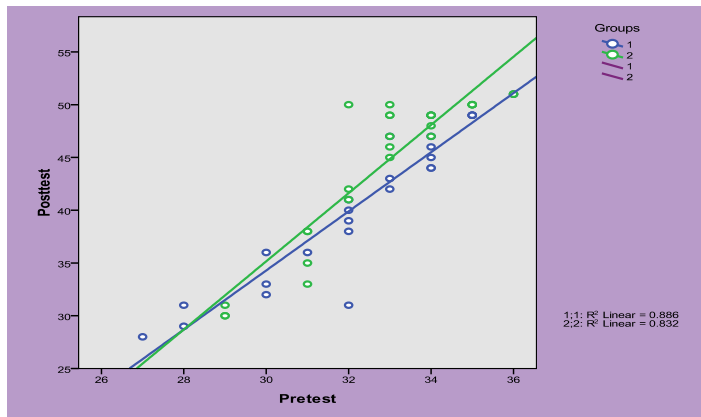


Fig 2. Linear relationship between the pre-test and the post-test Here appears to be a linear relationship.

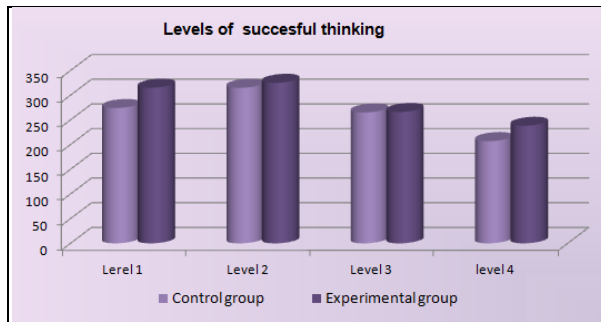
Now we can continue with the ANCOVA test. In Table 4 the result from an ANCOVA analysis includes data on the posttest for the successful thinking in mathematics for the experimental and control groups after using the pre-test results as covariates.

Table 4. Tests between subjects effects

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1959.284 ^a	2	979.642	148.550	.000	.856
Intercept	409.604	1	409.604	62.111	.000	.554
Pretest	1824.304	1	1824.304	276.632	.000	.847
Group	35.424	1	35.424	5.372	.025	.097
Error	329.735	50	6.595			
Total	97723.000	53				
Corrected Total	2289.019	52				

According to the Table 4, there was a significant difference between the results of control group and experimental group ($F(2,50)=5.372, p=.025<.05, \text{partial } \eta^2=.097$). The difference between groups in the mean score (40.81, 44.0) also shows that dual treatments are understood and applied easily by the students. So the hypothesis Ho1: Teaching through dual treatments will not have significant differences according to groups (experimental and control), in successful thinking, is refused. This means that teaching through dual treatments raised significantly successful thinking of the students. Distribution of values according to four levels for the successful thinking is shown in the Graph 1.

Graph 1. Successful thinking according to four levels



Depending on the fulfillment of data for the graph, the number of tested students is 26 for the experimental group and 26 for the control group. The 1st level – comprehension had a significant increase, which was increased with 41 (from 274 in 315) points, and the 4th level – critical thinking, which was increased with 31 points (from 207 in 238).

There are shown the results related to the hypothesis Ho2 below. Table 5 shows the data about the male and female groups for the total number of cases (N) in the groups, the arithmetic means (M), standard deviations, (SD) and standard error (σ).

Table 5. Strategy Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Gender	Male	14	43.0000	6.90596	1.84570
	Female	13	45.0769	5.82325	1.61508

A t-test for independent samples (Table 6) was administered to the test scores to determine whether there was any statistical significance between boys and girls in the overall test scores. The Levene’s Test for Equal variances yields a p-value of .96. This means that the difference between the variances is statistically insignificant.

Table 6. Independent Samples Test Results

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	.638	.432	-.841	25	.408	-2.07692	2.46857
Equal variances not assumed			-.847	24.787	.405	-2.07692	2.45256

From the Table 6, it is evident that the t-value ($t = -.841, p < .408$) is not significant at 0.05 significance. So there is no significant difference between boys and girls of the first grade in the successful thinking. So the hypothesis H_02 is accepted.

4. Discussion and conclusions

The successful thinking scores of students were significantly different in the experimental group after the treatment and it indicates that the dual treatments have firmly effect in the successful thinking. Although each of two groups has got increasing scores in successful thinking, the successful thinking scores of students in experimental group after treatment have shown much higher scores of students in control group. This means that dual treatments influence in the effectiveness of teaching mathematics. The answers of students of experimental class are characterized by the easiness of expressing being out from the boundaries which characterize the students of the control class. For giving an example we mention answers of the students for the exercise eight of the post-test. Exercise eight was: Mark each of five index cards with one of the numbers 3, 12, 4 or one of the marks $>$, $+$. Form an inequality with these five index cards. Form another one. In the answers of students of the control class we find combined two of the cases $3+12>4$, $12+4>3$, $12+3>4$, $4+12>3$. In the answers of the students of experimental class there are also the cases $3+4<12$, $3<12+4$, $4<12+3$, $12>4+3$. This shows that for the students of experimental class was clear the fact that the index card which has been marked with the mark $>$ being a mobile figure, can be put in two positions: in the position showing the mark $>$ or in the position showing the mark $<$. Meanwhile the students of the control class haven't shown any sign about knowing this fact.

Discussions about the ways of solving problems showed that students of experimental class express themselves easily and their answers were often astounding. In many cases they gave right argumentations that we haven't thought about. The students' answers have helped us to think that even in the models that teacher has used about the concreteness of mathematical problems exist situations which can be interpreted in duality. From the testing resulted that students of experimental class interpreted, solved and analyzed in the right way the dual situations. Based also in the surveys that we have done during classes we conclude that the students of experimental class are characterized by flexibility in thoughts, by critical and creative thinking.

The results have shown that there is no significant difference between girls and boys in successful thinking after treatment and it indicates that both have got higher scores in successful thinking which means that dual treatment has equally affected boys and girls and the gender factor does not have its effectiveness on successful thinking of the students.

The active methods of elementary education which have dual treatments at their basis can be applied except in mathematics even in other subjects by the teacher. Although dual treatments was designed to be applied in teaching mathematics in elementary education (see Gjoci, 2011, 2012a,b; Gjoci & Kërënxi, 2010, 2012; Kërënxi, 2011, 2012a,b; Kërënxi & Gjoci, 2010, 2011), we think as well, that there exist all possibilities that dual treatments to be method of thinking and reasoning for students, in all subjects beginning in the lower grades of elementary education. When the students study language, literature, natural sciences, history or any other subject, the students should be urged to make dual interpretations, dual analysis and to describe in two different ways the same situation. It is entirely possible due to the dual nature of these sciences. Dual treatments are applicable in languages and literature. During the object's study students become known with its dual features: concrete or abstract, impersonal or general, singular or plural, feminine or masculine. We think that during the study of a certain noun, the student should make the dual analysis why this noun is for example specific and not general, why this noun is singular and not plural and further. In textbook often we encounter verbs with opposite meanings as dress-undress, like-dislike, wrap-unwrap, spell-misspell; adverbs with opposite meanings correctly-incorrectly, fairly-unfairly, quickly-slowly, shortly-mostly; names with opposite meanings as pleasure-

displeasure, ability-disability, responsibility-irresponsibility, joy-sadness; adjectives happy-unhappy, complete-incomplete, honest-dishonest, dependent-independent that are reflected even in opposite sentences for example, the boy climbed the stairs - the boy went down the stairs. We think that the rules about the formation of new words are understood and acquired if the students make dual interpretation of the words and the dual analysis of its formation. The study of transitive and intransitive verbs should be accompanied also with the analysis of changing the structure of the word, for example locomotives pull wagons - wagons are pulled by locomotives. In legends, fairy tales, fables the dual analysis should be done to indicate how are faced the evil with good, the truth with false, wisdom with ignorance, beautiful with ugliness. In classical myths are used dual interpretations where is shown that Gods get angry and joyful, cry and laugh, get bitter and get happy, revenge and make kindness, love and hate, just like human beings. In order to make obvious the contrast between two figures of speech, the student should make the dual analysis. Dual treatments can be applied in history analyzing together concepts of war and peace, victory and defeat. An event is always associated with the date on which it occurred, for example: Albania was declared an independent state on 28th November 1912 – 28th November 1912 reminds us of the fact that Albania was declared an independent state. Dual treatments are applicable in natural sciences. When we talk about the life of living things on Earth, the students have a clear understanding of the fact that living things are born and that they can't live forever, so there comes a day when they die. According to Gao (2000) "Duality in nature is amazingly beautiful, for it is the way nature was created. ... If we are not confused very often about the duality of natural phenomena, we do not really understand what it is." (p. xiii), that's why it is the education's job to realize the right formation of the students related to these dual phenomena. In explaining the concept: solidification-liquefaction, evaporation-condensation, push-tow, day-night, light-shade, ebb and flow which can't be understood without each other is dual analysis.

Except achievements reached so far about the dual treatments model has still some issues that need to be studied. A study that will give detailed answer to the issue of effectiveness of dual treatments model in the teaching of mathematics in the other grades of elementary education will be field of our future studies.

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Identifying Evidence-Based Teaching Strategies that Teachers Use in Inclusive Primary Classrooms in Southern Bangladesh

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Abstract

Evidence-based teaching strategies are clearly specified teaching strategies that have been shown in controlled research to be effective in bringing about desired outcomes in a delineated population of learners. For teaching-learning process in inclusive classrooms, evidence-based teaching strategies can play a vital role for quality learning especially for the students with disabilities. Although implementation of inclusion in primary education was started in 2003 in Bangladesh, the classroom teachers are frequently struggling with the challenges in teaching-learning process in mainstream education. It is believed that teachers are not sufficiently well-prepared and supported to teach students with disabilities in their classroom. But undoubtedly, the hallmark of effective inclusion is well-trained teachers and teaching strategies that teachers use to teach students with disabilities. The present study was conducted to determine teachers' teaching strategies they practice for students with disabilities in mainstream primary classroom in some selected primary schools of Southern Bangladesh. In this study, a questionnaire focusing on 18 evidence-based teaching strategies was developed for data collection. In the results, differences were observed in the extent to which teachers used teaching-strategies in their classrooms that are evidence-based. While some teachers reported using some of the strategies most often or sometimes, others indicated less frequent use. On the basis of the findings, recommendations were made to encourage teachers in mainstream education to use evidence-based teaching strategies that facilitate the actual inclusion.

Keywords: Evidence-based Teaching Strategy, Students with Disabilities, Inclusive Classroom, Bangladesh

1. Introduction

Over the past two decades, there has been a common and widespread drive by international governments towards inclusion as a model for education. As such, inclusion has now become one of the most critical educational issues internationally. The basic premise underpinning inclusion is that all children regardless of ability or disability have a basic right to be educated alongside their peers in their local school. Inclusion is thus generally defined as "providing effective learning opportunities for all pupils". Despite of the general consensus to the above definition of inclusion, there are a wide range of differences in the policies and practices of inclusive education in different countries.

Bangladesh with its birth committed to the nation the rights of basic education for all children which is clearly stated in the constitution, "The state shall adopt effective measures for the purpose of establishing a uniform, mass oriented and universal system of education and extending free and compulsory education to all children to such stage as may be determined by law". Acknowledging primary education as a national responsibility of the state and recognizing the fundamental rights of the people education steered in a new era in Bangladesh. Since its independence, Bangladesh has undertaken many initiatives to improve its education in line with its national development objectives.

One of the challenges facing education system in Bangladesh is provision of education, as a constitutional right, to those learners who have been marginalized and could not be accommodated by the learning institutions because of different disabilities. Even the majority of those who are accommodated cannot fully participate in learning activities meaningfully in their classroom. These are the students whose needs are special that some modifications within teaching-learning process are a precondition in order to enable them to fully participate and benefit from the process of inclusive education.

An inclusive classroom is one which includes students with and without special needs. The students are not judged on race, gender, disability or any other differences. So, the teacher's goal is to create lessons that can be adapted to different learning styles and needs. The challenge of most inclusive environments is meeting the diverse needs of all learners according to their strengths, ability levels, and needs, without separating students homogeneously according to

their ability levels.

This study will emphasize on the evidence-based teaching strategies that have been found to be very effective and significant particularly for inclusive classroom. Evidence-based teaching practices movement began in pedagogy in the mid-nineties. Evidence-based teaching strategies are clearly specified teaching strategies that have been shown in controlled research to be effective in bringing about desired outcomes in a delineated population of learners. This is the integration of professional expertise, learners' ability and the best research evidence into the decision making process for teaching-learning in the classroom. For teaching-learning process in inclusive classrooms, evidence-based teaching strategies can play a vital role for quality learning especially for the students with disabilities.

Figure 1 : Components of evidence-based teaching practice



Source: Adapted from David Sackett's Model, 1996

By applying as many as possible of the above criteria, David Mitchell (2008) arrived at a total number of 18 evidence-based teaching strategies, some of which included several sub-strategies. Although they are illustrated with reference to students with disabilities in inclusive classroom, almost all the strategies have general applicability.

Mitchell (2009) emphasised that he was not arguing for a single strategy or blueprint that all teachers should use. Rather, he felt that the most effective programmes are those that incorporate a variety of best practices. His strong advice was that educators should develop a repertoire of such strategies nested within their own philosophy, personality, craft knowledge, professional wisdom, and, above all, their knowledge of the characteristics and needs of their students and their knowledge of local circumstances.

The 18 strategies used in this study are presented below:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Cooperative Group Teaching | 10. Behavioural Approaches |
| 2. Peer Tutoring | 11. Social Skills Instruction |
| 3. Review and Practice | 12. Motivating Class Environment |
| 4. Formative Assessment | 13. Adequate Active Learning Time |
| 5. Feedback | 14. Assistive Technology |
| 6. Cognitive Strategy Instruction | 15. Parental Involvement |
| 7. Self-regulated Learning | 16. Phonological Processing |
| 8. Memory Strategies | 17. Optimal Physical Environment |
| 9. Reciprocal Teaching | 18. Combined Strategies |

This study aimed at achieving the following objective:

- To identify teaching strategies that Bangladeshi teachers practice in teaching students with disabilities in mainstream primary classroom

And, this has been guided by the following research question:

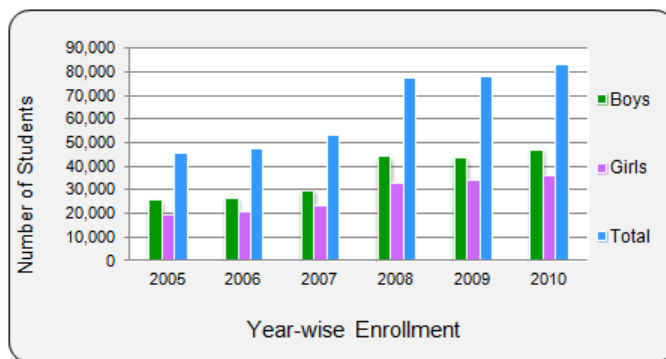
- What types of teaching strategies do the Bangladeshi teachers practice (most/ sometimes/ less) in teaching students with disabilities in mainstream primary classroom?

2. Status of Inclusion in Primary Education in Bangladesh

In the recent years Bangladesh has achieved a remarkable progress in access to basic education. Bangladesh has undertaken various measures with regard to Education for All (EFA). As a result, the net primary enrolment rate has been increased from 65% in 1997 to 91% in 2007 (Jahangir 2008). More remarkably, Bangladesh has already achieved one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of gender parity in primary and secondary education (Nasreen and Tait, 2007). Also, the enrollment ratio of students with disabilities in mainstream primary education is increasing year by year (Annual Sector Performance Report, Directorate of Primary Education, 2010). But still there are a lot of shortfalls and challenges in implementation mechanism for inclusion of students with disabilities and promotion of quality education in mainstream primary education in contemporary education system in Bangladesh.

Since 2005, the number of enrolled male and female students with disabilities in primary schools is increasing rapidly. As figure 2 shows, the number of students with disabilities enrolled in GPS and RNGPS increased by 70% between 2005 and 2010. Of the 77,500 students enrolled in 2010, about 25% belong to four sub-categories (physical disabilities, visual impairment, hearing impairment and mental retardation). The results exceeded by far the annual growth rate target of 5% in the enrollment of students with disabilities (Annual Sector Performance Report, Directorate of Primary Education, 2010).

Figure 2 : Number of enrolled students with disabilities in primary schools (2005-2010)



Source : ASPR 2011, Directorate of Primary Education, GoB

3. Review of Literature

Inclusive education can only be successful if teachers are able to adapt various teaching strategies to meet diverse educational needs of students in regular classroom (Horne 1983, Malone & Long 2001). Differentiated instruction has been identified as an effective teaching method that can address this issue for a variety of students in an inclusive classroom (Salend 2001, Tomlinson 1999). Gartin, Murdick, Imbeau and Perner (2002) emphasized on planning of instruction using different strategies that address students' strengths, interests, skills, and readiness in flexible learning environments. It is important to study teachers' skills and practices in the classroom with integrated students with special needs (Walther Thomas et al. 2000). Schumm (1994) concluded that teachers who have been effective in working with mainstreamed students with learning disabilities report moderate to high agreement with the beliefs, skills and practices. Friend & Bursuck (2002), Mastropieri and Scruggs (2000), Salend (2001) and Tomlinson (1995) greatly emphasized on the role of instructional adaptation in an inclusive setting as an indispensable means for accommodating the needs of students with disabilities. Inclusive educators are required to be psychologically and practically prepared to take on the dynamic role in an inclusive classroom (Mullen, 2001). To be an effective teacher in an inclusive setting, a teacher must be patient, caring, creative, respectful to the students and skillful to organize the classroom (Murphy, Delli & Edwards, 2004). Successful teachers challenge students' abilities by setting good quality tasks, providing students with opportunity to choose their tasks, varying teaching strategies that contribute to student learning (Ainscow, 1991).

4. Methodology

4.1 Sample

A total number of 114 teachers from 37 primary schools located in four southern districts (Bagerhat-12, Jessore-9, Khulna-8, Satkhira-8 schools) of Bangladesh who have been teaching classroom consist of students with disabilities for minimum one year. So, it can be said that the sample teachers were selected purposively for this study.

4.2 Instrumentation

A three point likert type questionnaire was adapted to examine teachers' teaching practices in inclusive classroom. According to the list finalized by David Mitchell (2009) the questionnaire has been constructed. Almost all strategies are present in the statements of questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 18 statements and each statement was categorized into 'less practiced', 'sometimes practiced', and 'most practiced'. The participant teachers were instructed to put a tick mark (✓) a category among three that best describes their teaching practices in their classroom against each statement.

4.3 Procedure of Data Collection

After finalization of likert-type questionnaire, it was distributed to participant teachers. Participants were asked to tick by selecting what they do on each of the eighteen statements that included teaching strategies on instructional objectives, classroom arrangement, peer involvement etc. Moreover, necessary documents on primary education and teaching strategies were reviewed from the viewpoint of inclusive education.

4.4 Data Analysis

The study is descriptive in nature. The design is non-experimental soliciting information from teachers on the instructional strategies they use in teaching inclusive classroom in the primary schools. Descriptive statistics was employed to see the percentage of use of strategies by teachers. In data analysis, the number of frequency of responses was counted first for each statement/strategy. For each statement, how many responses came at 'rarely/less frequently' category, how many at 'sometimes' category and how many came at 'most often/ most frequently' category were counted and calculated into percentage. The percentages of responses for each category were displayed through a bar chart. The percentages of responses were taken into consideration only when it was above 50%.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Most frequently practiced teaching strategies

According to table 1 titled most frequently practiced teaching strategies, there were four strategies (statement 1, 3, 9 and 15) found to be used most often. Within this category, statement no. 3 that is about physical arrangement of classroom was chosen mostly used strategy (76% response). Actually these strategies do have much significance to create not only an inclusive classroom but also an effective classroom for participation of all students in general education setting.

Table 1: Most practiced teaching strategies in Bangladeshi classroom

No.	Statements	N	Rarely		Sometimes		Most Often	
			Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
3	I ensure that classroom is spacious to allow for free movement.	114	8	7%	19	17%	87	76%
9	I ensure that questions are fair and evenly distributed to allow students to contribute	113	10	9%	24	21%	79	70%

	to lessons.							
1	I try to arrange my classroom to encourage participation.	114	16	14%	26	23%	72	63%
15	I constantly monitor all my students including those with disability while they do class work	112	10	9%	33	29%	69	62%

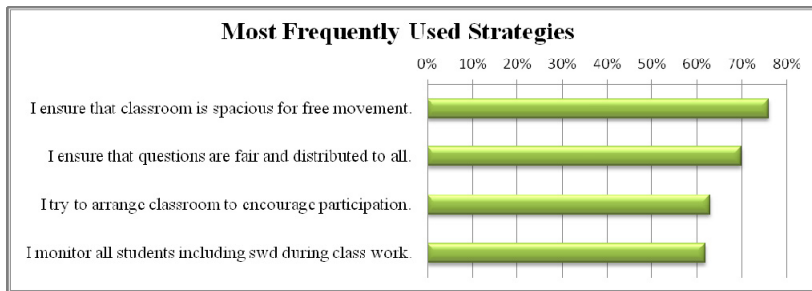


Figure 3: Percentage of most frequently practiced teaching strategies

5.2 Teaching strategies practiced sometimes

From the table 2, this is revealed that there were seven strategies out of 18 (statement no. 2, 5, 6, 8, 10, 13 and 17) found to be practiced sometimes. 71% responses came for the statement no. 5 which is related to team-teaching approach. These teaching strategies are somehow important for teaching students with disabilities in ordinary classrooms. However, they have general applicability also. Statement no. 6 is quite relevant with effective inclusive teaching strategy that is about peer tutoring, but the percentage of response is only 51%.

Table 2 : Teaching strategies practiced sometimes in Bangladeshi classroom

No.	Statements	N	Rarely		Sometimes		Most Often	
			Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
5	I select instructional materials that make it possible for all to learn.	114	13	11%	81	71%	20	18%
8	I give sufficient time to all students to complete classwork or homework	112	11	10%	79	70%	22	20%
13	I give individual attention to students who need extra support	113	17	15%	75	66%	21	19%
2	I set instructional objective to overall students including those with disabilities	113	18	16%	70	62%	25	22%
10	I keep daily records of the progress students make in class.	111	9	8%	69	62%	33	30%
17	I mix up the students when they are performing assignment.	114	23	20%	66	58%	25	22%
6	I ask students to help each other.	113	20	18%	58	51%	35	31%

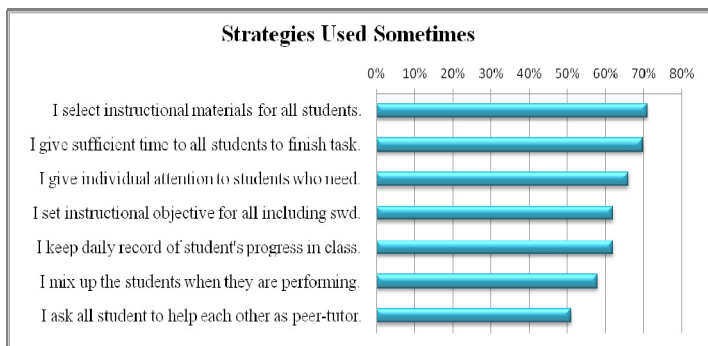


Figure 4 : Percentage of teaching strategies practiced sometimes

5.3 Less frequently practiced teaching strategies

Out of 18 strategies seven (statement no. 4, 7, 11, 12, 14, 16 and 18) were found to be practiced less frequently in inclusive classroom. But, it can be noted here that these less frequently practiced strategies are so effective for inclusive teaching rather than other strategies. One of the most effective strategies for students with disabilities is designing individualized education program/plan (IEP) (statement no. 16) that was found in the list of less-frequently practiced strategies and 78% responses came for this strategy as rarely practiced. Statement no. 14 that is associated with collaboration with other stakeholders was found to be least practiced (84% responses as rarely used) and 68% responses came for statement no. 18 that is about accommodation for teaching-learning. Moreover, for statement no. 11, related to active participation of all, 76% responses were reported that teachers seldom move to a new section or unit after all learners understand it and can perform what they have learned.

Table 3 : Less frequently practiced teaching strategies

No.	Statements	N	Rarely		Sometimes		Most Often	
			Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
14	I approach consultant for advice when I do not know how to make all learner in classroom learn	114	96	84%	14	12%	4	4%
16	I design individualized education program (IEP) for student with disability	114	89	78%	19	17%	6	5%
11	I move to a new unit when all learners have understood and can perform what they learnt	114	87	76%	19	17%	8	7%
4	I select learning tasks that students with disabilities can perform	113	81	71%	20	18%	12	11%
18	I allow learners with difficulties in writing chance to answer questions by saying it orally or verbally	114	77	68%	22	19%	15	13%
7	I let students with disabilities work at different activities when assignment is given.	112	65	58%	26	23%	21	19%
12	I allow students with disabilities to engage in certain activities elsewhere in classroom.	113	58	51%	34	30%	21	19%

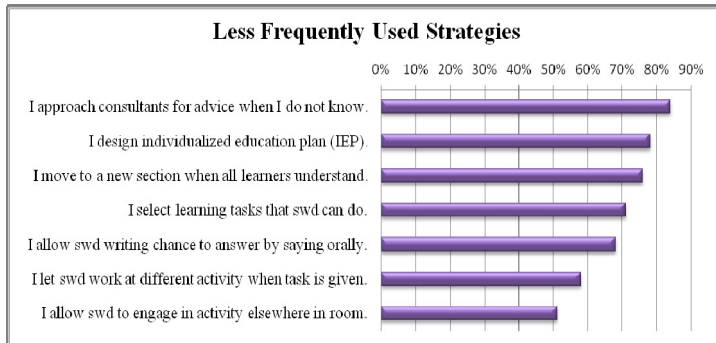


Figure 5 : Percentage of less frequently practiced teaching strategies

6. Conclusion

Selection and practices of teaching strategies for students with disabilities in inclusive classroom are very significant in terms of effective teaching-learning for students. Understanding and practicing specific and appropriate strategies will allow teachers to improve students' achievement levels, provide a wider range of instructional alternatives, and promote diversified learning methods for any degree of student ability. It is a teacher's awareness of the different tools and resources that build a bridge across educational achievement gaps. Becoming experts on these useful strategies is a concrete way to ensure that "all students have a better chance to learn, excel, and live out their dreams".

Bangladesh has been implementing inclusive education in its ordinary primary schools for last decade. Nevertheless, the teachers, i.e., main implementers are not prepared well to adjust with this phenomenon. They are accountable for proper implementation of it, but not aware of using special techniques or strategies and how to facilitate the teaching-learning process within the inclusive environment.

Although the list of teaching strategies are illustrated with reference to students with disabilities, almost all the strategies have general applicability, but no efficient use in the classrooms in Bangladesh. Through this study, it can be recommended that some effective and significant teaching strategies should be incorporated in primary level training manuals or any type of training materials. In addition, the practice of these strategies should be simulated during training course in order to apply in the real classroom situation. There are many teachers who have been trained on teaching in inclusive setting cannot practice the effective strategies or techniques due to some obstacles existing in Bangladeshi education structure. Unquestionably, successful inclusion cannot be achieved unless effective strategies are fully practiced in classroom teaching-learning process.

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Factors of Students' Network Formation: Case of a Russian University

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Abstract

This paper investigates the process of students' network formation in National Research University–Higher School of Economics. Using pairwise regression, estimated on a network of second-year students from two faculties, we find that geographical closeness along with the homophily effects of gender, grade point average, smoking, and leisure preferences have a strong impact on the probability of being friends.

Keywords: social network, higher education, homophily effect, geographical closeness

1. Introduction

In recent decades, social network analysis (SNA) has grown into a popular method applied to various social researches. SNA is used in various socioeconomic researches, including economics of education. SNA is believed to be one of the relevant lines of investigation of students' behavior and academic achievements in the university. Instruments of SNA allow for exploring new factors that influence behavior and academic performance and give an opportunity for the complete description of the social capital formation process. SNA is consistent with a notion of university, which is known to be a place where people form their relations. Furthermore, SNA allows the broadening and enriching of social understanding in a higher education institute (Biancani, 2013).

The majority of modern SNA studies on students' social networks tend to focus on two main aspects: (1) which factors determine network formation and (2) how these networks influence people's behavior. When investigating the role of networks, researchers estimate different types of peer effects that show how network characteristics may influence individual outcomes. When examining which factors lead to student network formation, researchers document factors such as race and ethnicity, socioeconomic characteristics, age, cultural habits, and cohorts. In the literature, there are consistent evidences supporting that students prefer to be friends with students similar to themselves. This effect is known as homophily. Physical and social propinquity is essential as well. If students are roommates in the dorm or they live geographically close to one another or they are enrolled in the same educational program, the probability that they will become friend increases.

In this paper, we try to examine factors which determine students' social network formation in National Research University–Higher School of Economics (HSE) in Nizhny Novgorod. For this study, 237 students from two faculties—the faculty of economics and the faculty of management—were interviewed. The questionnaire includes questions about students' academic performance and behavior, their attitude toward friendship, their socioeconomic characteristics, their hobbies, and their leisure time.

Using information from about 24,090 possible links, we estimate pairwise regression and present the marginal effects on the probability of being friends. We find that geographic closeness is one of the most influential factors of the network formation process. Data also support the homophily hypotheses for gender, grade point average, smoking, and leisure preferences, but not for income and alcohol. We do not find any signs of the impact of study preferences.

The rest of the article is organized as follows. In Section 2, several literatures focusing on students' network formation are briefly reviewed. The data and structure of students' network are examined in Section 3. Findings and results are presented in Section 4. We conclude in Section 5.

2. Determinants of Students' Network Links: Literature Review

A network can be presented as a set of collective and individual links which unite people into social groups (Pattison, 1993). The concept of a social network is used for describing social relationships on different levels, from interpersonal to international. Formally, any network is a set of nodes and links between these nodes. In social networks, nodes are usually persons, groups of people, companies, or counties. Friendship, kinship, common interests, and business relations constitute links in the social network. Therefore, a social network defines social interrelations, and the study of social networks expands the set of factors that can explain human behavior (Newman, 2010).

In one of the first investigations of factors that determine students' social networks, Festinger, Schachter, & Back (1950) studied student couples from a U.S. university. Authors found a strong propinquity effect: couples that lived geographically close were more likely to become friends.

The majority of literature on students' social network formation examines the role that race and ethnicity play in the formation of friendship among students. Kenny & Stryker (1994) compared several groups of students of different races. They concluded that students' social networks were created under the influence of race and ethnicity. This effect is also known as racial homophily. Moreover, researchers compared characteristics of networks formed by students of different races. As a result, they found that white students organize more extensive and dense networks than their nonwhite classmates. Race and ethnicity how students adapt to college: white students receive support from their friends, while students of other races prefer to communicate more with their parents and relatives.

Mayer & Puller (2008) used Facebook.com to gathered data about students from 10 universities in Texas. They developed a model of student social network formation that found two main groups of influential factors. The first one is a set of exogenous factors which reflect features of an academic environment. The second group of factors consists of endogenous factors linked with individual student's characteristics. According to the research, race is considered to be an endogenous factor, and the policies set by a university have very little influence on the separation of social network by race. On the whole, they found that students' social network formation is determined by race, cohorts, majors, and university policies.

Wimmer & Lewis (2010) also used data from Facebook.com and found the noticeable influence of racial homophily on social network formation among students. The study supported the idea that racial homophily is an influential but not dominant mechanism that determines students' friendship. It is noteworthy that socioeconomic characteristics play an important role in this. Among other factors, authors emphasize choice of the same academic major, reciprocation, musical and cultural homophily, and propinquity. Some of these factors are likely to be more essential than race and ethnicity.

Contrary to Mayer & Puller (2008), Wejnert (2010) came to the conclusion that university policies have an influence on the friendship of students of different races. One way to do so is through the accommodation of students to racially diverse dormitories. Living with roommates of different races increases the likelihood of creating interracial friendships. Notably, these ties prompted by university policies are as strong as natural ones formed randomly.

According to Marmaros & Sacerdote (2006), among the key factors that determine the formation of students' networks are ethnicity and race, family background, geographical closeness, and common interests in university, for example, choice of a similar major as well as participation in sports teams or Greek organizations. Using the data from Dartmouth College, authors found that racial similarity and geographic closeness are more influential than family background, common academic major, and playing in varsity. The mechanism of racial homophily had proved to be very influential: two white students have twice as many chances to become friends with each other than with students of a different race. It should be noted that living in the same dormitory has no positive effect on interracial friendships. In contrast, different-race students educated in the same class are likely to become friends.

Using data from Facebook.com, Traud, Kelsic, Mucha, & Porter (2011) analyzed which factors play significant roles in social network formation in five geographically diverse universities in the United States.

Findings from several other studies support the idea that geographical closeness is a crucial factor that affects students' social networks. Lee, Scherngell, & Barber (2011) used the data collected from the online social network platform StudiVZ about several German universities to estimate the spatial interaction model. They found that geographical closeness has a direct effect on students' social network formation. According to their estimates, the distance equal to 100 minutes by car reduces the probability of social network formation by 91%. They also found that students are more likely to become friends with those who studied at the university located at the same federal state. Additionally, results showed that students' social network formation depends on university programs: students from technical and mathematical universities prefer creating ties with those who are enrolled in the same courses. The

findings showed that living in the same dormitory, studying in the same year and class, and demographic characteristics are likely to determine friendship among students. Researchers came to the conclusion that there is no dominant factor in friendships and that students' social networks form under the combined influences of several factors.

Therefore, the majority of the studies focused on two main mechanisms of students' social network formation: propinquity and homophily. In the literature, there is conclusive proof that students are likely to become friends with those who are of the same race and ethnicity, have equal socioeconomic status, and have the same interests. Additionally, the choice of the same academic major and participation in varsity and students' organizations have a positive impact on the likelihood of the formation of ties among students. Roommates also have a better chance of becoming friends, and living with different-race students has a significant influence on the formation of interracial students' social network. It means that university policies are able to effect the formation of different-race social networks. In addition to the above-mentioned factors, geographical distance is essential: the closer students live to each other, the more likely they will become friends.

3. Data Description

Data for this analysis are gathered from the questionnaire survey of second-year students of HSE in Nizhny Novgorod, Russia. The sample used in this study includes 220 students from 10 classes (5 classes from the faculty of economics and 5 classes from the faculty of management). The total number of students enrolled in the faculties of economics and management is 237. Students were asked 69 questions about their social status, academic environment, relationships within classes, and leisure time. We also used administrative information about the students' grade point averages (GPAs). There is an open 10-point assessment system in the university, and students are able to know the grades of their peers. Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Min.	Max.	No. of observations
Faculty of Economics				
Age	19 (0.67)	17	20	99
GPA	7.09 (1.08)	4.56	9.33	99
% of men	26			99
% of tuition free students	80			99
Faculty of Management				
Age	19 (0.62)	17	20	121
GPA	7.56 (0.81)	5.28	9	121
% of men	31			121
% of tuition free students	69			121

The descriptive statistics of main students' characteristics, which are used in the model, are presented in Table A.1 in the appendix. According to statistics, about half of the students in the sample have a personal car (57%). More than 27% of the students live in a dormitory. Other students live with their parents, in their personal apartments, or in apartments for rent. About one-third of the students have a per-capita family income between 6,400 and 15,000 rubles. Roughly 44% of students prefer humanitarian courses, about 25% of students prefer mathematical and applied courses (27% and 24%, respectively), and only 5% of students mention theoretical courses as their preferences. Students mostly communicate only in the university (67% of respondents) and participate in the social life of their university. About 62% of students attend cultural events like theaters, cinemas, and exhibitions. But only 16% go to nightclubs. The majority of respondents have no pernicious habits: 12% are smokers, 5% are frequent drinkers of alcohol, and 37% are athletic.

Using the Pajek package, we create a directed graph of the network, which is presented in Figure 1. The main network characteristics are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Network Characteristics

Characteristics	Value
Density	0.0186
Average degree	8.8101
Diameter	15.000
Average distance among reachable pairs	5.2976
Network clustering coefficient	0.2512
Watts-Strogatz clustering coefficient	0.3023
Network betweenness centralization	0.0975

The network is not connected. The size of the largest component of the network is 232 vertices, more than 97% of the total network. There are 5 students (2 from the faculty of economics and 3 from the faculty of management) who did not note other students as friends, and other students also did not note them. According to statistics, the diameter is 15. This characteristic shows the longest path between nodes in the networks. A short diameter means that students in two faculties are sufficiently close. The average degree value shows that students generally have about 9 friends in their university environment. One more network property is the clustering coefficient, which argues that about a quarter of the friends are friends of one another. Betweenness centrality refers to the importance of students as connectors.

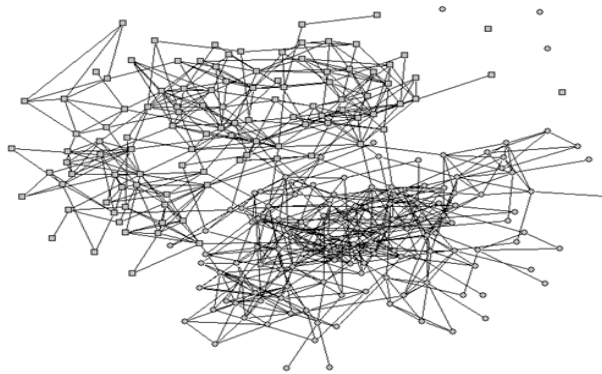


Figure 1. Students' network graph

Figure 1 gives a clear notion of student clustering—there are two distinct regions in the graph (with a small number of links between them) that represent the two faculties. Students' groups are not so clearly defined since they have a lot of links within the faculties.

4. Results

In this section, we present estimates of how factors such as geographic closeness, sociodemographic characteristics, and preferences affect the formation of friendship among students. To obtain these estimates, we use pairwise regression (Fafchamps & Gubert, 2007; Mayer & Puller, 2008; Udry & Conley, 2005). The idea is to consider not the students themselves, but the links between them. This approach is based on the binary choice model:

$$y_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y_{ij}^* \geq 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

where y_{ij} denotes the existence of a link between nodes i and j . Latent variable y_{ij}^* denotes the propensity to form that link and depends on the vector of observable variables x_{ij} and unobservable shock ε_{ij} in the following manner:

$$y_{ij}^* = x'_{ij}\beta + \varepsilon_{ij}. \tag{2}$$

Explanatory variables x_{ij} may contain student-specific characteristics (GPA, age, some preferences, and so on) and some characteristics that refer to both of the students i and j (neighborhood, common friends, and so on). Here β is the vector of parameters to be estimated and reflects the impact of x_{ij} .

We assume that unobservable shock ε_{ij} follows logistic distribution and use the maximum-likelihood estimator to obtain estimates of unknown parameters. The interpretation of parameters β is complicated—they show how x_{ij} affects latent variable y_{ij}^* , but not y_{ij} . Thus, estimates of β only reveal the sign of the impact of x_{ij} on y_{ij} and whether this impact is significant. That is why we present average marginal effects that show how a change in x_{ij} affects the probability of students i and j to become friends.

We use undirected notation of the network and mark that the link between students i and j exists if at least one of them says that they are friends. Since we have 220 students in the network (with available data), there are 24,090 possible links between them, and thus, we have 24,090 observations in the sample. But only 669 of that links are realized. In other words, only 669 of 24,090 possible pairs of students are marked as friends.

Estimation results are presented in Table 3. There are 7 panels in the table that refer to different groups of explanatory variables.

To investigate the impact of gender (*Panel A*), we use two dummy variables. *Both female* equals 1 only if the observation is of a pair of female students and 0 otherwise. *Both male* equals 1 only if the observation is of a pair of male students and 0 otherwise. Thus, a pair of students of different sexes is a base category. The estimates say that the probability of friendship between students of the same sex is higher—by 0.4% for female students and by 1.2% for male students—in comparison with students of different sexes. One may suggest that girls have fewer incentives to be friends with students of the same sex since estimates for them are lower. But this result is probably explained by the fact that the share of female students is much larger (74%) and thus, the probability of friendship between two random girls is lower than between two random boys.

Table 3. Marginal Effects on the Probability of Being Friends

Variable	Marginal Effect (%)	Variable	Marginal Effect (%)
<i>Panel A. Gender</i>			
Both female	0.356*** (0.063)	Both male	1.162*** (0.264)
<i>Panel B. Neighborhood</i>			
Live in dormitory, both	0.360*** (0.135)	Live in dormitory, none	0.149*** (0.047)
Roommates in dormitory	31.364*** (9.701)		
Same group	6.455*** (0.879)		
Same faculty	1.174*** (0.120)		
<i>Panel C. Socioeconomic Characteristics</i>			
Income, difference	-0.022 (0.016)	Income, average	0.060*** (0.023)
Have car, both	0.174 (0.127)	Have car, none	0.077* (0.041)
<i>Panel D. Grade</i>			
GPA, difference	-0.136*** (0.032)	GPA, average	0.112*** (0.036)
Budget place, both	-0.001 (0.045)	Budget place, none	-0.032 (0.077)
<i>Panel E. Study Preferences</i>			

Like mathematics, both	0.026 (0.076)	Like mathematics, none	-0.040 (0.048)
Like humanities, both	0.014 (0.055)	Like humanities, none	0.028 (0.053)
Like theoretical, both	-0.061 (0.298)	Like theoretical, none	0.099 (0.069)
Like applied, both	-0.043 (0.075)	Like applied, none	-0.016 (0.044)
<i>Panel F. Social Life and Communication</i>			
Rest with friends, both	0.173** (0.077)	Rest with friends, none	-0.038 (0.041)
Like sports, both	0.116* (0.069)	Like sports, none	0.041 (0.042)
University social life, both	0.041 (0.041)	University social life, none	0.021 (0.063)
Cultural events, both	-0.052 (0.039)	Cultural events, none	-0.003 (0.058)
Nightclubs, both	0.321* (0.166)	Nightclubs, none	0.085* (0.044)
Often ill, both	0.011 (0.222)	Often ill, none	0.029 (0.05)
<i>Panel G. Habits</i>			
Alcohol, difference	-0.025 (0.027)	Alcohol, average	-0.031 (0.038)
Smoke, both	1.027** (0.478)	Smoke, none	0.091* (0.049)
<i>Number of observations</i>	24 090		

Notes: Standard errors in parentheses. ***, **, * denote significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% levels, respectively.

Panel B refers to the impact of geographic closeness. It says that if students are roommates in a dormitory, then the probability of friendship between them is higher by 31.4% in comparison with students who are not neighbors. The fact that students study in the same faculty/group also raises this probability. One may note that the effect of geographic closeness depends on the size of the area in question. For example, the size of a group is five times smaller than the size of a faculty, and the effect of the *same group* is five times larger than the effect of the *same faculty*.

The fact that both of the students live or do not live in dormitories also raises the probability of friendship. But this result can be explained not only by geographic closeness but also by the effect of homophily. Students who live in dormitories are more likely to make friends with those who have the same socioeconomic characteristics—nonresidents who do not rent a flat.

Panel C reflects the direct effect of socioeconomic characteristics. We use two variables that are constructed on the basis of family per capita income of the students. In order to catch the homophily effect, we include the absolute value of *income difference*, which reflects how the income of student i differs from the income of student j . And we include *income average* to reveal how income may be connected with students' sociality. Data do not support the hypothesis of income homophily as the marginal effect of *income difference* is not significant. But we may say that students with higher family incomes tend to have a higher probability of being friends.

At the same time, *Panel D* shows that a 1-point difference in GPA lowers the probability of friendship by 0.1%. And analogously to income, a higher GPA is connected with a greater probability of being friends.

Panel E does not report any significant impact of *study preferences*. A possible reason for this result is that preferences are not varied enough since all the students are from the same university. In this case, there is no contrast between mathematics and humanities, for example, and it is hard to reveal precise estimates of the effects of such preferences. Moreover, this effect may be partly captured by faculty and group dummies.

Panel F shows that the probability of friendship is raised if both of the students *communicate with classmates* outside the university or participate in *sports* or frequent *nightclubs*. The effect of communication with classmates is probably connected with students' sociality, while the last two effects may also be caused by preference homophily. This hypothesis is supported by the fact that the friendship probability is raised even if both students do not visit nightclubs. In

other words, students who do not visit nightclubs have little incentive to make friends with those who do so.

Panel G does not show any impact of alcohol but reports the significant effect of smoking—smokers are more likely to be friends with smokers and nonsmokers with nonsmokers.

5. Concluding Remarks

In the paper, we investigate the process of students' network formation in HSE in Nizhny Novgorod. Using data on second-year students from two faculties, we estimate pairwise regression and obtain the marginal effects of factors such as geographic closeness, sociodemographic characteristics, and students' preferences.

We find that geographic closeness has the most considerable effect: if students become roommates in a dormitory, then the probability of friendship between them rises by 31%. The impacts of the same faculty and the same group are also significant.

Though we do not find any signs of impact of income gap, results are in favor of homophily through factors such as gender, grade point average, smoking, and leisure preferences (sports and nightclubs). We also show that the probability of friendship is positively connected with the average family income and grade point average of students. This may be caused by the popularity of students and/or their sociality.

In contrast to recent researches, we do not find a significant impact of study preferences. We suppose that these results are not robust and are caused only by the fact that all students are from the same university and related faculties, that leads to the low heterogeneity of study preferences. In this connection we expect that a significant impact may be found when other universities/faculties are added to the sample.

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Appendix

Table A.1. Detailed Descriptive Statistics of Students' Characteristics

Per Capita Family Income							
	Less than 6,400	6,400– 15,000	15,000– 21,000	21,000– 30,000	30,000– 50,000	50,000 and more	No. of observations
% of Students	15	30	20	12	15	8	220
Place of Living							
	Living in dormitory		Living in other place				No. of observations
% of Students	27.3		72.7				220
Personal Car							
	Yes		No				No. of observations
% of Students	57		43				220
Study Preferences							
	Mathematical	Humanitarian	Theoretical		Applied		No. of observations
% of Students	27	44	5		24		220
Communication with Classmates							
	Out of the university		Only in the university				No. of observations
% of Students	33		67				
Sports Activity							
	Yes		No				No. of observations
% of Students	37		63				220
Participation in University Social Life							
	Yes		No				No. of observations
% of Students	63		37				220
Attendance in Cultural Events							
	Yes		No				No. of observations
% of Students	62		38				220
Attendance in Nightclubs							
	Yes		No				No. of observations
% of Students	16		84				220
Smoking							
	Yes		No				No. of observations
% of Students	12		88				220
Drinking Alcohol							
	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely		Never		No. of observations
% of Students	5	17	39		39		220

ESP Vocabulary Teaching and Learning, Comparing the Language Teacher and Language Learning on the Internet

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Abstract

ESP vocabulary teaching and learning has become very important and indispensable in most of the different fields of study for both teachers and learners. This has brought to exploiting various ways of learning and enlarging ESP vocabulary. One of the most popular ways in English learning and teaching is the application of Information Communication Technology or English learning on the Internet. This study tries to investigate the difference or any potential relation between ESP vocabulary teaching by the language teacher and ESP learning on the Internet. Using the Internet to learn a language encourages the use of multimedia and network technology enhancing learning, but on the other hand learning a language face to face with the teacher creates a lot of opportunities to foster participation in different discussion groups developing students' corporation. A questionnaire was done to students who study ESP in their course and will need it in their profession. Participants were selected through random sampling. Students taking part in this questionnaire study at the Faculty of Civil Engineering. Advantages and disadvantages will be discussed for both ways of learning the ESP vocabulary. Comparisons will be done and conclusions will be given concerning the strategies and methods that the ESP teacher and computer programs use in order to ease the recording and learning of ESP vocabulary. Conclusions will include even the fact that students nowadays prefer a combination of the two in order to assimilate the language faster ensuring the fostering of sustainable lifelong learning.

Keywords: ESP vocabulary, language teacher, Internet, lifelong learning.

1. Introduction

The interest of learning different foreign languages for general and lately for specific purposes has increased a lot and this has been enforced by the usage of the Internet, which makes it possible for easy access to every kind of information in various fields of study.

The Internet is considered as a reliable source of information.

The question if ESP teachers should be different and have a different training than general teachers has always been a controversial one. Nowadays the integration of technology in the teaching of ESP has been the focus of several research projects in various countries around the world. Moreover there are some students who prefer learning ESP on the internet, but a combination of learning ESP with a language teacher and at the same time using the internet is very much applied and preferred. For example Dahlman and Rilling (2001) described a distance learning course in Finland, which was combined with traditional classroom instruction. It was an advanced EFL course for teachers, as part of an 8-week summer program at a Finnish university. Students' English was developed by including technology into instruction through various real world language tasks.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) have answered the questions about the kind of knowledge required by the ESP teachers in that they think that ESP teachers do not need to learn specialist subject knowledge, but they require only three things, which could be considered as the ability to ask intelligent questions. They are:

- Having a positive attitude towards the ESP content;
- Having a knowledge of the fundamental principles of the subject area;
- Having an awareness of how much they probably already know.

Richards (1997) emphasizes that the ESP 'practitioner' needed special skills, underlying that the ESP teacher is a 'special' teacher. The recognition that he/she is someone that stands at the forefront of their profession, came with the establishment of ESP.

Delcloque (1997) says that it would be very useful to consider the nature of teacher training and development and use the concept of teacher education, because according to him *teacher education* is an enabling condition for *language education*. And if language teaching, is moving from an emphasis on teaching procedures to the fostering of learning,

from training to education, then a similar shift in teacher preparation is also required.

But according to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), a very important aspect for the teachers to succeed in an ESP teaching process is to identify the learners' needs, which are considered as being the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course.

Richards and Farrel (2005) think that classrooms are not only places where students learn—they are also places where teachers can learn. This means that teachers need to have opportunities for professional development to update their professional knowledge and skills. Richards and Farrel (2005) state that ESP teachers should engage in self-reflection and evaluation, develop specialized knowledge and skills about many aspects of teaching, expand their knowledge base about research, theory, and issues in teaching, develop collaborative relationships with other teachers.

Whereas Harding (2007) points out that ESP teachers don't need to be an expert, but they need to have some understanding of the subject area.

2. Case studies

A very well established field in English language teaching is Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) or Computer Assisted Language Instruction (CALI).

Two types of CALL for vocabulary learning were analyzed by Fox (1984), one was about uncontextualised exercises seeking one word answers and the other was about putting together or unscrambling a text which formed a context. Fox says that *'these exercises encourage students to consider the computer more as an information source, not so much as a drill master. It offers clues to help them do their tasks and encourage guessing.'*

Whereas Higgins (1985) stated that *'mass teaching imposes a single pace on a class'* and this could be alleviated by computers.

Kleinmann (1987) demonstrated that the CALL programs were little more than electronic textbooks, after the comparison made to twenty commercially available CALL packages with non CALL materials. He found out that there were no significant differences in reading achievement.

Dunkel (1991) compared groups using computers with a control group using traditional methods. The findings of this comparative research did not have clear advantages for the use of computers. Although Dunkel argued that *'Systematic evaluation of the effectiveness of all aspects of CALL must continue'*.

According to Frommer and Foelsche (1999) CALL aimed first of all to give students the opportunity to practice grammar and vocabulary so that the class could have more time to do more communicative activities.

Another way of integrating the Internet into the learning and teaching process is using the WebQuests. Dodge (1995) emphasizes 5 steps that a WebQuest must have:

- An introduction that includes background information
- An interesting task
- Some sources of information to finish the task
- Some tips that help to organize the information
- A conclusion

Marco (2002) emphasizes that using WebQuests has many advantages such as: using authentic online materials, developing many skills, promoting learners' motivation etc.

Sullivan and Pratt (1996) made a comparison between two ESL writing environments – a traditional classroom and one where computers were also used. The result was that with the use of the computer and the minimization of the teacher's role, writing did improve a lot.

Nutta (1998) compared students who had computer-based instruction and those with teacher instruction and found out that there was no significant difference between grammar scores on

multiple-choice and cloze tests between them, but it's to be said that the computer-based students had higher scores on open-ended tests.

Another comparison was done by Labrie (2000) who applied 25 French words to do with the body to be learned by a computer and by traditional methods as well. It resulted that for the same learning effect, less time was spent using the computer.

Warshauer (2002) argues that the role of the computer has changed from being a *tutor* to being a *tool*.

However Horst et al (2005) note that the effectiveness for language learning of the many vocabulary activities available on-line can not be determined, because few of them have been studied in any detail.

3. Objective of the study

The purpose of the study was to find out what students think about learning ESP with a language teacher or learning it autonomously on the internet.

The objectives proposed are:

- To know the created atmosphere when learning ESP with a teacher/on the internet.
- To know what they have to do when learning ESP with a teacher/on the internet.
- To know how the ESP teacher/the internet help students assimilate the vocabulary they need.
- To know the skills they master when learning ESP with a teacher/on the internet.
- To know the tasks given after each lesson by the teacher/ internet.

Another purpose was to find out if students prefer a combination of the two to ensure a better learning of ESP as well.

The objectives proposed are:

(For each objective they had to choose one of the four options: the ESP teacher/the internet/ neither of them/ both of them).

- To know who works out the students' language needs in relation to their skills.
- To know who creates situations from their subject area.
- To know who motivates students with variety, authentic materials and fun.
- To know when they have to find additional materials.
- To know how students prefer learning ESP to ensure the fostering of sustainable lifelong learning.

4. Materials and Method

Two questionnaires were done to 112 students studying at the Faculty of Civil Engineering, Polytechnic University of Tirana. Some questions of the questionnaires were inspired by Harding (2007), who has given the general approaches the ESP teacher will need to take in order to meet the particular needs of the ESP learner. Whereas some other questions are drawn from personal teaching experience.

All students use the course book entitled Technology 1, Oxford English for Careers (Glendinning, 2007). The course book focuses on different topics related to technology, for example: technological innovations, branches of technology, design, technology in sport, appropriate technology, crime-fighting and security, transport, medical technology, information technology, telecommunication, the future of technology etc.

5. Participants

Students studying at the Faculty of Civil Engineering, Polytechnic University of Tirana, study English only the first semester of the first year, that's why 112 first year students took part in the study. They were in the same age range and have had at least 4 years learning English. They are all intermediate or advanced level, but English for Specific Purposes was new to them at the beginning of the course, so the questionnaires were done at the end of the course. During the course they had to find additional information related to different topics of the book and at the end of the course they all had as an obligatory task to prepare a coursework, in which they had to find information from different sources (using the internet as well) about a topic related to their own field of study, looking up new ESP words and expressions and present the coursework orally in front of the class.

6. Questions of the study

Questionnaire 1: Learning ESP with a language teacher – graphic 1

Questionnaire 2: Learning ESP on the internet –graphic 2

The questions of the two questionnaires are:

1. How is the created atmosphere when learning ESP with a teacher/on the internet?

a) motivating	b) annoying	c) interesting	d) quiet
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2. What do you have to do when learning ESP with a teacher/on the internet?

a) being totally independent	b) being dependent on the textbook of the course	c) having to find materials yourself	d) choosing yourself the tasks to be done
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3. How does the ESP teacher/the internet help you assimilate the vocabulary you need?

a) understanding the nature of the students' subject area	b) giving the meaning of unknown words	c) making the tasks as authentic as possible	d) suggesting strategies for a lifelong remembering of the ESP vocabulary
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4. Which is the skill/skills you master when learning ESP with a teacher/on the internet?

a) reading/speaking	b) reading/writing/listening	c) reading/writing/speaking	d) all four skills
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5. After each lesson the teacher/ internet gives tasks to you that are appropriate:

a) For the lesson taken	b) for the students' level	c) for the students' needs	d) for the students' subject area
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Questionnaire 3: Learning ESP with a language teacher, on the internet, or a combination of both –graphic 3
The questions of the third questionnaire are:

1. The students' language needs are worked out in relation to their skills by:

a) the ESP teacher	b) the internet	c) neither of them	d) both of them
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2. Situations from your subject area are created by:

a) The ESP teacher	b) the internet	c) neither of them	d) both of them
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3. Students are motivated with variety, authentic materials and fun by:

a) The ESP teacher	b) the internet	c) neither of them	d) both of them
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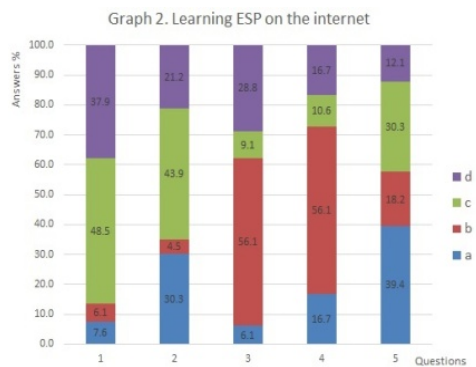
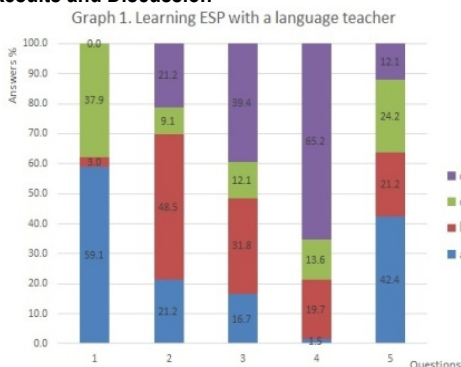
4. When you learn ESP, you have to find additional materials as well, when you work with:

a) The ESP teacher	b) the internet	c) neither of them	d) both of them
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5. How do you prefer learning ESP to ensure the fostering of sustainable lifelong learning?

a) The ESP teacher	b) the internet	c) neither of them	d) both of them
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7. Results and Discussion



From the graphic results it is seen that 59.1% of the students consider the created atmosphere when learning ESP with a teacher motivating (7.6% when using the computer). When learning ESP in class you have to learn face to face not only with the teacher, but with the other students as well, so you are appraised and this motivates students to learn more and to give their best. Whereas 48.5% of them consider it interesting when using the internet and here again we have a good percentage of 37.9% of students when learning with a teacher. Very few students find it annoying for both cases (3%-teacher/ 6.1% internet), but it's very interesting to underline the fact that none of the students think it's quiet to learn ESP with a teacher (37.9% - internet), because when learning ESP in class, students have to collaborate, debate, share knowledge, work in pairs, in groups etc.

Regarding the second question, it is seen that 48.5% of the students say that they are dependent on the textbook of the course, whereas 43.9% of them say that they have to find materials themselves when learning ESP on the internet. This shows that when students learn in class, they rely heavily on the textbook they have. So it is the teachers' duty to use additional materials too, found mostly by students, so they become more independent and can come across other sources of information and vocabulary as well. A lot of students feel more independent when learning on the internet, compared to learning with the teacher (30.3% - internet; 21.2% - teacher).

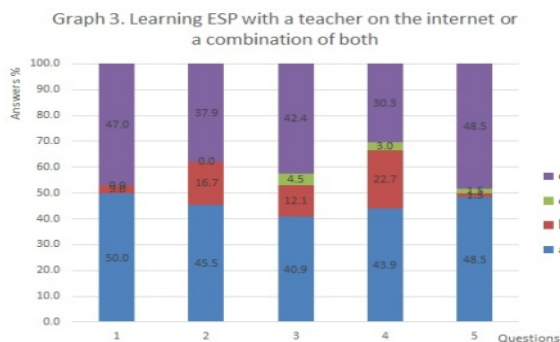
The graphic results show that students have chosen with little percentage differences all four options concerning the way the teacher helps them assimilate the vocabulary they need. This happens because the teacher knows the level, the needs and the personality of each group of students and this urges the teacher use different strategies for different group of learners.

Whereas most students (56.1%; 28.8%) think that the internet helps them by giving the meaning of certain unknown words and by suggesting strategies for a lifelong remembering of the ESP vocabulary.

From the responses to the fourth question it's clear that the majority of students think that they master all four skills when learning with the teacher (65.2% - teacher; 16.7%- internet). This happens because in a learning/ teaching environment in class, students are faced with various activities that enable them combine skills to have a successful learning process. A large number of students (56.1%) have chosen the three skills (reading, writing, listening) they can master when learning on the internet. *Speaking* is left out, because students think they can not do the same spoken activities they do when they are in class.

Concerning the tasks given after each lesson, the results show that students have chosen all options with no great differences for the teacher and the internet as well. It's seen that the two options the majority of students have chosen are tasks for the lesson taken (42.4% - the teacher; 39.4% - the internet) and tasks appropriate for the students' needs (24.2%- the teacher; 30.3%- the internet).

Time is also an important factor within the classroom. Sinclair and Renouf (1988) note, "it is exceptionally difficult to teach an organized syllabus of both grammar and lexis at the same time".



The majority of students think that their language needs are worked out in relation to their skills by the teacher (50%), whereas 47% of them think the needs are worked out by both, teacher and internet as well. This happens because students trust more the traditional method of teaching and think the teacher knows them best with their strong and weak points.

Responses to the second question demonstrate that students think that situations are best created by the teacher 45.5%, by the internet 16.7%, and by both 37.9%, (leaving out the third option – neither of them 0%). As the results show again most students have chosen the teacher and a combination with the internet as well.

From the responses to the third question, it comes out that the majority of students (42.4%) think that both teacher and internet motivate students with variety, authentic material and fun. An approximate number has chosen only the teacher (40.9%). This happens even because of the fact that some students have difficulty in using the internet properly.

Regarding the fourth question about the additional materials they have to find, the majority of students (43.9%), have chosen the teacher (22.7% the internet), because when they work in class with the language teacher they have to bring other materials related to the topic of the lesson and at the end of the term they have to hand in and to orally present a coursework in which they will have to write all the bibliography they have used in preparing it. But the graphic shows that 30.3% have chosen both (teacher and internet). This shows that a lot of students use the internet to learn ESP, while they study it in school with the teacher.

Surprisingly the graphic shows that there is an equal division of percentages concerning the way they prefer learning ESP to ensure the fostering of sustainable lifelong learning. We have 48.5% the choice for the language teacher and the same 48.5% the choice for both teacher and internet.

8. Conclusions

Students find it more motivating when learning ESP with a teacher than when learning it on the internet. When learning a foreign language, especially when learning it for specific purposes, having a motivating learning environment is crucial to urge students learn and study and as a result having a successful teaching and learning process. Students consider both ways of learning ESP interesting, but underlining that learning ESP on the internet is quiet. This has its advantages and disadvantages as well, because students learn on their own, not having the possibility of sharing knowledge and opinions with others.

Students feel more independent when they learn ESP on the internet, because in this way they surf all the materials they think that can fulfill their needs, but not always all students are competent of using the right materials for specific situations of study. When learning ESP with a teacher, students are very dependent on the textbook of the course, so teachers have to find strategies of making students use other supplementary materials as well, combining teaching in class with learning on the internet. The language teacher is considered as the person who knows students best, so students think the teacher uses methods to help them assimilate all ESP vocabulary and aspects of language they need.

The majority of students think that when learning ESP in class they have the opportunity to master all four skills because of the various activities they do, but when using the internet they leave out *speaking* as being a skill used differently in both ways of learning.

According to students, the teacher and the internet give a variety of tasks, but answers that dominate are tasks for the lesson taken given by the teacher and this relates somehow to the fact that students are very dependent on the book, and tasks appropriate for the students' level concerning the internet.

When it comes to the choice of learning ESP with a teacher, on the internet or both ways, it's noted that students prefer the traditional way of learning, i.e. with a teacher, but not excluding a combination with the internet. Almost half of students asked think that using both ways of learning will help them to better work out their language needs in relation to their skills, that situations in class are best created and that students are motivated with variety, authentic material and fun. So it's understandable that students more and more want to include the internet as well in their learning as a new tool to ensure a more successful learning.

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A New Methodical Treatment for Math Teaching and its Effect on Math Learning

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Abstract

In Albania during recent years, has been seen an increase in the attention of teachers to deepen scientific, pedagogical and methodical knowledge. Teachers have all the ways open to further training. Qualifications are designed to enable teachers in the possession and application of psycho-pedagogical knowledge. Relying on this knowledge teachers create the opportunity to review critically the personal experience of teaching and to enrich it with new ideas and didactic experiences. Also, this gives them support of creating opportunities to teachers to analyze the methods and ways of learning, assess performance gaps to understand, and most important issue even to find the right way to overcome the real difficulties that may occur during the teaching. In this context our model of dual treatments is a new experience for the teachers. We introduced the dual treatments with the teachers of elementary education, who studied for professional qualification in "Aleksandër Xhuvani" University of Elbasan, Albania during the year 2011-2012. There were included in the study 113 teachers from 487 participants. The study showed that the introduction of teachers with the model of dual treatments raised the scale of self-esteem of teachers for a better implementation of dual treatments in teaching of mathematics. The study showed also that there exists significant relation between six grades teachers' seniority and their dual treatments abilities.

Keywords: elementary education, mathematics teaching, mathematics learning, dual treatments

1. Introduction

The science of didactics and methodology of mathematics are studied in universities to prepare future teachers. They include methods and better forms, which are the result of the generalization of more teaching experience. The methodology of teaching process issues: in what way and why just so, should be learnt. New elements that appear and are placed in the practice of teaching enrich the essence of the methodology by giving it always a new spirit. The opportunity for the implementation of the methodology in the work of teachers depends largely on his professional training and his abilities to run the mental activity of pupils, and by making him active. To realize such an event, the teacher should be a good dominant of the elements didactics and methodology of the given subject and to implement them during teaching. The teacher should be able to select in each case the best teaching method that fits to the goals of its work, to predict the possible consequence of applying this method, always to find the way of solution to the difficulties which can arise and then make the self-analysis and assess the achievement of the goal. On the other side it is known that the thinking in general is addressed towards the things that are not known. A person is curious and he wants to learn about everything. The development of the student thinking grows considerably if the teacher alongside teaching mathematics teaches different ways of thinking and reasoning. Indeed, thinking is displayed in the ability to analyze and synthesize, to generalize and concretize and so on; that is, it is displayed in the ability to use different ways of thinking activity in the process of studying the material and of solving problems in every situation faced in the daily life. We think that these tendencies must be exerted in a positive direction during the process of teaching math, teaching the student, who is guided by the desire to get knowledge, to study the theory and the exercises from all points of view. On supporting this idea, interesting information is the evidence of dualism in science in general (Gay & Tall, 1994; Korneyeva & Yastrebov, 2004; Turuntayev & Yastrebov, 2005; Valeyeva & Yastrebov, 2009; Korthagen, 2010), and particularly in mathematics (Gao, 2000; Yastrebov, 2001; Yastrebov, Men'shikova & Yepifanova, 2006; Artstein-Avidan & Milman,

2007; Kerendzhi, 2009; Gjoci & Kërënxi, 2009a,b).

It is a very positive fact that in the elementary school text-books of mathematics, the concepts often are treated in duality. Meanwhile, we identify the lack of the necessary skills and knowledge to use dual treatments effectively. The teachers face with the necessity to have a theoretical instructive model for dual treatments at the level of the students at elementary education. The researchers think that the lack of experience and instructive materials about the realization of dual treatments are the main causes which lead the teacher in one-sided interpretations of the concepts and one-sided analyses of the mathematical processes. The wrong way of treatment the mathematic concepts, processes and mathematic exercises influences a lot in the partly acquisition of the knowledge from the students. These deficiencies in teaching can be reparable. That's why based on our experience in teaching, worldwide experience and in the desire to improve teaching of mathematics, we propose implementation of teaching through dual treatments. (see Gjoci, 2011, 2012a,b; Gjoci & Kërënxi, 2010, 2012; Kërënxi, 2011, 2012a,b; Kërënxi & Gjoci, 2010, 2011).

The researchers introduced the dual treatments during 2009-2010 on 10 teachers of elementary education (grade 1-5) of some schools of Elbasan city in Albania. Five of these teachers (grade 1-5) implemented dual treatments on the average in 30% of classes (Gjoci & Kërënxi, 2010). After the implementation of the model in math teaching of the first grade of elementary education and statistical elaboration of data for 221 students (the year 2009-2011), we came to the conclusion that students who are taught with dual treatments in the subject of mathematics have better results in this subject than students who have not been treated with them. The researchers included 6 lectures about "teaching through dual treatments" in the program about the qualification of teachers of elementary education in the "Aleksandër Xhuvani" University of Elbasan during the year 2011-2012. In this paper we describe briefly the lectures about dual treatments and the study about the influence of these lectures to the participant teachers.

2. Theoretical qualification of teachers about the realization of teaching through dual treatments

By 'dual treatment' in mathematics of elementary education, the researchers mean the dual interpretation, analysis, solution and formulation, respectively of the concept, process, exercise and problem that carries a dual nature. According to Egan, (1997) dual structuring is prominent in modern young children's thinking seems so obvious that it hardly needs pointing out. Meanwhile according to Hallpike (1979) dual oppositions are intrinsic to the process of human thought.

Dual treatments realized about three categories, which are included in the curricula and text-books of mathematics. In the 1st category were included those concepts and relations that accept dual interpretation. By dual interpretation the researchers understand the activity through which the mathematical concept or relation is interpreted with its dual aspect. Dual interpretations of concepts or relations are the initial level of dual treatments. Dual treatments of the initial level can be applied by the teachers starting from the first topics of teaching mathematics of the first grade, where the dual concepts are present. In the 2nd category there are included the processes and facts which can be analyzed in two different points of view or according to us, they accept the dual analysis. By dual analysis we understand the activity through which the mathematical fact or process is analyzed in two different ways. Dual analyses constitute the average level of dual treatments. The dual treatments of the average level can be applied by the teacher starting with very simple exercises after the quarter of the mathematical program of the 1st grade had been developed. In the 3rd category we include exercises and problems for which the students must be writing two different solutions or writing the dual problem of the given problem. In this category the researchers evaluate especially the ability of students to be used with the dual formulation of the problem and understanding that the dual problem differentiates from the opposite problem "because in the dual problem, the solution doesn't change but only the formulation does" (Gjoci & Kërënxi, 2010, p. 420). The combination of dual solution with the dual formulation constitutes the higher level of dual treatments. For this level the student should be able to give different solvings for these problems, to build different schemas for their solving and to give the dual problem of the given problem.

2.1 For interpretation of dual concepts

Referring to the curricula of elementary education in Albania and the mathematic textbook of the first grade (Dedej, et.al., 2009), the researchers observe that the meanings inside-outside are the first dual concepts which can be interpreted in duality. They can be interpreted in duality for the first time in the four lesson of the first unit (Dedej, et.al., 2009, p. 8). Teaching can be realized through the story of Little Red Cap. The teacher should be careful so that the students to become familiar with the meanings inside - outside. Continuing the illustrated fairy - tale, the students are invited to tell what fruit the mother have put in the basket of Red Cap and which fruit are outside the basket. Continuing the illustration

of fairy - tale the students should tell for example the objects which are in the house of grandmother and what they are watching outside of the house through the window. Teaching continues with many examples given by the students. The teacher should take care of the students to become familiar with these meanings and to individualize elements of community in its internal area. The assimilation of these concepts is also important for the fact that becoming familiar with them precedes the topic on the association one by one and the topic on other dual meanings of more than-less than. The meanings more than-less than are some of the most important meanings pertaining to the understanding of the number directly related with it. They can be interpreted in duality in the sixth lesson of the first unit (Dedej, et.al., 2009, p. 10),, which studied in the second week of the school program. By using the method of accompanying one by one the elements of both units the students manage to make the comparison of the units, to come in the conclusion, which has more-less elements. In the sixth lesson of the second unit (Dedej, et.al., 2009, p. 18), which is explained and treated on the thirteenth class of the teaching program of mathematics, can be interpreted in duality for the first time the markings $>$, $<$, while in the seventh lesson of the second unit this two markings link two numbers by forming an inequality. Teacher should ask such questions "what do we have more" and for the same model of exercise she should ask the question "what do we have less?" In the seventh lesson of the second unit the teacher should ask the students to answer the questions: what do we have more? What do we have less? Which number is bigger? Which number is smaller? In the eighth lesson of the second unit (Dedej, et.al., 2009, p. 18), the teacher should interpret in duality the note $1 < 2$: the number one is smaller than the number two and the number two is bigger than the number one. In this way the students get used to "see" the inequality in its both directions and understand that when the number 1 is smaller than the number 2, at the same time, the number 2 is bigger than the number 1. The length meaning is one of the main meanings that are linked directly with the distance meaning. The term of length in mathematics serves to characterize the segment and exactly its measure. Teacher should interpret in duality the meanings longer than - shorter than, using a lot of examples of comparison. For every example teacher should ask the students to answer not only to the question: "which is longer?", but also to the question: "which is shorter?".

2.2 Analysis of dual processes. Dual problems

Dual analysis can begin with the examples: $1+5=6$ and $6=1+5$; $2+4=6$ and $6=2+4$ etc. In the second semester the dual analysis should be complete: numerical equalization $5+3=8$ (Dedej et.al., 2009, p. 50) shows that the sum of the numbers 5, 3 is 8, and at the same time 8 could be explained as the addition of two factors 5, 3.

Dual formulation includes the main problem and the dual problem. The teacher can formulate for the first time the dual problem according to the example: The teacher creates in the class a store where are sold flowers and puts as a seller one of the students. Then she invites Anna and Mary. The teacher tells them to buy flowers as a gift for their mother. Anna bought 6 flowers meanwhile Mary bought 4 flowers. The teacher asks the students to solve this problem: Anna bought 6 flowers meanwhile Mary bought 4 flowers. Which of the children bought more flowers? How many flowers more? After the students solved this problem, the teacher should ask the questions: Which of the children bought less flowers? How many flowers less? Solving in both models is the same despite from different formulations of the questions. Teacher should note this fact by the help of her students. Solving in duality or solving in two different ways can be applied through this example: Jenny bought 6 notebooks. Emma bought 9 notebooks. How many notebooks bought both girls together? Solve the problem in two ways. Students should give the solutions: $6+9=15=(6+4)+5=15$; $6+9=(6+6)+3=15$.

The dual treatments, included in our model of teaching, allow the successful students to be flexible in thinking, moving in between both viewpoints, thus creating the possibility for the students to understand the existence at the opposite realities upon the same scene. If the teacher of the elementary school teaches the students to use a mental structure based on dual treatments, then such abilities come out from the students, that the students at the same time can see both realities of the same view. A student with these reflexes will be always successful in mathematics.

3. Effect on self-esteem of teachers

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of instructional lections for dual treatments (DTL) on self-esteem of teachers to implement dual treatments in mathematics teaching. The main issues of this study were:

1. Are there any effects of using DTL on teacher's self-esteem for dual treatment implementation?
2. Is there a significant relation between teachers' workplace (urban/rural area) and their dual treatments abilities?
3. Is there a significant relation between six grades teachers' seniority and their dual treatments abilities?

4. Methodology

4.1 Participants

Participants in this study were the teachers of elementary education of some 9-year schools, who studied in "Aleksandër Xhuvani" University of Elbasan, Albania, in order to be qualified during the 2011-2012 academic year. In the study took part 113 teachers selected from 487 teachers who studied in the university for professional qualification. The participants were from 9 counties (Albania is separated in 12 administrative counties): Tirana, Elbasan, Durrës, Fier, Berat, Korçë, Gjirokastër, Dibër, Kukës. Table 1 indicates the distribution of teachers into districts of the county and then in municipalities, grouped in rural and urban teachers. Table 2 indicates the other characteristics of participants of this study.

Table 1. Distribution of participants according to the counties, districts and municipalities

County	District	Municipality	Workplace of teachers		
			In city	In village	Total
Berat	Berat	Bashkia Ura-Vajgurore	1	1	3
	Skrapar	Çorovodë	1	0	
Dibër	Bulqizë	Shupenzë, Ostren	0	2	4
	Dibër	Lurë	0	1	
	Mat	Xibër	0	1	
Durrës	Durrës	Durrës, Shijak, Sukth, Rrashkull, Xhafzotaj	4	3	9
	Krujë	Krujë	2	0	
Elbasan	Elbasan	Elbasan, Bradashesh, Gostimë, Labinot-Fushë, Labinot-Mal, Mollas, Papër, Shushicë, Shalës	12	14	50
	Gramsh	Gramsh, Kodovjat, Kukur, Poroçan	1	5	
	Librazhd	Librazhd, Polis, Prrenjës, Stravaj, Stërblevë, Rrajcë, Hotolisht	7	9	
	Peqin	Gjoçaj, Shezë	0	2	
Fier	Fier	Fier, Roskovec, Kuman, Mbrostar,	2	2	18
	Lushnje	Lushnje, Ballagat, Bubullimë, Fier-Shegan, Golem-Lushnje, Karbunarë, Remas, Tërbuf	4	10	
Gjirokastër	Tepelenë	Tepelenë	1	0	1
Korçë	Korçë	Korçë, Maliq, Voskop	2	4	8
	Pogradec	Velçan	1	1	
Kukës	Kukës	Malzi	0	1	1
Tirana	Kavajë	Rrogzhinë, Golem, Lekaj, Luzi i Vogël	2	3	19
	Tirana	Tiranë, Kamëz, Paskuqan, Pezë, Petrelë	8	6	
Total	19	62	48 42.5%	65 57.5%	113 100%

Table 2. Characteristics of participants

Variables	N	%
Gender	113	100
Female	95	84.1
Male	18	15.9
Seniority	N	%
1 - 5 years	20	17.7
5 - 10 years	17	15.0
10 - 15 years	15	13.3
15 - 20 years	18	15.9
20 - 25 years	24	21.2
25 +	19	16.8

4.2 Instruments and data collection

Self-esteem was measured through self-reporting statements of teachers based in teaching as a profession. A 20-item scale was conducted to measure self-esteem. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of the total scale was .90, so the scale can be considered reliable with our sample. A two-dimensional analysis is performed for self-esteem. The dimensions are called "current implementation" and "implementation in the future". The measures for "current implementation" were conducted before DTL. They were made to evaluate how much the teachers apply the dual treatments now in mathematic teaching of elementary education. The test includes ten items with a coefficient Cronbach's alpha .88. As Cronbach's alpha for each item varied from .86 to .88, all items were evaluated as acceptable. The measures for "implementation in the future" were conducted after DTL. They were made to evaluate the scale of self-esteem and the alert of teachers for dual treatments implementation in the future. The "implementation in the future" - scale consists of ten items with a coefficient Cronbach's alpha of .86. The Likert-type scale with five-option there used to measure the "current implementation" (Never = 1, Rarely = 2, Sometimes = 3, Often = 4, All of the Time = 5) and level of "implementation in the future" (Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Neutral = 3, Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5). Measures were made at two different times.

The intercorrelation was investigated using Pearson Product-Moment coefficient Correlation for "Comparison of sizes", "Comparison of quantities", "Comparison of lengths", "Comparison of numbers", "Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 20", "Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 100", "Dual analysis after solution of equations", "Dual analysis after solution of inequalities", "Dual solution of exercises", "Dual formulation of problems" which were measured for "current implementation". The data are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Inter-item correlation coefficients on "current implementation"

Measures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
(1) CS	1.00									
(2) CQ	.64**	1.00								
(3) CL	.54**	.51**	1.00							
(4) CN	.51**	.52**	.42**	1.00						
(5) DAAU20	.38**	.45**	.53**	.46**	1.00					
(6) DAAU00	.43**	.55**	.55**	.51**	.76**	1.00				
(7) DAASE	.31**	.39**	.36**	.37**	.58**	.52**	1.00			
(8) DAASI	.30**	.42**	.32**	.35**	.54**	.53**	.72**	1.00		
(9) DSE	.23*	.40**	.25**	.35**	.41**	.45**	.38**	.40**	1.00	
(10) DFP	.21*	.38**	.21*	.29**	.34**	.34**	.43**	.30**	.37**	1.00

N=113. CS= Comparison of sizes scale; CQ= Comparison of quantities scale; CL= Comparison of lengths scale; CN= Comparison of numbers scale; DAAU20= Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 20 scale; DAAU100= Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 100 scale; DAASE= Dual analysis after solution of equations scale; DAASI= Dual analysis after solution of inequalities scale; DSE= Dual solution of exercises scale; DFP= Dual formulation of problems scale. *p< 0.05, **p< 0.01.

Different authors suggest different interpretations of Pearson Correlation coefficient. Referring Cohen (1988) we can say about "current implementation" that there are strong relationships between comparison of quantities and comparison of sizes (41%), between dual analysis in case when the addition is until 100 and dual analysis in case when the addition is until 20 (58%), between dual analysis after solution of inequalities and dual analysis after solution of equations (52%). Meanwhile in the Table 4 are shown the analogue data for "implementation in the future".

Table 4. Inter-item correlation coefficients on "implementation in the future"

Measures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
(1) CS	1.00									
(2) CQ	.43**	1.00								
(3) CL	.35**	.55**	1.00							
(4) CN	.46**	.48**	.43**	1.00						

(5) DAAU20	.33**	.33**	.22*	.38**	1.00					
(6) DAAU100	.33**	.53**	.37**	.37**	.65**	1.00				
(7) DAASE	.27**	.22*	.15	.26**	.36**	.41**	1.00			
(8) DAASI	.15	.38**	.29**	.23**	.34**	.48**	.63**	1.00		
(9) DSE	.30**	.39**	.36**	.38**	.37**	.46**	.32**	.53**	1.00	
(10) DFP	.10	.33**	.33**	.32**	.44**	.50**	.38**	.51**	.59**	1.00

N=113. CS= Comparison of sizes scale; CQ= Comparison of quantities scale; CL= Comparison of lengths scale; CN= Comparison of numbers scale; DAAU20= Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 20 scale; DAAU100= Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 100 scale; DAASE= Dual analysis after solution of equations scale; DAASI= Dual analysis after solution of inequalities scale; DSE= Dual solution of exercises scale; DFP= Dual formulation of problems scale. *p< 0.05, **p< 0.01.

Even Pearson Correlations between “implementation in the future” items continue to emerge again strong relationship between dual analysis in case when the addition is until 100 and dual analysis in case when the addition is until 20 (42%), between dual analysis after solution of inequalities and dual analysis after solution of equations (40%) and also show very strong relationship between dual formulation of problems and dual solution of exercises (35%) compared with 14% in “current implementation”.

4.3 Results

The statistical analyses were done by using both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Although the research was designed as a survey study, to see the whole picture and to understand the interaction between the data presented descriptively, inferential statistics were also performed. The data were analyses by using the program of SPSS 17.0 package.

Regarding to 3rd issue of study the results indicated that teachers with 10-15 years seniority in education dedicate more to dual analysis, dual solution and dual formulation while teachers with 15-25 years seniority in education dedicate more to dual interpretation. In the Table 5 is given more information for “current implementation” regarding seniority.

Table 5. “Current implementation” of dual treatments regarding seniority

Measures	Seniority	Mean differences					
		< 5	5 - 10	10 - 15	15 - 20	20 - 25	> 25
(1) CS	20 - 25	.75	.34	.15	.03	0	.07
(2) CQ	15 - 20	.88	.37	.24	0	.03	.20
(3) CL	20 - 25	.95*	.34	.02	.19	0	.01
(4) CN	20 - 25	.82	.46	.41	.04	0	.24
(5) DAAU20	10 - 15	1.38*	.67	0	.51	.11	.58
(6) DAAU100	10 - 15	.80	.66	0	.38	.10	.55
(7) DAASE	20 - 25	.99	.35	.09	.46	0	.61
(8) DAASI	10 - 15	.72	.40	0	.26	.03	.34
(9) DSE	10 - 15	.82	.36	0	.18	.40	.33
(10) DFP	10 - 15	.83	.35	0	.27	.60	.25

N=113. CS= Comparison of sizes scale; CQ= Comparison of quantities scale; CL= Comparison of lengths scale; CN= Comparison of numbers scale; DAAU20= Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 20 scale; DAAU100= Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 100 scale; DAASE= Dual analysis after solution of equations scale; DAASI= Dual analysis after solution of inequalities scale; DSE= Dual solution of exercises scale; DFP= Dual formulation of problems scale. *p< 0.05.

In order to answer to the 1st issue: Are there any effects of using DTL on teacher’s self-esteem for dual treatment implementation? – in the Table 6 there are shown the results about the “current implementation” of dual treatments from the teachers in teaching mathematics in elementary education and results about “implementation in the future”. The data are grouped according to the number of individuals and the percentage that has this number in the sample (113 teachers).

Table 6. Items' Frequencies, Means and Standard Deviations

MEASURES			1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
CURRENT IMPLEMENTATION	1. Comparison of sizes	N	0	16	37	44	16	3.53	0.907
		%	0	14.2	32.7	38.9	14.2		
	2. Comparison of quantities	N	2	19	36	33	23	3.5	1.053
		%	1.8	16.8	31.9	29.2	20.4		
	3. Comparison of lengths	N	2	11	50	29	21	3.5	0.965
		%	1.8	9.7	44.2	25.7	18.6		
	4. Comparison of numbers	N	1	21	33	30	28	3.56	1.085
		%	.9	18.6	29.2	26.5	24.8		
	5. Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 20	N	7	26	30	39	11	3.19	1.09
		%	6.2	23.0	26.5	34.5	9.7		
6. Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 100	N	6	27	32	36	12	3.19	1.082	
	%	5.3	23.9	28.3	31.9	10.6			
7. Dual analysis after solution of inequalities	N	16	27	35	25	10	2.88	1.174	
	%	14.2	23.9	31.0	22.1	8.8			
8. Dual analysis after solution of equations	N	19	36	37	16	5	2.58	1.067	
	%	16.8	31.9	32.7	14.2	4.4			
9. Dual solution of exercises	N	9	46	34	18	6	2.7	1.008	
	%	8.0	40.7	30.1	15.9	5.3			
10. Dual formulation of problems	N	16	39	43	13	2	2.52	0.936	
	%	14.2	34.5	38.1	11.5	1.8			
IMPLEMENTATION IN THE FUTURE	1. Comparison of sizes	N	0	5	9	75	24	4.04	0.686
		%	0	4.4	8.0	66.4	21.2		
	2. Comparison of quantities	N	1	2	15	60	35	4.12	0.765
		%	.9	1.8	13.3	53.1	31.0		
	3. Comparison of lengths	N	0	2	20	60	31	4.06	0.723
		%	0	1.8	17.7	53.1	27.4		
	4. Comparison of numbers	N	0	6	15	51	41	4.12	0.836
		%	0	5.3	13.3	45.1	36.3		
	5. Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 20	N	1	10	28	55	19	3.72	0.881
		%	.9	8.8	24.8	48.7	16.8		
6. Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 100	N	2	11	30	59	11	3.59	0.863	
	%	1.8	9.7	26.5	52.2	9.7			
7. Dual analysis after solution of inequalities	N	4	12	35	49	13	3.49	0.955	
	%	3.5	10.6	31.0	43.4	11.5			
8. Dual analysis after solution of equations	N	3	20	42	39	9	3.27	0.938	
	%	2.7	17.7	37.2	34.5	8.0			
9. Dual solution of exercises	N	3	10	40	46	14	3.51	0.917	
	%	2.7	8.8	35.4	40.7	12.4			
10. Dual formulation of problems	N	4	21	40	38	10	3.26	0.98	
	%	3.5	18.6	35.4	33.6	8.8			

The statistics show that DTL influenced in the self-esteem of the teachers by shifting median from level “Sometimes=3” (current implementation) in level “Agree=4” (implementation in the future). Mean scale is shifted from 31.12 (current implementation) to 37.18 (implementation in the future).

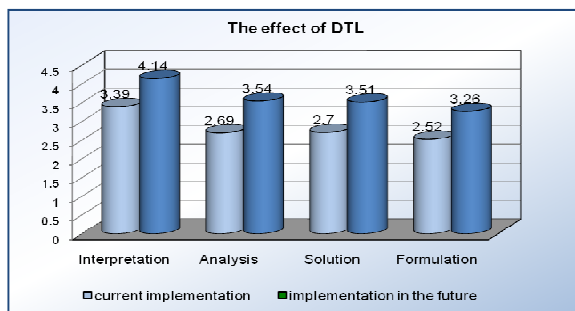
Paired sample t-tests (also called repeated measures) are used in order to understand changes between scores from Time 1- “current implementation”, at Time 2- “implementation in the future” (after after some intervention or event) which are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Paired sample t-tests

	Paired Differences					t	Sig
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
				Lower	Upper		
(1) CS - CS	.513	.846	.080	.356	.671	6.447	.000
(2) CQ - CQ	.619	.849	.080	.461	.778	7.761	.000
(3) CL - CL	.566	1.008	.095	.379	.754	5.974	.000
(4) CN - CN	.566	1.051	.099	.370	.762	5.728	.000
(5) DAAU20 - DAAU20	.531	1.053	.099	.335	.727	5.361	.000
(6) DAAU100 - DAAU100	.398	.996	.094	.213	.584	4.251	.000
(7) DAASE - DAASE	.611	1.129	.106	.400	.821	5.747	.000
(8) DAASI - DAAS	.699	.981	.092	.516	.882	7.576	.000
(9) DSE - DSE	.814	1.023	.096	.624	1.005	8.464	.000
(10) DFP - DFP	.735	.982	.092	.551	.918	7.950	.000

CS= Comparison of sizes; CQ= Comparison of quantities; CL= Comparison of lengths; CN= Comparison of numbers; DAAU20= Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 20; DAAU100= Dual analysis in case when the addition is until 100; DAASE= Dual analysis after solution of equations; DAASI= Dual analysis after solution of inequalities; DSE= Dual solution of exercises; DFP= Dual formulation of problems.

Table 7 shows a statistically important effect from the “current implementation” to “implementation in the future” for each of measured items 1-10. This shows that DTL should be included in the cycle of lectures about the qualification of elementary school teachers. In the graph 1 there are shown the differences that created DTL from Time 1- “current implementation” in Time 2- “implementation in the future” in dual interpretations, dual analysis, dual solutions and dual formulations.



Graph 1. The Effect of DTL in dual interpretation, analysis, solution, formulation scale

5. Discussions and conclusions

Our Dual Treatments Model, which starts with the dual interpretation and dual analysis of the symbols, continues with other dual treatments, inspired by research done after 2000. In this period are investigated the dual properties of mathematics and their reflection in this kind of teaching. These studies concluded that dual properties of mathematics can be easily illustrated by a simple material included in actual standards of education. After we concluded that the mathematic curriculum for elementary education in Albania is rich with models which accept dual treatment (see Gjoci & Kërenxhi, 2010) we did the study with the teachers of elementary education (2011-2012). This study is done in order to see in which scale teachers apply dual treatments in mathematic. The study continued with the same group of teachers even after qualification with DTL. The results showed that these lectures had a statistically important effect in the growth of self-esteem of the teachers for the implementation in the future of dual treatments in teaching (mean scale statistics was raised from M=11.30 to M=14.45). In the study was used quantity method for the realization of research, concretely the technique of questionnaires for data collection. The number of distributed questionnaires was 130, collected 122, from which resulted as valuable for statistical analysis 113. Despite that teachers taught in the city (42.5%) and in village

(57.5%) the workplace didn't effect on "current implementation" of dual treatments and not even in alert of dual treatments' implementation "implementation in the future" (issue 2). This helped that the qualification with DTL to be without differentiating: teachers in village/teachers in city. Statistics show that there is an important relationship between scales 3, 4, 5 of seniority of teachers and their ability to make dual treatments (issue 3). So teachers who have 10 – 25 years in education apply better dual treatments. Concluding we can say that since statistics showed an important effect from "current implementation" to "implementation in the future" (issue 1) DTL should be included in the lectures for the qualification of the teachers in elementary education.

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Learning through Senses in Geography, Evaluation and Opportunities

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Abstract

Knowledge through senses is the first source of any recognition. Realized through senses and perceptions, it changes by age and individuals. It plays an irreplaceable role in the learning process. It works together with logic recognizing accompanying and fulfilling the learning to each individual. In the paper there are presented the change that is gained during age growth versus sensory recognition. Also we are trying to treat different ways of realization of sensory knowledge in the subject of geography in different cycles of education. In the paper it is estimated the use of different teaching tools, their possibilities, discussed in a case study. It analyzed the text: "Geography 11", which is in use in our schools. The methodology used is explanatory, analysis, focusing on explaining the process of learning through senses. Statistical methods come in assistance of further analysis.

Keywords: *learning through senses, geography, learning process, students.*

1. Introduction

The paper has as object "learning through senses", treated as the initial element in the learning process. In this paper it is treated too, the logical recognition, as a psychological basic component of the thinking, as well as the various activities that we combined it. Another issue is addressed the different ways of realization of sensory knowledge in the subject of geography, relying on different cycles of pre-university education system and at various stages of the individual, as in the early school age and adolescence. The performance of sensory recognition is analyzed through text "Geography 11" with authors Doka Dh. and Draci B., text used in our schools in pre-university education. This is accomplished by various elements presented in the text such as images, photographs, maps etc.

2. Methodology

The used methodology is that analytical and explanatory - illustration. These methods are used with a view to explaining the process of learning through sensory recognition. Through the use of theoretical materials is made possible explanation, illustration of the issues dealt below. Is made viable the explanation of the various ways of obtaining the sensory recognition in the subject of geography, focusing on text "Geography 11".

3. Recognition and logical sense as the primary element in the learning process

Sensory recognition is a direct reflection of objective reality, and Gaçe P, (1988) cites that it is primary source of every recognition. Sensory recognition is performed using sensibility, perception and imagination. It differs in certain age groups and individuals, being conditioned by external and internal factors. It plays a primary role in the learning process. During the learning process the sensory level of recognition combined with logical level of recognition by the accompanying pupils throughout this process.

To students of new school age, in the process of learning, the sensory recognition occupies a significant place because of the prevalence of the first signaling system. Students gain knowledge through contact and direct action with

objects, with different figures and their appearance. "Learning through looking" is seen as a fundamental and valuable skill, increasingly relevant in a world dominated by visual communication. (Learning through looking: Icknield High school, June 2011, pg.2). In this age there exist elements of logical recognition.

Through sensory recognition pupils recognize the properties and external qualities of objects and phenomena by removing the internal core. Such knowledge is superficial and often leads to students erroneous conclusions. (e.g.: for children of the early school age Earth is not orbiting the Sun, but the Sun is one that revolves around the Earth). Thus it becomes necessary clarifications and corrections performed by sensory recognition combined with elements of logical knowledge. Pupils should be able to see, to hear, and to separate the important part of the items and objects.

At the age of adolescence and then sensory recognition receives new features under the influence of learning and as a result of the vigorous development of other psychological cognitive processes. The amount of errors during sensory recognition in the process of learning falters and the amount of exact material increases.

The survey is the highest form, most active and complex of perception. Gace P, (1988) states: "The survey is closely related to mental actions, such as analysis, synthesis, comparison, classification, etc."

Width, accuracy and depth of sensory recognition in learning process depends not only on the use of resources of materialization, but also by making use of more and more instruments, various technical tools, which complement the sensory organs, empower them and increase their perceptual skills.

Tools such as various maps, pictures of different images of objects and geographical phenomena, facilitate the process of perception by pupils and students. Sensory recognition is necessary at all levels of learning in school. However, students will need more in-depth information which does not give the senses. So logical recognition helps thinking process by which the pupils discovers the true cause of these objects and phenomena, the essence and laws of their development.

At the new school age the thinking undergoes marked changes. Pupils begin to learn at school having concrete thinking, while under the influence of learning, they gradually pass from the external side recognition of objects and phenomena in recognition of their essence. The highest rate of thinking in the school age is theoretical thinking, which created the opportunity for predictions. In this age it is not yet formed ability to difference features and properties and to distinguish the essential.

The level of acquisition by students of knowledge depends on the level of development of mental activities. At the new school age, especially in its beginnings, analytic-synthetic activity is still quite original. Its development goes by practical actions at the sensory and mental actions later on. Analytical activity of pupils passes from the practical analysis, in that mental-abstract, from partly analysis, in that complex and systematic. Also at the new school age it is developed synthesis and comparison.

The surveys of the learning process show that the new pupils school age encounter difficulties in establishing the connections and understanding of addiction causation. In this age and later the students have to pass easily from cause to effect rather than the effect to cause. The effectiveness of the acquisition of knowledge by students is strongly correlated especially with their general strength. Basis for generalization are reached by analysis, synthesis and comparison.

In recent years the new school age students gain agility to analyze, synthesize and compare to some extent independently.

At the age of adolescence marked changes occur in the development of thinking. Even at this early age, the impact of concrete-visual components of thinking becomes organized and run. One characteristic is the apparent development of critical thinking. At the age of adolescence, the student is not inclined to blindly rely only on the authority of teachers or text and he wants to have its opinions and views and the start to keep its critical attention. Another important characteristic at this age is also incrementally formation of the active, independent and creative thinking. In distinction from adolescence to adulthood school age, the critical thinking is developing in the rapid and visible content. He becomes directed and controlled. The ability of students to self-control, self-instruction, self-assessment, to estimate and to control the others in perfected link in the link.

4. Some ways of realization of sensory recognition in the subject of geography through learning materials

Developments in technology, new teaching techniques, and various instruments have grown possibility of an effective teaching in schools.

Teaching tools form part of didactic basis, the functions of which are:

1. Recognition function, realized by moving from concrete recognition to abstract recognition creating sustainable concepts.
2. Didactic function consists precisely in the assistance they provide for the acquisition of knowledge as systematic and consistent.
3. Motivational function that consists in increasing the interest of students to illustrate the theme of the resort suitable for the materialization.

The purpose of their use is much more activation of analyzer during observation, but also the involvement of as many senses to create to students as many specific images for a sustainable appropriation of knowledge, skills and habits.

In their studies Trandafilii & Karaguni, (2008, p.106), conclude that the human memory registers by:

Reading	10% of the material
Listening	20% of the material
Looking	30% of the material
Looking and listening	40% of the material
Individual solutions	70% of the material
Selfaction	90% of the material

Also in another study by Terri L. White, he noted that “Experts agree that most people retain approximately:

*20% of what we read
20% of what we hear
30% of what we see
50% of what we see and hear”. (Terri L. White, ¶ 2).*

Thus we see how important learning through the senses and use and their combinations is.

Ratings for teaching materials in geography are numerous but preferably grouped into: text materials, iconic materials, mapping materials, graphical materials and quantitative measuring instruments group. Will stop at the first three related to the analysis of text "Geography 11".



Fig.1



Fig.2



Fig.3

- Text materials include written materials. Their diversity in geography is great and aims to create to students the concrete ideas, comparisons opportunities, synthesis and analysis forming the further individual.
- Iconic materials. They are static or dynamic. They can be many e.g.: picture:
 - Natural landscapes (mountains, plains, seaside etc.)
Through these pictures the students have easy and clear to understand what it is explained and also to remember better. (fig.1)
 - Anthropological landscapes (towns, villages, industrial areas, tourist areas) (fig.2,3)
 - Other themes (transport, trade, development, environment), (fig.4,5)



Fig.4



Fig.5

- Illustrative dynamic materials. These materials are part of the iconic materials including films, but not only didactic, but also documentary films and even artistic. Effective use would be in explaining phenomena such as earthquakes and volcanoes.
- Photographs and images. Photographs and images are classified different types of: pictures, hand figure, or text books.
- Mental maps. These maps serve to pupils for an efficient conception of space, especially with regard to exact localization of geographical objects. The importance of the acquisition of skills and abilities of presentation of mental maps consists in fact of the exercising of the students to observe, to mentally organize what directly or indirectly observe, to maintain the distances of relative positions, to the reference points in the service of a mental accurate, complete and correct representation.(fig.6)

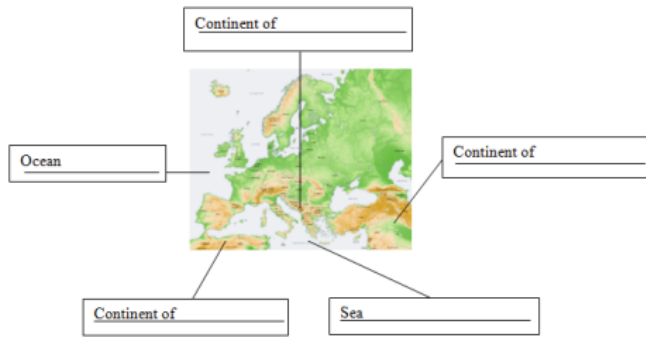
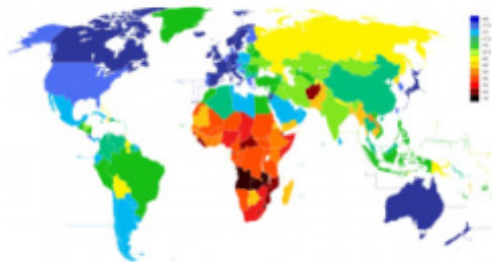


Fig 6.

- Mapping materials. Maps are used widely as didactic resources in learning geography. The map is basic didactic element of geography. The development of geographical thinking is realized through maps, so emerges the importance of learning the geography through mapping, recognition of its deep, gradually equipping students with the skills and theoretical knowledge and practical skills in the use of the map. General geographic maps. They are essential for the recognition of space, through a series of conventional signs and symbols including all physical elements such as natural and human. Thematic maps. Importance of these maps lies in the fact that: allow dealing with various problems and also allowing students to realize their original work on certain topics. This kind of thematic map can be constructed by the pupils themselves having relevant data. (fig.7)
- Graphical materials. Chart takes the attention of students and let linger in their memory. This category allows reading and immediate understanding of phenomena and presented facts. Graphics can be linear, histogram, aerogram etc.



The linear chart shows dynamics of a phenomenon or occurrence. In these types of diagrams data is given before in a table and after they are reflected in chart. e.g.: Natural growth chart in Shijaku town for period 1990-2005. (tab.1, fig.8)

Tab.1

Years	Births Seria 1	Deaths Seria 2	Natyror growth Seria 3
1990	135	64	71
1995	120	61	59
2000	110	50	60
2005	74	64	10

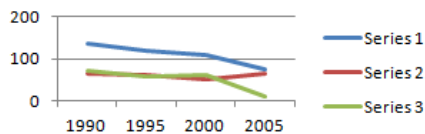


Fig.8

This chart allows understanding performance of some demographic indicators such as the number of births and deaths and natural increase. Pupils have very easily visually to show the progress of these indicators.

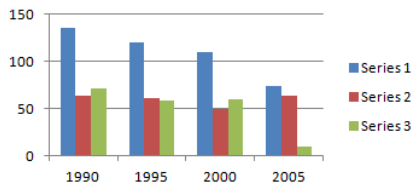


Fig.9

Histogram shows us the data of the table but in another form of graphic. (Fig.9)

Drawings and sketches Their task is the exact appearance of reality, space, objects, and phenomena. Drawings and sketches reproduce the reduced reality and evidence that what is most important

- Quantitative materials. Statistics is a tool that allows the summary of facts quantitatively. They can be obtained from various publications of different institutions.

5. Realization of sensory recognition through text "Geography 11" with author B. Draci and Dh. Doka, used in secondary schools of pre-university education



In the subject of geography there are different ways of realization of sensory recognition. One way is the realization of sensory recognition by looking. This approach can be accomplished by working with text, with map, dumb map, so to work with what we see.

Working with the map and the dumb map, text can be implemented individually or in groups. (On page 22 in text of Geography 11). Looking this map, pupils can understand the theme that will be explained; also they can give easier their opinions on the European continent by physical-geographical perspective.

Realization of sensory recognition in the text "Geography 11" through looking can also be achieved by photographic sources. Students see different pictures presented in the text and then they start to discuss about their content and meaning, and each student or group arrives at different or the same conclusions.

This is one of the many photos that are part of the text (pg. 75). Just watching that students are able to understand that it has to address the topic of world religions. (fig.10)



Fig.10



This is another map that is in the text "Geography 11" (pg. 31). It is presented on the topic for the European Union and look through it, pupils can clearly determine that countries are members and non-members of EU.

Another sense to realize the process of learning is by touching. This way of achievement of sensory recognizing can be used in 3D maps or in determining the type of the rocks. E.g.: Teacher presents a model of relief to students, by touching areas they will differ, hills and mountains. So it is a very simple process through which students understand more about what they need to know.

Also students are able to distinguish and indicate the type of component rocks in a certain region when these samples are present during lessons by looking and touching. In this case it is easy to distinguish sedimentary rocks (sandstone), which are loamy and magmatic rocks, which are solid.

Another way of achievement of sensory recognizing in the use of text "Geography 11" is that of listening. This approach can be realized by using questions and answers. Students listen to a question, comment, argument, etc. and then manage to give an answer or reach a conclusion. This can be realized in an individually manner or in groups, depending on the object to be discussed.

Independent works can be realized in text including all the methods mentioned above, each of them at various stages and at specific research work.

5.1 Evidence of sensory recognition in the text: "Geography 11"

In the text: "Geography 11", there is counted the use of various teaching materials and it is shown their usage ratio to the total topics. Here they are:

- Text materials are used 6 (in 26 new topics, estimated 0.23 materials per topics)
- Iconic materials are used 20 (estimated 0.8 materials per topics)
- Photographs and images are used 3 (estimated 0.12 materials per topics)
- Cartographic materials:
 - a. General geographic maps are used 12 (0.5 materials per topics).
 - b. Thematic maps are 10 (0.4 materials per topics).
- Mental maps are used 2 (0.08 materials per topics).
- Chart is 1 (liner chart) (0.04 materials per topics). No use of histogram, aerogram and quantitative materials in the text.

There is no requirement to use a type of material or another, but their use is evaluated against to topics of geography subject program by the authors.

6. Conclusions

- Sensory recognition is primary important element in the learning process. Special place is given to the logic recognition, whose importance goes parallel to the sensory recognition.
- The different ways of realization of sensory recognition, create such a complex activity that gives a very large auxiliary, creating facilities during the learning process for students as well as for teachers.
- In text "Geography 11" with author Dh.Doka and B.Draci, sensory recognition is achieved through various methods and learning material, which are used during the development of the learning process, during various topics.
- Use as many instruments that come and help us by strengthening the sense recognition, increase their perceptual skills.

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Female Portraits in Harold Pinter and Oscar Wilde

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Abstract

This article offers a feminist approach to the literary works of Oscar Wilde and Harold Pinter by focusing on their female characters and trying to offer a psychoanalytic approach to them. The female figures are not only important to the dramas themselves but they are also crucial to understand the process by which patriarchy attempted to oppress women during the decades. In many cases women resisted such oppressions and encouraged audiences to view their position in the society differently. This study will argue and encourage for a greater appreciation of female characters through a feminist psychoanalytic approach. We will focus on the similarities and differences of the female figures of these two authors who had a great impact on modern and postmodern English drama. This will surely change the audience view point of reading literary pieces and will make them have a clear image of women's position in the society.

Keywords: *Feminist, Approach, Patriarchy, Oppression*

1. Introduction

Theater, like lots of other institutions, has only recently accepted female contributions in the field. This is still viewed with doubts. The process of theatrical production often imposes stereotypical roles of females characters in dramas, despite the continuous attempts of dramas to avoid such a thing. (Hall. Ann. C 1993. pp. 177). Harold Pinter had difficulties in dealing with the critical review of the figure of Ruth in the Homecoming, because it revealed nothing more than the staff production's stereotypical expectations.

In terms of the dramatic and literary tradition, a tradition that has overlooked and dismissed the important contributions of women to the field, feminist critics have focused their energies on bringing the contributions of female playwrights, performers, directors, critics and theater companies to light. (Ibid. pp.2) The idea is that we should give the right attention to women's effort into theater, film industry etc. They have the right potential to create and describe properly female characters, and perhaps male authors cannot create "real" female characters, because they are simply the other sex. They are not US. At least this is the approach of female critics. If you want to write about women, you should be one. There are plenty of disagreements on this issue but I will not focus on this, rather than keep going with females characterization as they appear in the eyes of Wilde and Pinter.

I chose these two particular playwrights for several reasons. They were both important and popular to the dramatic tradition they belonged to. They both underwent a period of experimentation during their early years as writers. Pinter used a lot the domestic setting in his dramas. He focused more on the working classes not as Wilde did. He focused and based his comedy of Manners/ Menace on the high society and rich people. Comedy of manners elaborated in full by Wilde was later used by Pinter and the two terms meant to be the same thing Menace= Manners. By using his satirical comments and irony, Wilde condemned false behavior of high classes of society and he also explored morality. On the contrary Pinter used repeatedly the domestic environment and for a feminist, this setting is noteworthy because the home and family have been the centers of female oppression both on stage and off. They both liked to write comedies, not tragedies, this was a way of condemning the society and its false manners.

2. Pinter's female vs. Wilde's

The female characters in the dramas of these two authors were problematic. In some of them, women were not physically present, but the male characters continued to discuss, to remember the offstage female figures at such an extent that their presence became essential. In these kind of plays with no female figures, there is always something missing. They are emotionally or mentally absent. They are forced to play a part against their will. Female subjectivity is

not taken into account. Lacan reinforced this view in his theory. He was against the idea of Freud that women are castrated and as a result they lack power. On the other hand he thought that all human subjects "Lack". Something is always missing according to him. (Ibid. pp.7)

I think this is revolutionary about this theory. Male subjects do not have anything more than women. In fact Lacan implies that women have a better understanding of the human condition and therefore a better understanding of existence and a greater opportunity for self-knowledge. He stresses as well that definitions of gender are constructed by the patriarchy's desire to create an imaginary sense of psychic completion. In a patriarchal society women are always invisible. (Ibid. pp. 7)

As Rita Felski discussed, male authors were only good at creating Madonnas or whores, the extreme categories available to women in a patriarchal society (Felski. R. 2005;51). Gender is one important axis of meaning around which men and women organize the way they read, but it is not the one that always predominates (Miller. Cristanne. pp. 375. Cited in Rita Felski. 2005). Woman of everyday life was not subject of literature themes and description.

Authors preferred the extremes, but Pinter dealt with simple, ordinary, garrulous housewives. This was also due to the "Kitchen sink" realism of his dramas. He wrote them by focusing on everyday life of characters who were living on the verge of disaster. By introducing us realistic everyday life female characters, we got to know better not their motives or history, but their aims. His female characters are housewives stacked in a room and they cling forcefully to it, as it is their territory. At first they appear to be dominant wives for example Rose in *The Room*, or Meg at *The Birthday Party*. Wilde did not deal with everyday life women. Their setting was neither a single room nor a kitchen. He did not belong to the tradition of the Theatre of the Absurd which was coined later in the 1950s by Esslin. Wilde's females appear to be tender, sweet and delicate interested in wealthy and powerful men.

The moral of Wilde's stories has nothing in common with the moral drawn in Pinter's dramas. They don't have a moral at all in fact. Pinter disliked those authors who wanted to draw a message at the end of their works. The absurdity of human existence influenced his career a lot. This is because the 2 authors belonged to different literary periods and social contexts and the demands of the societies of those times were different. They both experimented in the first years but their philosophy of life was quite different. These influences were reflected in the description of their female figures. "An ideal husband" of Wilde, deals extensively with the role of women in the society. Gagnier argues that Wilde must be understood in relation to the audience and social institutions that "affected the construction of both" the man and his texts. (Gagnier. R. 1986. pp. 67). *Women to Wilde*, are a piece of art.

Though the title invites speculation on the ideal husband, different figures of womanliness appear throughout the play as well. *An Ideal Husband* relies on a simple opposition between the virtuous Lady Chiltern and the demonic Mrs. Cheveley, the latter's wit and villainy making her a far more pleasurable character. Lady Chiltern appears as the model Victorian new woman, which Wilde elaborated while editor of the *Women's World* magazine in the late 1880s: morally upstanding, highly educated, and actively supportive of her husband's political career. By Act IV, she will also emerge in the role of forgiver and caretaker (again, "Pardon, not punishment, is [women's] mission"), and thus meets the more conventional demands of Victorian womanhood as well.

In terms of generational differences, she stands out against the old-fashioned Lady Markby, the embodiment of an older group of society wives. Whereas Lady Chiltern is naïve, candid, and always in earnest, the witty and ambitious Mrs. Cheveley is characterized by a sort of duplicitous femininity. As described in Act I, she is a "horrid," "unnatural," and—as quickly revealed—dangerous combination of genius and beauty. Having revealed her capacity to manipulate in Act I, the play dramatically unmasks her as a monster in Act III. Trapped by Lord Goring, Cheveley dissolves into a "paroxysm of rage, with inarticulate sounds," her loss of speech giving way to an agony of terror that distorts her face. For a moment, a "mask has fallen", and Cheveley is "dreadful to look at." Her veneer of wit and beauty thus give way to the hidden beast.

On the other hand, Pinter's most of the plays present the women assume the position of authority, dominance, freedom and control towards the end of the play. Harold Pinter provides the idea in his plays that no male should undermine women and the new woman is now to stay and men have to come to stipulations with this new reality of life. The characters become completely overwhelmed in their "memories" and at some point completely misplace the past and the battle for dominance in the present. (Anshu. P. 2013. pp.1). Deeley and Kate, and the triangle of the characters thus formed gives out an immediate representative meaning therefore the past exists in the present through memory, and past is capable of exercising conspicuous and possible impact on the present as Almansi and Henderson rightly point out: has the effect of diachronic time, since, from the outset, past and present are both manifest on the stage simultaneously, though with a different status (light versus dark; center of the room versus windows; foreground versus background). (Almansi, G & Henderson, S. 1983. pp.86)

In Pinter's world reality and fantasy are always in constant interplay and they are mixed. We never get to know

properly whether Rose had previously been a whore or not, but this is not important. What is important is the fact that she bears the stamp of whoredom, a grave vice connected with women since a long time, like so many other Pinter heroines. Rose finds herself in a vulnerable position, Meg in the Birthday Party is ridiculed as a silly and slutty mother; the prostitute in *A Night Out* feels the need for fake responsibility; Sally in the Night School has to conceal her job in the night club. The women in Pinter's work have still to fight for their feminine integrity and their acceptance as human beings. (Sakellaridou. E.1988. pp.27)

Wilde agreed on the fact that to him, women seemed to possess just what literature wanted, a light touch, a delicate hand, a graceful mode of treatment, and an unstudied felicity of phrase". (Showalter. E. 1989. pp. 9). She stressed the fact that Salomé of Wilde is as much a site of male homosexual desire as a victim of patriarchal tyranny. Her dance is the "dance of gender", the delicacy of the veil separating masculinity from feminine. (Ibid. pp.152). He was put as editor of a fashion magazine for women *Woman's World* in 1887, but he molded it into an exchange of ideas about femininity, fashion, aesthetic and society. Wilde repeatedly used paradox exploiting his ability to go beyond meanings. Paradox revealed temporality of things, and as with other 20th century magazines, *Woman's World*, was a clear paradox.

It upheld feminine values, encouraged them to marry and dress elegantly, invited them to discuss war and politics, as if their opinion mattered. It advocated rational debate and the importance of education. It proved that women could be intelligent and successful, showed them freedom and adventure and finally told them that their highest duty was to stay home. (Stephanie. G. 1997. pp. 112). Even though Wilde had no experience or qualification in women's fashion or even in editing a woman's magazine, he certainly had a high public profile and lots of well-known figures and most celebrated women, who were his friend who helped him a lot in this sense.

Part of his attractiveness to women was due to the fact, while delighting in their society, they were not physically necessary to him. The real Don Juan, is not the vulgar person who goes about making love to all the women he meets, and what the novelists call "seducing" them. The real one is one who says to them, "Go away, I do not want you. You interfere with my life I can do without you." (Pearson, Hesketh. 1985. pp. 260.) Swift was a real Don Juan, because 2 women died for him.

It is significant Martin Esslin's use of psychoanalysis: Meg with her crushing combination of motherliness and senile eroticism, is a mother image seen from the view point of an Oedipus complex..." (Pinter. H. 1978, pp. 66) The structural principle here is to see the female characters in *The Birthday Party* as projected facets of male protagonists. This means to see Meg a facet of Stanley or her husband. Stanley's attempts to strangle Meg and rape Lulu are then figured as: the same, immensely, complex, immensely true poetic metaphor for a basic human situation (Ibid. pp. 66)

The most complicated example of patriarchal stereotyping is *The Homecoming*. It has generated divergent interpretations. For Esslin the play accomplishes the perfect fusion of extreme realism and wish fulfillment (Sakellaridou. E. 1988. pp. 46-7). But whose wishes are fulfilled? Ruth's acquiescence as the working mother, sexual provider and prostitute for a group of sadistic men might fulfill the wishes of this dysfunctional family.

A "Woman of no Importance" of Wilde focuses on the attitudes of English high society. It deals with the problems women face in a highly prejudiced and hypocritical society of the late Victorian period. The poor opinion men have for women is clearly expressed and portrayed through the dialogue of the main character, Ilinworth who says: "Beautiful women never have time. They are always so occupied in being jealous of other people's husbands". In other words the opinion late Victorian men had for women was contemptuous and poor. It seemed as if the world went just round male characters, and women had to agree on this. This preconception prevailed the society of that time and Wilde was trying to condemn such behavior and prejudices in the late Victorian society.

3. Conclusion

We can say that the influence these two great playwrights had on the British Theatre and the modern and postmodern world of literature, is remarkable. The effort they have made to represent the prejudices of the society against female figures, is impressive. We can sense the oppression of females in the respective patriarchal societies, from the style they have used in their dramas and the way they have approached so delicately to such a thorny issue. Female figures of Rose, Ruth, Meg, Kate, Lady Chiltern, Lady Windermere etc. will last forever in our minds and they will always encourage us to keep struggling for our rights and encourage as well a greater appreciation of female characters through this feminist psychoanalytic approach.

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An Analysis of the Cost of Educational Wastages in Nigerian Public Universities: Efficiency in View

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Abstract

The study examined the trend and social costs of educational wastage in public universities in Nigeria between 2008 and 2012. One major challenge confronting university education in Nigeria is that the total number of students enrolled for the academic session does not graduate at the specified period which has humongous social and private costs implication. Wastages across universities and areas of specialization have constituted a management problem and a drain at the limited resources in the Nigeria universities. As a survey method of descriptive research design and ex-post facto, it makes use of some indicators for measuring the wastage rate and the cost in Nigeria universities. Data were collected through the use of a validated self-designed questionnaire titled, Record and Financial Inputs and Output Questionnaire (SRFIOQ) with a reliability coefficient of $r = 0.89$. The study covered six universities (3 Federal and 3 States) among the eleven public universities in South West Nigeria selected through a purposive simple random sampling method. The participants cut across students in eight faculties of the sampled universities. Data were analyzed using frequency counts, simple percentage score and bar graphs and inferential statistics tools to test the research hypotheses for the study. The study revealed that there were variations in the wastage rate indicating a high percentage wastage rate which exists among faculties in various institutions under study. On the average, social cost on wastage was higher on male undergraduates with N 451,951,012.60 than that of females N 302,807,178.40. There was a significant difference in the social cost of wastages between male and female undergraduates ($t\text{-cal} = .512 < t\text{-val} = .413$; $P < .05$). Also, there was a significant difference in the social cost of wastages between the states and federal public universities ($t\text{-cal} = 1.439 < t\text{-val} = .874$; $P < .05$) from 2008 to 2012. It was therefore recommended that universities should endeavour to improve on their delivery of results as at when due in order to improve the internal efficiency of the institutions. Also, students' workload should be reduced and the idea of automatic promotion from one level to the next level which is in practice in Nigeria universities should be addressed.

Keywords: Wastage rate, internal efficiency, external efficiency, cost models, human capital.

1. Introduction

Originating from the language of the economists, the term "wastage" is used within the field of education to describe various aspects of failure of an educational system to achieve its objectives. Education is the key to change and progress; therefore, government of Nigeria has adopted this sector as one of the pillars for poverty reduction and benefits of. Annually, universities are allocated various financial and non-financial resources to carry out their primary functions of teaching, learning and research, but with the rapid expansion of the school system, increasing demand for more school buildings, more qualified and competent teachers, non-academic staff and instructional facilities for effective teaching and learning becomes inevitable. Therefore, the provision of these resources would further increase the cost of secondary education. According to Babalola (2001), Nigeria is among the countries where opportunities for human development have been missed, and reasons for this variation have been ascribed to political instability, economic mismanagement, widespread recession, rising interest rates and level of indebtedness. The argument against public subsidy in higher education was very strong, hence primary, secondary and higher education should receive the highest investment priority respectively which must not be eroded by high wastage rate.

Wastages according to Adamu (2000); Samuel (2004); and Oyetakin (2011), is an unprofitable and uneconomical utilization of time and resources. The inability of a student to obtain one's school certificate at the normal time for any

reason, whatsoever is regarded as wastage. On the other hand, wastage means the input, time, efforts expended in doing things but with no positive outcomes or outputs. Educational wastages mean premature withdrawal of child or students from school at any stage before completion of the prescribed courses. This implies that within an academic year, some student's dropout of schools for various reasons. According to Education Sector Analysis, dropout/completion rate is one out of the five indicators with which the education system tries to actualize the philosophy of Nigerian Education masses (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004). Pupils who repeat the same class while their mates proceed to higher classes in the next academic year and those who prematurely withdraw from secondary school before completion are considered as wastage. This wastage threatens the internal efficiency of the education system. It is a stumbling block to the realization of the nation's aims and objectives of university education.

According to Akangbou (1985), the phenomenon of high repetition is experienced in many third world countries and is an indicator of inefficiency of the educational system. He also maintained that repeating a class increases private and public cost of education shouldered by parents and the states and in addition leads to large classes with attendant problems of assessment and supervision of students, more facilities needed, training and recruiting more teachers and provision of additional didactic materials. Repetition of classes may have negative effect on students and parents, therefore, the development of every child must be directed towards the ability of the child-bearing in mind the needs of the society. Abilities and capabilities of students are not the same in every subject; therefore, teachers must endeavor to develop such child alongside his/her abilities and capabilities which may drastically reduce repetition and its associated frustration that might eventually degenerates to dropout of students from the school system.

The trend of dropout, repetition and failure, although observable all over Nigeria has become a syndrome in certain states of the federation. Akindele (2005) stated that the analysis of efficiency in education is necessary in ensuring optimal use of the meager resources allocated to education in order to eliminate or minimize wastage. The additional number of years spent by the repeaters in the course of repeating classes is also viewed as wastages. One major problem confronting university education in Nigeria is that the total number of students enrolled for a particular academic session does not graduate from at the specified period.

2. Efficiency and Wastages

A major application of economic analysis is to inform decision-making in education in order to improve efficiency in educational production; that is, producing more desired education outputs and outcomes given educational resources. Analytically, educational efficiency can be distinguished as internal efficiency and external efficiency. Internal efficiency relates educational outputs to educational inputs, while external efficiency relates educational outcomes to educational inputs. Analysis of educational efficiency is not confined to economic concerns only, since educational outputs and outcomes also pertain to social and political dimensions of national development. The internal efficiency of education is improved when more education outputs are produced at given education resources or fewer education resources are used in producing the same amount of education outputs. Thus, educational economic analysis is centrally concerned with the production of education outputs and with education costs. An educational production function is a mathematical construct that mainstream economists and researchers from other disciplines often use to study educational production. It relates some measure of education output (e.g., student achievement) to various inputs used in education such as student characteristics and family background, teacher characteristics and other school-related factors. (Afriat, 1972; Battese, 1992; and Famade, 2003; Oyetakin, 2010).

The external efficiency of education is improved when more education outcomes are produced at given education resources or fewer education resources are used in producing the same amount of education outcomes (Oyetakin, 2011). During the closing decades of the twentieth century, emphasis in developing nations regarding educational development has been placed on three broad outcomes of education: contribution to economic growth and competitiveness, improvement in social equity, and poverty alleviation.

Psacharopoulos (1994) in a study on rate of returns, found that in developing nations education had a high rate of return and that the returns varies according to the education levels. According to human capital theory, education is a form of human capital that could raise the productive capacity of individuals in economic production. Empirical studies in agriculture found a positive and significant relationship between productivity and education. At the macro level, education was also associated with economic growth. Spending on education can be seen as an investment activity with both costs and benefits, and thus subject to a cost-benefit analysis.

The composite nature of the error term in the stochastic model also has very helpful implications in the analysis of school district cost structure. For example, Bradbury *et al.* (1984) and Downes and Pogue (1994) included environmental

cost factors in cost models, and thus tried to identify the cost differential between local jurisdictions (municipalities, school districts, cities and towns) because of uneven environmental cost factors. In the case of education, it might be that in one school district there is an extra cost of \$R per pupil due to a particular environmental cost factor such as the presence of special-need students. There may be agreement among state and local officials that this \$R per pupil should be covered by the state aid formula. However, it is reasonable to ask under what random favorable or unfavorable conditions a particular school district is operating. In Nigeria, costs of education has been increasing at an increasing rate due to the ever teeming population of over 150 million which has a multiplier effect on the school enrolment. Hence, cost saving measures should be adhered to by all levels of education since this will go a long way to improving the quality and efficiency of the education system in the country (Oyetakin, 2007).

3. Statement of the Problem

One major problem confronting university education in Nigeria is that the total number of students enrolled for the academic session does not graduate at the specified period which has humongous social and private costs implication. Wastages across universities and areas of specialization have constituted a management problem and a drain at the limited resources in the Nigeria universities. Experience shows that some of these students repeat classes/courses because of poor academic performance arising from long absence from school while some of the students eventually dropout of school and the huge public expenditure on students who do not attend school regularly and those who dropout from school system affects the internal efficiency of the universities.

4. Purpose of the Study

One major problem facing the educational sector in the country is the problem of educational wastages caused by dropout, repetition and failure. The present study is designed to explore the problems and cost of wastages in education. The researcher therefore attempted to undertake this study in order to ascertain:

- The rates of educational wastages in the area of study?
- Social cost of educational wastages in Nigeria between 2008 and 2012
- A study of this nature would also shed more light on the financial implications of educational wastages in South West Nigeria public universities and how efforts should be made in eliminating or reducing wastage drastically in the country.

5. Research Questions

The study therefore is concerned with answering the following questions:

- 1) Was there any difference in the social cost of wastages between male and female undergraduates in South West Nigeria public universities from 2008 to 2012?
- 2) Was there any difference in the social cost of wastages between Federal and State Universities students in South West Nigeria from 2008 to 2012?

6. Hypotheses

H.01 There was no significant difference in the social cost of wastages between male and female undergraduates of public universities South West Nigeria between 2008 and 2012.

H.02 There was no significant difference in the social cost of wastages between the states and federal public universities in South West Nigeria from 2008 to 2012.

7. Methodology

7.1 Design

Descriptive research design was used with survey methods.

7.2 Sample and Sampling Techniques

Nigeria is made up of six geo-political zones namely: North-West, North-East, North-Central, South-South, South-East, and South-West. Thus, a purposive simple random sampling method was adopted and the South-West geo-political zone was selected out of which six universities (3 Federal and 3 States) were randomly selected among the eleven public universities. In each of these universities, the Academic planning unit and Bursary supplied the needed data on students' enrolment and graduation. Also, the Bursaries of these institutions supplied the audited account profile on the undergraduates which aided the analysis.

7.3 Instrumentation

For data gathering, the instrument used was a self constructed questionnaire titled: "Students' Record and Financial Inputs and Output Questionnaire" (SRFIOQ). The SRFIOQ contains five parts: A, B, C, D and E. Part A seeks information on Enrolment, Repeaters and Drop-out. Enrolment per class/level and per year from 2008 to 2012, where the total enrolment per level and per year were calculated, likewise total failure per year and total drop-out per year were computed. Part B demands data relating to financial inputs on education in schools, different sources of income (financial inputs) and the amount per year from 2008 to 2012.

Part C, seeks information on the academic achievement of the students at the end of their final year. The 2008 and 2012 final results were collected. Total number of students that sat for the examination per year and total number of students that graduated at the specified period of study was compiled. Part D, seeks the opinion of the university management on the adequacy of physical facilities in the school such as spacious and well ventilated classrooms, well equipped laboratories and library. Before administration, the instrument was validated and found reliable at $r = 0.86$. The statistical tool applied were descriptive and inferential statistics, mean and t-tests were employed to test the hypotheses, the level of significance used on the study was the 0.05 alpha.

7.4 Results

1. Was there any difference in the social cost of wastages between male and female undergraduates in South West Nigeria from 2008 to 2012?

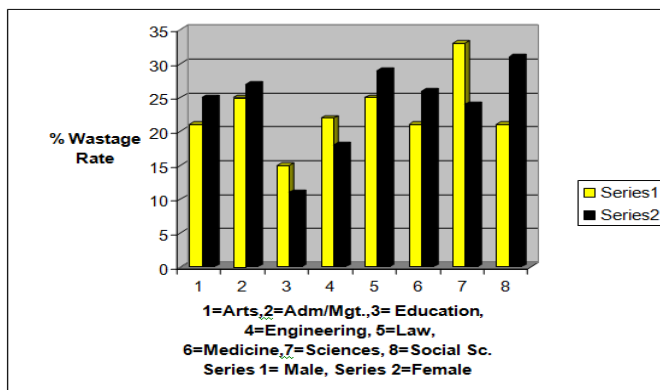
Table 1: Average Refined Social Cost of Undergraduates by Gender Adjusted for Wastage by Faculties in South West Nigeria Universities from 2008 to 2012

Faculty	% Wastage Rate			Cost (N)		% by Faculty
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
Arts	21	25	46	51,114,485.73	60,850,578.25	12.30
Adm./Mgt.	25	27	52	60,809,754.00	65,674,543.32	13.90
Education	15	11	26	36,492,110.40	26,760,880.96	6.95
Engineering	22	18	40	56,960,516.80	46,604,059.20	10.70
Law	25	29	54	60,792,360.25	70,519,137.88	14.44
Medicine	21	26	47	54,376,041.30	67,322,717.80	12.57
Sciences	33	24	57	80,323,635.81	62,144,047.20	15.24
Social Sc.	21	31	52	51,082,108.35	75,406,921.85	13.90
Total	181	191	374	451,951,012.60	302,807,178.40	100

Source: Fieldwork

Table1 reveals that a high percentage wastage rate exists among faculties in various institutions under study. On the average, social cost on wastage was higher on male undergraduates with N 451,951,012.60 (2,824,693.83USD) than that of females N 302,807,178.40 (1,892,544.87 USD). However, highest percentage wastage was recorded among males in the Faculty of Science with 33% followed by Social science with females recording 31%.

Figure 1: Wastage Rate of Undergraduates by Gender in Faculties of Public Universities in South West Nigeria from 2008 to 2012



Source: Derived from Table 1

2. Was there any difference in the Social unit cost of wastages between Federal and State Universities students in South west Nigeria from 2008 to 2012?

Table 2. Average Social Cost of Wastage of Undergraduates by Faculties between Federal and State Universities in South West Nigeria from 2008 to 2012

Faculty	% Wastage Rate			Cost (N)		% by Faculty
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
Arts	21	25	46	51,114,485.73	60,850,578.25	12.30
Adm/Mgt.	25	27	52	60,809,754.00	65,674,543.32	13.90
Education	15	11	26	36,492,110.40	26,760,880.96	6.95
Engineering	22	18	40	56,960,516.80	46,604,059.20	10.70
Law	25	29	54	60,792,360.25	70,519,137.88	14.44
Medicine	21	26	47	54,376,041.30	67,322,717.80	12.57
Sciences	33	24	57	80,323,635.81	62,144,047.20	15.24
Social Sc.	21	31	52	51,082,108.35	75,406,921.85	13.90
Total	181	191	374	451,951,012.60	302,807,178.40	100

Source: Fieldwork

Table 2 shows that State Government owned universities had the highest percentage of wastage in all faculties except sciences with Federal universities recording a higher percentage of 30 while the State had 27%. The average wastage for State owned universities was 25.75% with a total social cost implication was N 340,604,903.20 (2,128,780.65USD) and average social cost of N 42,575,612.90 (266,097.58 USD). While the Federal owned universities recorded a total social cost of wastage to be N 286,293,621.90 (1,789,335.14 USD) and an average social cost of wastage as N 35,786,702.74 (233,666.89 USD).

8. Testing of Hypotheses

8.1 Hypothesis One

There was no significant difference in the social cost of wastages between male and female undergraduates of public universities in South West Nigeria between 2008 and 2012.

Table 3. Summary of the Difference in the Social Cost of Wastages between the Male and Female Undergraduates in South West Nigeria Public Universities from 2008 to 2012

Source	Mean	S D	SEM	df	t-cal	t-val	Sig.
Male	37850896.94	8275671.57	2925891.74				
Female	39804940.99	10504502.77	3713902.57	14	.512	.413	P<.05

* Significant

In analyzing the social cost of wastages between male and female undergraduates, the t-test analysis was performed with the results showing the mean for male as 37850896.94 and 39804940.99 for female. The t-calculated was .512 and t-table was .413. Since the t-calculated value was greater than the t-table, the hypothesis is therefore rejected. (t-cal=.512< t-val= .413; P<.05). Hence, there was a significant difference in the social cost of wastages between male and female undergraduates of public universities South West Nigeria between 2008 and 2012.

8.2 Hypothesis Two

There was no significant difference in the social cost of wastages between the states and federal public universities in South West Nigeria from 2008 to 2012.

Table 3. Summary of the Difference between the mean of Male and Female Direct Private Unit Cost of Undergraduates in South West Nigeria Public Universities from 2008 to 2012

Source	Mean	S D	SEM	df	t-cal	t-val	Sig.
Federal	35786702.74	8891600.24	3143655.41				
State	42575612.90	9946704.33	3516691.04	14	1.439	.874	P<.05

* Significant

Table 4 reveals that the mean of male undergraduate social cost of wastages in public universities was 35786702.74 for Federal Universities. While that of the State was 42575612.90. The t-calculated value is 1.439 and t-table is .874. Since the t-calculated value was greater than the t-table, the hypothesis is therefore rejected. (t-cal= 1.439< t-val= .874; P<.05). Hence, there was a significant difference in the social cost of wastages between the states and federal public universities in South West Nigeria from 2008 to 2012.

9. Discussion and Conclusion

The study revealed that the variations in the costs and cost of wastages between the federal and State owned universities in Nigeria. Also, female undergraduates recorded the highest percentage wastage when compared with their male counterparts. This result is corroborated by the findings of Adamu (2000) and Aina, Oyetakin, and Osun (2010).

Therefore, to reduce educational wastages in universities, the internal efficiency of education systems must be improved. Also, yearly drop-out, repeaters, make the planned development of the University System as impossible task; the total estimate on the cost of teachers, classrooms and other facilities that are used up in a non-profitable investment remains a threat to the financial efficiency of the institutions involved over a given period of time.

Hence, the financial implications of this educational wastage on public universities is that the amount wasted on students repeating a particular class, twice or even thrice, or inability to complete their course (Repetition) or failure, ought to have been put into useful production, if not because of the wastage. UNESCO (2011) pointed out that wastage is increasing the social and household expenditure on education in Sub-Saharan Africa, Nigeria inclusive. Hence, the money spent on the wasted undergraduates could have either been used in developing other sectors, such as building new classrooms, provision of modern and well equipped libraries, provision of modern, relevant and related textbooks etc.

10. Recommendations

1. Universities should endeavour to improve on their delivery of results as at when due in order to improve the internal efficiency of the institutions.
2. Also, students' workload should be reduced and the idea of automatic promotion from one level to the next level which is in practice in Nigeria universities should be addressed.
3. The management of universities in Nigeria should also assess the cost-benefit analysis of university undergraduate education and encourage government at both state and federal to divert the hard-earned resources on wasted to other profitable education ventures and make undergraduate pay higher tuition in order to increase the private cost and thus reduce the social cost expended on wastages.
4. Introduction of cost-sharing and cost augmentation for social cost recovery on those repeating courses and classes. The argument is that parents/students involved in the act of wastages will be cautioned and there will be improvements which will inturn increase internal and external efficiency.

11. Implication for Practice

The outcome of this study shows that the cost of wastages in public universities is a drain on the limited financial and material resources. Hence, the recommendations of the study should be implemented in order to increase the internal and external efficiency of the system.

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Prognosis of the Body Height of Students in UST and Sportsmen in Relation to Their Parents

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Abstract

The study focuses on measuring the body height of first year, second year and third year UST students and some sportsmen of national teams in the male category. Besides this, a measurement of their parents' body height has been calculated, respectively their mothers and fathers of these students and quality sportsmen. The evaluation of body height is achieved with standard measurement, which is done with tools available at every sport environment. 127 male students are considered in this study, with their own approval, whom are from sport categories: soccer, athletics, basketball, volleyball and other sports. Simultaneously, measurements were taken for the body height index from 254 parents, 127 fathers and 127 mothers of the same students. All these data have been undergoing statistical processing through regressive analysis, concluding with regression equations. By measuring the body height of the UST students and some sportsmen of national teams, and that of their parents it was possible to evaluate the statistical parameters, arithmetic mean, quadratic standard deviation, the coefficient of variation, safety intervals, in order to reach a statistical relationship between them and given the statistical relationships, to present the regression equation, which can help us to predict the body height of children when they are systematically involved in sports.

1. Analysis of the study

From generation to generation, the body height of sportsmen in Albania has shown an improvement. This conclusion is already evident in many sports, especially in those like basketball, volleyball, athletics, extending as well to other areas. However, independently of this conclusion, it should be accepted that the realization of a vertical study for measuring and evaluating the body height index of people that are involved in systematic sports has been absent. For this reason, we have measured and studied the body height of UST students and their parents. The following tables describe in more detail this issue (tables nr. 1, 2)

Body height of UST students categorized in four groups.

Table 1. Males

Nr.	Sports	Number of students	Body height of students measured			
			up to 170 cm	171-180	181-190	+191 cm.
1.	Soccer	56 studentë	5	31	19	1 student
2.	Athletics	36 "	3	18	13	2 students
3.	Volleyball Basketball	24 "	--	2	14	8 students
4.	Other sports	11 "	3	6	2	--
5.	Total	127	11	56	48	12 students
	In %	100 %	8.7 %	44.1 %	37.8 %	9.4 %

In this study 127 students and sportsmen have been measured and analyzed, from whom 8.7% or 11 students are of body height up to 170 cm., 44.1% or 56 students are of body height 171 – 180 cm., 37.8% or 48 students are of body height 181 - 190 cm. and 9.4 % or 12 students are of body height over 191 cm. Therefore, the main weight falls under the body height from 171 cm. up to 190 cm.

The body height of parents of male UST students

Table 2.

Nr.	Parents	Their number	Body height of the parents of students			
			Up to 170 cm.	171-180	181-190	+191 cm.
1.	Fathers	127	25 fathers 19.7 %	58 45.7 %	39 30.7 %	5 3.9 %
			2.	Mothers	127	Up to 160 cm.
22 mothers 17.3 %	65 51.2 %	37 29.1 %				3 2.4 %

If we are to compare the above two tables we would notice that the fathers of students with body height below 170 cm. are 19.7% of the total of 127 observed. Therefore, if we compare the body height among students and their fathers we obtain a positive difference of 11%. This difference is similar even in the other body heights measured. The conclusive observation is that the body heights of UST students is higher than their fathers. Meanwhile, it must be accepted that independently of other cases of measurements that show a difference between body heights of students and their fathers, with an insignificant and even detached cases with even lower measures than their fathers, we can still conclude that the dominance of body height of students as compared to their fathers holds a positive sign.

Therefore, through this experiment we have aimed to realize the relationship of the body height index of sportsmen and their parents. In order to statistically prove these relationships we have conducted a research for over a year in measuring the body height of students and their parents. Along the way, we have utilized the aid of applied mathematics, which has made possible the statistical elaboration by methods of statistical mathematics.

In order to statistically prove the data of the study we have elaborated on simple statistics and for every body height of UST students, quality sportsmen and their parents, statistical parameters were evaluated, such as arithmetic mean, quadratic standard deviation, coefficient of variation and safety intervals for the mean.

In basis of data elaboration we notice a not so strong correlation from the relationship between the data of body height.

1.1 Analysis

Since $R=0.65$ and $R^2=0.43$ we understand that the body height of male students is explained by 43% of the sample in relation to the body height of their mothers. Likewise, $R=0.65$ tells us that there exists a linear relationship between body heights of males and LT of their mothers in the same direction and with positive sign, but this relationship is linearly not very strong, because R is greater than a coefficient of 0.75.

The existing relationship between male students and their mothers is quite good, since we are considering $R=0.65$ and $R^2 =0.43$. Bazed on the above information, the regression equation for measuring the body height of males and their mothers is like follows:

$$Y = 21.801 + 0.95 \times X_1$$

Where; X_1 = Mothers' body height Y = Male students' body height

2. Male students and their fathers

The relationship that exists between male students and their father is better than the first case, considering $R = 0,694$. and $R^2 =0,482$. Because the R values for a very strong relationship tends towards $R>0.75$ dhe $R^2>0.85$, we say that the relationship is relatively strong, but not very strong. In the case where $R^2=0.48$ we should understand that the height of male students is explained by 48% of the sample, whereas $R=0.69$ shows a relationship between the height of male students and the height of the father in the same direction. In this case, the equation is presented like follows:

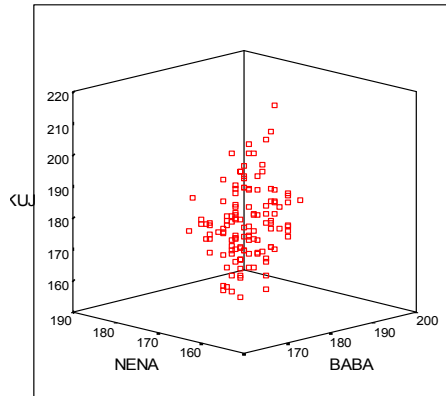
$$Y = 30,172 + 0,84 \times X_1$$

Where; X_1 = Height of fathers Y = Body height of male students

3. Analysis of relationships of LT of male students and their parents

The analysis of statistical relationships between male students and their mothers and fathers is done up to this point only for each relationship with one of the parents. Meanwhile, for purposes of a fuller and more important predictability of body height of students and their parents included in this study, we have obtained a joint statistical equation that includes in it both parents, which means that the body height of male students and their parents is of a specific order. Besides that, a

graphical representation of the statistical relationships is important as well, which can be shown below.
The representation is made in three dimensions. (graph nr1.)



3.1 Analysis

Since $R^2=0,549$, then we can conclude that LT of UST male students is explained by 54% of the sample from LT of both parents. When we have this order of evaluation we can conclude that there is a good statistical relationship. The very good evaluation happens only when the relationship is of order over $R=0.75$. Expressed in a regression equation the relationship is as follows:

$$Y = 3.098 + 0.56 \times X1 + 0.504 \times X2$$

Where - Y = Body height of male students X1 = LT of fathers X2 = LT of mothers

4. Final conclusions

1. The study of body height of UST students follows the prognostic studies, which are an important support for young parents that have been engaged in sports and others that aim to involve their children with sport activities. Accordingly, it should be stressed that such studies are of vertical dimension, since we are dealing with final body proportions, of sportsmen, as well as their parents.
2. The statistical elaboration of the material clarifies us of the body height of UST students and some sportsmen of national teams, as well as the variability that they have compared to their parents. This comparison shows that the improvement is with a positive sign and with high and distinct average values.
3. Despite the fact that the statistical proof is not of a very good order, we still think that the regression equations are a serious support in evaluating the body height in the future. Therefore, the order of the group 0.684 is in the borders of order 0.75, an order which appears with very strong statistical relationships.
4. Despite the fact that the study has mentioned only the students that are involved in sports, it is still important to emphasize the need for efforts in the future regarding comparative studies with people that regularly deal with sport activities and with others that don't practice sport systematically. Thus, the findings of statistical relationships and the comparison between these two contingents, which should and have to be taken into consideration for a study, will provide us with a clear picture of how and how much sport influences the height of children and the young.

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Intercultural Sensitivity and Cross-cultural Adjustment among Malaysian Students Abroad

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Abstract

Effective socio-cultural integration has formed Malaysia into a nation with harmonious ethnic diversification and living. Cultural understanding is a foundation to sustain a respectful interethnic relationship among multi-ethnic populations in this country. However, Malaysian may experience cross-cultural difficulties when facing a monoculture or unusual cultural environment overseas. Thus, main purpose of the present study is to examine the extent of intercultural sensitivity support the effectiveness of cross-cultural adjustments among Malaysian students while studying and living abroad. Key finding found in the present study shows the magnitude of intercultural sensitivity is moderately facilitate cross-cultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad. The implications towards the effectiveness of intercultural relations are also highlighted and discussed.

Keywords: *Intercultural Sensitivity, Cross-cultural Adjustment, Multiethnic Society*

1. Introduction

Educational industry has contributed significantly to the country's socio-economic development in generating large scale revenues and employment especially in the emerging market. Educational industry players comprise of schools, college, universities, private institutions, vocational educations and special tutoring and other education-related services. The demand for better education and private institution's participation has increased students' mobility and global education competitions. The United Nation's Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Global Monitoring Report 2012 stated in 2007-8, U.S. constituted 60% of the global education market. Europe accounted for 15% of the market and Australia has developed an effective and efficient higher education system. Many countries (such as China, Indonesia, India, Japan, South Korea and Vietnam) offering opportunities for American and Australian extension colleges and universities. Higher education sector considered as a strategic national asset to UK and Australia. The UK government allocated £4.6 billion a year up to 2015 in science and research which contributing around £59 billion to the

UK overall economy. Education created third Australia's largest export industry which generated \$18 billion in 2009. Numbers of Malaysian students abroad rose from 58,963 in 2009 to 79,254 in 2010. 64% of Malaysian students abroad in 2010 are self-sponsored where Australia marks as the biggest education destination (20,493 students).

International mobility of students' enrolment into a foreign higher academic institution has increased intercultural exposure and contributed to the national socio-economic development through foreign exchange, hospitality and other services. Inability to compromise or make a necessary cultural adaptation creates disappointment, confusion or other psychological discomforts which may affect goal accomplishment of the international assignment. The Global Relocation Survey (GRTS) 2010 reported no previous expatriate experience proven as the main reason for the 7% of expatriates' prematurely returned back home (off-schedule due to incomplete assignment). Culture has been found to be the main contributing factor to sojourners' failure (GRTS, 2009) where cultural insensitivity leads to financial loss to international sponsorships. The incapability to understand the message and cultural behaviours leads to frustration or annoys those from different cultural backgrounds.

Besides, the reasons for early returns from international assignments are family concerns (32%), transfer to a new position within the company (21%), early completion of the assignment (17%), cross-cultural adjustment challenges (8%), career concerns (4%), and security concerns (1%) (GRTS, 2010: p. 48). International mobility has created a multicultural society across the country which requires the highest level of intercultural integration especially in Asia. As shown in Table 1.0, a socio-cultural diversity in the Southeast Asian region has shaped unique cultural systems in the region.

Table 1.0: Ethnic Group Composition in the ASEAN countries

	<i>Population (2008 est)</i>	<i>Ethnic Groups (2000-2006 est.)</i>
Brunei	381,371	Malay 66.3%, Chinese 11.2%, Indigenous 3.4%, Other 19.1%
Cambodia	13,388,910	Khmer 90%, Vietnamese 5%, Chinese 1%, other 4%
Indonesia	237,512,352	Javanese 40.6%, Sundanese 15%, Madurese 3.3%, Minangkabau 2.7%, Betawi 2.4%, Bugis 2.4%, Banten 2%, Banjar 1.7%, other or unspecified 29.9% (2000 census)
Lao PDR	6,677,534	Lao 55%, Khmou 11%, Hmong 8%, other (over 100 minor ethnic groups) 26%
Malaysia	25,274,132	Malay 50.4%, Chinese 23.7%, Indigenous 11%, Indian 7.1%, others 7.8%
Myanmar	56,002.6 thousands	Burman 68%, Shan 9%, Karen 7%, Rakhine 4%, Chinese 3%, Indian 2%, Mon 2%, other 5%
Philippines	88,700 thousands	Tagalog 28.1%, Cebuano 13.1%, Ilocano 9%, Bisaya/ Binisaya 7.6%, Hiligaynon Ilonggo 7.5%, Bikol 6%, Waray 3.4%, other 25.3%
Singapore	4,608,167	Chinese 76.5%, Malay 13.8%, Indian 8.1%, other 1.6%
Thailand	64,763.0 thousands	Thai 75%, Chinese 14%, other 11%
Viet Nam	86,116,560	Viet 80%, Khmer 10%, Tay 1.9%, Thai 1.74%, Muong 1.49%, Hoa 1.13%, Nun 1.12%, Hmong 1.03%

Source: CIA, the World Factbook

Above all, cultural integration demands a high tolerance, compromising and understanding to create a harmonic multicultural society. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) world report on the Cultural Diversity and Intercultural Dialogues indicated that, managing cultural diversity is a crucial issue which potentially can be the source of cultural disputes, separation and conflicts. For example, ethnic conflict such as "attacks on Chinese (property, and the rape and murder of Chinese women) in Jakarta in May 1998 and clashes between local people and Madurese immigrants in West and Central Kalimantan 1997 - 2001" to name a few (Colombijn 2002). Thus, intercultural understanding, awareness and sensitivity are essential to understand the complexity of society and social concern. Hence, the present study was conducted to answer the research question: to what extent Malaysian students adjust in different cultural settings abroad? Comparatively with expatriation studies that have been conducted, there were limited numbers of studies that involved Malaysian students abroad. Specifically, the present study also aims to explore the prediction on facilitation of intercultural sensitivity toward cross-cultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.

2. Literature Review

Culture is a fundamental element which contributes to the effectiveness of intercultural relationships and other human interactions across-borders. Cultural frame of references (values, beliefs, norms and attitudes) is shaped through a learning process which explains the way of how people behave in certain ways (Torbiorn 1985). A behavioural learning process involves "... a retention or remembrance of observed behaviour, reproduction or acting, as like the observed behaviour and motivational outcomes or a positive reason for adapting behaviour" (Bandura, 1977: p.193). Besides, Hofstede (1983) defined culture as a "collective mental programming or a system of collective held values, shared with other members and is used to distinguish the members from other group" (p. 76). Developing intercultural effectiveness challenges a person's psychological and physical ability to understand different ways of being cultured.

Bandura's Social Learning Theory underlines an explanation on a symbolic environment which plays significant roles in influencing people's ways of life and intercultural interaction. Intercultural relations effectiveness depends on the sensitivity and integration of social system to create harmonious socio relationships. In social integration, a mutual connection is created through right cultural imitation and modelling processes. However, misleading imitation of the learning process may create inappropriate behaviour such as unpleasant, unnecessary, unwelcome, threaten, forces, annoying and show one's intercultural incompetency (Selmer, 2004). In addition, lack of cultural sensitivity and interest to other cultures typically lead to anxiety and uncertainty in intercultural encounters (Gudykunst & Nishida, 2001). An extrovert person and those who possesses enough intercultural sensitivity show a comfort in the other's way of life, have wide cultural perspectives and are knowledgeable about the different cultural frame of references.

Well-adjusted sojourners in a different cultural environment contribute to the assignments' goal accomplishment. At the same time, excitement and learning culture abroad enhance their life experience. On the other hands, mal-adjustment creates mobility difficulties while sojourning overseas due to the unavailability familiar materials and life support and misunderstanding of the host nationals' way of life culturally. Cultural shock literatures (example sees, Adler, 1975; Brein & David, 1971; Oberg, 1960; Ward, Bochner & Furnham, 2001) deliberated that the difficulties interacting with host nationals caused the misinterpretation of cultural clues which seem unreasonable, annoying or impolite either from sojourners or host national point of views.

In addition, intercultural interaction and mobility across the cultural environment gives various psychological and sociocultural implications on sojourners when sojourning abroad (Searle & Ward, 1990). The psychological effect is a rational or cognitive comparison between what is perceived as right or wrong which shaped mental well-being (Searle & Ward, 1990). Sociocultural adjustment shows the extend sojourners being able to live or interact with cultural surroundings (Searle & Ward, 1990). This disillusionment caused by sojourners' knowledge about ways of life (cultural mindset) is different with their experience abroad (Torbiorn, 1985; Ward et al., 2001). Unfamiliarity on foreign culture cues (value, attitudes and belief) has found limit harmonic interaction with locals by East Asian students sojourn in New Zealand (Lewthwaite, 1996). Moreover, a massive cultural difficulty has reported by western sojourners in Asian multiethnic society especially in China (GRTS, 2009).

Scholars (examples, Rasmussen, Lloyd & Wielandt, 2005; Shaftel, Shaftel & Ahluwalia, 2007) emphasized sufficient cultural exposure, knowledge, information and experiences facilitating cross-cultural adjustment. In addition, Rasmussen et. al. (2005) demonstrated that a high level of cultural sensitivity has significant impact towards a person's beliefs, attitudes, behaviours and, lifestyles and occupation. Besides, William (2005) has shown students who studied abroad had the strongest intercultural communication competency compared to local students. In particular, intercultural sensitivity refers to the ability of a person to understand the culture (beliefs, norms & attitude) and cultural behaviour (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Intercultural sensitivity is an affective response on feeling and emotions toward cultural similarity and differences (Chen & Starosta, 2000) from his/her own and others' perspectives. Hence, having sufficient cultural sensitivity is vital to avoid cultural surprises or disorder such as racism, stereotyping, ethnocentrism (Graf, 2004; Stahl, 2000), stereotyping (Clausen, 2010) or social desirability (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1999).

Furthermore, having adequate cultural knowledge and skills stimulates intercultural competency (Matveev & Milter, 2004). For example, mianzi (face-saving) and guanxi (relationship) are key concepts in Chinese culture to ensure the effectiveness of business connection in China (see Buckley, Clegg & Tan, 2006; Chen, 2006; Friedman, Dyke & Murphy, 2009). Appropriate intercultural communication sensitivity and multiculturalism reduce ethnocentrism sentiment in a multicultural environment (Dong, Day & Collaço, 2008). Yu and Chen (2008) found intercultural sensitivity has a significant and positive relationship with conflict management style. Hence, sensitivity to cultural differences develop intercultural competency (Chen & Starosta, 2000) and perceive to facilitate sojourners' cross-cultural adjustment internationally. Moreover, Chen and Starosta (2000) posited 5 dimensions of intercultural sensitivity include: interaction

engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment and interaction attentiveness. Therefore, the magnitude of sojourners' intercultural sensitivity towards the effectiveness of cross-cultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad hypothesized as:

- Hypothesis 1a: Interaction Engagement is positively associated with psychological adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.
- Hypothesis 1b: Interaction Engagement is positively associated with sociocultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.
- Hypothesis 2a: Respect for Cultural Differences is positively associated with psychological adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.
- Hypothesis 2b: Respect for Cultural Differences is positively associated with sociocultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.
- Hypothesis 3a: Interaction Confidence is positively associated with psychological adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.
- Hypothesis 3b: Interaction Confidence is positively associated with sociocultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.
- Hypothesis 4a: Interaction Enjoyment is positively associated with psychological adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.
- Hypothesis 4b: Interaction Enjoyment is positively associated with sociocultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.
- Hypothesis 5a: Interaction Attentiveness is positively associated with psychological adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.
- Hypothesis 5b: Interaction Attentiveness is positively associated with sociocultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.

Mutual understanding of cultural elements, compromises and substantial cultural knowledge about appropriate behaviour will facilitate sojourners' effectiveness in working and living abroad. Sufficient visible (behaviour and material possession) and intrinsic (perception, attitude, value and belief) cultural knowledge is an essential for intercultural communication and effectiveness (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer & Luk, 2005; Bjerregaard, Luring & Klitmoller, 2009; Mendenhall, Stevens, Birds & Oddou, 2008) and help sojourners to avoid any possibilities of cultural misconduct. These scenarios lead to the proposition of this research as intercultural interaction gives cognitive impact on sojourners' psychological well-being and sociocultural adjustment abroad. Delineated from the studies as mentioned above, an intercultural sensitivity rationalizes in the present study is perceived as affective responses to the recognition and understanding on cultural skills, knowledge and the way of life of different cultural group. Thus, major aim of the present study is to establish a more feasible prediction of intercultural sensitivity towards cross-cultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad.

3. Research Methodology

Sojourners' intercultural sensitivity posited in the present study as an ability to establish appropriate affective intercultural responses which predicts the effectiveness of cross-cultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad. Thus, intercultural sensitivity was measured using the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) as developed by Chen and Starosta (2000). The ISS is measured using 5-level of Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) with 24 manifested items. A predictive validity of ISS accounted Cronbach's α between 0.85 and 0.88 (Chen & Starosta, 2000). An example of the indicator is, "I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures". Acceptable validity of ISS over its five dimensions was proved by studies (sees, Fritz, Mollenberg & Chen, 2002; Peng, 2006; Yu & Chen, 2008) tested in various cultural group namely American, German and Chinese.

The Mental Health Inventory (MHI-5) (Berwick, Murphy, Goldman, Ware, Barsky & Weinstein, 1991) was adopted in the present study to measure Malaysian students' psychological adjustment. MHI-5 manifested by five indicators (items), containing the elements of behavioural dysfunction (anxiety), feeling of psychological distress (depression and behavioural / emotional control) and generally positive effect. An example of the indicator is, "How much of the time during the past month have you been a nervous person?" The measure of the scale is based on the 6-level Likert scales, ranging from 1 (none of the time) to 6 (all of the time). Higher scores on MHI-5 indicate a person was psychologically adjusted which indicated their ability to encounter cultural stress effectively.

The status of Malaysian students' abilities in adjusting their life with sociocultural environments was measured by

using the Sociocultural Adaptation Scale (SCAS) (Ward & Kennedy, 1999). SCAS has validated using various sojourners samples especially Malaysian and Singaporean respondents; and internal consistency index of the measures ranged from 0.75 to 0.91 ($M = 0.85$) was found. The 29-items SCAS measured with five levels of Likert scales ranging from 1 (no difficulty) to 5 (extreme difficulty). The respondents may indicate the difficulty level of their past experience dealing with living events in the host country (see, Ward & Kennedy, 1999). An example of the indicator is, "How much difficulty you have experienced during the past month with the activities (such as making friends)". Holistic reviews on the use of the scale have found the Cronbach's alpha reliability of SCAS had reported a range of 0.81 to 0.87 across 16 cross-sectional and four longitudinal studies. Notably, the studies emphasized culture-specific skills, behavioural dimensions of adaptation to change, and the significance of intercultural interactions (Ward & Kennedy, 1999).

Later, a purposive sampling has been used to identify Malaysian students abroad through an online survey. A respondents' recruitment screening only incorporates those studying and living abroad which identified through the Malaysian Students Department (MSD), Malaysian embassy abroad. The students' respondents include those studying the bachelor degree, master's degree and doctorate degree. In the present study, the Malaysian student population abroad is estimated by 79,254 (2010). Thus, a general rule was used to determine the sample size whereas the minimum number of respondents needed has to be at least five times of the number of variables to be analyzed. An acceptable sample size would be a ten to one ratio. It was proposed that a minimum of 20 cases for each variable is conducted (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006). In the present study, there are 3 constructs that build the research framework (1 independent variable, 2 dependent variables) and in total, there are 7 dimensions (5 independent variables, 2 dependent variables) incorporated. Hence, a total minimum of 140 samples (7 dimensions x 20 cases) were sufficient and it showed satisfactory number of the sample size.

4. Findings

From 500 Malaysian students contacted by email, 248 responded which yield 49.6% response rate. However, only 187 responses are usable for further data analyses. Detailed respondents' demographic was shown in Table 2.0 and Table 3.0. Majority of respondents aged between 31 to 35 (22.5%), Female (61.5%), single (67.9%), Muslim (56.1%), studying a doctorate degree (35.8%), being sponsored (45.5%) and with past overseas experiences (28.9%) (although 65.2% of respondents were unspecified whether they are with or without past overseas experiences). The respondents claimed that they are studying and living in 25 different countries around the globe and the majority (25.13%) are in Australia.

Table 2.0. Respondents' Profile

	Frequency	Percent		Frequency	Percent
<u>Age</u>			<u>Gender</u>		
<25	38	20.3	Male	72	38.5
26-30	28	15.0	Female	115	61.5
31-35	42	22.5	Total	187	100.0
36-40	28	15.0			
41-45	29	15.5	<u>Studying Level</u>		
46-50	22	11.8	Bachelor Degree	42	22.5
Total	187	100.0	Masters Degree	64	34.2
			Doctoral Degree	67	35.8
<u>Marital Status</u>			Others	14	7.5
Single	127	67.9	Total	187	100.0
Living with the Other	3	1.6			
Married	52	27.8	<u>Studying Mode</u>		
Separated	1	.5	Self-Initiated	72	38.5
Divorced	2	1.1	Sponsorship	85	45.5
Widowed	2	1.1	Unspecified	30	16.0
Total	187	100.0	Total	187	100.0
			<u>Past Experiences</u>		
<u>Religious Belief</u>			With Experiences	54	28.9
Islam	105	56.1	Non-Experienced	11	5.9
Christian	37	19.8	Unspecified	122	65.2
Buddha	17	9.1	Total	187	100.0
Hindu	15	8.0			
Others	13	7.0			
Total	187	100.0			

Table 3.0. Location of Malaysian students overseas

<i>Location</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Australia	27	Japan	1	Singapore	28
Brunei Darussalam	4	Jordan	4	South Africa	2
China	2	Mexico	2	Sweden	1
Egypt	14	Netherland	2	Thailand	6
France	5	New Zealand	21	Turkey	5
Germany	3	Philippines	1	UK	5
India	2	Portugal	1	USA	15
Indonesia	10	Russia	2	<i>Unspecified</i>	17
Italy	3	Saudi Arabia	4	Total	187

*Note: N = 25 Location Overseas, arranges alphabetically.

For instance, a regression assumption test has shown that the data on the dependent variable (psychological and sociocultural adjustment) are skewed with Z-score of -1.904 and -4.753 respectively. Besides, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality rejected the normality hypothesis of the data with significant level greater than 0.5 (Hair et. al, 2011). Hence, the nonparametric analyzing using the Partial Least Square (PLS) (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009) provides robustness statistical prediction techniques which optimized the proportion of variance of the dependent construct that is explained by the predictive constructs. The measurement and structural model of the present study was analyzed using the SmartPLS software version 2.0 M3 with temporary license to use obtained from the developer's website. The relationship predictions between intercultural sensitivity and cross-cultural adjustment among Malaysian students overseas analyze through measurement and structural model are discussed in the following section.

4.1 Measurement Model

Initial sets of established reliability (Cronbach alpha, composite reliability and average variance explained) were shown as in Table 4.0. As compared to Cronbach's α , composite reliability (CR) shows better internal consistency indicators of the variable as a construct. The findings show although some of the constructs (cultural, interaction and self awareness) accounted low Cronbach's α , the Average Variance Explained (AVE) and CR has sufficient reliability scores after receiving some 'loading treatment'. An outer loading of the indicators was diagnosed and has identified 29 manifested indicators with the lowest loading being deleted from the list. Deleted items include: 2 psychological adjustment items; 19 sociocultural adjustment items; 3 interaction engagement items, 2 respect for cultural differences items; 2 interaction confidence items; and 1 interaction attentiveness item. Deleted items indicated lowest regression of the measured items from the respondents' perspectives.

Table 4.0: Measurement Model (reliability and validity)

<i>Model Construct</i>	<i>Measurement Items</i>	<i>Loadings</i>	α	CR	AVE	<i>Standardized estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>
Psychological Adjustment (PSY)	MHI5b	0.794	0.687	0.824	0.614	0.216	1.535
	MHI5c	0.622				0.230	1.363
	MHI5d	0.908				0.153	3.892***
Sociocultural Adjustment (SOC)	SCAS05	0.771	0.897	0.915	0.519	0.046	4.198***
	SCAS08	0.784				0.051	2.684***
	SCAS09	0.695				0.039	3.068***
	SCAS10	0.741				0.050	3.332***
	SCAS17	0.722				0.051	2.242**
	SCAS18	0.762				0.043	4.378***
	SCAS21	0.652				0.049	1.924*
	SCAS26	0.750				0.038	3.397***
	SCAS28	0.605				0.054	2.267**
	SCAS29	0.705				0.041	2.803***
Interaction Engagement (01IntEng)	ISS01	0.627	0.688	0.809	0.518	0.230	1.412
	ISS13	0.826				0.182	2.414**
	ISS21	0.669				0.213	1.263

	ISS23	0.741				0.168	2.023**
Respect for Cultural Differences (02RspCultDiff)	ISS02	0.776	0.679	0.802	0.504	0.243	1.607
	ISS07	0.721				0.207	1.139
	ISS08	0.720				0.261	1.760*
	ISS20	0.612				0.282	1.134
Interaction Confidence (03IntConf)	ISS10	0.756	0.576	0.777	0.538	0.237	2.179**
	ISS05	0.785				0.234	1.457
	ISS06	0.652				0.286	1.724*
Interaction Enjoyment (04IntEnjy)	ISS09	0.783	0.803	0.879	0.709	0.178	1.495
	ISS12	0.867				0.130	3.087***
	ISS15	0.872				0.191	2.650***
Interaction Attentiveness (05IntAttn)	ISS14	0.372	0.527	0.213	0.519	0.518	0.230
	ISS17	0.994				0.450	2.332**

note: t-value >1.645 (p<0.1); t-value >1.960** (p<0.05); t-value > 2.576*** (p<0.01)

Additionally, the data have shown an acceptable convergent validity, checked through cross-loading procedures (see Table 5.0). A Fornell-Larcker criterion also has been performed to examine the discriminant validity of the constructs. A correlation matrix of the latent constructs' and their $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ scores (bold in the diagonal) provide a verification to support discriminant validity assumption as shown in the Table 6.0. Hence, with an acceptable range of reliability and validity of the measurement model, the structural model examination was preceded.

Table 5.0. Convergent Validity (Cross-loading)

	PSY	SOC	01IntEng	02RspCultDiff	03IntConf	04IntEnjy	05IntAttn
MHI5b	0.794	0.018	-0.026	0.110	-0.008	0.046	-0.088
MHI5c	0.622	-0.047	0.044	0.101	0.041	-0.076	0.020
MHI5d	0.908	-0.068	-0.038	0.102	0.079	-0.061	-0.131
SCAS05	0.004	0.771	-0.158	-0.082	-0.120	-0.161	0.091
SCAS08	-0.004	0.784	-0.165	-0.133	-0.213	-0.098	-0.008
SCAS09	-0.055	0.695	-0.113	-0.077	-0.071	-0.103	0.050
SCAS10	-0.001	0.741	-0.109	-0.041	-0.098	-0.109	0.120
SCAS17	-0.021	0.722	-0.004	-0.001	-0.038	-0.125	0.106
SCAS18	-0.041	0.762	-0.182	-0.055	-0.172	-0.179	0.036
SCAS21	-0.011	0.652	-0.029	-0.038	-0.075	-0.077	0.073
SCAS26	-0.079	0.750	-0.092	-0.034	-0.161	-0.089	0.046
SCAS28	-0.155	0.605	-0.106	-0.082	-0.132	-0.143	0.007
SCAS29	-0.026	0.705	-0.136	-0.058	-0.101	-0.095	0.015
ISS01	-0.024	-0.107	0.627	0.368	0.286	0.298	0.330
ISS13	0.007	-0.149	0.826	0.373	0.405	0.429	0.349
ISS21	-0.013	-0.089	0.669	0.329	0.359	0.449	0.335
ISS23	-0.027	-0.111	0.741	0.451	0.338	0.343	0.362
ISS02	0.098	-0.062	0.290	0.776	0.222	0.508	0.302
ISS07	0.051	-0.049	0.427	0.721	0.266	0.518	0.317
ISS08	0.113	-0.075	0.538	0.720	0.290	0.240	0.378
ISS20	0.082	-0.047	0.202	0.612	0.117	0.258	0.087
ISS05	0.042	-0.141	0.271	0.162	0.785	0.259	0.260
ISS06	0.012	-0.099	0.378	0.209	0.652	0.376	0.189
ISS10	0.064	-0.127	0.435	0.336	0.756	0.382	0.205
ISS09	0.020	-0.104	0.421	0.521	0.387	0.783	0.252
ISS12	-0.027	-0.142	0.520	0.441	0.370	0.867	0.404
ISS15	-0.078	-0.167	0.398	0.389	0.389	0.872	0.374
ISS14	-0.023	-0.053	0.515	0.207	0.229	0.228	0.372
ISS17	-0.099	0.067	0.510	0.399	0.312	0.425	0.994

Table 6.0. Divergent Validity (Fornell-Larcker criterion)

Dimensions	01IntEng	02RspCultDiff	03IntConf	04IntEnjy	05IntAttn	PSY	SOC
01IntEng	0.720						
02RspCultDiff	0.526	0.710					
03IntConf	0.483	0.320	0.733				
04IntEnjy	0.523	0.514	0.450	0.842			
05IntAttn	0.475	0.394	0.300	0.419	0.751		
PSY	-0.018	0.129	0.057	-0.045	-0.101	0.784	
SOC	-0.162	-0.085	-0.169	-0.170	0.077	-0.050	0.721

4.2 Structural Model

Shown in Table 7.0, only 2 latent dependent variables showed statistically significant predicts sociocultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad. First, respect for cultural differences was found to have high statistical significance predict psychological adjustment (02RspCultDiff:PSY: $\beta = 0.112$, $t_{0.05} = 2.242$) among Malaysian students while living and studying abroad. Thus, sufficient empirical evidence to support Hypothesis 2a that is “Respect for Cultural Differences is positively associated with psychological adjustment among Malaysian students abroad”. Second, interaction enjoyment is also found to have statistical significance predicts sociocultural adjustment among Malaysian students’ (04IntEnjy: SOC: $\beta = 0.090$, $t_{0.10} = 1.646$) while living and studying abroad. Thus, sufficient empirical evidence to support Hypothesis 2b that is “Interaction Enjoyment is positively associated with sociocultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad”. However, the structural coefficient also suggested interaction engagement (01IntEng:PSY: $\beta = 0.135$) appeared as the best predictor of psychological adjustment, followed by interaction attentiveness (05IntAttn:PSY: $\beta = 0.133$), interaction enjoyment (04IntEnjy:PSY: $\beta = 0.121$), interaction confidence (03IntConf:PSY: $\beta = 0.116$) and respect for cultural differences (02RspCultDiff:PSY: $\beta = 0.112$). On the other hand, the structural coefficient suggests interaction attentiveness (05IntAttn: SOC: $\beta = 0.178$) best predictor of sociocultural adjustment, followed by interaction engagement (01IntEng: SOC: $\beta = 0.112$), interaction confidence (03IntConf: SOC: $\beta = 0.099$), respect for cultural differences (02RspCultDiff: SOC: $\beta = 0.095$) and interaction enjoyment (04IntEnjy: SOC: $\beta = 0.090$). Overall, the latent dependent variables (interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment and interaction attentiveness) have explained 6% of variance (R^2) on the latent independent variables (psychological adjustment). On the other hand, the latent dependent variables (interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment and interaction attentiveness) have explained 9% of variance (R^2) on the latent independent variables (sociocultural adjustment). The implication of the result will be discussed in the following section.

Table 7.0: Structural Model (relationship prediction)

Relationship	Coefficient	t-value	Significant
01IntEng:PSY	0.135	0.493	Not significant
01IntEng :SOC	0.112	1.377	Not significant
02RspCultDiff:PSY	0.112	2.242**	Significant
02RspCultDiff :SOC	0.095	0.112	Not significant
03IntConf:PSY	0.116	0.956	Not significant
03IntConf: SOC	0.099	1.039	Not significant
04IntEnjy:PSY	0.121	1.048	Not significant
04IntEnjy: SOC	0.090	1.646*	Significant
05IntAttn:PSY	0.133	1.117	Not significant
05IntAttn: SOC	0.178	1.342	Not significant

note: t-value >1.645 ($p < 0.1$); t-value >1.960** ($p < 0.05$); t-value > 2.576*** ($p < 0.01$), 500 samples bootstrapping

5. Discussions

The aim of the present study is to predict facilitation of intercultural sensitivity towards Malaysian students’ cross-cultural adjustment abroad. The results have shown that only one intercultural sensitivity dimension (respect for cultural differences) was found positively predict psychological adjustment among Malaysian students abroad. Additionally,

intercultural sensitivity dimension of interaction enjoyment are clearly appeared as the only intercultural sensitivity dimension that positively predict sociocultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad. The result found in the present study indicates Malaysian students' shows high value of respect on the cultural differences. Besides, there are enjoying to the different cultural environment while studying and living abroad. The multiracial society of Malaysia proves had established some magnitude of intercultural respect and sensitivity among Malaysian students. Unfortunately, insignificant result provides weak statistical support to predict intercultural sensitivity dimensions towards cross-cultural adjustment among Malaysian students abroad. However, the insignificant result indicates the students are adjusted to the different cultural setting and probably have not felt direct effect of the intercultural sensitivity dimensions on their cross-cultural adjustment.

The present study gives support to the studies (see, Rasmussen et. al., 2005; Shaftef, Shaftef & Ahluwalia, 2007) where cultural exposure, knowledge, information and experiences build sufficient affective responses among Malaysian students when encounter cultural differences abroad. The results also show that Malaysian students have certain magnitude of intercultural competency (Matveev & Milter, 2004) that facilitates their cross-cultural adjustment internationally. This finding sustain studies by William (2005), and Chen and Starosta (1996, 2000) where intercultural sensitivity determine the ability of a person to identify the similarity and differences of cultural context and contact. An affective cultural ability helps a person to avoid cross-cultural difficulties and intercultural conflict as argued by scholars (Clausen, 2010; Dong et. al, 2008; Graf, 2004; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1999; Stahl, 2000; Yu and Chen, 2008). Furthermore, sensitive to cultural differences may lead an individual transformation from ethnocentrism into ethnos relativism (cultural competent) status (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992; Greenholtz, 2000). Cultural knowledge is essential to create mutual benefits of intercultural relationship. Thus, acquiring enough culture knowledge and acknowledging individual cultural differences, the role of family, gender, age and seniority, religion, customs and belief in intercultural relationship are important especially in regards to the Asian culture. As mentioned by Hall (1959), high contacts of Asian culture incorporated personal values in interpersonal interactions and relations. Therefore, it is important to gain enough cultural knowledge to avoid being racist or ethnocentric in intercultural relationships.

Nevertheless, the finding of the present study provides further reliability and validity of the ISS in measuring intercultural sensitivity as postulated by Chen and Starosta (1996). Besides, showing respect especially towards the other from different personal and cultural background is vital to create a mutual interpersonal relationship. Thus, by having enough cultural knowledge and sensitivity of such differences could help to avoid imposing self-judgement, being racist and ethnocentric in intercultural relations. This quality is important to gain respect and trust when dealing with different cultural expectation, consideration and establishes good manners.

However, there are a few limitations of the present study which may offer opportunities for future studies to establish better prediction and measures of intercultural sensitivity and cross-cultural adjustment. First, the statistical insignificant result might shows the applicability of ISS in measures cross-cultural adjustment requires further psychometric investigation. The deletion procedures and low reliability scores as found in the present study indicate the need for further psychometric treatments. There are possibilities of social desirability problems that affect small effect on the intercultural sensitivity measures in cross-cultural adjustment prediction. Thus, future study may incorporate social desirability effect test, such as self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974: revised by Lennox & Wolfe, 1984) and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). Respondents' scores in social desirability scales reflect substantive individual cognitive differences and psychometric understanding on the measures.

The second limitation of the present study is the sampling frame. Chosen samples incorporated in the present study were purposively approached and randomly picked through email. Thus, the response-bias problem might affect the result of the present study. Eliminating response-bias is important to ensure the trustfulness of the survey result. Besides, future research can also incorporate a control experimental group (involves the participants within the same ethnic group) to look at the social desirability impact against the measure instrument, especially with regard to the intercultural interactions (Hammer, Bennett & Wiseman, 2003). Hence, further analysis is granted to check model fit analysis on the structural model as in the present study. Besides, similar investigated is granted to conduct using different set of sojourners (expatriates, immigrant, asylum seekers and tourists) in different country. Lastly, other methods of data collection especially a qualitative study such as interview, observation and participation may provide a significant impact to the intercultural investigation and support the findings of the present study. Utilization of different methods in data collections is granted to measure a consistency of the measure instruments (Portalla & Chen, 2010).

Particularly, this study helps to provide some insight into sojourners perception on intercultural relations while sojourning abroad. It was revealed that it is an essential for sojourners to develop some portion of intercultural sensitivity when they encounter intercultural differences. Cultural misconception is foreseen through the need to develop more

structured on-location intercultural training program for sojourners and their families to overcome the cultural challenges (Caligiuri, 2000; Forster, 1997). The present study found that the inconsistencies effect of cultural understanding was due to the different cultural mindset between sojourners and host nationals. Therefore, it is important for both parties to be aware towards the individual cultural differences. Appropriate social learning is essential to eliminate any sign of ethnocentrism, stereotyping or racism. In addition, as contended by Bandura (1977) and Chen (2006), positive attitude and communication competence reduce cultural difficulties in order to ensure the effectiveness of the international assignment. In conclusion, it is important for sojourners to incorporate cultural perspectives in their knowledge and cross-cultural adaptation strategies to accommodate effective adjustment abroad.

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Defining a 21st Century Education: Case Study of Development and Growth Course

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Abstract

In the last few years there are huge discussions regarding "21st Century Skills" but often it is difficult to identify the ways of which these skills can be improved. There are some ambiguous questions related to the preparation of the students for the new century, such as: the level of course difficulty, the teaching methods, the course objective and achievement of these objectives, the learning outcomes and the contribution to adopt in life and work in the 21st century. This paper covers all these problems and gives some practical solution basing on a concrete course such as the Development and Growth course, since this course is composed by both economic theories and concrete results in the social framework. One of the most important aims of this course is to teach students to think critically, being at the same time one of the main skills in 21st century, in analyzing materials explained in the class, evidences for a large gamma of countries and drawing attention to the changes in the social cellules.

Keywords: Critical Thinking, Skills, Learning Outcomes, Development and Growth Course

Good thinking skills will not develop on their own, they must be taught! (Beyer, 1987)

In a world of accelerating change, intensifying complexity and increasing interdependence, critical thinking is now a requirement for economic and social survival! (Paul, 2002)

1. Introduction

According to the Report of the Center of Public Education in America, Defining a 21st century education, by Craig D. Jerald (2009), there are three kinds of learning which are becoming important from day to day for students to succeed in work and life:

1. Traditional academic knowledge and skills. The belief that students will no longer need to learn the academic content traditionally taught in the school curriculum is false. Students will need strong math and English skills to succeed in work and life, for example. A strong academic foundation also is essential for success in postsecondary education and training, which itself is increasingly necessary for anyone who wants to earn a middle class wage.
2. Real world application, or "applied literacies." Students will need not just knowledge but also "literacy"—the ability to apply their learning to meet real-world challenges. That applies to all subjects, including English, math, science, and social studies.
3. Broader competencies. Students who develop an even broader set of competencies will be at an increasing advantage in work and life. Based on employer surveys and other evidence, the most important seem to be:
 - a. The ability solve new problems and think critically;
 - b. Strong interpersonal skills necessary for communication and collaboration;
 - c. Creativity and intellectual flexibility; and
 - d. Self sufficiency, including the ability to learn new things when necessary.

The focus of this paper is the third point mentioned in this report, border competences, which is seen as one of the challenges nowadays and the days after. But what does the critical thinking mean and why it is important?

1.1 Critical Thinking

Most people agree about the importance of critical thinking during the lectures but not everyone agree in its' definition. Based on the definitions they use for the "critical thinking", the educators/teachers/professors are divided into two main

groups. The first group represents the individuals who think that critical thinking must be learned during the lectures, the students must be trained in a manner to improve this skill. The second group represents the individuals who think that they are not responsible for the students' critical thinking, but at contraire, they should focus on just giving knowledge which will help them to solve different problems in the future.

Teaching students to think critically about decisions and problems is a task that we should undertake as educators. Huit (1998) is one of the authors that based on the skills needed for the 21st century founded out that critical thinking was of great importance. According to Sutton and de Oliveira (1995), "critical thinking outcomes" are influenced by knowledge and experience but they are also influences by an individual's critical thinking skill and critical thinking disposition. Meyers (1986) said that students must learn to think and reason critically to reach their fullest potential.

2. Pedagogical Issues of Development and Growth Course

Both, the traditional academic knowledge/skills and their application to the real world of course remain important issues to be absorbed and transmit to the students as learning tools and adding values to them. The third component which helps students to be competitive and prepared for the new century, boarder competences, can be defined as a defiant target to be reached and for this reason it is hard to be present to courses curriculums. Since this third dimension is found to be important, this paper set up the interaction of its' elements into Development and Growth course. In order to make a clear observation of principles in this course, four main issues take place.

2.1 The level of course difficulty.

This course cannot be range as a difficult one, but there are two main things students must take into account: firstly, the students should have to clearly understand the concepts and the relationship between dimensions and secondly, they should include personal willingness to change the world because if they want to be part of the influencing a part of their society they can become good critical thinkers.

2.1.1 Course Description

The purpose of this course is to introduce students to issues and problems related to economic development. Specifically, we discuss the characteristics of developing nations as well as alternative theories of economic growth. Next, we examine some of the dominant domestic problems faced by developing countries, such as poverty and inequality, low levels of human capital, urbanization, rural transformation as well as different policies to resolve them.

In this course, we study theories and policies of international economic development. Topics include: the structural changes accompanying development, theories of development, impediments to development, role of the international sector, role of the government, stabilization policy, and foreign aid and investment. Other socio-economic issues are discussed, such as: poverty, inequality and development, population growth and economic development, urbanization, rural-urban migration, human capital, agriculture transformation and rural development, environmental and development. As prerequisite course it is sufficient an introductory course in economics.

2.2 The teaching methods

The course syllabus is distributed at the beginning of the semester. Students are told about the weekly schedule and the topics covered during the semester. The evaluation system is explained in details and discussed with students if they have any recommendation or suggestion. The lecturers are organized in the following manner:

- a. Firstly, a quick presentation of the topic is given to the students.
- b. Then, some general question are being asked in order to lead the students to be part of a brainstorming and attract them to be interested in the answers given by other students, professor or during the lecture.
- c. At a third stage, theories and literature review regarding the topics take place.
- d. Next, concrete evidences of different group of countries (developed countries/developing countries, small countries/ large countries, countries of different continents/zones) are shown as de-facto and a summary analysis is concluded. Often case studies are given as additional information.
- e. In the fifth step, the data, findings and evidences are taken into consideration and are being discussed. This is the main and the most important component of the lecture because students are analyzing the Albanian situation by giving their experience, information or opinions related to the topic. The theories and the other

countries experience make their analysis to come into another dimension, generally different from the answers during the second step of the course.

Another important feature in this course is the students' presentation session. At the ends of the course module students have to present their researches done in one of the fields explain during the lectures. At the beginning of the semester a list of selected topics (specific issues) for the Albanian case are given to the students. They have to select their topic within two weeks and each week they are required to show their evolution and to achieve feedbacks from professor or course assistant. Presentations are organized in a form of mini-conference where guests are being invited and constructing discussion take place within a larger group of experts in order to support the students work or to give additional information to the topic. The representing form of these presentations helps students to pass from passive listeners to active speakers, critical thinkers and perceptive analysts.

2.3 The course objective and achievement of these objectives.

The goals of this course are for every student to:

- ❖ Describe the characteristics of and the special challenges facing developing nations.
- ❖ Explain alternative theories of economic growth and evaluate their ability to explain the growth experiences of less-developed countries.
- ❖ Discuss the domestic problems that developing nations face, assess the seriousness of these problems, and evaluate the effectiveness of various policies designed to deal with domestic issues.
- ❖ Appreciate the value of empirical evidence in expanding our knowledge within economics.
- ❖ Conduct independent research on the problems and policies of economic development.

2.4 The learning outcomes.

- ❖ Conduct independent research on the problems and policies of economic development.
- ❖ Application of economic models and theories in order to better understand the causes and consequences of economic growth at an international level.
- ❖ Knowledge of distributional consequences of economic growth (inequality, structural adjustments etc.).
- ❖ Knowledge of the implications of globalization on specific sectoral policies such as agricultural policy, energy policy.
- ❖ Knowledge of specific concepts such as fair and sustainable development

3. Contributions of Development and Growth Course to New Century

But what are the contributions of this course to adopt in life and work in the 21st century? This course tries to focus into two main elements; the first is the idea of training students with the critical thinking/improving their skills toward the adoption in the new century, and the second one, is the understanding of the sustainable development/the identification of obstacles regarding this issue and the application of appropriate solutions for problem disposition.

3.1 Skills to be Learned during the Module

To be successful, educators must go beyond teaching about these global issues to their students. During the lectures, students should be given practical skills that will enable them to continue learning after they leave university. The aim of the course must not be the focus of achieving a satisfied grade but even more, to have a sustainable livelihood, and to live sustainable lives. For that reason students must gain some skills which will help them, such as:

- Ability to think about systems (both natural and social sciences).
- The ability to think in time - to forecast, to think ahead, and to plan.
- The ability to think critically about value issues.
- The capacity to move from awareness to knowledge to action.
- The ability to work cooperatively with other people.
- The capacity to use these processes: knowing, inquiring, acting, judging, imagining, connecting, valuing, and choosing.

3.2 *Becoming a Good Critical Thinker*

Students are guided to raise vital questions and problems, formulating them clearly and precisely. During the lectures they have to gather and assess relevant information, using abstract ideas to interpret it effectively which will help them to come to well-reasoned conclusions and solutions. Theories studied in the module help students to think open-mindedly within alternative systems of thought, and to draw carefully their own assumptions, implications, and practical consequences. They put aside their views and supportive ideas to these views and listen to the other colleagues, adding to their opinions additional values and aspects by concluding at the end effective solutions to complex problems.

Critical thinking was defined as thinking that is reasonable and reflective and focused on what to believe or do (Norris & Ennis, 1989). They classified the critical thinking skills into four categories which are the main pillars of the development and growth module too.

Table 1. Critical Thinking Skills

Skill	Description
Clarification	The attempt to appraise and understand the exact nature of the problem, issue or dilemma. This includes attempting to understand different points of view on an issue.
Assessing evidence	In order to establish a sound basis for inferences, the evidence used to support those inferences must be assessed. This involves judging the credibility of sources of information and judging the credibility of observations.
Making and judging inferences	Inductive and deductive inferences and value judgments are involved in making a decision about what to believe or do. Critical thinking involves the ability to judge the soundness of inferences and to make good inferences. Using evidence to support arguments is included in this category.
Using appropriate strategies and tactics	Critical thinking is not a matter of following steps or procedures but some strategies or heuristics can be useful in guiding thinking.

Source: Norris and Ennis, 1989

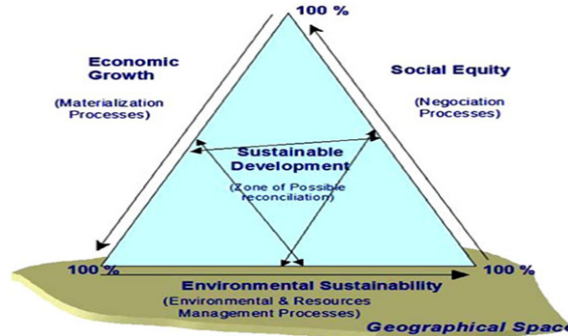
3.3 *Understanding Sustainable Development*

Public awareness done through education, trainings and other methods is essential for achieving development itself and sustainability of this development. Even if we often miss a clear definition of development and sustainability, we do realize the problematic issues such as: misuse of energy, lack of water conservation, increased pollution, environment degradation, lack of investments in human capital, abuse of property rights, etc.

As academicians and experts of the domain all admit, development must be without any doubt a continuous process, otherwise sustainable. One of the original definitions of sustainable development was compiled by World Commission on Environment and Development, in 1987: "Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs".

In most of literatures regarding development, we can see three main pillars of development: economy, society and environment. Parallel to the concept of development composed by these three dimensions, often we refer to the notion of "well-being". But what is the meaning of well-being? World Health Organisation Quality of Life is concerned with measuring physical health, psychological health, social relationships, and the environment. This is the main reason to think about an equilibrium between these three issues in order to reach a considerable development trend and to improve quality of life. The diagram below shows the correlation of these three elements.

Graph 1. Trinity of Sustainable Development



Source: Nijkamp Triangle Dourojeanni (1993)

The combination of Economic growth and Environmental sustainability leads to a “Viable” situation, the combination of Social equity and Environmental sustainability leads to a “Bearable” situation and the third relationship, which is the combination of Economic growth and Social equity leads to an “Equitable” situation. The relationship of the three dimensions at the same time leads to “Sustainability”.

The table below presents the detail issues comprised within each dimension. The noted issues by an “*” are the issues discussed during the lectures. Mostly we are dealing with the social issues and economic ones. The environmental dimension is partially considered given that the students engaging with the development and growth course are students from departments of economics, banking and finance and business administration. Another reason is the lack of information and application of the programs dealing with environmental issue in Albania.

Table 2. Three Dimensions of Sustainable Development

<i>Economic Dimension</i>	<i>Social Dimension</i>	<i>Environmental Dimension</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Continuous improvement in economic well being Creation of new markets and opportunities for sales growth *Cost reduction through efficiency improvements *Greater economic equality Efficient use of renewable resources *Protection of commercial rights *Green business opportunities *Sharing of commercial information Opportunities for reduced energy and raw material input *Fair and equal access to information and knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Protection of human rights *Protection of human health *Child mortality *Food security *Sharing of vital information *Respecting the view points of beneficiaries and victims of developmental activities *Accountability and responsibility of societal decision makers *Participatory approach in decision making *Increasing literacy levels and employment opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Renewal of energy Renewal of materials Renewable food resources Reduction of environmental footprint *Accountability and responsibility of environmental decision makers *Environmental ethics

Students are founded to be very interested in both the economic improvement and also in the social aspects and one of the aims of this course is to explain to them that not just the positive economic growth matters, but the most important is to have positive and continues trends (to have a sustainable growth) and this growth to be “transferred” to the social aspects (to have a sustainable development).

4. Conclusions

Often we find ourselves face to face to the questing regarding the adherence in the European Union, if we have to be part of it or not. Mostly the Albanian people are pro EU; they want to be part of EU but being part of it means to reach some well-defined standards. When looking at the standards, we often see that some of them are related to the world changes, to the adoption to the new century.

The significance of the "21st Century Skills" and "21st Century Needs", and the immediate exigency of these two core requirements were the two main pillars in the development and growth course curriculum. Leading students to improve their skills and helping them to feel a part of society which cares for the problem around them, and par consequences to try to give practical solutions is a really challenge. Notwithstanding these challenges we as educator have to face, we hope that the driven effects during this course are going to add value to human beings and perennial.

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Jigsaw Cooperative Learning: A Viable Teaching-Learning Strategy?

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Abstract

This study focused on investigating the effect of jigsaw cooperative learning instruction on the second-year undergraduates' achievement of Teaching Learning Strategy. Undergraduates' opinions about jigsaw cooperative learning instruction were also investigated. The participants of this study were 52 second-year undergraduates in Islamic education department in Islamic University of Jakarta, Indonesia. A pre-test was applied to both experimental (N=28) and control groups (N=24) before the treatment in order to identify undergraduates' prior knowledge about "Teaching Learning Strategy" and to determine if there was a significant change in Teaching Learning Strategy from pre-test to post-test for second-year undergraduates. Independent t-test was conducted to compare the prior knowledge test scores for groups and no significant difference was found in terms of mean scores. After the instruction, post-test was administered to investigate undergraduates' achievement. The results showed that students in the experimental group, who perceived their instruction as more cooperative and more student-centered, had significantly greater improvement on achievement measures than did the students in the control group. In addition, individual interviews reflected that undergraduates had positive opinion about jigsaw, and they believed jigsaw is an effective cooperative learning technique that promotes positive attitudes and interest develop inter-personal skills. The major findings of this study support the effectiveness of jigsaw learning for students in Indonesia higher education institutions.

Keywords: *Jigsaw, cooperative learning, teaching learning strategy, achievement*

1. Introduction

Instructional process in Indonesia is done by many educators today are likely to target curriculum materials, more emphasis on memorization rather than understanding concepts. It can be seen from the learning activities in the classroom that is always dominated by the teacher. In the delivery of content, typically teachers use the lecture method, where students just sit down, take notes, and listen to what it conveys and fewer opportunities for students to ask questions. Thus, to be non-conducive learning environment so that students become passive.

Efforts to increase student achievement is inseparable from the various factors that influence it. In this case, it takes a creative teacher who can make learning more interesting and favored by learners. Classroom atmosphere needs to be planned and constructed in such a way by using appropriate learning model for students to have the opportunity to interact with each other so that in turn can be obtained optimal learning achievement.

For institutions that scored a teacher, or the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, this is a big job to change the teacher candidates to become teachers who will be creative in presenting the lesson. Prospective teachers should be completely prepared with a variety of teaching strategies or methods that will be employed the learning in their daily work. Especially in the course of teaching learning strategies, students should be given a variety of teaching strategies that they can later use and modification according to the conditions they face in the field. For the student must be directly involved in using a variety of teaching strategies so, they can feel the advantages and shortcomings of the teaching strategies that eventually gained from the experience, they will be able to choose the learning steps that really fit with the characteristics of a given field of study or the characteristics of the students they teach. So that, the learning objectives will be achieved with effective and can simultaneously explore optimal potential in their students.

This study uses a jigsaw cooperative learning teaching strategies, to introduce and involve students directly in its

activities, so that students experience and have experience of how to use the jigsaw strategy of cooperative learning in teaching.

2. Literature Review

Jigsaw cooperative learning is a learning strategy that promote students motivation in learning, positive attitude and develop interpersonal skills and enrich students achievement. This strategy was developed by Elliot Aronson (1971) with his students from Texas University and California University. Jigsaw is a strategy that emphasizes cooperative learning by providing students an opportunity to actively help each other build comprehension. Use this strategy to assign students to reading groups composed of varying skill levels. Each group member is responsible for becoming an "expert" on one section of the assigned material and then "teaching" it to the other members of the team Aronson, E. (2000-2008). Furthermore in Hedeem, Davis (1993:147) states that in small group work and cooperative learning, student learn best when they are actively involved in the process. Researchers report that, regardless of the subject matter, student working in small groups tend to learn more of what is taught and retain it longer than when the same content is presented in other instructional formats (Hedeem 2003: 325-332).

2.1 Benefits

In connection with the large number of students and the material that will be taught in this course, then researcher choose the jigsaw cooperative learning strategy in learning activities. According to Aronson and Goody (1980) Jigsaw is a well-established method for encouraging group sharing and learning of specific content. This technique can be used as an instructional activity across several days and is best to use when there is a large amount of content to teach.

Doing jigsaw cooperative learning strategy in learning activities, there are several advantages, as Tamah (2007) states, "Students are encouraged to learn from their fellow students in their expert team and when they go back to their home team they are encouraged to teach one another the material they have worked on in the expert team" (p. 13) which describes exactly how the jigsaw approach should work in a classroom. This approach sounds ideas for teacher because it allows the students to be actively engaged in teaching one another. The jigsaw also allows the teacher to be a facilitator, nor a director in the classroom, which is a trend in schools today.

As Efe and Efe (2010) analyzed how students assigned as group leaders in the jigsaw helped motivate the rest of the group. Result suggested that when given the title of "group leader" students worked to motivate other students to complete their work. It means that, this activity allows students to experience learning and contribute to their learning. According to Mengduo and Xiaoling in Crist (2012) The jigsaw classroom reduces students' reluctance and anxiety to participate in the classroom activities while increasing self-esteem and self-confidence: (p. 122). As well as Aronson and Patnoe (2011) state jigsaw has proved effective at raising the self-esteem of students while improving their performance and increasing their liking for school and their enthusiasm about learning.

In addition to helping students learn new material. The jigsaw helps build social skills. Anderson and Palmer (2001) reports that the jigsaw approach is backed by research showing it to motivate students to work together, share ideas, pursue common goals, and develop self-esteem. The jigsaw cooperative learning also provides a way to help students become active in classroom activities and/ or lessons. When students are anxious or sometimes even afraid to contribute, they are going to miss information that is needed to fully understand the material. The jigsaw allows students to work with one another and develop a sense of being needed. By involving in the activities, the students focus on listening, speaking, co-operation, reflection, and problem-solving skills.

2.2 The Steps That Used for Jigsaw

When using the jigsaw technique in the classroom, there some steps should follow as below: Information about this strategy is from the Muskingum Area Technical College (Zanesville, Ohio) Newsletter, September 14, 1994.

- Define the group project on which the class will be working.
- Randomly break the class into groups of 4-5 students each, depending on the size of the class, and assign a number (1 to 4-5) to students in each group.
- Assign each student/number a topic in which he/she will become an expert.
- The topics could be related facets of a general content theme.
- Rearrange the students into expert groups based on their assigned numbers and topics.

- Provide the experts with the materials and resources necessary to learn about their topics.
- The experts should be given the opportunity to obtain knowledge through reading, research and discussion.
- Reassemble the original groups.
- Experts then teach what they have learned to the rest of the group.
- Take turns until all experts have presented their new material.
- Groups present results to the entire class, or they may participate in some assessment activity.

3. The Study

3.1 Research Question and Hypothesis

The present study tries to investigate the effect of jigsaw cooperative learning instruction on the second-year undergraduates' achievement of Teaching Learning Strategy. To do this, the researchers intend to do the procedure taken for the study reported below, based on the aim of the study, the following question was raised:

What are the mean percentage scores of students taught Teaching Learning Strategy using jigsaw cooperative learning strategy and those taught using group discussion strategy.

To provide more objective answer to the question, the following null hypothesis was formulated to be tested out: There will be no significant difference between the achievement of students taught Teaching Learning Strategy using jigsaw cooperative learning strategy and that of those taught using group discussion strategy based on their mean percentage scores in Teaching Learning Strategy achievement test.

3.2 Participants

A total of 52 second-year undergraduates in Islamic education department participated in this study, since all the participant are homogenize and the number of those participant are less than 100, so the number of population the same as the number of the sample (Sugiono: 2009). They consisted of 28 participants for experimental group and 24 participants as control group.

3.3 Research design

This study Used Quasi-experimental research design. This method was used because in this study all subjects are naturally formed as an intact group, as a group of students in one class (Shandish at al. 2002). The pre-test and post-test were given to the two groups and further details are showed in the following figure.

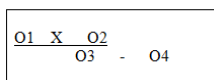


Figure 1. Research Design

- O1 = Pre-test of experimental group
- O2 = Post-test of experimental group
- O3 = Pre-test of control group
- O4 = Post-test of control group
- X = Treatment
- = No treatment

3.4 Instrument

The instrument to measure students' achievement is in the form of multiple choices test. First, the researchers wrote about 10 test items for each topic to be piloted. The achievement test refers to each topic of the lesson. There were 9 topics all, so, the total number of test item initially is 90.

3.5 Pilot Study

Pilot of the achievement test was administered to 50 students from other class that have already been taught the topics. The validity of the achievement test items were examined by using the correlation Product Moment. From 90 test items, there were 4 items were not valid, so 86 items were used in this research for the achievement test. The Kuder Richardson's 20 (KR 20) method was used to examine the reliability of the test items. The result of the detailed data analysis is shown in table 1.

Table 1. The Kuder Richardson Coefficient of reliability of instrument used to measure student achievement

Topics	Item Numbers	KR-20 coefficient
01	10	0.71
02	9	0.61
03	10	0.80
04	8	0.72
05	10	0.66
06	10	0.74
07	10	0.67
08	9	0.69
09	10	0.65

Table 1. Shows the Kuder Richardson Coefficient of reliability of instrument used to measure student achievement is 0.69. The results indicate that instrument used to measure students' achievement have high internal consistency.

3.6 Experimental Procedure

The purpose of this experimental procedure is to explain how the experiments that were carried out in the classroom. The pre-test was given one day before the treatment while the post-test (achievement test) was given when the treatment process ended. The experiment (treatment) was held for six weeks (from the third week of February to the first week of April 2013). The nine topics of the lessons were given to the two groups (experimental group and control group). The experimental group was given a treatment with jigsaw cooperative learning strategy while the control group with group discussion strategy.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

When the class have been determined in two classes as experimental class and control class. The pre-test was given before the class begin. The experimental class received lessons with jigsaw cooperative learning strategy, while the control class received lessons with the group discussion strategy. Post-test was given when the experiment ended. The score for each (experimental group and control group) was taken from the result of the post-test.

3.8 Technique of Data Analysis

In this study the examination of the effect of jigsaw cooperative learning strategy on students' achievement is done by comparing the average students achievement's score in different groups. Data of the study is analyzed using t-test. Before the treatment, both experiment and control groups were given the pre-test to identify undergraduates' prior knowledge about " Teaching Learning Strategy" The result detailed shows in the following table.

Table 2. Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Pre-test	Equal variances not assumed			-.508	50 47.184

The table above shows t-test statistic revealed that t-critical (1.96) is greater than t-calculated (-0.51) at 0.05 of significance. This means that the prior knowledge of Teaching Learning Strategy for both groups is no significance difference.

4. Results

The results of the study are presented on the table below. Research questions : What are the mean percentage scores of students taught Teaching Learning Strategy using jigsaw cooperative learning strategy and those taught using group discussion strategy

Table 3. Mean percentage scores of students in experimental and control groups.

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-test	Experimental	28	81.36	2.360	.446
	control	24	76.46	3.575	.730

The results of mean percentage scores of students in experimental and control groups (table 3) shows that students taught with jigsaw cooperative learning strategy had percentage mean score of 81.36, those taught using group discussion strategy had percentage mean score of 76.46. The experimental group therefore performed better than the control group.

5. Hypothesis

There will be no significant difference between the achievement of students taught Teaching Learning Strategy using jigsaw cooperative learning strategy and that of those taught using group discussion strategy based on their mean percentage scores in Teaching Learning Strategy achievement test.

Table 4. t-test analysis

Teaching Strategy	Mean	SD	N	staff	std	t-cal	t-crit	decision
jigsaw cooperative learning strategy	81.36	.829	28	50	2.360	5.907	1.960	Reject H ₀₁
group discussion strategy	76.46	.855	24					

Based on information presented in table 4. The t-test statistics revealed that t-calculated (5.907) is greater than the t-critical (1.960) at 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis is therefore rejected. This means that the students Teaching Learning Strategy using jigsaw cooperative learning strategy perform better achievement than those taught using group discussion strategy.

6. Discussion

The finding of research question 1 revealed that the jigsaw cooperative learning strategy has significant main effect on second-year undergraduates achievement in Teaching Learning Strategy. The jigsaw cooperative learning strategy may be most effective by mid to late semester (see NISE 2005), especially in large classes.

Finding in Hypothesis showed that there is significant difference between the mean achievement scores of students taught with jigsaw cooperative learning strategy than those taught using group discussion strategy. The findings are in line with Aronson (2000-2013) stated jigsaw classes showed greater academic improvement; poorer students in the jigsaw classroom scored significantly higher on objective exams than comparable students in traditional classes.

7. Recommendations

By the conduct of this research, the researcher recommend that:

For Institution, Jigsaw cooperative learning strategy should be given to under graduates students in the subject of

Teaching Learning Strategy to enrich their experience before conducting their real classroom.

For government, Training or workshops opportunities about Jigsaw cooperative learning strategy should be made available to teachers.

8. Conclusion

By using a jigsaw cooperative learning in teaching and learning activities, the students' attention is more focused, and they can express the ideas they had in mind. For students who are shy, using the jigsaw cooperative learning will automatically respond to all assigned tasks, so they will issue their opinions more active, and they can also listen to the opinion of their friends and respond it immediately. Furthermore, students' confidence will show up and can also appreciate other opinion. For the group leader, the soft skills to work in groups will be honed, so by using cooperative learning jigsaw, it is not just improve academic achievement but self-confidence, listening skills and respect other people's opinions will be trained as well.

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Differences in Behaviour Problems among Preschool Children: Implications for Parents

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Abstract

Social and emotional development in young children has to do with how young children feel about themselves, how they behave and how they relate to others, specially people who matter to them, for example, parents, teachers, and friends. Behaviour problems have often been conceptualised along two broad spectrums: internalising problems which are expressed in intrapersonal manifestation, such as anxiety, depression and withdrawal; and externalising problems which are demonstrated in interpersonal manifestation, such as hyperactivity and aggression. Considering the long-term effects of behavior problems on children's later academic performance, it can be conjectured that disparities in children achievement may be rooted in developmental characteristics in early childhood. This study investigated the variability in behavior problems among preschool children. There were 220 participants, parents and preschool teachers, who voluntarily completed a socio-demographic questionnaire, and rated the child's behavior on the Achenbach Child Behavior Checklist (2-5 years). Children were from five municipalities of Kosovo. The children consisted of 120 boys and 100 girls (mean age in months = 48.56). It was found that parents perceived boys to exhibit higher rates of externalising problems than girls. Results revealed significant differences in parents' and teachers' responses to behaviour problems among preschoolers. The present findings provide important information for consistent early intervention parenting programs.

Keywords: *externalizing problems; internalizing problems; gender differences, behavior problems.*

1. Introduction

Preschool age is characterized by a rapid development in all aspects of development. During this development, the presence of emotional and behavioral problems can happen to any child, although it must be said that it is not always easy to define the emotional or behavioral problems. But, at the same time, it is indisputable fact that due to the importance for the overall development of children, the study of psychopathological problems of preschool children has increased significantly both in terms of research and in terms of clinical treatment (Carter, 2010).

The belief that some types of problems as problems at school, serious health and behavioural problems in adolescence, including depression, suicidal ideation, anxiety, and delinquency (Campbell, 1995) may be occasional and transitory, is not supported (Campbell, 1995; Richman & Stevenson, 1982). There are a lot of studies which indicate that early emergent behaviour problems are linked with serious behaviour problems later in life (Duncan, Brooks-Gunn, & Klebanov, 1994; Stormont, 2002).

There is almost an agreement among researchers on a classification of behavior problems: in internalizing behavior problems, defined as an overcontrol of emotion, which are expressed in intrapersonal manifestation, such as anxiety, depression and withdrawal (McCulloch, Wiggins, Joshi, & Sachdev, 2000) and externalizing problems, defined as an undercontrol of emotions, which are demonstrated in interpersonal manifestation, such as hyperactivity and aggression (e.g. Achenbach, 1991; McCulloch, Wiggins, Joshi & Sachdev, 2000; Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000).

Early detection of warning psychopathological signs that may have a negative impact on the overall development of little children and their mental health is considered a necessity for the overall identification of approaches to children which support that development. Conceptually, this is consistent with the developmental and psychobiological frameworks suggesting that the origin and subsequently the psychopathologies may be identified in behavioural and emotional characteristics that are present in the child's first years of life (Carter et al, 1999; DelCarmen-Wiggins and Carter, 2001; Lieberman, 1993; Mesman dhe Koot, 2001; Shaw et al, 2001; Zeanah, 2000). At the same time, the identification of signs of emotional distress is also necessary for planning and assessing models of early intervention. Addressing the characteristics of the normal development of children, mental health needs in the pre=school age, which requires parents' awareness on the importance of their children's mental health, is none the less essential (Salyers, 2001).

Parents and teachers are important sources of identification of children's behaviour problems (Touliatos & Lindholm, 1981) and many studies have suggested that information should be obtained from multiple informants (Kaiser & Hancock, 2004). However, little research has examined the prevalence of behaviour problems using joint parent and teacher reports. Studies have shown that the persistence of behaviour problems over time is higher for children who display problems in multiple settings compared to children who display these problems in one setting only (Miller, Koplewicz, & Klein, 1997). From this perspective, findings of this study provide support for early intervention to prevent these behaviour problems from becoming pervasive and intractable.

2. Methods

2.1 Study design

This is an evaluation study with quantitative approach. Prior to the collection of the survey data, we were granted the permission for using Kosovar version of CBCL 1½-5 and C-TRF 1½-5. From January to March 2013 the researcher visited 5 preschool institutions in five municipalities that were selected from the list provided by Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology. The researcher met with the each preschool director to explain the aim of the study and establish the mutual cooperation.

2.2 Participants

There were 120 boys and 100 girls (mean age in months = 48.56) from five municipalities (Pristine, Peja, Ferizaj, Mitrovica, Gjilan), who took part in the study. Children ranged in age from 25 to 60 months old. There were almost an equal distribution of children from each gender and each age group. 220 participants' parents and preschool teachers voluntarily completed a socio-demographic questionnaire, and rated the child's behavior on the Achenbach Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL 1½-5 and C-TRF 1½-5 years). The response participation rate was 89%. As expected, all the responders (100%) to the sociodemographic questionnaire and C-TRF/2-5, were female and almost all of the responders to the sociodemographic questionnaire and CBCL/2-5 (91 %) the CBCL were mothers.

2.3 Instruments

The ASEBA (Achenbach System of Empirically Based Assessment) preschool forms are standardized assessment instruments that are user-friendly, cost-effective, and usable by a wide range of professionals in different settings, which can be completed independently by most respondents in about 15-20 min. CBCL1½-5 5 and the C-TRF 1½-5 were designed to provide normed scores on a wide array of behavioral and emotional problem scales in young children (Rescorla, 2005). The CBCL and C-TRF for preschoolers has been used in over 200 published studies and its validity and reliability are well documented (Rescorla, 2005)

To obtain ratings from preschool teachers who observe children ages 1½-5 in preschool settings, we used the C-TRF (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000). The C-TRF has 99 specific problem items, all of which are rated 0 = *not true (as far as you know)*; 1 = *somewhat or sometimes true*; or 2 = *very true or often true*, plus 1 open-ended problem items. Ratings of C-TRF problem items are based on the children's functioning over the preceding 2 months. Preschool teachers completed the questionnaires on a voluntary basis at preschool institutions and then all questionnaires were collected by preschool directors.

For cross-informant analyses, parent ratings were obtained using the CBCL1½-5 (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000), which also has 99 items rated 0-1-2 (0 = *not true (as far as you know)*; 1 = *somewhat or sometimes true*; or 2 = *very true or often true*) plus 1 open-ended problem items. Ratings of CBCL 1½-5 problem items are based on the children's functioning over the preceding 2 months. Parents completed the questionnaires on a voluntary basis at home. They were asked to return the questionnaires to the preschool teacher, who collected and sent them to the director.

The CBCL 1½-5 and the C-TRF have 82 similar problem items, plus 17 items that are specific to home versus preschool contexts, and an open-ended item for adding other problems that are not listed on the forms.

Six syndromes of co-occurring problems were identified for the CBCL 1½-5 and C-TRF through exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of item ratings (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000). Second-order factor analyses of the six syndromes yielded two broad-band groupings: *Internalizing* (comprised of the *Emotionally Reactive*, *Anxious/Depressed*, *Somatic Complaints*, and *Withdrawn* syndromes) and *Externalizing* (comprised of the *Attention Problems* and *Aggressive*

Behavior syndromes). The *Total Problems* scale is the sum of the ratings on all problem items.

2.4 Data Analyses

Cronbach's α coefficient was used as an index of internal consistency for the CBCL and C-TRF. T scores and raw scores were assessed using Assessment Data Management (ADM), and all other statistical analyses were carried out by SPSS version 19 for Windows.

Analysis started with descriptive and *t*-test statistics, as well as correlation analyses. To determine the relationship between child gender and total score problems, a correlation analysis was performed. Child gender was coded as 1 for girls and 2 for boys. The correlation coefficient ($r = -0.40, p < .05$) indicates that child gender was significantly correlated with externalising problems but in the negative direction, suggesting that boys were rated by parents higher than girls in externalising problems. Another correlation analysis was performed to obtain the cross-informant agreement between both checklists and the coefficient ($r = 0.23$) indicates for a relatively low ratings.

3. Results and Discussion

Mean scale scores on the Total Problem Scores, and the Internalising and Externalising Scales for both checklists are presented in Table 1, also showing gender stratified scale scores. Boys obtained a significantly higher mean Total Problem Scores than girls, according to parents. No statistically significant differences were found in any of the investigated gender mean Internalising scale scores. Parents rated boys externalizing problem behaviour higher than girls.

Regarding the *r* value for the cross-informant agreement between both checklists, parent-caregiver/teacher (0.23) it is obvious that we have relatively low ratings, in other words poor agreement on the child's problems. We found almost the same results in other studies (Achenbach et al. 1987; Gross, Rogg, Garvey, and Julian 2004; Crane, Mincic, and Winsler 2011).

Table 1. Gender-stratified scale scores for the Child Behavior Checklist for Ages 1½–5 (CBCL/1½–5) and the Caregiver-Teacher Report Form (C-TRF).

Checklist CI	Gender	n	Gender Comparison	Cronbach α
Total Problem Scale scores CBCL/2–5	Boys and girls	220	P= 0.42	0.95
	Boys	120		0.92
	Girls	100		0.93
C-TRF	Boys and girls	220	P = 0.04	0.95
	Boys	120		0.95
	Girls	100		0.95
Internalising Scale scores CBCL/2–5	Boys and girls	220	P = 0.53	0.89
	Boys	120		0.90
	Girls	100		0.92
C-TRF	Boys and girls	220	P = 0.09	0.90
	Boys	120		0.91
	Girls	100		0.91
Externalising Scale scores CBCL/2–5	Boys and girls	220	P = 0.42	0.90
	Boys	120		0.89
	Girls	100		0.90
C-TRF	Boys and girls	220	P = 0.03	0.88
	Boys	120		0.90
	Girls	100		0.91

The finding of gender differences in externalising problems are supported by a very large number of studies, demonstrating that boys tend to manifest higher rates of externalising problems than girls (e.g. Offord et al., 1987; Prior et al., 1993; Rose et al., 1989; Sanson et al., 1991).

There are several factors that may affect the development of externalizing behaviors. One of the reasons might be

Girls' faster maturation in regulatory abilities, which may facilitate easier adjustment through developmental transitions. Also, girls are more likely to develop language competence and social skills (e.g. empathic reactions and perspective taking) (Keenan & Shaw, 1997; Stansbury & Zimmerman, 1999; Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarrow, Wagner, & Chapman, 1992). There is evidence suggesting that in the early years, girls tend to surpass boys in language development. On the other hand different treatment of girls and boys by their parents might be another reason. In fact in our society, overactivity and aggression is considered as being more normative for boys than for girls, expressions of externalizing symptoms are more likely to be accepted and encouraged in boys, which is supported by other studies too (Keenan & Shaw, 1997).

4. Implications for parents

Even if some studies reported that behavior problems emerge around the ages of 3 or 4 and continue throughout childhood (Keenan & Shaw, 1997; Loeber & Hay, 1997), in one recent study, gender differences were found in 17-month-old children with five percent of boys but only one percent of girls in the sample displaying aggressive behaviors (Baillargeon et al., 2007).

There are a lot of researches that identified child, parent, and parent-child relationship factors related to the development of externalizing problems (Campbell et al., 2000). Such problems are influenced by both biological and environmental factors, and as children under 3 years in Kosovo are so dependent on their caregiving environment, there is an emphasis on giving more attention to the factors in the family and the wider caregiving context, such as parenthood quality or care. There are studies that reported that parents' supportive reactions to children's emotions may help the child in differentiating among emotions and that supportive responses to children's emotions also are a supportive breeding ground for emotion regulation (Denham & Kochanoff, 2002; Eisenberg et al., 2001; Fabes, Poulin, Eisenberg, & Madden-Derdich, 2002).

The scientific evidence for the significant developmental impacts of early experiences, caregiving relationships, and environmental threats is incontrovertible (Shonkoff and Phillips, 2000), so considering the critical role that parents play in their child's development and learning, it is all the more essential that in teaching about emotions, parents should draw attention to emotions and validate or clarify the child's emotion, helping the child to express emotions authentically, in a regulated manner, and promote desirable behavioural outcomes in their child.

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Relevance of Knowledge Acquisition For Teaching and Learning as a Panacea for Growth of Business Education Programme

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Abstract

Investment in education has been a topical issue in educational literatures, but the most disturbing aspect has been the type of education to channel investments. This paper aimed at presenting types of education that could be relevant to the development of business education programme. It also discussed the levels at which investments is actually needed for education to contribute effectively to teaching and learning in business education. The paper further highlighted the need for higher education programme of universities for business educators to contribute significantly to developing the programme. The paper concluded that the possession of business education degrees by her lecturers is the only way that business education can grow. It therefore recommended employment of persons with higher degrees in business education as a necessary step to developing the programme

1. Introduction

Research evidence has shown that investments in education is a what while project. This may account for one reason why some individuals exert lots of efforts to ensure that they are properly educated. It also accounts for the reason why nations expend much of their budgets on educational development. To the individuals, many reasons may account for their desire to be educated. Even in the context of the individual's desire to be educated, the type of education occupies his search for occupational area during his life time. When an individual has chosen his occupational area, he is ready to spend and put in more years of schooling since he believes that more years in school means better job. There are individuals who also feel that more years of schooling may mean a source of social mobility. These individuals, having become more educated, are sure that they have become more literate, more numerate and would have better work habits. Furthermore, they also believe that educated individual is easier to train and retrain, and also finds it easier to learn more complex tasks through creation of awareness of time and dependability at work performance.

For the nation state, the government works hard to investing more and more in education since by so doing, the average productivity would be improved. The nation also believes that raising standard of educated individuals will also translate to raising the quality of jobs in the economy and thereby raising standard of living. This rise in the quality of jobs of individuals and standard of living of citizens imports an increase in economic growth. This means that an educated workforce translates to an improved labour force which also has an increased capacity to produce improved goods and services.

From these, it is understood that a shortage of educated personnel in specific fields limits growth in that occupation. In business education programme, how relevant to growth are some types of education found within the programme may be the question for research work. Business education is a growing programme but there is need to determine the level at which teaching and learning of certain courses contribute to the growth of the programme. This may also be extended to finding out at what levels of education some qualifications make contributions to the growth of business education programme.

2. Literature review

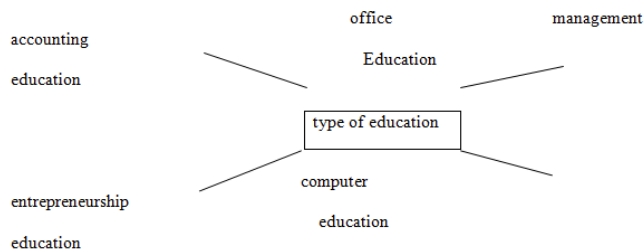
According to Macdonald (2004), the countries that in 1980 had a higher level of the right type of education had a greater opportunity 20 years later, to reach a higher level of development. This means that those who saw and invested rightly in education earlier have the propensity to continuously grow and develop than those who saw but did not invest rightly. The right sort of education may infer education in the areas of needs of a particular occupation and the nation at a given period. This means that while learning in a recognized programme is encouraged, teaching in such programme must be

made adequate by the provision of relevant materials and human resources. The right sort of human resources must refer to the teaching staff with the right educational certificates and in the right qualities to teach learners in that same programme. Dessus (2001) explained that growth can be interpreted as an expression of technological progress as well as the efficiency with which capital and labour are utilized. This opinion is apt in business education programme where capital and labour appear to be at par in the face of innovative changes. Nwosu (2009) informed that it is only business education programme that you can find holders of all sorts of unclassified degree certificates as lecturers. In this regards, growth as an expression of technological progress would be hampered since those lecturers without business education qualifications cannot interpret current technologies in the programme. In such a situation, their presence is nothing other than hampering technological growth of the programme.

Again, Osuala (2004) explained that there are marked differences between a business educator and a business studies teacher. To Osuala, a business educator is one whose training in business education programme cuts across first degree, master and doctoral, and is in the business of teaching students in any form prescribed by the national association. On the other hand, he explained that those teaching in business education programme without recognizable degree qualifications in business education are business studies teachers. Accordingly, these lecturers are grasshoppers and interlopers who found business education as a programme to hopper since there was no place for them to secure employment. For such persons to remain and grow in business education, they must first undergo the refresher courses of the programme at the post graduate levels to enable them acquire the basic knowledge required by the programme for her teachers. Secondly, with the certification from the refresher courses, they can be admitted to undergo master degree programme or doctoral degree programme as the case may be, of business education in the universities some of which are available in Nigeria. This may further imply that to function effectively and contribute to the growth in teaching and learning of business education, the lecturer must possess the prescribed university business education degree certificates. This means that such lecturers would be more literate and numerical in business education programme, learn more things and easier to retrain in business education technological changes. Ordu (2012) explained that lecturers of business education background have better work habits with regards to awareness of time, relationship with technology of the programme, research supervision, teaching methodologies, etc.

This argument supports the opinion of Lodde (2000) that countries with higher levels of economic growth have labour forces with higher levels of formal schooling. He further advised that a developing programme has a better chance of catching up with more advanced technologies when such a programme has a stock of labour with necessary skills to develop new technologies. Business education programme in this regards, must have need to stock only those with the types of university degree that are indigenous to develop their necessary technologies.

Table 1: Preferred types of education in business education



Source: Author's field work 2012

3. Purpose of the study

The major purpose of this study was to find out the type of education that contribute effectively to teaching and learning in business education programme. Specifically, the study sought to determine:

1. the types of education contribute effectively to teaching and learning in the growth of business education programme.
2. the level of education at which teaching and learning of entrepreneurship education contribute to growth in business education programme.

3. the level of education at which teaching and learning of computer education contribute to growth in business education programme.
4. the level of education at which teaching and learning of accounting education contribute to growth in business education programme.
5. the level of education at which teaching and learning of office management education contribute to growth in business education programme.
6. the classification of acquired degrees at the university education that contribute effectively to the growth of business education programme.

4. Research questions

1. How do these types of education contribute effectively to teaching and learning in the growth of business education programme?
2. At which of these levels of education does teaching and learning of entrepreneurship education contribute effectively to the growth of business education programme?
3. At which of these levels of education does teaching and learning of computer education contribute effectively to the growth of business education programme?
4. At which of these levels of education does teaching and learning of accounting education contribute effectively to the growth of business education programme?
5. At which of these levels of education does teaching and learning of office management education contribute effectively to the growth of business education programme?
6. At the university level, what classification of acquired degrees contribute effectively in teaching and learning to growth of business education programme?

5. Methodology

The study was carried out in Rivers State and only business educators were used. A survey design was used for this study because according to Osuala (2004), survey is ideal for studies that focus on people's opinion and their attitudes about a particular matter. The population was made up of 60 business educators selected from Federal College of Education (Tech) Omoku (20), Rivers State University of Science and Technology (5), Rivers State University of Education (20), and Rivers College of Arts and Science (15). Due to its manageable size and spread, the entire population was used for the study. The instrument used for data collection was a structured questionnaire which contained six sections.

Section one contained 10 question-items while sections two contained six question-items each. The instrument was validated in sections by the same experts in business education programme and their inputs at each stage of validation were reflected to strengthen the instrument. Section one was administered to respondents and retrieved the same day through the help of appointed research assistants in business education units of the institutions. This section was analysed and four types of education that had mean scores of 2.50 and above were selected and compiled again to give, in order of ratings, sections two-five. This set containing research questions two to five was administered one week later to the same respondents by the same research assistants and retrieved the same day. The data were analysed to compile section six. This section was equally administered by the same research assistants one week later to the same group of respondents and retrieved the same day. At each stage of the study, reliability of the study was checked using Cronbach's alpha co-efficient which gave 0.77. The results of the study was analysed using mean statistic. At each stage, the result was said to be acceptable if the mean rating was 2.50 and above, and was said to be unacceptable if the mean rating was less than 2.50.

6. Data presentation and analysis

6.1 Research question one

How do these types of education contribute effectively to teaching and learning in the growth of business education programme?

Table 1: Types of education on effective contribution to teaching and learning

	Type	VHE	VE	LE	VLE	sum	X
1	General education	9	11	29	11	60	2.30
2	Office management education	20	18	12	10	60	2.62
3	Computer education	23	19	10	5	60	3.03
4	Teaching practice education	17	16	08	16	60	2.47
5	Entrepreneurship education	25	20	11	4	60	3.23
6	Economic education	05	10	13	32	60	1.82
7	Management education	14	11	21	14	60	2.38
8	Marketing education	13	54	16	15	60	2.48
9	Business administration	11	16	20	13	60	2.42
10	Accounting education	21	14	12	13	60	2.72

The analysis in Table 1 shows that office management education, computer education, entrepreneurship education and accounting education had the mean of 2.50 and above, and therefore accepted for the study. The rest items had less than 2.50 and are therefore not accepted for the study. The items accepted for the study are rated in this order – entrepreneurship education (3.23), computer education (3.03), accounting education (2.72), and office management education (2.62).

6.2 Research question two

At which of these levels of education could a teacher be accepted to teach entrepreneurship education in order to contribute effectively to the growth of business education programme?

Table 2: Levels of education preferred for the teaching of entrepreneurship

	Level	VHE	HE	LE	VLE	Sum	X
1	Primary education	13	14	14	19	60	2.35
2	Formal education at secondary level	10	15	17	18	60	2.28
3	Informal education at post secondary level	15	12	16	17	60	2.42
4	Polytechnic level	15	13	11	21	60	2.37
5	College of education level	17	13	11	19	60	2.47
6	University level	16	13	17	14	60	2.52

Analysis of data on Table 2 show a shift of opinion to university level which scores a mean of 2.52 as against the cut-off point of 2.50. This was considered adequate for the study and was therefore accepted for further investigations. The rest five items did not meet up the cutoff point of 2.50 and therefore not accepted for the study. This implies that teaching of entrepreneurship education in business education programme was better handled by university trained lecturer in business education.

6.3 Research question three

At which of these levels of education could a teacher be accepted to teach computer education in order to contribute effectively to the growth of business education programme?

Table 3: Levels of education preferred for the teaching of computer education

	Level	VHE	HE	LE	VLE		
1	Primary education	12	17	12	19	60	2.43
2	Formal education at secondary level	10	20	14	16	60	2.40
3	Informal education at post secondary level	09	12	17	22	60	2.13
4	Polytechnic level	14	17	13	16	60	2.45
5	College of education level	14	15	17	14	60	2.47
6	University level	19	13	15	13	60	2.63

The analysis in Table 3 shows that university level teaching and learning was rated 2.63 compared to the cut-off point of 2.50. The implication of this is that the teaching of computer education to learners should be handled by somebody who possesses university degree. This shows that the university trained certificated personnel has a higher contributory effect on business education programme than teachers from other levels. This was accepted for the study while others that did not meet the cut-off point were not accepted for the study.

6.4 Research question four

At which of these levels of education could a teacher be accepted to teach accounting education in order to contribute effectively to the growth of business education programme?

Table 4: Levels of education preferred for the teaching of accounting education

	Level	VHE	HE	LE	VLE		
1	Primary education	11	15	17	17	60	2.33
2	Formal education at secondary level	15	12	18	18	60	2.29
3	Informal education at post secondary level	12	16	14	18	60	2.37
4	Polytechnic level	15	12	18	15	60	2.45
5	College of education level	14	15	17	14	60	2.48
6	University level	17	14	16	13	60	2.58

Data analysis on Table 4 shows university level education with a mean of 2.58 as against the rest five levels with means below the cut-off point of 2.50. This means that the teaching of accounting education is preferred if a university degree holder is involved. The university trained lecturer has an effective contribution to the growth of business education programme than teachers with qualifications outside university degree. The university level education was accepted for the study while the rest levels were not accepted.

6.5 Research question five

At which of these levels of education could a teacher be accepted to teach office management education contribute effectively to the growth of business education programme?

Table 5: Levels of education preferred for the teaching of office management education

	Level	VHE	HE	LE	VLE		
1	Primary education	11	13	19	17	60	2.30
2	Formal education at secondary level	14	10	17	19	60	2.32
3	Informal education at post secondary level	14	13	17	16	60	2.42
4	Polytechnic level	13	14	14	19	60	2.35
5	College of education level	14	15	17	18	60	2.48
6	University level	16	17	16	11	60	2.63

The analysis of data on Table 5 indicate that university level education has a mean of 2.63 as against the cut-off point of 2.50. This implies that teaching and learning of office management education should be handled by a lecturer who has trained at a university. It further means that the university degree teacher contributes more than lecturers trained from other levels to the growth of business education programme.

6.6 Research question six

At the university level, what classification of degree holders contribute effectively to growth of business education programme?

Table 6: Classifications of preferred university teaching degrees

	Classification	VHE	HE	LE	VLE		
1	B.Sc	09	13	16	22	60	2.15
2	B.Ed	17	13	16	14	60	2.55
3	PGDE	14	13	16	17	60	2.40
4	M.Sc	10	13	18	19	60	2.20
5	M.Ed	16.	16	19	11	60	2.68
6	Ph.D	16	20	14	10	60	2.70

Analysis of data on Table 6 reveal a mean score of 2.55 for B.Ed., 2.68 for M.Ed., and 2.70 for Ph.D compared to the cut-off point of 2.50. B.Sc has a mean of 2.15, M.Sc has a mean of 2.20, while PGDE has a mean of 2.40, and therefore below the cut-off point of 2.50. The lecturers with the degrees that scored the mean above 2.50 were accepted for the study and were preferred as ideal personnel to teach in business education programme. This implies that the acquisition of these degrees in business education make effective contributions in teaching and learning of business education programme than other degrees.

7. Discussions of findings

The study examined the types of education that contribute effectively to the growth and development of business education programme in Nigeria. It was revealed that the following types of education have the capacity to impact on the growth of business education programme: entrepreneurship education, computer education, accounting education and office management education. By examining these types of education, the study also looked at the levels and classification of degree certificates for teaching that are highly contributory to the growth of the programme. The analysis of results in Table 1 reveals that not all types of teaching certifications found in the teaching group are useful in teaching and learning in business education. This is in line with the opinion of Igboke (2010) who explained that if we must ensure efficiency and effectiveness in the programme, then we must consider the question of who should administer the programme in the interest of students. This is necessary to determine in view of the fact that the teacher, according to Ndinachi (1987) bears the burden of explaining the curriculum foundation to learners.

Furthermore, from the results in Tables 2-5, the study examined various levels of education at which greater impact flows from the teacher who is impacting knowledge to learners in the course of teaching and learning in business education programme. This was necessary to determine the level of education at which the teaching and learning required of various courses as listed above could be maximized. These results corroborate the view of Nwosu (2003) that the primary purpose of business education is that of preparing the recipient for gainful employment in business office occupations. Such gainful office employment, by the objectives of business education could be paid or self employment. From the listing, it was noted that the findings support Oduma (2010) that the emphasis of business education is on exposure to and acquisition of knowledge and competencies relevant and adequate for employment in specific business occupations.

Table 6 reveals the classification of degree certificates that are necessary for teaching appointments in business education programmes. The analysis shows that respondents preferred a Ph.D in business education as a necessity, followed closely by the possession of Masters degree (2.68) in business education. The least preferred is the possession of a bachelorette degree in business education that recorded the mean of 2.55. The rest degrees did not meet up the cut-off point of 2.50 which is an indication that they do not contribute significantly to the growth and development of business education programme. This is in line with Ikpo (2010) who averred that qualitative and relevance of degrees are basic needs of teaching in any vocational educational programme without which the programme would lose its focus of producing qualitative and skilled graduates.

8. Conclusions

From the results of findings and discussions, it is apt to conclude that the growth of business education depends largely on the availability of qualitative teaching staff with relevant degrees in the programme. This is shown from the agreement

of respondents that the present society requires business education to lay emphasis on teaching and learning in productive and innovative courses. Igboke (2010) and Okwoli & Anyakwu (2010) emphasized that training future business teachers without adequately preparing them to be creative in line with the innovative office environment will make them inefficient, ineffective and dysfunctional.

9. Recommendations

Based on the discussions and conclusions, the following recommendations were made:

1. Curriculum planners in business education should look inwards and involve productive courses in business education teaching and learning programme
2. Emphasis should be laid on the production and employment of qualitative degree holders to teach in business education departments.
3. Those teaching in business education department without relevant teaching qualifications should be encouraged to upgrade their present qualification by acquiring requisite business education degrees.

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New Challenges in Albanian Primary Schools: Industry versus Inferiority

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Abstract

Erikson called the school years "industry versus inferiority" and this is because students begin to see the relationship between perseverance and the pleasure of a task well done. Those who receive little or no encouragement from parents, teachers, or friends will doubt their ability in being successful. Difficulties in these challenges can result in a feeling of inferiority. Erikson's psychosocial theory emphasized the emergence of the self, the search for identity, the individual's relationship with the others, and the role of culture throughout life. Schools in Albania have always given a significant educational value to further qualitative instruction to the infancy. In Albania, the experience of engaging in creative work all the children is to be considered significant for a better and possible integration of the new methods of encouraging Industry in the primary school. The reason is that children must face the demands of learning new skills; otherwise they will risk a sense of failure and incompetence. The main purpose of this paper is to analyze the way teachers use encouraging Industry in "Lush Kola", "Ismail Qemali" and "Ndre Mjeda" primary schools in Shkoder, Albania. About 20 teachers were selected randomly and they were only female teachers. The materials used in the study were formal interviews and direct observation. The emergent themes were discussed and the results showed that teachers have no information about psychosocial theory of development and the most important challenge concerns the presence of specialist to assisting student with special needs.

Keyword: *Erikson's psychosocial theory; Industry versus inferiority; Albanian primary school; challenges; development*

1. Introduzione

L'industriosità e la competenza sono attitudini che tutti conosciamo nelle società moderne e individualiste. In questo ambiente delicato per la formazione emozionale e intellettuale la scuola svolge un ruolo cruciale (Erikson, 2003). Il momento critico di passaggio dal pensiero preoperativo al pensiero concreto necessita non solo delle cure dell'ambiente familiare ma anche l'attenzione continua dell'ambiente extrafamiliare.

L'acquisizione delle capacità tecniche che accompagnano il bambino dai sette agli undici anni costituisce la prerogativa fondamentale di questo periodo: il bambino si sfroza di acquisire le tecniche accademiche e sociali che lo porteranno a competere in un ambiente dove è data grande importanza a chi produca (Abuhewajj, 2010). Secondo Erikson, il bambino in questa fase acquista industriosità e inizia la sua preparazione per entrare nel mondo degli adulti. Il lato negativo nello sviluppo dell'emozionalità e della personalità, la quale si compone da forze che entrano in conflitto e in crisi durante la crescita ontogenetica (Pravettoni & Miglioretti, 2011), in questo stadio può essere l'acquisizione di un senso d'inferiorità: il fallire ripetutamente nel misurarsi con i coetanei predispone verso lo sviluppo di un senso d'inutilità e inadeguatezza (Proffit, Fields, Sarver, 2008).

Perciò, l'assimilazione di nuovi metodi psicosociali nell'affrontare questo rito di passaggio nelle nostre scuole costituisce un'importantissima sfida scientifica, poiché, in realtà, il contenuto curriculare della formazione primaria nel sistema d'istruzione albanese, il quale deve contenere «un piano di apprendimento» in cui fu compreso sia l'insegnamento sia l'insieme delle esperienze culturali e sociali dell'allievo (Titone & Gamaleri, 1999) si focalizza principalmente su nuovi aspetti didattici e tecnici dell'insegnamento, i quali impongono nuove forme d'insegnamento che richiedono una conoscenza dei problemi culturali, sociali e attuali (Ibid.), mettendo in ombra aspetti psicosociali dello sviluppo infantile, rimuovendo inconsapevolmente o no il fatto che «lo sviluppo dell'io ha le radici nella società, perché nello studio dell'individuo sono da tener presenti contemporaneamente l'io, l'organismo e l'ambiente» (Trentini, 2012).

La teoria psicosociale dello sviluppo della personalità trova spazio anche nella situazione scolastica visto che l'educazione dei bambini e degli adolescenti richiede capacità non sole didattiche e metodologiche da parte del maestro ma anche attitudini psicopedagogiche particolari concordanti l'ambiente scolastico. Giacché in Albania si fa poco a riguardo, ho deciso di osservare da vicino le dinamiche psicosociali delle prime elementari della città di Scutari con l'obiettivo di capire cosa si deve fare per alimentare la responsabilità e l'indipendenza negli allievi delle prime elementari;

quale sostegno fu offerto agli allievi scoraggiati durante le lezioni; quale teoria psicosociale fu applicata dai maestri per appoggiare gli alunni in questi momenti difficili di passaggio dall'ambiente rassicurante o meno familiare all'ambiente professionalizzato o meno della scuola.

La teoria di riferimento acquisita per trattare queste problematiche è di Erikson, cioè la teoria dello sviluppo psicosociale della personalità. Secondo questa teoria, applicata nella Psicologia dell'Educazione, le maestre all'interno dell'ambiente scolastico devono dare delle opportunità agli alunni a dimostrare la loro indipendenza e responsabilità. Tutto questo può essere raggiunto attraverso questi passi: tollerare i loro sbagli; delegare all'allievo doveri quali annaffiare i fiori, gestire i laboratori di computer, valutare i compiti dei compagni e tenere i registri della classe. I maestri devono offrire sostegno psicopedagogico agli alunni demotivati e attraverso i seguenti metodi: usare notazioni specifiche che dimostrano progresso accademico; conservare i campioni dei lavori effettuati da loro durante tutto l'anno scolastico; dare dei premi non solo per il lavoro migliore ma anche per il più impegnativo o il più utile. Ad esempio i maestri possono costruire una bacheca, dove appendere la foto dell'alunno migliore del mese dopo aver identificato i suoi sforzi. Importante sarà aumentare la cooperazione la quale è considerata effettiva per studenti che sono propensi ad aumentare la concorrenza per raggiungere i propri scopi (Abuhewajj, 2010).

2. Metodologia

Gli obiettivi identificati sono stati rilevati mediante i così detti «metodi classici» d'indagine qualitativa, l'osservazione diretta, attraverso la quale si è cercata di cogliere le dinamiche comportamentali e affettive durante le ore di lezione, e l'intervista semistrukturata (De Carlo, 2002), finalizzata a cogliere la prospettiva dei soggetti studiati. Lo strumento elaborato ai fini della ricerca, utilizzato con le maestre delle prime elementari della provincia di Scutari, è un'intervista basata su una griglia di cinque domande per rispondere all'obiettivo di identificare la conoscenza e l'applicazione delle teorie psicosociali nelle scuole:

Tabella 1. Domande effettuate durante l'intervista semistrukturata.

1. Come aiutate gli alunni a raggiungere i loro obiettivi scolastici?
2. Quanto spazio concedete agli alunni per dimostrare la loro responsabilità e la loro indipendenza?
3. Quale sostegno offrite agli alunni demotivati durante l'anno scolastico?
4. Quali teorie psicosociali applicate durante le ore di lezione?
5. Pensate che il contenuto curriculare della formazione primaria debba includere insegnamenti delle teorie psicosociali?

Per la scelta delle maestre da intervistare e delle scuole (classi) da osservare è stato adottato una sorta di campionamento a valanga. Sono state prevalentemente condotte interviste individuali per un totale di venti maestre in tre scuole così composte: dieci insegnanti dalle scuole di città, Scutari, e dieci maestre dalle scuole di provincia, Bushat, della prima, seconda e quinta elementare.

3. Risultati

L'analisi dei dati raccolti è stata fortemente vincolata dall'orientamento teorico, al pari delle griglie dell'intervista e dell'osservazione diretta. Non si è, in altri termini, guidati dal materiale empirico, bensì la teoria di riferimento, quale la teoria psicosociale dello sviluppo della personalità di Eric Erikson, ci ha indotto a selezionare gli aspetti particolari da osservare e studiare. Dall'analisi delle informazioni raccolte sia dall'osservazione sia dalle interviste risulta che:

- All'inizio delle lezioni gli alunni sono liberi di muoversi per qualche minuto.
- La bacheca con gli obiettivi da raggiungere durante l'anno scolastico era presente in ogni classe. Gli obiettivi principali includono: aumentare l'orgoglio nazionale; tenere pulito l'ambiente; divenire abili di collaborare negli ambienti scolastici. Non mancavano le bacheche riservate solo agli alunni migliori o quelle in cui erano appesi i lavori di tutti. Ciononostante, mancava una bacheca in cui fosse pubblicato il lavoro più utile o più indicativo per motivare anche gli alunni demotivati e con una cognitiva bassa.
- I maestri dichiarano di non possedere una scheda particolare per assegnare i raggiungimenti personali di ciascun allievo. Effettivamente, loro fanno di tutto per istigare il pensiero logico dello studente, dando spazio a esprimersi ogni volta che vuole partecipare. Purtroppo, in diverse situazioni si è notato che le maestre non motivavano certi alunni passivi durante le ore di lezione. Tutto ciò che possiedono, è un diario: descrizione

- giornaliera degli obiettivi da raggiungere.
- Spesso organizzano lavori di gruppo in cui mescolano alunni di prestazione intellettuale diversa. A volte gli allievi demotivati si fanno sedere al primo banco, così la maestra li può avere sotto controllo durante le lezioni. Solo una delle maestre ha rilevato che spesso i posti sono cambiati per non farli sentire inferiori quelli che si siedono in fondo.
 - Per quando riguarda la conoscenza e l'applicazione delle teorie psicosociali durante l'attività didattica può dire che era carente, poiché nessuna delle maestre aveva conoscenza. L'unica tecnica applicata era quella definita PEET: pause, enquire, enjoin, take.
 - La sfida principale rilevata dalle maestre è di offrire un sostegno supplementare agli alunni difficili, con altre parole erano molto importanti la presenza dello psicologo scolastico e la collaborazione tra le due agenzie sociali fondamentali per l'aumento delle prestazioni scolastiche: famiglia e scuola.
 - Alla fine, è stato rilevato la necessità di offrire periodicamente alle maestre delle elementari, attraverso corsi di formazione, informazioni sulle teorie psicosociali da applicare nei programmi scolastici.

4. Conclusioni

Nel presente lavoro è stato esaminato come i maestri delle prime elementari incoraggiano l'Industry o l'Industriousità all'interno del contesto scolastico di tre scuole prese in esame, "Lush Kola", "Ismail Qemali" e "Ndre Mjeda". Lo scopo è stato dunque di verificare come sono aiutati gli alunni a raggiungere i loro obiettivi scolastici; quanto spazio è concesso a essi per dimostrare la loro responsabilità e la loro indipendenza; quale sostegno è offerto agli alunni demotivati durante l'anno scolastico; quali teorie psicosociali sono applicate durante le ore di lezione e se le maestre pensavano che il contenuto curriculare della formazione primaria debba includere insegnamenti delle teorie psicosociali. Dai risultati emerge, fondamentalmente, che il curricula della formazione primaria in Albania è privo di teorie moderne della psicologia dell'educazione le quali sono essenziali nell'elaborazione soggettiva dell'individuo, cioè nella formazione dell'identità del giovane (Galli, 2002).

Emerge come sfida principale quella di offrire un sostegno supplementare agli alunni difficili, con altri termini la presenza dello psicologo scolastico e la collaborazione tra le due agenzie sociali fondamentali per l'aumento delle prestazioni scolastiche, famiglia e scuola, costituisce la nuova prerogativa su cui lavorare in futuro.

Per tutti gli intervistati, la conoscenza e l'implementazione di teorie psicosociali nel programma scolastico rimane indispensabile per raggiungere un giusto equilibrio tra le necessità affettive e quelle cognitive. L'importanza dell'ambiente scolastico nella formazione della personalità del giovane deve essere "inserita" in tutti gli insegnamenti curricolari albanesi, poiché, se da un lato Freud studiava la civiltà e la personalità senza concepire prestiti all'intenzionalità umana, per Erikson l'identità raggiunta nell'adolescenza, poggia sull'industriousità sperimentata durante la fanciullezza, che a sua volta è resa possibile dall'iniziativa, e prima ancora dall'autonomia nella quale sfocia la fiducia (Ravaglioli, 1986).

Come osserva Erksen: «Siccome la fedeltà trasferisce il bisogno di guida dalle figure parentali a quelle di consiglieri e di capi, essa accetta con entusiasmo la loro mediazione ideologica nell'alternativa che l'ideologia sia implicita in un "sistema di vita" o risulti attivamente esplicita»; in tal modo le prime esperienze favorevoli condizionano le successive (Galli, 2002).

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Feelings and Experiences of Counseling Practicum Students and Implications for Counseling Supervision

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Abstract

This study focuses on Counseling Practicum students' feelings and experiences during the Bachelor in Education program at International Islamic University. The students, who were in Guidance and Counseling specialization, had to go through two phases of training; practicum for seven weeks and internship for fourteen weeks. These training periods provide them an opportunity to apply related theories and techniques that they had learnt during three to four years of their studies. The participants for this study consisted of ten third year students from Guidance and Counseling course. This qualitative research adopted students' journals, group counseling supervision, documentations, case presentation and interviews as the data resources to reveal rich description of the students' feelings and experiences. The findings indicate five main themes derived for discussion which include nervousness, ability and counseling skills, negotiating students' or clients' perceptions, lack of confidence in application of theories, and task completion. Further, this study provides an insight for supervisors to highlight issues and challenges in assisting future trainee counselors.

Keywords: *counseling practicum, supervision, teacher education, feelings and experiences*

1. Introduction

Counseling practicum is a vital part of counselor education through experiential learning where trainees learn how to reflect and analyze their concrete experience gained in practicum to form and expand their configuration of meaning which they could further validate through action and experimentation (Kolb, 1984). The main aim of this process of experiential learning is to transform thinking and action of themselves as counselor so that they could effectively affect thinking and action of their clients. In other words counseling practicum gives trainee counselors an opportunity for change and growth personally and professionally. Education and Technical Training Committee and Board of Counselor Malaysia (2003) define counseling practicum as a supervised clinical experience of trainee counselors for the purpose of building and expanding their basic counseling skills and integrating their theoretical professional knowledge into practice. Counseling practicum provides the opportunity to evaluate trainees' ability to apply knowledge and skills acquired from course works with clients at the school setting. During the counseling practicum, trainees will experience applying appropriate theoretical knowledge to appropriate cases; practicing their counseling skills; building rapport with clients and other stakeholders; negotiating their own perception towards others and others' perceptions towards them; dealing with their own psychological needs and challenges in the process of fulfilling expectation of others and their own selves.

Developmental growth materializes when a person experienced a situation that provides adequate cognitive disequilibrium (Kohlberg, 1981) provided that such person has the necessary prerequisites and resources to effectively negotiate the experience. Counseling practicum and internship could serve as a lived experience which provides sufficient disequilibrium where trainee counselors are given the chance for personal and professional development (Borders, 1998). These lived experiences are invaluable empirical data that could be studied and analyzed to give better understanding of the subjective experiences lived by trainee counselors during their practicum and internship for the purpose of devising more effective learning contracts between supervisors and supervisees.

However, studies on developmental growth of counselors were less favorable compared to studies on the

application of theories. According to two prominent researchers in counselor and therapist developmental growth, Orlinsky and Ronnestad (2005), concentration on investigating the effectiveness of some therapeutic techniques may be one of the contributing factors to the lack of research in personal and developmental growth of trainees. This is rather surprising since researchers have shown that the difference in outcome across methods was smaller compared to the outcome among counselors or therapists within methods (Ronnestad and Skovholt, 2003). This means that the counselor is more important than the method that he or she uses. Therefore, understanding the counselor personal and developmental growth is significant for counselor education and training. The first step in understanding of counselors' developmental growth is to examine the feelings and experiences of trainees. However, literatures that focus on the developmental process as experienced by trainees proved lacking (Grafanaki, 2010; Luke and Kiweewa, 2010).

Bachelor of Education (BED) in Guidance and Counseling is a new program offered at International Islamic University Malaysian (IIUM). The first batch of students enrolled in this program was in 2007. Apart from fulfilling the university and Ministry of Education and Higher Learning requirements, the program followed the specifications outlined by Board of Counselor Malaysia (Lembaga Kaunselor Malaysia). The students have to complete 250 site hours practicum within seven weeks which consist of 70 hours individual counseling and 40 hours group counseling. While for internship, the students are required to complete 500 hours which consist of 140 hours individual counseling and 80 hours group counseling within 14 weeks.

Since the program is new, the learning experiences gained through counseling practicum provide insight for both students and the BED Guidance and Counseling program. Literature specifically involving IIUM experiences in educating school counselors is scarce. Therefore, this study is significant to provide information for formative evaluation of students and the program.

2. Methodology

This study employed qualitative methodology. The main purpose of this study is to explore the subjective experiences of trainee counselors during their practicum. Grafanaki (2010) highlighted that studies which focused on trainees' experiences were lacking because of overemphasis in examining others' perspectives. Narratives of trainee counselors pertaining to their feelings and experiences during their practicum are the main concern of this study.

Participants were 10 BED Guidance and Counseling students who were doing their practicum and internship during semester 2 and semester 3 in 2012/2013 academic year. They voluntarily agreed to participate in this study. They were two male and eight female students who underwent their practicum and internship in secondary schools around Kelang Valley; except one participant who was doing his practicum at the Police Training Center, Kuala Lumpur. Their clients were students of schools which comprised three main racial groups which were Malay, Chinese and Indian; as well as students from Indonesian parents.

The study gathered 3 types of data. The students were required to write journals describing their feelings, experiences and challenges that they have faced during their practicum each week. Further, data was collected during group supervisions. Four group supervisions were conducted. Note taking and audio tape were utilized during group supervisions. Finally, the students were interviewed to gather more stories and to validate their narratives in their journals and during the group supervisions. The interviews were transcribed verbatim. All of the data was analyzed using narrative analysis. Sandelowski (1991) asserted that a set procedure or method to analyze narratives has not yet been developed. According to McLeod and Balamoutsou (2000) researchers are given freedom to create their own method because the step by step methods of how to analyze narratives are unhelpful. However, guidelines as explained by McLeod and Balamoutsou were followed.

3. Finding and Discussion

From the trainee counselors' narratives, we understood that the students were nervous before and during the first few weeks of practicum and internship. Their anxiety stemmed from their worries about the acceptance by the school students, teachers and school administrators; the kind of relationship that they would have with clients, site supervisors, teachers, and school administrators; whether they could adapt to the new environment of the school or not; and the perception of the students towards them, trainee counselors.

Izzah's story began with her worries about the adaptation to the new environment and acceptance by the students and the school community. She revealed that *"the first thing that crossed my mind at the beginning of internship was whether I could adapt and be a part of the school community. I worried about the acceptance of the administrators and*

the school staff...whether they accept me to be a trainee counselor at their school. I also worried about the acceptance of the students at that school. From my observation, most of the students have negative perceptions about trainee counselors. The students think that trainee counselor has no experience and enough skills and knowledge to conduct counseling sessions. Because of that, most of the students would share their problems with senior counselors rather than trainee counselor".

Similarly, Atif said that *"I felt so nervous and uneasy because I always think about what I am supposed to do throughout 14 weeks of internship at a new school. I felt so worried because I did not know what I am supposed to do as I did not really know about this school, teachers, and students. I asked myself what if I could not follow the flow of internship and fulfill its requirements".*

Anna added that her nervousness was coming from not only the factors mentioned by Izzah but also the fact that she had never experienced going to multicultural school. She said that *"I worried about how I can adapt to the school community and the new school environment. The students of this school comprised of multicultural students which were Malay, Chinese, Indian, aborigines, and Indonesian. I was anxious because I do not know if I have enough skills to deal with students from diverse background and culture...which is different from my own culture. I worry if I made wrong interpretation and say wrong things which touched the sensitivity of other cultures. I worried about how I can conduct group counseling when the members were from different culture, language and religion. I worried if they would not cooperate and share their feelings. I doubt my ability to conduct group counseling where the members were from diverse background, culture, language and religion".* Ali shares the same worries for 50% of the students at the school he was doing internship were Chinese.

The transition from university classroom to school setting was not easy for the first week. Further, they also worried about completing the required contact hours with the client. This is because the client perceived them as not having enough skills and experience to help them.

Suzie stated that *"My biggest concern for the first few weeks was whether I could collect 500 site hours as well as completing 140 hours in conducting individual counseling and 60 hours in conducting group counseling. I was worried because it was very hard for me to get clients. This is because the students viewed trainee counselors as inexperienced".* Suzie's concerns were also shared by nine of her friends.

However towards the end of practicum and internship they were able to adapt to the new environment and they were happy with the acceptance of the site counselors, teachers and school administrators. Many of them reported that the site supervisor and the school stakeholders accepted them as part of the school community. They also were able to interact with more ease with students from different cultures especially those who were from different religion.

Atif shared that *"...after few weeks of internship, I felt that the school accepted me as part of the community, especially the school administrators, teachers, students and other school stakeholders. My relationship with them also has improved and so were my communication skills. I could mingle with senior counselors and other teachers with ease."*

Suzie was happy to convey the news that *"after few weeks of practicum I was exhausted but happy and this became rather sweet memory for me which I will never forget. I realize that practicum has taught me a lot in terms of building my self-confidence to face challenges of a real professional school counselor. Moreover, after few weeks of practicum, I learned how to build trust as well as build rapport with the school community with diverse background".*

Atif could see a few changes in her after few weeks of practicum. *"I could adapt to the school environment and my nervousness, anxiety level, negative judgment have reduced. I think I could do better and everything will run smoothly".*

Further, the narratives revealed that students were experiencing difficulty to attract the students to get their services. All of them reported that most of the students perceived that those who come to see the counselor were those who have a psychological problem. This perception made it difficult for the trainee counselors to get the clients. The trainee counselors also experience difficulty in meeting the practicum and internship requirements. Since the clients were skeptical toward trainee counselors' abilities therefore they experienced difficulties in completing the required contact hours. They have to work hard in promoting themselves and to make the students aware with their counseling services.

Zul reported that *"I need to promote myself to students, as well as to the whole school community. I need to attract people to come for counseling. I felt that it was my responsibility to change students and school community of their perception on counseling services are for problematic students, that is, students with disciplinary problems or students with psychological issues. I have to change their thinking so that they will have positive perception on counseling."*

Tini revealed that *"...my worries and anxiety are students' perception about counseling sessions. Students viewed*

counseling sessions were for problematic students. It was difficult to get potential clients since I did not get to go to classes to promote my services. Besides, the all-boys school was challenging since they were aggressive and active. They did not listen and like to make noise to distract teachers”.

They were also experiencing lack of confidence in their ability to apply the appropriate theories and techniques in handling client problem. Sometime the students applied unsuitable theories and techniques in dealing with client problem. They also reported that they didn't know how to help their client to solve critical issues such as suicide attempt, premarital sex, drug, and bullying. Furthermore, they experienced lack of skills in questioning especially in probing or exploring the client root problem.

Atif revealed that *“...sometimes I did not know what to do to explore their exact problems, as well as to pursue them to talk. I am not sure how can I get them to talk and I wonder whether I know enough theory to apply in counseling sessions. Even after a few months of practicum, I still felt anxious especially when I have to face critical issues. Reality is really scary. It was scarier when I was not confident that I have matched the appropriate theory to deal with certain issue. However, for critical issues, I referred to my supervisor. The skills that I really need to help me become a better counselor are probing and application of theoretical orientation in terms of doing treatment plans. It is really meaningful to me to be able to explore problems in detail. Sometimes I just explore client's problem on the surface then I made interpretation about the client's problem. However, the real problem was not actually but something else”.*

Ruha said that *“...I was struggling to apply counseling techniques during my sessions with my clients. I have tried my best to improve my techniques and approaches so that I would not misinterpret and make any mistake particularly in diagnosing my clients' problems. Sometimes I made revision regarding counseling techniques and approaches that I can use and apply in my sessions with clients. Indeed, I do really need some guidelines”.*

Anna's experience was similar. She mentioned that *“I felt a bit worried about appropriate techniques and theoretical orientation that is suitable with mw in dealing with various client issues. This thing is always haunting me and playing around in my mind. I am still making a great effort to improve my skills in using appropriate counseling techniques as well as to enhance my theoretical orientation. I lack counseling micro-skills such as active listening, accenting and amplifying, reflection of content and feeling and many more. Through my experience with my clients, I identified that I am not good in exploring in depth about my client's problems and feelings.”*

Tini shared that *“After I have completed my session with my clients, I asked myself whether I have used the right techniques and applied appropriate theories. I reflected on whether I was able to make them realize their problems, as well as whether I have helped them to solve their problems. I asked myself whether I can be an effective counselor for my next clients”.*

Hazmi reported that *“I was lacking in counseling skills and competencies. I am afraid that my counseling sessions became meaningless and led to nowhere. I am afraid that my counseling sessions became small talk or I would get lost in my clients' stories. I think that I need to improve my mental and psychological stamina to make me always ready to serve my clients”.*

Trainee counselors were expected to be substitute teachers especially for teachers who were on medical leave and who were involved in meeting and courses outside the schools. Most of the trainee counselors experience difficulties in classroom management. Some of them do not know how to control students' disruptive behaviors. Thus, in the substitute classes they were not able to deliver their planned classroom guidance.

Amy's experiences were quite stressful. *“I have anxieties and worries especially when it came to going for substitute class. We were supposed to do classroom guidance but I have difficulties in handling the classroom guidance. They never gave attention and made noise. I don't know how to get their attention. When they misbehaved, I just approached them one by one and I will write their name in record book and they will get demerit”.*

Izzah also shared the same concerns. *“Handling classroom guidance was very challenging to me because they were very active and for the first day we met, only two students were in class. They were noisy and went out from classroom without permission. I have difficulty to handle them, I need classroom management skills”.*

Tini reported that *“even though I have experience but I still have anxiety during relief class. This is because some students did not really give cooperation when I was doing activities in class. I feel like I failed in controlling the class”.*

Towards the end of practicum and internship, the trainee counselors reported that they have gained some valuable experiences which helped them in the process of becoming professional counselor. As they progressed along, they realized that they could handle anxiety and stress that came their way better and they were able to improve their confidence level. Even though they were still struggling to be more confident in applying counseling skills and theoretical knowledge, practicum and internship has provided them the opportunity to experience a professional life of school counselors.

Atif said that *"I totally agreed that internship experiences and supervision have helped me in building my skills and self-confidence. Internship helped me to understand my real role as school counselor first hand."* Izzah agreed that she has *"learned valuable lessons to become a professional school counselor. I learned and always to ask senior counselor to handle big cases like drug abuse, rape victim, and family crisis. I also realized that I need to improve on a lot of things such as communication skills. As a counselor, I need to be good in interpersonal skills. Practicum, internship and supervision helped me much in terms of counseling skills. The time of practicum and internship is the time for me to gain as much experiences as I can in the process of me becoming a professional counselor. Through internship also I can discover the roles of a school counselor."*

Counselor education begins with pre-practicum course works that are necessary to prepare students to become a professional counselor. However prepared a student is in classroom environment, the feeling of nervousness and anxiety is normal when the student is given his or her first client. Movement to the unknown role of a 'real' school counselor is psychologically daunting for trainee counselor as he or she has to deal with a variety of uncertainties and expectations from his or own self, supervisor, and school community including students as his or her clients. The first experience with a client creates self-doubt. All of the students in this particular study reported that they asked themselves questions such as: "Am I able to help my client to settle their problem? Have I used appropriate theories and techniques? What if I use the wrong techniques? What if I misinterpret and misdiagnose? Stoltenberg (1981) described trainee counselors as neurosis bound and has a tendency to imitate other counselors including their own supervisors or their model counselors. They lack individuality because of lack of experience. They seem unable to bridge the gap between theory and practice. At this level, trainee counselors are dependent on their supervisors, professors and senior counselors. This led them to appreciate support and encouragement from the experienced supervisors and counselors (Ronnestad and Skovholt, 2003).

4. Implication for Supervision

The development of trainee counselors' theoretical knowledge, counseling skills, and awareness of counseling process are the main purposes of counseling practicum and internship. The insight gained from present exploration of trainee counselors' feelings and experiences during counseling practicum informed practicum supervisors and curriculum developers in planning and implementing formative evaluation. The findings indicated that counseling students having most difficulties in executing counseling abilities and practicing counseling skills; they also faced challenges in applying theoretical knowledge; and they lack skills in classroom management. Furthermore, the trainee counselors were anxious during the first few weeks of their practicum and internship because of several factors including the anxiety that they could not help their clients to solve critical issues.

To alleviate nervousness during the first few weeks of practicum and internship, university supervisors should give briefing one week before the practicum or internship. Supervisor should highlight feelings that may encounter during the first few weeks of practicum and internship. The supervisors could make clear their expectation from the students as well as expectation of the school from the students. Positive feedback and encouragement from supervisors could also calm their anxiety and nervousness (Ronnestad and Skovholt, 2003). Further, supervisors should highlight critical issues that trainee counselors may encounter during their practicum to prevent the feeling of shocked during the counseling process. For critical issues, networking and support group created by supervisors could be established online as well as tele-counseling for immediate supervision from supervisors.

The university supervisors should highlight the tasks that they have to do during the practicum and internship such as promoting their services using poster and brochures. Supervisors should highlight the perception of the trainees' prospect clients. Therefore, trainee counselors are expected to use their creativity in persuading clients to seek their services. It would be helpful if the supervisors could show the trainees some examples of brochure, posters and other promotion techniques done by their previous supervisees. Samples of needs assessment, program proposals and class guidance should be made available for students. Another important task that trainee counselors required to do is to relief class when the class teacher was not present. However, trainee counselors' lack of skills in managing students' disruptive behaviors had resulted in failure of delivering planned class guidance and feeling of disappointment. Therefore, specific training in classroom management skills and handling classroom disruptive behaviors should be provided by university supervisors prior to counseling practicum.

In order to assist students in counseling skills and in applying theoretical knowledge, supervisors could hold pre-practicum seminar or workshop. In this pre-practicum workshop, students will be exposed to various simulations and role plays in dealing with common as well as critical issues faced by secondary school students.

5. Conclusion

Trainee counselors started to experience their role as school counselors with feeling of apprehension and anxiety. As they progressed through the practicum and internship, their anxiety level decreases but their self-doubt on their counseling skills and application of theoretical knowledge took a longer time to overcome. However, their confidence level increases but not to the extent that they become independent from their supervisors. From the stories of the interns, we understood that they have gained a very significant tool of learning which is reflection. Reflection on their experiences enabled them to be aware of their own selves and others and this is vital for their own professional development.

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Media Literacy: The Albanian perspective

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Abstract

This paper aims at giving a correct portray of media in Albania with a focus on media literacy and its importance in the Albanian society. In these last decades information has been spread at a higher speed and intensity and as such they are having an enormous impact on humanity. They have become so important that it is rarely that one can live without them. Through using them, people get to know the world around them; they understand the world and try to change it. The whole issue is how to do all this? Sorting out these messages is perhaps one of the most difficult tasks humanity is facing today. Therefore, the necessity for the application and development of media literacy is of ultimate importance and concern. Seen from this point of view, this study constitutes a modest contribution that should serve as an incentive for the youth, parents, educators, teachers and university lecturers to refocus their attention on the role they have to play in media comprehension and understanding.

Keywords: Media literacy, information, education

1. Introduction

Throughout all the modern history of the world, information has been considered as a power, and most frequently as the greatest power that controls, steers and plans the development of different situations in the human society. Information became property of a wider public through media which played an increasingly major role on the direction of various developments of humanity, but in the mean time it also became more and more important as well as "attacked" in order to control it, its development, its policy and information development and its people trying therefore to control all of those who follow the media. Obviously this control is absolute in terms of a totalitarian system transforming media into a mere propagandist element of a certain individual or government, while in a functional democracy normally the system should guarantee a completely free and independent media.

Within a democratic system there are rules and laws on which the media operates, but are they able to protect us from the "manipulation" of the media? Are Albanian citizens today threatened by the influx of the extraordinary media control in terms of their opinions on political, social or economic aspects? We now find ourselves facing countless information that come from numerous and various sources. What is more, the rapid development of the internet and the social networks, has also contributed to the immediate spread of this information which in many cases are not popular, irresponsible, non-professional and not infrequently at odds with legal aspects of control by the state.

It seems that in all this "web" of information, the idea as well as the need of raising a generation who "controls the media and who is not controlled by it, is becoming increasingly more and more indispensable. The state alone, cannot fully accomplish the role of the "controller" of this immense influx of information. It is the duty and the demand of the citizens themselves to be able to distinguish the right from the bad, the good from the evil. "Because of the almost exponential explosion of information, we cannot possibly sift through and assimilate all that surrounds us. We are compelled to let others to assess and compress information for us. We are in a sense, victims of our own inability to handle such large quantities of information without confusion." (Lasswell, 1940)

It is the young citizens who need to be equipped with the necessary skills to be "protected" by the media and to

think independently about the flow of information they receive every day. Therefore, media literacy has become a key skill in the modern times we live in, a skill which in many countries is obtained as part of the school curriculum of the low and middle levels such as primary, elementary and high schools. The same reality should quickly prevail even in those countries that do not yet apply media literacy, including Albania.

Media has become today an important influential element on all human societies throughout the whole world. Naturally, this effect may possess different characteristics where often it appears as a positivist utopia on life by reviving hope and by convincing people that even when the world around them may not be as good and fair as they want it to be, the investment and hard work are worth it because things may improve later on. On the other hand stands the naked or hidden negative aspect of the media, which in the majority of the cases appears in the shape of an "ideology" by "imposing" a definite opinion in favor of the media itself, its owner(s) or those it serves to.

Albania has seen a tremendous development of the media in the recent years and this development has been made in disproportion with the economic and political developments of the country. The idea of private media started after the 90's, thus after the democratic changes in the country, but their greatest actualization happened, at least as far as audiovisual media is concerned, after the year 1996 and it still continues nowadays.

The National Council of Radio and Television, the institution that deals with audiovisual media has a record as of 2012 of three national television stations from which one is a public television, 70 local television channels, 3 digital platforms and 83 cable TVs. Meanwhile there are also 2 national and 56 local radios that operate across the whole country. According to the European Journalism Observatory there are currently 28 national newspapers being published in Albania. These figures show the huge development of the media in the last decades in such a geographically small area.

Furthermore, Albania is the country with the highest growth of Internet users in recent years. Thus, according to statistics gathered from CIO, Communication International Organization, in 2012, Albania has an Internet penetration level of 48.1% of the population, besides the 2.9 million recorded by the census of that year 1:44 million are active users of the Internet. The average of the EU countries is 61.3, but it is worth mentioning that Albania is listed before some EU countries like Greece where internet penetration is to the extent of 46.9%.

The internet offers vast possibilities of penetration in any type of information, on various sites and on different type of media including the information coming through social networks. Thus, given the number of people living in Albania and the number of media operating in the area, it can easily be deduced that the media have invaded all our lives, being present at any time and at any place. The flow of information coming from the media can be considered infinite, and if we consider the positive side of this large number of media operating in the area, it can said that we are facing a "media democracy", albeit the problems that each and every medium may represent.

The media deeply influences perceptions, beliefs and attitudes. The importance of visual communication and information is increasing. The effective use of information in society and the need for lifelong learning acquire more and more importance (Jolls and Thoman, 2008). It is consequently not an accident that there is a growing academic interest in questions of literacy, with emphasis on exploring them under the circumstances of the electronic (digital) era, displaying a multidisciplinary mix of specialists in literacy, culture, media education, human-computer interaction, and social studies of technology (Livingstone, 2004).

The media problems with which the Albanian public faces today are probably the same ones that the worldwide audience faces with just small differences.

1. The media programs can often be considered to be far from what might be ideal. In many cases, violence and sex become the greatest influencing factor to the youth.
2. The level of truthfulness and clarity in the information delivered by the media is rather disturbing. This may also be considered as the biggest challenge for the Albanian media. In various media, the same information is represented differently. In the majority of the cases, sensation prevails over the truth.
3. Sometimes the media does not respect the code of ethics. Furthermore, the functioning of journalists' organizations is minimal.

The sketch of the media landscape in the European Commission's Progress Report for Albania in 2012 is far from optimistic: "Editorial independence continues to be hampered by private political and economic interests. There are concerns that public advertising is directed to the television channels that are supportive of the government." The report also mentioned many other issues, such as the pressure of the economic crisis on the media, the lack of employment contracts for journalists as one of the roots of their self-censorship, and government interference in the appointment of public-television managers.

Given these issues this paper is based on the ways that can and should be followed in order to primarily make

young people less dependent on the media and the negative aspects that it can transmit them. Hence, there exists a very developed situation of the media in all its forms, but on the other hand we have another situation where the entire population is vulnerably located in front of the media, becoming in this way a "loot" of the great interests of the actors and the different stakeholders in the Albanian society.

2. The importance of media literacy in education.

Media is a social responsibility (Merrill, 1974) and given this fact, its regulation is concerned with the needs assessment that needs to be made in order to avoid the negative effects it has mainly on the young people. Seen from this viewpoint it is very important for young people to be active and not passive spectators of media, in particular by thinking critically about media. The main purpose is for them to be able to evaluate, access and interpret media messages in order to become so smart as to resist any kind of manipulation and use or misuse by the media. But the questions raised are: what is media literacy? How can one obtain it? Why is it important for our young people? These are difficult questions to be answered. What can be said today is that media literacy is being considered a necessity of life in our societies everywhere in the world. "We live in a world where media are omnipresent. An increasing number of people spend a great deal of time watching television, reading newspapers and magazines, playing records and listening to the radio ... The school and the family share the responsibility of preparing the young person living in a world of powerful images, words and sounds." (UNESCO, 1982)

If media literacy fulfills its function then, there lays a great task in front of each and every one of us. One of the most prominent scholars in this field Hobbs (1998) has come up with a number of questions related to this area. The series of questions, called the 'seven great debates in the media literacy movement', are nonetheless very much worth enumerating as follows:

1. Should media literacy education aim to protect children and young people from negative media influences?
2. Should media production be an essential feature of media literacy education?
3. Should media literacy focus on popular culture texts?
4. Should media literacy have a more explicit political and/or ideological agenda?
5. Should media literacy be focused on school-based K-12 educational environments?
6. Should media literacy be taught as a specialist subject or integrated within the context of existing subjects?
7. Should media literacy initiatives be supported financially by media organizations?

Researching new media literacy at The Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), Jenkins (2008a) addresses the demands of this participatory culture for education. Jenkins claims that the focus of literacy has shifted from individual expression to community involvement. Working together with others has become much more important. Combining this new feature with traditional literacy, research skills, technical skills, and critical analysis skills, Jenkins introduces 12 new core media literacy skills:

- Play – the capacity to experiment with one's surroundings as a form of problem-solving.
- Performance – the ability to adopt alternative identities for the purpose of improvisation and discovery.
- Simulation – the ability to interpret and construct dynamic models of real-world processes.
- Appropriation – the ability to meaningfully sample and remix media content.
- Multitasking – the ability to scan one's environment and shift focus as needed to salient details.
- Distributed cognition – the ability to interact meaningfully with tools that expand mental capacities.
- Collective intelligence – the ability to pool knowledge and compare notes with others toward a common goal.
- Judgment – the ability to evaluate the reliability and credibility of different information sources.
- Transmedia navigation – the ability to follow the flow of stories and information across multiple modalities.
- Networking – the ability to search for, synthesize, and disseminate information.
- Negotiation – the ability to travel across diverse communities, discerning and respecting multiple perspectives, and grasping and following alternative norms.
- Visualization – the ability to interpret and create data representations for the purposes of expressing ideas, finding patterns, and identifying trends (Jenkins et al., 2008b).

It suffices to mention the fact that today media literacy itself is divided into several literacy skills that researchers are studying more and more. So for instance, visual literacy is one of the most recent terms that is defined as follows:

Visual Literacy refers to a group of vision-competencies a human being can develop by seeing and at the same time having and integrating other sensory experiences. The development of these competencies is fundamental to normal human learning. When developed, they enable a visually literate person to discriminate and interpret the visible

actions, objects, symbols, natural or man-made, that he encounters in his environment. Through the creative use of these competencies, he is able to communicate with others. Through the appreciative use of these competencies, he is able to comprehend and enjoy the masterworks of visual communication. (IVLA, 2009)

So as to be fully engaged in the study of this area it is necessary to have the adequate knowledge in critical thinking combined with pedagogical criticism, which are basic elements of media literacy. The combination of these elements will be extremely important as it leads to data collection, different materials, teaching methods, monitoring and evaluation methods.

The study of media literacy can not only focus on critical thinking but also in the context of the critical methodology meaning that it does not aim simply the knowledge acquisition but also in the knowledge usage.

Pedagogical media literacy, aims to answer some questions that everyone should make on the authorship information, (who sends this information and why?), its purpose (as another might interpret this information in a different way), views (what lifestyle and values are reflected), methods used (what techniques are used to attract attention to this information?) and outputs (such as how are media messages created?). (Hoobs 2005; 60)

It is worth inspecting a Canadian approach, as well. The definition by the Ontario Association for Media Literacy (AML), cited by Duncan (2006), puts emphasis on the educational aspect: Media literacy is concerned with developing an informed and critical understanding of the nature of the mass media, the techniques used by them, and the impact of these techniques. It is education that aims to increase students' understanding and enjoyment of how the media work, how they produce meaning, how they are organized, and how they construct reality. Media literacy also aims to provide students with the ability to create media products. (Duncan, 2006). Gutiérrez Martín and Hottmann (2006) also add that – on a more specific level – media literacy has to do with education, the primary objective of which is the following: To increase students' understanding and enjoyment of media, facilitate understanding of how the media produce meaning, how they are organized, and how they construct their own reality – all this while keeping in mind the skills and knowledge necessary to create media products. (Gutiérrez Martín and Hottmann, 2006).

The demand to answer all the above questions regarding media literacy is closely related to the fact that society should not be allowed to be used and misused by the media. Naturally, such an objective is going to be achieved through continuous education as well as through giving practical answers to questions such as : why should we learn, what should we learn and how should we learn?

James Potter (2004:66) states that 'any theory of media should be at its core a theory about how people are affected by the media. "During the 1990s, British, Canadians, Australians, Americans outlined the idea that media literacy would be the appropriate solution to the problem of negative influences of the media in society." (Hobbs, 2005). The solution to this problem in the modern society is based not only on awareness of media researchers, but also based on the collaboration of educators through media literacy, to raise awareness on the impact of media in everyday life. Other authors such as Buckingham stated that media education is the solution to this problem. "(Buckingham, 2003:6).

Studies and articles about media literacy in recent years have attracted more and more attention and research on Google about this term in 2008 were 3.14 million. This shows that media literacy is attracting more and more attention of researchers as an essential civic skill in the chaotic and versatile Information Age of the modern societies.

3. Conclusion

Media play an important role in the way people think about their country. A new culture of information is evolving especially in the Albanian society. There is a civic illiteracy about Media in general. People want to know what is happening to them and they want to know what they can do about it. But the problem is how to deal with all this. Hence, Media literacy becomes of great importance. It has to do with film and television, press and radio and their impact on the society. Its aim is to enable the youth to develop critical thinking skills, to analyze and positively reflect on their life experiences while using various media.

It has been speculated that the media are often telling us what should and should not be important to us socially, culturally, educationally, politically and economically. Disputes are being held about the abuses of the press, about invasion of privacy, about the right of the media to inquire into the life of many people, etc. Despite this criticism of the mass media, most thoughtful people agree that these same media are doing a great job in reporting news all over the world and into informing the public. It is our task than to help people and especially the youth through Media Literacy to correctly receive and understand this information, transmit it to the coming generations and try to use this knowledge to the benefit of the society.

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Literature as a Form of Narration: The Issue of Conscience in the Works of Kafka and Dostoevsky

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Abstract

Conscience is a phenomenon that's been emphasized in many religions, philosophical schools of thought and mysticism. According to philosophy, conscience, which warns the person by means of providing a sense of inner peace or discontentment, is not solely a concept but the talent possessed by a person. On the other hand, dialectic argues that conscience is the result of a person's breeding and knowledge determined by the social conditions in which the person lives in. Conscience is an internal voice that distinguishes the right from wrong. In literature, there are certain stories and heroes that are worth being studied meticulously and with attention. For example, Kafka, who describes the fundamental issues brought about by the modern era, has tried to disclose the truth of the century we are living in its rawest and naked form. In his writing, Kafka has always chosen allegorical and metaphorical narratives and through the characters he created, has emphasized the bureaucracy, alienation and the estrangement of human beings from humanistic values. In one of his stories, he tells the story of Gregor Samsa who turns into a cockroach while in another story, he tells the tragic end of a character who has been sentenced to an undeserved punishment by a bureaucracy that exists outside of himself because of a crime he did not commit. Another example from literary texts will be Dostoyevsky. The love towards those small and poor people as well as the pity felt towards those empty and ridiculous men that live in the society, which is a common theme in the Russian literature, can be witnessed in his novels. At this point, Dostoyevsky as well as Kafka, take a critical look at the system through literature and have provided us with examples of conscience by means of questioning the system through the characters they created. Our subject matter in this text is to reveal that literature, in my opinion the most influential form of which is poetry followed by the novel, is actually an art form in which human beings as well as all concepts pertaining to human beings and to examine the relationship between literature and conscience.

Keywords: literature, conscience, alienation,

*"Nothing is more seductive for man than his freedom of conscience, but nothing is a greater cause of suffering."
Dostoevsky*

"Conscience is our unerring judge until we finally stifle it." Balzac

1. Literature

Literature is a field of study which is intimately connected with sub-categories of culture such as art, science and thinking; and must be momentarily emphasized due to its complicated attachment with economic, social, political and moral life. For all these properties hereinbefore mentioned, everything that concerns humankind lies within the interests of literature. In its simplest explanation, literature may be defined as logos presenting itself in aesthetics by means of language. Literature may be construed as one of the ways by which humans self-explore and self-realize their eternity within. Literature is a way of approaching beauty as an area where eternity exists by using manners and language. Beauty is not merely a beautiful feeling, but also an area where beautiful eternity manifests itself. (İnam 2003:21-24)

Another fundamental problem is the function of literature. One opinion discusses that extraordinary development of science and technology, hence the countless pieces due to fragmentation of information led us to live in an era where knowledge is specialized. Specialization will bring many benefits without doubt. However, it also yields negative consequences, because it obliterates common thinking and cultural traces that renders humans' coexistence, mutual communication and standing in solidarity possible. Today, science and technology fail to play an integrative role due to the eternal wealth of knowledge and evolution of knowledge which led to specialization and the perplexities of specialization. Yet literature related occupations serve as one of the common denominators in human life where

individuals are able to know themselves and talk to each other despite of their purposes, geographical and cultural positions and personal situations in life. Literature has allowed individuals to overcome history within all aspects of their lives. As readers of Cervantes, Shakespeare, Dante, Tolstoy and Dostoevsky we get acquainted with each other while transcending time and space, and sense each other as the members of the same species. Nothing could teacher better than literature to see into the richness of humankind's heritage when facing ethnic and cultural differences, and observe the same as an indication of humans' multi-faceted creativity. Without doubt we enjoy ourselves tremendously while reading good works of literature. In the same breath we learn what we are and how we are in the secret cavities of our consciousness with our image in society and our jobs, dreams and nightmares within our human completeness and our humanly faults, and relationships that tie us to others. (Llosa 2001 : 20)

In other words literature educates, trains, excites and pleases. It may impart good and bad feelings, arouse sexual desires. Literature may have and already had an impact on people on these areas.

2. Conscience

In terms of the topic at hand, this article will endeavour to dwell upon the conscience as a way of feeling, originating from the etymology of the word conscience before looking into references of conscience in literature.

The word conscience etymologically originates from the Arabic language, and its initial use is known to date back to the thirteenth century. In its simple explanation, it is a character trait where one measures what he/she has done or will do based upon his/her own moral values about his/her intention and behaviours. The concept of the conscience is basically defined as a mental power and instinctual authority or generally a mental capacity that allows individuals and at times drives them to make judgments over a right-wrong and good-bad equilibrium over their own behaviour. Even in the light of this definition, opinions as to the nature and function of conscience differ. As regards to the history of philosophy, we find prominent thinkers who attach great significance to the subject of conscience, as well as thinkers who approach the subject with profound scepticism. Holding a vital place in philosophy history as well as in religious manuscripts, not the term "conscience" (consciencia), but the issue of conscience was conceptually found in the ancient Greek thinking and also found coverage in the thoughts of Roman thinkers and statesmen like Cicero and Marcus Aurelius. Those who emphasized the significance of conscience, beginning with Plato and Aristotle made so by putting conscience at the top of the list of factors that made life worth living. In all these discussions conscience is treated as the leading actor in steering and evaluating our lives that reserves space in human life in parallel to mind. This opinion gains stronger ground in post-Enlightenment European thinking. For instance Montaigne refers to leading a conscience-free life when mentioning "knowing how to be a human" and efforts to live decently: "one who knows how to be a human, successes a much more important thing than those who wrote books or won wars or conquered countries. All acts other than this are like an empty stage to dominate everything, feather one's nest and appropriate possessions. The best work of man is leading a decent and true life". As mentioned earlier, the term conscience is found in Western philosophy in the 13th century for the first time as a Latin origin word with a moral and informative aspect to its definition. According to Nişanyan's etymology dictionary based on Franciscus Meninski's "Thesaurus Linguarum Orientalium", the word penetrates into the Ottoman language only in the 17th century although it implies informative meanings such as understanding, finding and exploring.

We find that in European thinking, the term consciousness is born with its roots in the term conscience and the concepts of consciousness and conscience have gained semantic autonomy and have been used by Descartes along with other philosophers since the 18th century to imply related but different meanings, in parallel with each other. In the modern sense, the term "conscience" also denotes a moral and normative association, while "consciousness" or the term "reason" as so often used similarly in this context refer to a concept concerning knowledge, science and reasoning free from moral association. It is possible to encounter examples recently where conscience and mind concepts are used in deep connection with each other yet with different meanings and used in a way that complement each other when expounding the condition of mankind. For instance, the first article of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which has been written down after the 2nd World War and published in 1948 with the hope of containing universal observations and principles to appeal to the whole of mankind and contribute to world peace, stipulates, "*All persons are born free and equal. They have reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a friendly manner.*"

The main assumption is that mind and conscience are the two most basic mental capacities that arise from human nature, exist in all individuals and bear functions that are different but complete each other. On the other hand arguments which approach the term conscience with intense scepticism and objecting to the very definition of it seems to grow on from the beginning of the 19th century and came to a climax in the middle of the 20th century. The mood that led Max

Horkheimer, a Frankfurt School thinker, to write his eclipse of the reason book could also possibly indicate an eclipse of the conscience era for many other philosophers. (Güzeldere 2013:9)

In many religions, philosophical thinking and mysticism, conscience is considered of great significance. In philosophy, the conscience which stimulates the person by imbuing inner peace or inner discomfort is not a concept but an ability of the person. The metaphysic understanding in philosophy sets forth the existence of this gift from birth, whereas dialectic understanding argues that it is the product of etiquette and knowledge stipulated by social conditions of the man. And neo-spiritual approach believes that it is an ability which gradually manifests at only some extent of the spirit in proportion with the development of one's soul (humanity stage after animal stage). Conscience is an inner voice declaring the right and wrong to humans. It is a subjective consciousness that judges, assents to, calls to account, and accuses the person on his/her actions. (Koncavar 2013:195-196)

The main issue of this article is to handle how conscience is dealt with by two men of the literature world, master pens Kafka and Dostoevsky who produced cardinal works on the subject of conscience and their worlds. First, let's look into the world of Kafka.

3. Kafka

Describing the fundamental issues of the modern era, in other words modern men or us in his stories and novels, Kafka has concentrated on exposing the most cruel and naked truth of the century we live in. While doing so, he chose an allegoric and metaphoric style narration and the tragic fates of its heroes can still be traced in any one of us, readers' minds with Gregor Samsa in one of his stories transformed into a cockroach due to the red-tape of the system, alienation and deviation from humanely values; and another protagonist in another story who is sentenced to a penalty he did not deserve for a crime he did not committed.

Often lifting the lid on blind alleys of Western society after the 20th century Industry Era, the fake family relations of the bourgeois class and the maddening functioning of bureaucracy, Kafka realized, and with his works dwelled upon, the dead ends of modernity that have emerged with the idea that literary, artistic, social organization in terms of culture and daily life have lost its currency in the traditional sense of the 19th century. (Koncavar 2013:201)

Kafka's world is the world of alienation, of persons divided into two parts. This world is also a world deprived of the awareness of the very same division, a world ready to fall asleep. Kafka's inner world is aware that it belongs to and has sunk into this alienation world, but also full of the desire to wake up those who are asleep.

Kafka's view of the world is limited with his class, and the horizon which ranges based on the constant dilemmas and concerns pertinent to this class. This makes it impossible for Kafka to find the underlying reasons of alienation. Hence Kafka's struggle with alienation could at best be described as "waving one's hand to shake off an image".

Today, alienation does not arise from mankind's weakness in the face of natural forces, but from its desperation in the presence of social powers disguised as an enemy. Any time all hell may break loose and may destroy all, along with all that he created, with his dreams and values. Daily life in the world of alienation is inseparable from this air of concern and doom waiting close by. This is what Kafka renders directly sensible, perceivable; the truth needs no interpretation. Kafka points at the necessity of another world, by reflecting the truth as it is, in other words by setting forth or by merely describing its impeccably functioning mechanism, the intrinsic threats, oppression and compression, the fear one spreads in his/her own heart and head, the sarcasm and rebellion.

Kafka deals with society's judicial mechanisms allegorically in his works. Approaching literature from a historical perspective, it is clear that the two most fundamental works related to judgment and crime, are Kafka's "Trial" and Dostoevsky's "Crime and Punishment". The essential difference between Kafka's protagonists and Dostoevsky's protagonists is that Dostoevsky's Raskolnikov gives an example where crime looks for penalty, whereas Kafka's protagonist Josef K gives an example where penalty looks for crime. (Kundera 1989:123) This comparison reflects Kafka's point of view toward society's organizations and bureaucratic functioning.

In his book Trial, Kafka narrates the story of Josef K who wakes up to a day when he suddenly gets imprisoned, suspects the whole event is a joke because he fails to learn what he is accused of, then grasps the seriousness of the situation. K does not bear any defence power whatsoever. As he does not know the accusations against him, he does not know how to defend himself. A gloomy, stressing mood is dominant in the entire book. (Koncavar 2013:216)

Especially with this work Kafka handles the issue of social conscience, because the interrogation of Josef K who is even deprived of the knowledge of his crime is an issue of social conscience. As a result Kafka wrote The Trial so that the humans in the future may not be judged before unknown judges on the pure account of being humans, and wrote Metamorphoses to demonstrate that the humiliation of a bug is absolutely and without any doubt beneath any human

being... This is so that people may not dwindle down and act as bugs in their relationships with other people. He penned *The Trial* so that his fellows can be their own masters, and build such systems that would free mankind of any castles. This is the way of Kafka. He has always construed his writings to be temporary, in other words hoped that one day his stories will not be experienced by other people... This is the sole truth about which once Fisher said that Kafkaism will pass but Kafka will remain.

4. Dostoevsky

A thorough look into Dostoevsky's world, his biography may give us an understanding about his fictional characters. The author was born to a Moscovite Catholic family. His father was a medical doctor and her mother was an ill woman. Dostoevsky was an introvert child. He was sent to an engineering school in Petersburg. He learned his father's death by murder while he was a student and never spoke of his father again. He was involved in protests to overthrow the Russian Tsar and bring in the republican rule instead. Finally he got arrested and sentenced to death penalty. Tsar ordered that his conviction be changed to galley slavery. This period of his life had a huge impact on him and left deep traces in his soul. He had to write without break to earn his living.

The main highlight of this article will be to deal with the issue of conscience based on his novel *Crime and Punishment* and its unforgettable protagonist Raskolnikov.

The protagonist of Dostoevsky's master fiction is a young pupil named Raskolnikov who deeply loves his poor mother and sister. He decides to murder an elderly money-lender woman he knows who is speculated to have some rubles. A series of events strengthen his intentions. For instance, her sister who fails to find a way to pull herself out of poverty is ready to sacrifice her own life for her family and get married to a rich, but old and gruesome man; and Raskolnikov is determined to prevent this marriage. In the meantime he meets a drunkard, an old, small officer with a mellow daughter from his first marriage. This family has descended to the lowest imaginable level after being abandoned to their fate in a way only possible in big cities like St. Petersburg and Raskolnikov establishes a relationship with this family. As the novel progresses, he gradually sinks into a deep distress and notices acute and desperate poverty and trouble leading him to be overwhelmed by the thought of elderly money-lender's murder. He commits the crime but fails to find the money he hoped for; he is not even capable of discovering the money in such a rush. After spending a couple of days agonized with shame and regret and under the pressure of the new conditions that escalates his regret, he goes to the police and confesses that he murdered the old woman and her sister. (Tolstoy 1890, trans.Ozkan 2001: 279)

Raskolnikov was not himself when he was murdering the old lady or her sister. He was not actually living the real life when murdering the old lady then her sister. To the contrary, he was moving like clockwork; doing something he never had the capacity of doing: He was igniting an explosive he had set off within himself long before that moment. An old woman was murdered, another one was standing beside him and the axe was at his hands. Raskolnikov's real life was not lived in the moment he met the sister of the old woman nor lived before the murder of the latter; so even before he entered that apartment with the murder in his mind, even before he grasped the axe, in fact even before he knitted the knot to hang the axe inside his coat: His life was realized also before contemplating on his sofa if he could polish off an old lady or any other person who seemed a pest or a malice according to someone's arbitrary decision. His real life took place while mulling over issues irrelevant with the old lady like whether he should live in Petersburg, whether he should accept the money sent by his mother. The decision as to whether he could murder the old lady was reached back at that time, in that bestial area of life far from reality. These conclusions were not settled while standing in front of the old lady with an axe in his hand, to the contrary, they were settled in the mere thinking process before he took action, when his consciousness only was active and hardly detectable shifts were conceived in his consciousness. This is why it is of great importance that in order for the emerging problem to be solved correctly the conscience must be clear as possible and it is for the very same reason that just a cigarette or a glass of beer complicates and hinders the solution of a problem; drowns out the voice of conscience and lets one decide according to the man's inferior beastly self and appeal, which is the exact thing what happened with Raskolnikov. (Tolstoy 1890, trans.Ozkan 2001: 246-247)

The detective who runs the murder investigation judges from the start that Raskolnikov is guilty. However, as he also senses Raskolnikov's conscientious values, his curiosity to learn whether or not he is a menace to society overpowers him. Nevertheless, Raskolnikov is cleansed by confessing to his crime as a Bible Christian although the only evidence proving his guilt disappeared. Eventually regardless of the fact that he killed two women with an axe, committed the premeditated murder of one victim, and voluntary manslaughter of another, he is not sentenced to life time but eight years in prison due to various extenuating circumstances, his moral values, saving a kid in the past while risking his life, and similar cases.

The "sinner" characters in Dostoevsky's novel are not as "bad" nor constitute a threat to the society and humanity as much as the characters Ivan, Rakitch or Raskolnikov do. Moreover, these characters find salvation in their guilty conscience and suffering in the presence of their sins. In this context, the relationship between sin and atonement has a redemptive function in the angle of conscience for Dostoevsky, whereas the end of those people who consider themselves as super-human free of any moral criteria and think "everything is allowable and tolerable" cannot be redemption or salvation but a definite spiritual destruction.

Sonia in *Crime and Punishment* is a "clean whore" who reveals the guilty conscience of Raskolnikov and in a way acts as a medium to save his conscience. The steep contrast between Sonia's spiritual immaculateness and social humiliation virtually acts like the symbol of deep abysses and conflicts between a man's spirit and personality.

Nevertheless, the main characteristic of Dostoevsky's novels is the plurality of independent and heterogeneous consciousnesses and voices, an authentic multivocal symphony. What is paraphrased in the novels of Dostoevsky is not the plurality of destinies and characters in one objective world enlightened by a single author consciousness. The plurality of consciousnesses each having equal rights and world of their own rather unite within the wholeness of the plot but never blend in. Dostoevsky's main characters are not merely the object of author's statement by definition of Dostoevsky's creative design, but also the subject of their own indirect interpretational statements. The image of a character created by Dostoevsky is not the familiar objectified image of traditional fiction characters. (Bakhtin 1984:48-49)

It is rarely possible to understand which character Dostoevsky sides with. Dostoevsky nearly manages to hold his voice outside or more accurately in the combination of all voices. This aspect does not expose itself as clearly as it does in Tolstoy's novels, as Dostoevsky fragments a personality and unearths it together with all its contradictions. It is therefore of significance that the most "rational" and substantial "doubts" related to God and religion in the entirety of the novel are expressed by Ivan. Ivan is a man of letters with perhaps an impulse toward faith, whose conscience continuously pricks him and, on the other hand, chooses not to believe and theorize his unbelief.

In conclusion, the concept of conscience as handled by the two distinguished authors of literature, Kafka and Dostoevsky, are not treated free of all social attachments.

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What are the Factors which Affect the Motivation to Learn to Adult Students?

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Abstract

The motivation to learn is very important for adult students. We know that, when there is no motivation to learn, there is no learning. So, it is very important to create an interesting learning climate for adult student. The aim of this paper is to present some of the factors that are influencing adult students' learning motivation and to show the predictive factor to a more significant motivation. The methodology of this paper concerns mainly the quantitative methods. The sample consists of adult students that are frequenting part-time study in some Albanian University in 2011-2012 academic years. The stage sampling is used for the selection of the sample out of the whole population. Statistical analyzes were performed using SPSS program, and more precisely, to predict motivation to learn from other factors, is used multiple regression. In conclusion, from the result it was confirmed that 36 % of the variance in dependent variable, which is motivation to learn, can be predicted from the independent variables that are establishing inclusion for adult students, engendering competence among adult students, developing positive attitude toward learning and enhancing meaning for adult students in the classrooms. The data, also, show that $F(4,302) = 43.998, p = .000$ and the variable that predicts better motivation to learning for adult students, is their perception of enhancing meaning in the classrooms.

Keywords: *The motivation to learn, adult students*

1. Introduction

Motivation to learn it is very important for adult students. This is important not only because it apparently improves learning but also because it mediates learning and is a consequence of learning as well. When learners are motivated during the learning process, things go more smoothly, communication flows, anxiety decreases, and creativity and learning are more apparent. Learners who complete a learning experience and leave the situation feeling motivated about what they have learned seem more likely to have a future interest in what they have learned and more likely to use what they have learned (Wlodkowski, 2010). On the other hand, the classrooms environment makes a crucial component of the learning process.

Learning environment is a very important feature for everyone that is involved in learning activities. This becomes more important, when we are talking for adult students, because adult students are more sensitive regarding this element. As long as adult students differ from other category of students, because they are self-directed, they use previous learning to achieve success, they learn best when they perceive the outcomes of the learning process as valuable-contributing to their own development, and they have very different ideas about what is important to learn¹, their learning environment should be students-centered. This term is used to refer to environments that pay careful attention to the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs that learners bring to the educational settings (Wlodkowski, 1999). This term, also, includes teaching practices that have been called "culturally responsive," "culturally appropriate," "culturally compatible," and "culturally relevant" (Ladson-Billings, 1995). The term also fits the concept of "diagnostic teaching", attempting to discover what adult students think in relation to the problem on hand, discussing their misconceptions sensitivity, and giving them situations to go on thinking about which will enable them to readjust their ideas (Bell, 1982).

If we refer, other authors, such as, Wilson, (1996), a learning environment is a place where people can draw upon resources to make sense out of things and construct meaningful solutions to problems. Adult students who are given generous access to information resources, books, print and video materials, and tools such as word processing programs, e-mail, search tools, etc, are ready to learn something if they are also given proper support and guidance. Under this conception, a learning environment is a place where learning is fostered and supported.

¹ "Plan instruction for adults, Module N-4" (1990). The national Centre for Research in Vocational Education.

According to Hanrahan, (1998), the learning environments factors have a very important effect on students' motivation and learning. Quantitative studies have found strong relationship between student's perceptions of the goal orientation and their own use of deep learning strategies. With high school students, are found evidence that the perception of students of their classroom goal orientation affects their beliefs in the relative value of effort and ability, and their use of effective self-regulatory strategies. Similar results were found at university level, when students' perceptions of personal empowerment and lecturer support for autonomy correlated significantly with deep approach to learning. In some survey studies, where the lecturer promoted thoughtfulness in her students by using frequent activities that required higher level thinking and considerable autonomy, the students tended to score higher on a measure of self-regulatory strategies used to monitor understanding and have been more motivated to learn (Hanrahan, 1998). Roth, Rosen and others (1992), cited in Hanrahan (1998), also showed that an explicit "learning" rather than "work" orientation, built an learning environment that improved the level of cognitive skills used by students to achieve their goal of understanding. This was achieved by challenging the students to develop their individual and collective understanding of concepts being studied, using methods such as personal and class writing and mostly students-centered discussion.

Also, according Wlodkowski (2010), organizing the essential motivational conditions in the classrooms is very important, because these conditions are responsible of creating a common culture that all learners in the learning situation can accept. For this author, the essential conditions are as follows:

1. Establishing inclusion: creating a learning atmosphere in which learners feel respectful and connected to one another.
2. Developing attitude: creating a favorable disposition toward the learning experience through personal relevance and choice.
3. Enhancing meaning: creating challenging, thoughtful learning experiences that include learners' perspective and values.
4. Engendering competence; creating an understanding that learners are effective in learning something they value.

As mentioned above, the learning environment is very important because if it created in the right way adult students can be more motivated to learn and can build positive attitude to learning. They can also construct the capability to define their needs, interests, capacities and goals. Adult learners begin to understand themselves objectively and carefully. They begin to respect and understand themselves in the way they are, and they try to improve. Also, adult learners have developed an eligible behavior and respect towards others and this behavior is the crucial point of human relationship. Adult learners now get through to individualize others' ideas and have the capability to challenge with others (Kerman, 1990).

In this logical line, lecturer to improve the learning environment conditions, should eliminate or minimize any negative conditions that surround adult students, ensure successful learning with mastery learning conditions, confronts in the positively way the erroneous beliefs, expectations, and assumptions that may underlie a negative learner attitude, using assisted learning to scaffold complex learning, promoting the learner's personal control of the context of the learning, helping learners accurately attribute their success to their capability, efforts, and knowledge, using relevant models to demonstrate expected learning, using goal-setting methods, making the learning activities an irresistible invitation to learn, and the last but not the least, using brainstorming webs developing and linking new information (Wlodkowski, 1999).

The physical environment, in which instruction takes place and the structure of the activities in the course, can also influence learning. People react differently to such factors as room temperature, arrangement of the room, and time of day in which learning activities take place, for example some people prefer early morning versus late in the day. People, also react differently to brightness of the lighting, and sound, such as sound distractions from nearby construction or talking among participant. In addition, adults differ with regard to whether they prefer to work alone or in groups. Fisher (1989) has combined all these factor to depict the various types of preferences that adult may have when they enter in the learning environment.

The aim of this article is to show the relationship between adult students' motivation to learn and their perceptions of the factors that create learning environments in classrooms, such as, establishing inclusion for adult students, engendering competence among adult students, developing positive attitude toward learning and enhancing meaning for adult students.

2. Methodology

2.1 Procedure and sample

This study has been carried out through a quantitative and a qualitative research model. In this paper are presented only the data of the quantitative research. Selection of the sample from the population is made based on the sample stage method. Initially, by means of these methods were selected four higher education institutions in the country and then was selected the sample from the group of adult students that are frequenting the part-time study in these institutions. The main population that served for this sample is made of adult students who are actually frequenting the part-time 2011-2012 academic year of the public educational system in the universities of Tirana, Korça, Elbasan and Durrës. In all the universities there are actually enrolled just 25.000 students for the four years and is also covered a sample of 400 participants from this population (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 1970, p 94).

As mentioned above, the stage probability sample is used to select the sample from this population. It concerns the selection of the sample in stages; that is, taking sample from sample. In other words, with the stage selection sample we select firstly a number of universities at random. Then within the selected universities, we randomly select a number of faculties. After this, even within the selected faculties we randomly pick the years (first year, second year, etc). Finally, we select a number of students out of the studying years. By means of this method is selected even the sample that represents the population features. Out of 400 adult students of the sample, just 130 are men and the other 270 are women, or 32.5 % are men and 67.5 % are women. The largest number of participants, i.e., 73% is between 25-39 years, followed by the 40-49 years old, which comprise 17 %. Then comes the age group up to 24 years with 6%, and in the end is the age group 50-59 years with 3.8 %. Out of 400 participants in the study, 59 % of the adult students make up the group of the married people, i.e., the largest one. Some 33.5% form the group of the unmarried, of whom 5.3 % are living with a partner and two other groups (divorced and widowers) compose only 1% of the sample.

The educational level of the participants in the study varies from 36 % who have got a high school degree to 55% who have got just the university degree and attend this school as a second university and just 8% of them have a master degree. Only 0.5 % of the adult students who are frequenting part-time studies have declared that the specialized courses mean to them a higher level of education. Out of 400 participants, 150 adult students or 37.5% are unemployed, 242 adult students or 60.5 % are employed, and only 8 students or 2% are households.

2.2 Instrument and its reliability

The instrument used for gathering the data is a questioner made of some rubrics. The questionnaire is answered by 400 respondents, who in 35-40 minutes completed it. Initially participants were informed about the purpose of the study and clarified that the data of the survey would be used only for academic purpose. Given that the perception of adult students to the establishment of all inclusive atmosphere in the classrooms, engendering competence among adult students, development of positive attitude toward learning and enhancement of understanding for adult students are the only focus of this article, only these elements of the questionnaire will be represented. Five subscales are designed to measure the perception of adult students regarding the establishment of inclusion, engendering competence, developing positive attitude toward learning and enhancing meaning for adult students and their motivation to learn. Those are set in a scalar form, where students should circle the answer from strongly disagree to strongly agree, according to their level of agreement. Thus, items such as, learners' experiences, their concerns and interests, are used to develop course content, instructor's encouragement to learners' understanding and to reveal different viewpoints, which are designed to measure adult students positive attitude toward learning (Ginsberg & Wlodkowski, 2009).

From the score calculations, for a three item scale, using a response scale from 1 to 5, the minimum value would be 3 and the maximum value would be 15. A mean score of 11.2 or higher indicates high level of positive attitude toward learning. A mean score between 7.1 and 11.1 indicates a mild level of positive attitude toward learning. A mean score below 7 indicates low level of positive attitude toward learning. Furthermore, Cronbach's alfa was run in order to assess internal consistency reliability for each of the four scales used to collect the data. The scale that has measured, perception of adult students for developing positive attitude toward learning, has a good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported .85.

Items such as, a lecture, help learners activate prior knowledge. Lectures along with learners, create opportunities for inquiry, investigation, and projects, lectures that provides opportunities for learners to actively participate in challenging way, etc, are designed to measure the perception of adult students for enhancing meaning in classrooms.

For this scale, the lowest possible mean score is 4 and the highest possible mean score is 20. A mean score of 14.7 or higher indicates high level of perceptions of adult students regarding the enhancement of meaning. A mean score between 9.4 and 14.6 indicates a mild level of perceptions of adult students regarding the enhancement of meaning. A mean score below 9.3 indicates low level of perceptions of adult students regarding this item. This scale, has preferable internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported .84.

Item such as, students and lecturer have opportunities to learn about each other, course agreements are negotiated, in class is created an environment that helps everyone feel that they belong to the class, etc, are designed to measure perception of adult students for establishing inclusion. A mean score of 11.2 or higher indicates high level of perception of adult students to the establishment of inclusion. A mean score between 7.1 and 11.1 indicates a mild level of perception of adult students to the establishment of inclusion. A mean score below 7 indicates low level of perception of adult students to the establishment of inclusion. This scale has acceptable internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported. 7.

Item such as, lecturer clearly communicates the purpose of the lesson, lecturers assess different students differently, lecturers create opportunities for students to make explicit connections between their learning and the real word, etc, are used to create a scale to measure the perception of adult students for engendering competence in classrooms (Ginsberg &Wlodkowski, 2009). This scale has acceptable internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported. 72.

3. Data analysis

The data gathered from the survey were transferred into the computer statistical package SPSS. Prior to the revision of the data, assumptions for the statistical analyses were assessed. The data have been examined for normality (skewness and kurtosis), as well as for missing data. A tow –tailed alpha level of .05 was set and used for all statistical tests.

Multiple regression statistical analysis was conduct to assess whether there is a relationship between motivation to learn for adult students and their perceptions of factors that make up the learning environments in classrooms, such as, establishing inclusion for adult students, engendering competence among adult students, developing positive attitude toward learning and enhancing meaning for adult students. The following table provides a summary of variables and the analytic procedures related to the paper question.

Table 1. Paper question, variables, and analytic procedures

Paper Question	Variables	SPSS Procedures
What is the relationship between motivation to learn for adult students and the factors that create learning environments in classrooms?	Establishing inclusion for adult students. -Engendering competence for adult students. -Developing positive attitude toward learning. -Enhancing meaning for adult students.	Multiple Regressions.

3.1 Sources of error

The way this research was carried out intended to minimize deceptive results. However, like most of the studies made in the field of adult education, even this one is self-report based. As a result, the findings depend even on the students' acquisition of the questions in the survey as well as on the degree of sincerity they have completed the instrument with.

3.2 Research ethics

During the implementation of this study, all the stages of research ethics have been followed. It has firstly been taken the permission of the structures in charge of the faculties where the instrument was conducted. Subsequently, a sensitization of the research and its goal was done to the participants before they filled the instrument. They were guaranteed anonymity and asked whether they wanted to participate voluntarily in the study. Furthermore, participants who did not want to be part of the study did not meet the instrument.

4. Results and Discussion

Table 2, illustrates the mean scores and standard deviation regarding some of the variables. Thus, the mean scores for

the perception of adult students for establishing inclusion in classrooms is ($M = 4.84$, $SD = 1.78$), their perception for the engendering competence is ($M = 10.23$, $SD = 3.63$), their perception for developing positive attitude toward learning is ($M = 7.49$, $SD = 3.10$), and their perception for enhancing meaning is ($M = 9.78$, $SD = 2.9$).

Table 2. Mean scores and SD for four variables.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Establishing inclusion for AS	360	4.84	1.78
Engendering competence for AS	345	8.91	3.63
Developing positive attitude toward learning	386	7.49	3.10
Enhancing meaning for AS	375	9.78	2.90
Valid N (listwise)	286		

As we can see, from the data the mean scores of perception of adult students for the positive attitude toward learning is 7.49 and this indicate a mild level to their positive attitude toward learning for them. The same situation is for perception of adult students to the enhancement of meaning in classrooms, where the mean score is 9.78 that indicates again a mild level of the perception for this variable. The situation is changed according to other variables, the perception of adult students for establishing inclusion in the classrooms, and the perception of the adult students for engendering competence, where the mean score indicates a low level for adult student's perceptions.

To address the paper question, multiple regression statistical analyses was conducted. This question has explored, if there is any relationship between motivation to learn for adult students and the factors that create learning environments in classrooms. Table 3, indicates that 36.7 % of the variance of students' motivation to learn, according to adult students, can be predicted from the independent variables, which in this case are the perceptions of adult students for establishing inclusion, engendering competence, developing positive attitude toward learning and enhancing meaning.

Table 3. The variance of motivation to learn for adult students.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.607 ^a	.368	.360	2.39

a. Predictors: (Constant), Enhancing meaning for AS, Establishing inclusion for AS, Engendering competence for AS, Developing positive attitude toward learning

b. Dependent Variable: Motivation to learn

The ANOVA table shows that, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(4, 302) = 43.998$, $p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .360$.

Table 4. The significance for the multiple regression model.

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1003.459	4	250.865	43.998	.000 ^a
	Residual	1721.929	302	5.702		
	Total	2725.388	306			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Enhancing meaning for AS, Establishing inclusion for AS, Engendering competence for AS, Developing positive attitude toward learning

b. Dependent Variable: Motivation to learn

An observation of individual predictor in Table 5, indicates that, perception of adult students for establishing inclusion for adult students (B = .289, p = .000), the perception of adult students for developing positive attitude toward learning (B = .150, p = .021), and the perception of adult students for enhancing meaning (B =.383, p = .000), are significant predictors of adult students' motivation to learn. This suggests that a higher level of perception of adult students for these variables is associated with higher level of motivation to learn. The perception of adult students for engendering competence (B = .06, p = .188), was not significant.

Table 5. The multiple regression model.

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.621	.564		4.646	.000
	Establishing inclusion for AS	.289	.080	.172	3.608	.000
	Engendering competence for AS	6.000E-02	.045	.073	1.320	.188
	Developing positive attitude toward learning	.150	.064	.156	2.324	.021
	Enhancing meaning for AS	.383	.072	.372	5.332	.000

^a. Dependent Variable: Motivation to learn

The multiple regression equation is:

$\hat{Y} = 2.621 + .289 * \text{perception of AS for establishing inclusion} + .06 * \text{engendering competence for adult students} + .150 * \text{developing positive attitude toward learning} + .383 * \text{enhancing meaning for adult students}.$

From the data of the model is suggested that higher level of the perception of adult students for establishing inclusion, engendering competence for adult students, developing positive attitude toward learning and enhancing meaning, are associated with higher level of motivation to learn for adult students. To each unit increase in perception of adult students toward learning, there is a corresponding increase of .289 in score in motivation to learn. To each unit increase in perception of adult students for engendering competence, there is a corresponding increase of .06 in score in motivation to learn. To each unit increase in perception of adult students for developing positive attitude toward learning, there is a corresponding increase of .150 in score in motivation to learn. To each unit increase in perception of adult students for enhancing meaning, there is a corresponding increase of .383 in score in motivation to learn.

5. Conclusions

In summary, some results can be concluded at the end of this article. From the survey conducted in the population of students, who attend part-time education in some public universities in Tirana, Korça, Elbasan, and Durrës, is drawing a sample of 400 students through the stages sampling method. Out of 400 adult students of the sample, just 130 are men and the other 270 are women, or 32.5 % are men and 67.5 % are women. It is used a Likert scale for gathering the data from the sample. Additionally, Cronbach's alpha was run in order to assess internal consistency reliability for each of the scales used to collect the data. These scales have a good internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient reported respectively, .85, .84, .7 and .72. A two tailed alpha level of .05 was set a priori and used for all statistical tests. To answer the question, if there existed any relationship between motivation to learn for adult students and the factors that create learning environments in classrooms, multiple regression analysis has been conducted. From this statistical analysis is revealed that there exists a positive relationship between perception of adult students for establishing inclusion, engendering competence for adult students, developing positive attitude toward learning and enhancing meaning in the classrooms and their motivation to learn. From the results it was confirmed that 36 % of the variance in dependent variable, which is motivation to learn, can be predicted from the independent variables that are establishing inclusion for adult students, engendering competence among adult students, developing positive attitude toward learning and enhancing meaning for adult students in the classrooms. The data, also, show that $F(4,302) = 43.998, p = .000$ and the variable that predicts better motivation to learn, is their perception to the enhancement of meaning in the classrooms

for adult students. From this result, is concluded that institutions that are offering this services should be more attentive, and work more to improve learning environment, because all these variables have a strong impact on the motivation to learn for adult students.

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Investigating the Mental Abilities of Urban Preschool Children

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Abstract

Maximising the full potential of health and educational interventions in Indian schools requires assessment of the current level of mental abilities of the preschool children as measured by cognitive and mental tests and the identification of any barriers to improved performance. The current study examined present mental abilities of 3-5 years old preschool children. This study was conducted in purposively selected preschool laboratory run under the department of Human Development and Family Studies COHS, CCSHAU Hisar district of Haryana State, India. The sample for the study comprised of fifty children and in the age group between 3-5 years enrolled in the preschool lab was selected for the present study. McCarthy Scale was administered to all 50 preschoolers to assess their mental abilities. Significant gender differences were found in the test scores, and comparatively more girls (30%) were mentally below their chronological age than boys (26.66%). Regarding performance on different mental abilities it was observed that on perceptual abilities the performance was better than standard on block building, tapping sequence and poor on puzzle solving, draw a design, draw a child and conceptual grouping. Further for verbal abilities it is concluded that children had better performance on pictorial memory and word knowledge and lagged behind on verbal memory aspect. For quantitative abilities the selected children were better on number question and numerical memory but poor on counting and solving. This implies that there is a need to educate the parents and school teachers and administrators to provide a congenial environment to facilitate overall development. A need to educate and equip the teachers with skills in offering the pre-school programme. There is also a need to appraise the early childhood education specialists and social workers, service personnel to offer good quality and meaningful programme for young children affordable by all socio-economic groups.

Keywords: *perceptual abilities*

1. Introduction

The development of our children is a true indicator of our progress. Young children are now recognised as the first call on the agenda of development, not only because this is a desirable societal investment in the nation's future human resource development, but also because early childhood is both the most vulnerable and the most crucial period when the foundations are laid for cumulative life-long learning and human development.

The first five years of life are crucial for physical, social, emotional, cognitive and language development of the child because during this period the foundation for all later development is laid. The child is highly receptive to the environment and learning potentials are at its peak. In relation to the general level intelligence reached at the age of 21, about 50 per cent of aptitudes are already fixed at the age of 4, the following 30 per cent are achieved between 4 and 8 years and the remaining 20 per cent between 8-21 years. Piaget believe that cognitive process develop in an orderly sequence and depends on maturation of brain and interactions with their environment. Further its outcome depends on the quality of children experiences both inside and outside of the formal classroom because young children go through a series of psychosocial and neurobiological changes. Children's ability to acquire knowledge and then use it effectively to plan, monitor and evaluate their own capabilities is better ensured during early years of life (Murlidharn and Asthana, 1991). Environment during 3-6 years of life is very significant for cognitive development. Therefore, all kinds of facilities should be provided to the child to explore, to inquire, to play and to interact with his peers for optimum development.

In the preschool period mental development is characterized by the rapid expansion of cognitive abilities. A number of cognitive capacities critical to child's overall intelligence begin to develop during this period. This includes

early development of concepts, attention, relational abilities and perceptual maturation. The concepts that a child develops are many basic concepts in children's cognitive development include those rational concepts that children use to describe what they see, hear and feel. A child's ability to understand and use these concepts is considered essential not only to school learning but also to following verbal instructions.

Early experiences of interaction with insensitive material predicted the persistence of poorer cognitive functioning (Lynne et. al.2006). Allowing preschool aged children to discover and explore freely is the foundation for developmental learning and there is an ample amount of evidence of positive impact which preschool has in the development of cognition. The sensitive period is universally recognized as the most plastic, impressionable and educationally potent period of child's life as much of child's mental development takes place during this period. Therefore, this study was conducted with a broad objective to assess the present mental abilities of 3-5 years old preschool children.

The present study was planned with the following specific objectives:

1. To assess the mental age of preschoolers.
2. To study the performance of preschool children on perceptual abilities.
3. To study the performance of preschool children on verbal abilities.
4. To study the performance of preschool children on quantitative abilities.

2. Methodology

2.1 Sample

For the present investigation a sample of 50 children in the age range of (3-5 years) was purposively drawn from preschool laboratory run under the department of HDFSS, college of Home Science, CCSHAU Hisar.

2.2 Tools

A McCarthy scale of Children's Abilities (MSCA) designed by McCarthy (1972) was used to assess the general abilities of preschool children. The MSCA contains 18 separate tests which assess child's ability in a variety of crucial areas. The test has been grouped into six scales: verbal, perceptual performance, quantitative, general cognitive, memory and motor. For each of the six scales the child's raw score is converted into scaled score, called an index according to his or her chronological age.

- a) Verbal scale (V) - constituting this scale assess the child's ability to express himself verbally and also assess the maturity of his verbal concepts. The test in verbal scale are pictorial memory, word knowledge, verbal memory, verbal fluency and opposite analogies.
- b) Perceptual performance scale (P) – This consist of game like tasks which don't require the child to speak, assesses his reasoning ability through the manipulation of materials. Tests are block building, puzzle solving, tapping sequence, right left orientation, draw a design, draw a child, conceptual grouping.
- c) Quantitative scale (Q) - This scale measures the child's facility with numbers and his understanding of quantitative words. Item content is closely related to children's interests and each item requires only a single step rather than a sequential process for solution. Item of test are- number questions, numerical memory, counting and sorting.
- d) General cognitive scale (GC) - is composed of all the tests in the V, P and Q scales. Each task is cognitive in nature and the scale as a whole provides a measure of the child's overall cognitive functioning. Only three of the eighteen tests in the McCarthy scales- Leg coordination, Arm coordination and Imitative Action- are not included on this GC scale because they involve gross motor rather than cognitive ability.
- e) Memory scale (Mem) - It assesses the child's short term memory. The Pictorial Memory and Tapping Sequence test present auditory and visual stimuli simultaneously; the Verbal and Numerical Memory tasks provide auditory stimuli only.
- f) Motor scale (Mot)- It assesses the child's coordination as he performs a variety of gross and fine motor tasks. The Leg Coordination, Arm Coordination and Imitative Action tests provide measures of gross motor ability. Draw- A- Design and Draw-A-Child assess fine motor coordination.

These contents of scale are designed to be suitable for both the sexes and culture free.

2.3 Scoring

Scoring of MSCA was done using the standard procedure given in the scale. Data on general information of children were also collected with the help of developed questionnaire.

2.4 Analyses

The raw score were converted into scale index score for analysis purpose. Mean and percentages were calculated to find out the personal profile of children. T test, chi square and correlation was also applied to judge the differences.

3. Results and Discussion

The data were analyzed and interpreted objective-wise as follows:

3.1 Personal Profile of Respondents:

Analyses revealed that 60% respondents were in the age range of 3-4 years and 40% above the age of 4 years. Ratio of male and female respondents was 60:40. Majority of children (72%) were 1st born and rest were 2nd born. Data further highlighted that 68% respondents spent their 1st year in same lab nursery school followed by 2nd and more years (32%). Regarding education of parents 92% mothers and 88% fathers were graduate and above graduate followed by 8% and 12% educated up to 12th standard. Further data on parental occupation showed that 50% equal mothers which of were housewife and in service, whereas, 78% fathers were doing job and other 22% were busy in agriculture or in self business. More than fifty percent respondents (56%) belonged to nuclear family, having small sized family (58%) and remaining 44% belonged to joint and medium size of family (42%). Data in table further reveals that majority of children were having only one sibling (86%) and rest 14% were having 2 siblings.

3.2 Mental age of preschoolers

The mental age of the child was calculated against their score index and was compared with their chronological age. When gender wise distribution of respondents for their mental age against chronological age was analyzed, the data in table 1 highlighted that comparatively more girls (30%) were mentally below their

Table 1. Gender wise Frequency Distribution of children for their mental age against Chronological age

Category mental age	Male f (%)	Female f (%)	Total f (%)
Below chronological age	08 (26.66)	06(30.00)	14(28.00)
Equal to chronological age	07(23.33)	03(15.00)	10(20.00)
Above chronological age	15(50.00)	11(55.00)	26(52.00)
Total	30	20	50

Chronological age than boys (26.66%). Further higher percentage (23.33%) of boys had their mental age equal to their chronological age. Almost equal percentage of boys (50%) and girls (55%) were above chronological in their mental age. On the whole boys had superior mental age against their counterparts.

The results in table highlight that out of the total sample, 10 children (20%) had their mental age, equal to their chronological age indicating their development as per the norms. Further it was highlighted that 26 children (52 %) were having their mental age, above their chronological age, which indicate that these children had superior mental abilities when compared with the norms. Data further indicated that 28 percent children lagged behind in their mental abilities as their mental age was below than their chronological age. These are the children who require immediate intervention to improve their mental abilities.

3.3 Performance of preschool children on perceptual abilities

Age wise performance of the children has been shown in table 2 on various items, under perceptual abilities against the standards. Analysis of data for children in

Table 2. Age wise performance of children on perceptual abilities

Aspects \ Age(yrs)	<3		=3 to <4		=4 <5		=5>5	
	Mean		Mean		Mean		Mean	
	Calculated	Standard	Calculated	Standard	Calculated	Standard	Calculated	Standard
Block Building	6.6	5.5	8.29	7.1	9.73	9.3	10.0	9.5
Puzzle Solving	1.0	1.45	2	3.8	2.8	8.5	9.0	10.7
Tapping Sequence	2.7	1.4	2.47	2.1	5.8	3.5	5.5	4.0
Right-left rientation	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.25	6.1
Draw-A-Design	1.7	1.8	3.09	4.02	5.73	6.7	7.75	8.0
Draw-A-Child	0.4	1.1	2.05	3.05	6.4	8.0	7.5	9.1
Conceptual rrouping	2.0	2.3	3.23	5.4	6.26	7.6	6.75	7.6

all age groups revealed that children had superior performance against the standards on block building, tapping sequence, whereas, they lagged behind their age standards in puzzle solving, draw a design, draw a child and conceptual grouping.

3.4 Performance of preschool children on verbal abilities

Performance of children against different age group for verbal abilities has been depicted in table 3.

Table 3. Age wise performance of children on verbal abilities.

Aspects \ Age(Yrs)	<3		=3 to <4		=4 <5		=5>5	
	Mean		Mean		Mean		Mean	
	Calculated	Standard	Calculated	Standard	Calculated	Standard	Calculated	Standard
Pictorial Memory	2.5	1.8	4.05	2.2	5.53	3.6	5.5	3.6
Verbal Memory	1.7	6.5	3.09	12.2	3.4	22.0	11.5	22.0
Word Knowledge	9.2	8.8	12	11	15.6	16.1	14.5	16.1

Surprisingly as the age group increased the differences in their performance and standards on items they lagged behind widened. Mean comparison on different items against the standard mean on pictorial memory pointed out that children in all the age group had high mean performance against the standard mean highlighting better pictorial memory skills of selected children. Further performance of children in age groups <3 yrs and >3 to <4 years for word knowledge was higher in comparison to standard mean, whereas the children of higher age groups (=>4 to <5, =5 to >5) were below than the standard mean on word knowledge aspect. As far as the verbal memory aspect is concerned, children in all the age groups had poor performance against the standards.

3.5 Performance of preschool children on quantitative abilities

The quantitative abilities of children against the standards of different age groups have been presented in table 4. The results highlight that children's performance in various age groups on number questions and numerical memory was higher than the standards norms. However, a reverse trend was seen for counting and sorting aspect, where poor performance of selected children was seen when compared with standards in all age groups.

Table 4. Age wise performance of children on quantitative scale of general ability

Aspects	<3		=3 to <4		=4 <5		=5>5	
	Mean		Mean		Mean		Mean	
	Calculated	Standard	Calculated	Standard	Calculated	Standard	Calculated	Standard
Number Question	3.6	2.4	5.8	3.1	8.13	4.4	10.5	4.5
Counting & Sorting	1.0	1.3	3	4.1	4	6.3	4.75	6.3
Numerical Memory (forwarded & backward series)	2.6	2.2	6.85	4.6	9.33	5.9	13	7.5

From the tables of comparison of selected children performance with standard, it is concluded that under perceptual abilities the performance was better than standard on block building, tapping sequence and poor on puzzle solving, draw a design, draw a child and conceptual grouping. Further for verbal abilities it is concluded that children had better performance on pictorial memory and word knowledge and lagged behind on verbal memory aspect. For quantitative abilities the selected children were better on number question and numerical memory but poor on counting and solving. Kumari and Chikkara (1995) carried out a study on levels of cognitive abilities among pre-schoolers. Results revealed that, the concepts of matching, object assembling, textures, discrimination, verbal identification and conceptual development of size, speed, shape, colour were performed by majority of the pre-schoolers. Further, results indicated that children performed better on lower order concepts as compared to higher order concepts. The sample consisted of 80 pre-schoolers of 3-6 years from eight randomly selected Anganwadis of Haryana.

So it is suggested that the curriculum of Lab. nursery needs to lay emphasis while planning activity plan on the areas where majority of children performed poor against the norms.

In contrast Sharma and Gulati (2013) found that female had better verbal ability as compared to males and thus significant differences were observed in verbal ability.

Further analyses showed that majority of male and female had below average perceptual skills (70% and 75% respectively), quantitative ability (90% both male and female) and memory skills (57% and 70% respectively). Whereas, in motor skills, 60% males and 70% females had performed on average level. Gender differences in distribution of sample as per level of cognitive abilities were not found significant in all the aspects.

In contrary Wallentin (2009) and Sharma and Gulati (2013) concluded that women tend to be better than men in reading, identifying matching items, perceptual speed and verbal fluency and significant differences between male and female were observed in all the aspects.

The outcome and inferences of this study is interesting and worth noting in the sense that no significant gender differences were found in all the aspects of general abilities of preschool children. The possible reason may be given that children who were enrolled in preschool lab receiving similar exposure or both male and female children are coming from similar background families. All the children had spent more than one year time in preschool. The performance of children on all the aspects of general abilities was observed average and below average.

In the light of above results it can be suggested that intervention should be given to children to enhance their general ability skills. Parents should also be given intervention so that they can easily identify their children's ability that in which aspect child is poor so that they can also improve their skills in time.

4. Conclusion

It is quite obvious that the situation as indicated by the study is alarming and the data given here clearly indicates variations in different mental abilities of preschool children. Regarding performance on different mental abilities it was observed that on perceptual abilities the performance was better than standard on block building, tapping sequence and poor on puzzle solving, draw a design, draw a child and conceptual grouping. Further for verbal abilities it is concluded that children had better performance on pictorial memory and word knowledge and lagged behind on verbal memory aspect. For quantitative abilities the selected children were better on number question and numerical memory but poor on counting and solving.

5. Recommendations for improving mental abilities of preschoolers

- The importance of nutritional balance with foods that provide a high yield of vitamins and minerals cannot be overstated when it comes to enhancing your child's mental capabilities. Better-nourished children simply

- function more effectively on a cognitive level.
- Physical activity, including to your children helps nurture a love of language and promotes bonding both of which optimize a child's intellectual potential.
 - Engaging your children in conversation playing sports, boosts blood flow to all parts of the body, including the brain. When the brain is supplied with freshly oxygenated blood, concentration, thinking speed and complex reasoning are all enhanced.
 - Create a Stimulating Environment.
 - It's no big news flash that reading helps develop their language and vocabulary skills.
 - Playing games that stimulate the mind, particularly those that make use of strategy, will build verbal skills, plus improve powers of concentration, perception and reasoning.
 - One of the most efficient and effective methods for stimulating a child's mental processes and performance is controlled breathing. Controlled breathing increases oxygen flow to the brain, which in turn boosts memory, concentration and problem-solving abilities.
 - Create an Empowering Internal Dialogue. A positive internal dialogue can dramatically enhance intellectual performance.

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Student Satisfaction and Learning Needs in Distant Education: Towards Lecturers' Pedagogical Strategies and Attitude

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Abstract

Blended learning involves both traditional face to face classroom teaching and e-learning approach. To date, past research in Malaysia focused much on the effectiveness and acceptance of e-learning (Ndubisi, 2006); attitude towards e-MBA (Mahmod, Dahlan, Ramayah, Karia, Asaari, Muhammad & Abu Hassan, 2005) as well as factors affecting students' willingness and commitment to use e-learning continuously (Ramayah, et. al.; 2010). However, the system can only be accepted by students when there are effective teaching strategies. Further, learning structure must be well-structured to enable students to persist and maintain their engagement in the e-learning environment. The present study has investigated student learning via the use of e-learning and face to face approaches. The major focus of this study was to examine the students' experiences and their level of satisfaction via quantitative and qualitative methods. Using self constructed questionnaire, the satisfaction of student learning is determined by the lecturer's teaching strategies and lecturer's attitude or awareness towards the whole concept of distant learning itself. The samples of the quantitative study involved 400 students majoring in English Language, Counselling and Islamic Education at one of the faculties in a Public University in Malaysia which was analysed using Multiple regression analyses. The qualitative study focused on interviews related to students' satisfaction based on Michael Moore's Theory of Transactional Distance related to lecturer and learning management system (LMS). Findings from this study indicated satisfaction in learning at the University via blended mode of distant learning approach. However, some of the emerging themes from the interviews have further highlighted the issues and challenges in distant education.

Keywords: *transactional theory, e-learning, blended learning, Learning management system, distant education*

1. Introduction

Distant education evolves parallel to the advancement of technology. Previous years have shown the evolution of distant education as a second opportunity to learn via the use of postal correspondence, video, web based learning and blended mode of face to face with online approach. The success and failure of a program depend highly on the learning infrastructure, quality of support systems, content and assessment, and peer support networks (Areti, 2006; Moore, 1993). On the other hand previous researches have emphasized on interaction as the main predictor of a success online distant education. Literature has shown that student feedback is essential in providing information on the effectiveness of distant education. This is consistent with claims made by Biggs (2006) and Clayton (2004) who indicated that the feedback can provide important information on what works and which needs to be intervened.

Previous studies have addressed the effectiveness of distant education by evaluating the effectiveness of LMS (Khadijah, Siti Aswani, Mohd Nasir Ismail, 2012). Others include student satisfaction in learning at distant via on line (Walker, 2005). However, different learning management system will result in different feedback and satisfaction of learners. This study seeks to examine the effectiveness of distant education at International Islamic University specifically at the Institute of Education. The element of effectiveness was examined based on students' feedback of their learning

experience using LMS and teaching strategies. Further lecturer's attitude in supporting the students is highlighted.

2. Effective distant education: design and practice

Moore (1993) emphasized much on interactions in online learning. He refers to three modes of interactions namely; student-student, student-content and student-teacher. These interactions predict the success of distant education as they allow students to share their knowledge, experience and thoughts in the collaborative learning environment. This teaching-learning embraces the constructivist approach of learning as proposed by Vygotsky (1978) in that learning takes place through interactions with others. This suggests that 'internal speech and reflective thought arise from the interactions provide the source of development of a child' (p. 35). Vygotsky has elaborated much on the concept of learning among children and their development. However, this theory has extended to distant education specifically online learning approach which caters adult learners through the social interaction networks.

The design of content and its interactivity relates to the use of technology namely Learning Management System (LMS). It allows collaborative tools such as forum, chat tools and others to ensure students can interact and collaborate to complete a project. Ineffective LMS will diminish student's motivation and to be persistent in learning due to the failure of student's communication, late feedback from the lecturers and difficulty to download files and content. Thus, it impedes student's autonomous learning in that students are unable to self regulate their own learning process. Lee and Lee (2008) have shown positive relationship between self regulatory and e-learning quality via LMS.

Teaching strategy is said to be the main predictor of effective e-learning or online learning and distant education (DeBourgh, 1999). Rosenberg (2001) and Garrison (2011) have elaborated on the importance of teaching strategies in e-learning environment. They stressed on the need to strategise the effective method in delivering knowledge to the learners. These include support and teacher readiness to deliver the information online.

3. Methodology

The study utilized a triangulation approach where a survey was carried out among 400 samples from a teaching faculty in a Public University studying for bachelor degree in English language, counseling and Islamic Education. Student responses towards their learning satisfaction and experience were derived from a self constructed questionnaire. The dependent variable involved was student satisfaction and predicted by two variables namely; teaching strategies and lecturer's attitude or awareness towards distant learner. The detail of items is revealed in the following Table 1.0. In order to gain insight of the findings, two second year students (one male and one female) were interviewed. The interview sessions took place at the faculty. All the questions were based on student satisfaction toward the program. To be more focused, Moore's theory of transactional distant (1999) was used to underpin the framework of interactions in distant education. These questions were formulated with open ended format so as to allow students to elaborate further. The interview has been taped, transcribed and validated by the student.

3.1 Analysis procedure

Descriptive statistics are elaborated with mean and standard deviation to reveal the robust response and variation of the students' feedback. Despite the fact that the selection is based on purposive and convenient sampling procedure, the results have been addressed carefully by ascertaining the internal reliability estimates of the constructs investigated (Cronbach Alpha) and considering their significance as well. Linear regression was used to obtain the model fit using variance explain (R^2). The probability of $p < .01$ was used to ensure high significant level for the relationships between independent and dependent variable. The interview was themed according to the interaction of student, lecturer and technology of LMS. These interactions signify the satisfaction of distant learners. Findings from both approaches were then triangulated (compared and merged) to ensure robust explanation.

4. Results

Findings from the survey revealed overall satisfaction on the distant education program, teaching strategies employed, and positive attitude of the lecturers. These were based on the students' responses whereby the mean distributions (5-Likert scale) ranged from a low of 3.57 and a high score of 4.33. The lowest mean is revealed from 'refer student to the office when technical problems arise' (3.57). The highest mean score is revealed from 'good communication skills'. The

distribution of data among 400 respondents is well dispersed of standard deviation from a low .491 to .898. Table 1.0 tabulates the means, standard deviations and detail of the items.

The overall satisfaction of distant education is explained by the following items; *Blended mode is fascinating, Blended mode helps me to upgrade my skills in school, Blended mode helps me to learn effectively and Blended mode gives positive impact and Overall program is effective*.

The lecturer's attitude is explained by the following behavioural attributes: *"Good communication skills, Refer student to office when technical problems arise, Provide announcement and update information and Prepare notes early*".

Effective teaching strategies are explained as follows: *'knowledge, good teaching strategies, good explanation, give immediate feedback online, give announcements and updates, content of teaching is parallel with course requirement, notes are suitable, and teaching is well structured'*.

These three factors namely overall satisfaction of distant education, lecturer's attitude, and lecturer's teaching strategies are analysed using linear multiple regression from the computed total mean score. Table 2.0 reveals the results.

Table 1: mean distribution of items

Descriptive Statistics		
	Mean	Std. Deviation
Good teaching strategies	4.2150	.68553
Good explanation	4.1575	.72734
Manage to pull interest and attention	4.1375	.74160
Good communication skills	4.3275	.68660
Satisfied with teaching	4.2350	.69713
Give feedback and comments online	3.7850	.89766
Prepare notes early	4.1550	.84425
Provide announcement and update information	4.0925	.70369
Refer student to office when technical problems arise	3.5650	.79205
Give explanation online when needed	3.9600	.78098
Subject/course is overall satisfactory	4.0850	.76107
Notes given are suitable with course requirement	4.2550	.60902
Teaching is well structured	4.1575	.65480
Classroom and online learning blends effectively	3.9225	.77975
Blended mode program is fascinating	4.0825	.70848
Blended mode program helps me to upgrade my skills in school	4.0725	.66960
Blended mode program helps me to learn effectively	4.0100	.71846
Blended mode program gives positive impact	4.2100	.62199
Overall program is effective	4.2650	.62108
Total mean		
Attitude	4.0350	.55298
Satisfaction	4.1357	.49884
Strategies	4.2014	.49138

Table 2: linear relationship between lecturer's attitude and teaching strategies towards student satisfaction

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.804	.140		5.731	.000
	attitude	.136	.042	.150	3.232	.001
	strategies	.663	.047	.653	14.044	.000*

a. Dependent Variable: satisfaction

Note: * significant at $p < 0.01$

Table 3: Variance explain of the model summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.769 ^a	.591	.589	.31986
a. Predictors: (Constant), strategies, attitude				

Table 2.0 is derived from linear regression where attitude and strategies are independent variables and satisfaction is the dependent variable. A significant relationship at $p < 0.01$ is shown in lecturer's strategies in teaching blended mode (face to face and e-learning) with student satisfaction. However, lecturer's attitude does not affect significantly on student satisfaction. This finding is consistent with finding by DeBourgh (1999) who found that pedagogy was the only predictor to student satisfaction which contributes to the variance explained. Table 3.0 provides the model summary where 76.9% variance of the model is explained by the teaching strategies. These results were compared to findings derived from the interviews conducted on two second year students; ($n = 1$ female and $n = 1$ male). Interview questions were focused on the nature of lecturer-student interaction and lecturer's awareness in providing support for these students.

4.1 Satisfaction in blended mode distant learning

Satisfaction in learning depends highly on teaching strategies and lecturer's awareness in supporting students. The support includes providing good communication among lecturer and student; giving notes early and update information clearly. The quantitative finding indicate a strong relationship of teaching strategies and satisfaction ($\beta = .653$). Based on the interviews, more information on the lecturer's attitude in giving support is discussed. Both interviewees were aware of the student-teacher interactions that took place in distance learning education. They frequently highlighted on the importance of *further attention* is needed in the two-ways interactions.

According to A1,

"I learnt the subject course from the lecturers... participate with the lecturers online. Not only through books but also the technology."

According to B1,

"it is easy to get notes from our lecturers, even information regarding our studies...but to certain extent it does not.. because sometimes it is not interactive for us to communicate with our colleagues and lecturers."

B1 relates to the notion that there has been a delay on the feedback given. Thus, sometimes he hopes for an immediate feedback whenever he needs immediate answer or help. Both of the interviewees view interaction differently. A1 relates to Learning Management System (LMS) as the means of communication. She is happy whenever she finds it easy to retrieve notes from LMS. However, B1 displays element of disappointment especially when it relates to LMS which according to him fails to allow students to interact with other students in forum section effectively. To ensure that an effective dialogue in an online learning environment, "each party in a dialogue is respectful and an active listener; each is a contributor, and builds on the contributions of the other party or parties" (Moore, 1993, p. 24). Thus, there were mix perceptions on the effectiveness of online communication. The former involves the system and the latter involves the lecturer. There have been many occasions whereby the lecturers treated and assisted their learners seriously. These include providing social network interaction in Facebook, to replace the forum in the LMS, create good rapport with the students by allowing students to communicate via phones and extending their time in the classroom to discuss any arising problems. To address the different learning styles of the distance learners, distant learning administrators and lecturers need to provide immediate feedback during the online communication process. As mentioned by Moore (1993,p.25) "by manipulating communications media, it is possible to increase dialogue between learners and their teachers, and thus reduce the transactional distance".

A1 is satisfied with the online academic support whereby she claims;

"It is like you are there with her alone, learning... it is satisfying."

She appreciates that she gets the personal (one to one) attention from the lecturers in answering to her academic enquiries via the LMS. Likewise in traditional classroom, there are many students who least get this type of attention. A1

feels that when the lecturers are online, they are at their best in attending to the students' academic needs. B1 however commented that;

"the LMS was always down... and the due date was over.."

"the lecturers who taught me... frequently use the LMS (160%) and were also having similar problems with the system as they have uploaded the documents but we couldn't retrieve them from our document site."

In response to the technical problem, he would summon the technical staff from the academic affairs office. Lecturers were sometimes reluctant to be involved in the technical support issue as they were also having similar problems and were not competent enough to troubleshoot these technical problems.

Learning satisfaction is derived from the students' ability to be autonomous in learning. "Learner autonomy is the extent to which the learner as opposed to the teacher is able to determine the goals, the learning experiences and the evaluation decisions of the learning programme" (Moore, 1993, p. 31). In distant learning environment, students can decide on the content, the experience and the evaluation criteria of their studies. However under the constraint where the curriculum content is compressed from the normal course outline, students can only be autonomous in terms of approaching the way they wish to study and from their own experience in the course they are taking. A1 asserted that;

" learning could be improvised by inviting all TESL4 students to participate in the forums and to ensure that every participation will rated fairly (marks) for their efforts."

This is due to the fact that she wants to have open discussions and help from friends or colleagues. B1 gave similar suggestions and recommended that

"having an interactive section in the LMS would be very much.. celebrated by me because I need to regularly contact my group members and the lecturers ... to get clarifications or to clarify a few matters.. regarding my task may be I lacked in understanding certain matters..."

He also explains that

"we can't seem to be able to get together in the system..ie. the forum section.. once you have answered one forum, it is difficult to get others to reply or to partake in what you are saying."

4.2 Teaching strategies in distant education

Based on the descriptive statistics in Table 1.0, the results indicate that the mean scores are greater than 4.0 except for 'give immediate feedback online' with only 3.789. Thus, majority of the students did not show high agreement towards their lecturers in providing immediate feedback. Both students complained on the feedback given by the lecturers were very slow. Sometimes they waited far too long to get the response in the forum or quizzes. On the strategies of the lecturers, they responded:

'...we want experience lecturers to teach. We have problem with the foreigners or even the local lecturers who speak English most of the time'

'however, when asked to explain in Malay language, they are willing to explain in Malay. Yet, all the notes are in English language, so it's a problem for us'

'The university should honour our own language'

*'some lecturers said that we are adults, solve your own problems'
'too much assignment'*

The positive feedback is:

' lecturers are good but there is no module'

Suggestions are made from both of the interviewees which include exam time table should not be scheduled during school period, and not too far from each subject. This is due to their working hours that they need to take leave

from schools. Further, they have to come many times for the exam. They also request for;

- i. Less subject for each semester
- ii. Face to face classroom time should be extended
- iii. Integrating Facebook is beneficial
- iv. More classroom meeting is needed rather than just 3 to four times in a semester.

4.3 Lecturer's attitude

With respect to lecturer's attitude, the mean scores are greater than 4.0. This suggests high agreement in lecturer's positive attitude. Both interviewees seemed satisfied with their lecturers in terms of their abilities to display 'Good communication skills, Refer student to office when technical problems arise, Provide announcement and update information and Prepare notes early'. The lectures are aware of their responsibilities and the students gave two thumbs up when they were asked about the lecturer's attitude. Similar comments came from A1:

'learning at this University is the best experience I could ever have. The lecturers are friendly'
'lecturers prepare notes before coming to class'
'lecturer gives information in the LMS announcement'

B1 too agrees on the learning experience whereby he frequently comes in contact with good and friendly lecturers who are easily approachable. In short, the lecturers are able to create a warm learning environment which is adequately organized, structured, and flexible in that it encourages inquiry in the learning process (Starr-Glass, 2012).

5. Discussion and conclusion

This study has investigated student satisfaction and capturing their needs in the distant education via blended learning at the Government University in Malaysia. The quantitative findings indicate overall satisfaction in learning online and classroom face to face. However, a strong relationship between lecturer's teaching strategies and student satisfaction was captured. On the contrary, lecturer's attitude did not significantly affect the student satisfaction in learning. Parallel with Debourgh (1999)'s findings, pedagogy plays the most important role in promoting effectiveness in distant learning. When this study further dwelled on this issue, findings from the qualitative data indicated that the students were happy to study at the University via blended mode of distant education. They were persistent to learn despite the challenges of time, language, and being away from their families and the stressful working life. As they are adult learners, they expect the university authority to consider their plights seriously that is by considering their employer's needs when planning the examination schedule, allowed to register for minimum number subjects to be learnt for each semester, the use of mother tongue in daily classroom communication, provision of module for effective learning, extent the face to face classroom time and contact. They did not welcome too many group work assignment. They wanted to have only one assignment to focus on since there are too many subjects to be taken in a semester. As far as possible, the students request for three subjects only in a semester.

Despite the fact that e-learning emphasized heavily on communication and interactions (Moore, 1999; Ravenscroft, 2001), emerging themes derived from this study have shown factors affecting student satisfaction. These include number of assignments, schedule of exams, and number of subjects to be learnt in a semester. Immediate feedback and response do not only rely on the learning management system (LMS) but also on the lecturer's attitude in providing the means for communication. The LMS in the University seems to have many short comings such as limited access and space to frequent forum discussions, too time consuming to download files, and trouble shootings. Thus, the lecturer must be able to accommodate the short comings through integrating collaborative tools in communication which include chat room via Yahoo Messenger, Facebook and other social networks. Thus, high demanding work load among the lecturers who teach distant education need to be properly addressed by the University. Since online communication is crucial, the lecturers must at all times be ready to give feedback and response to students' grievances and problems in learning. Without effective communication and relationship with the lecturers, students are at lost and will not able to become full-fledged self-regulated learners. Self regulated learning involves less constrained learning environment (McGillivray, & Castel, 2011). McGillivray relates the importance of self regulated learning as one of the conditions where older adult can efficiently learn to employ meta-cognitive strategies which enhance and enable them to recall selected information.

The findings indicate a strong implication on the theory of distant education where types of assignment and

assessment need to be further examined. Further intervention from the university is needed in preparing notes or module for the learners' use. On the other hand, language may hinder and impede student motivation in becoming a persistent learner.

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An Evaluation about Television Serials in Turkey in the Context of Parasocial Interaction

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Abstract

Parasocial Interaction consists of an important part of interaction realized by using media. Audience's interaction with characters in fiction of serials is called as parasocial interaction. Audiences usually identify themselves with characters of popular television serials and they accept these characters as members of their own family. Because of having difficulty in separation of temporal and spatial borders in their own real life, such masses' discourse and conscious is determined by media. At this point, television serials have become a common place in which parasocial interaction is experienced mostly. These serials have a scheduled broadcasting policy and audiences are turned to addiction by using some kinds of textual and narrative methods. Consequently, by identifying themselves with serial characters, audiences are not able to realize the line between reality and fiction. In the content of this study, serials broadcasted in Turkish televisions will be evaluated in the context of parasocial interaction by using current examples. As from acceptance that serials as popular culture material reduce the possibilities of social interaction in society, this study aims to show main lines and dimensions of the relation between television and person who is so lonely in modern society. By resting literature review as scientific method, this study states that how Turkish audiences are retreated into the process of popular culture by using television serials in terms of parasocial interaction concept.

Keywords: Parasocial Interaction, Popular Culture, Television, Television Serials.

1. Introduction

In the studies executed related to the significance of television on social life, this magic box is seen to be the most commonly used mass medium. When data related to both possession of television and spending time watching television is considered, television is in the core of communication. One of the most significant free time activities of developing countries is watching television. Mostly, people live in interlocking position with television more than their families. Thus, Naci Bostancı (1998:148), one of the significant researchers in the field of communication, resembles the interest of population towards television to a religious ceremony: "If all the buildings of a country were transparent, we could see the people in all the houses sitting their face turned towards television for long hours after 7 pm. Isn't there an air of ritual in this position which we can dream even if we can't see?"

Nowadays, television has moved beyond the characteristics of being only a technological tool and became a phenomenon which is essential for all humanity and brands the social life (Karahana Uslu, 1999:9). When considered from this point of view, the target group which spend a lot of time watching television encounter scraps of "reality" which are estranged but having a dramatic construction inside them and even based on a tragic element (Mutlu, 2005:78). Every farmable thing on the television which jerks the audience over those scraps and most of the repeatable things turns the television into an inevitable "show". From this point of view, it is not surprising to perceive the aforementioned tool as a substantial entertainment tool and a source for imaginary stories (Esslin, 1991:18).

One of the most significant aspects of the television is entertainment focused structuring. With this dimension, television is claimed to ground a comprehension focusing on entertainment and entertain. No doubt, acquainting information is a necessity but even this necessity is expected to be given in the magic world of television without tiring. "Being entertaining" is the indispensable principle of the commercial broadcasting; because, the most significant key of being watched a lot is to entertain people and make them dependent to television through reducing their distress. It shouldn't be overlooked, however, that this is the relation type which is preferred by the government. Because, entertaining individuals rarely find opportunity to think and they unwittingly reproduce the dominant expression in the social life (Bal, 2007:1).

The emergence of the television in the twentieth century changed the pattern of social relations from many

aspects. Especially, the meaning of the term free time was reshaped within the context of television. As an effective tool of free time and entertainment, television has started to play an important role through reshaping the daily life, namely, changing the lifestyle habits of people and provide a new meaning and dimension to the concept of consumption. Coming out against television which is a tool of mass communication has gained different dimensions in the course of time. Television which is the biggest audit tool and has an important role in the formation and maintenance of popular culture employs the blinks of a cultural democratization for some people while it spreads the ideology of the capitalist society, reveals a society with single dimension and leads the formation of crowds (Çağan, 2003:79).

Of course, it is not a correct approach to qualify a mass communication tool completely positive or completely negative. Hence, television emerges as a social phenomenon which is to be considered in this path. In accordance with the limitedness of our study, this study has been focused on the television serials in terms of parasocial interaction pattern. This research which has been enriched with the support of a few examples aims to tackle the controversial relations of the modern humans who struggle with the problems of daily life with media in general as an escape and the television serials in particular.

2. The Relations between Modern Human Getting Lonely and Television

During the modern era, people live within a large network of social relations. The lifelong changes (loss of relatives due to the reasons such as moving, divorce, leaving the house, and death etc.) may lead to significant changes in both quality and quantity of those social relations. Moreover, there may be differences between the expectations of the individuals and results they have achieved related to the quality and quantity of the social relations. Significant social changes and personality characteristics (demography, bashfulness, lack of self-esteem etc) lead the widening of this difference and living the hurtful and depressive mood which is called lonesome. Lonesome not only causes people feel unhappy, insecure, depressive and more fragile to threats, generally maintain a hostile act towards their environment but also threatens the social health since it prevents people from social interaction (Çakır and Çakır, 2011:131). As a result of the decrease in the dependency on definite believes of the people in the world, transformation of individuals into regimented atomized creatures, the decrease in the capacity of religious and political institutions in producing belief and solution; the dependency on mass communication tools, especially on television, is gradually increasing. Thus, television is a kind of "virtual shelter" for the people who escape from the troubles of the modern age. Television is the core of modern social life and the reason for it is daily qualification of television, namely, it is the structure of television which is spread to the "whole day" daily life. Television has the characteristics which may form a significant place in the life of a person (Mutlu, 1999:79).

The human of the modern age who encounters an emotional breakdown tries to resolve the deficiency of a mate and a friend through mass communication tools. However, the negative emotional loading he possesses separates him from the realities of life and forces into lonesome (Özodaşık, 2005:124). The individual getting lonely applies to mass communication tools which the pattern of entertainment is continuously prioritized as a way out. Because, another aim of the entertainment in both high mass culture and mass culture is to satisfy the escaping desires of the people. From time to time, all the people need to escape. Perhaps, lower liking people need escaping more than those with higher levels but maybe their need to escape from the conditions they experience more than others (Gans, 2005:185).

Among the mass communication tools, television has a very significant position when its rating and potential to affect the groups are considered. Due to the rating and broadcasting frequencies among the television types, the audiences mostly encounter serials and the messages given through those serials (Cılızoğlu, 2011:90). For that reason, fictional social messages existing in the television serials have the mission of being an important shelter for the people who feel lonelier in crowds although they aren't regarded to be the best address. Besides, modern human doesn't mind this directing towards mistake and passiveness. He accesses the daily information in the most easily, cheaply and entertaining way. Daily information is nothing but the repetition of the given system (Güneş, 2001:15).

3. Main Characteristics of Television Serials as a Social Escaping Element

Television productions create a fictional world and suck the audiences into this world. Especially, television serials contribute to a world which was formed with visual and audial perceptions. Since the cinema is the youngest art branch, it was affected from the other art branches. The cinema which is considered as the seventh art formed its own aesthetical structure carrying the pieces from the art branches such as music, dance, art, theatre and literature. Thanks to television, it has found a wider target group and opportunity of introduction (Erol, 2009:102). Among the television types, especially,

serials use every technique seen in the cinema and create a significant effect area beyond cinema.

The formats of serials and soap operas are in conformity with the structural characteristics of modern mass communication tools, especially television. Television communication is a continuous experience. Although a programming strategy was developed as a function and as a function and a form and the programs have been differentiated, the general message of television is spread as a continuous process. Because, these formats not only conform to the structural characteristics of television but also they are the most convenient program types by its nature according to the mass production technique of the television technology which functions in factory style (Mutlu, 1991:201).

The secret of enormous power of television serials comes from its ability to transfer personality. The members of mass society greedily give importance to the other people. After the satisfaction of food, shelter and proliferation; the instinct of gossiping about the events the others experienced is one of the main interests of all the people. The instinct of gossip and curiosity form the source of all fictions, stories and dramas. Hearing the events that other people have experienced, how they struggled against the difficulties in their lives is crucial from the point of the life of people and ideas (Esslin, 1991:32-33). When considered from this point of view, the reason why people have greedy passion for the serials as tools of transferring stories.

Within the narrative format of television serials based on theatrical characters, everybody watching television is promised to find something for himself and the large casting tries to fulfill this promise of the serials. However, a definite discrimination is made against the target groups of the leading characters; definite identities (villagers, town-dwellers, neighborhood residents, schooled, wealthy and poor people etc.) are represented. Shooting area of those productions are generally chosen among the places which the audiences are familiar. In the serials, every chapter isn't an independent unit but they have open ended narratives in order to make connections to the previous and following chapters; the conflicts aren't the coincidences of events, the status caused by the events are important and the emphasis on the dialogues with the purpose of sorting out the problems all create the sense of reality (Türkoğlu, 2004:286).

When the historical process is roughly reviewed, the roots of serials are based on novels while soap operas are mostly based on stories. The detective stories, cowboy stories, and children stories of the late nineteenth and twentieth century are the priorities of the pattern serials. When we review the more recent ones than the far relatives of serials and soap operas, however, television is seen to get those formats from the radio. While the main material of radio broadcasting was only music programs at the beginning, dramatic programs were produced in the process of time and they were recognized to be the most effective programs in affecting-attracting the audiences. When television transfers those formats from radio without any modifications, serials maintained their attractiveness in this new media too. At the beginning, while the dramatic productions of television were limited with mostly live and single chaptered plays, the serials left the other formats from the point of attractiveness beginning in the late 1950's. During the broadcasting season of 1958-1959, nine of ten most popular programs of American television networks were dramatic serial. Again, one of the determinant effects of this period is the production of dramatic programs mostly started to be carried out in Hollywood (Mutlu, 1991:203).

As seen in the world, on the other hand, it is mentioned that the serials of popular culture were watched in Turkish televisions up to a degree of insanity in the recent times, everyone is looking forward those serials, evening visits were arranged according to those serials and even they found the meaning of life in those serials (Aydoğan, 2004:69-70). In the serials which draw attention in Turkey beginning with the years of TRT, especially, a huge explosion was seen with the emerging of private channels in the media. Thus, domestic serials have been broadcasted in prime time era since 2000's. For the last few years, two domestic serials are consecutively presented to the audiences between the hours of 20.00 and 00.30. Since the domestic serials preferred in this era contain consecutive chapters, they may guarantee a continuous audience. Because; the serials with lower rating rates are immediately banned when their ratings are considered (Dağtaş, 2008:170).

The narratives in the formats of the serials which are the tools of entertainment, whiling, amusement, orientation to the outer world and relaxation access to very large and all walks of life audience groups through social and psychological factors they employ. Thus, television serials undertake a very important mission related to the transfer of the values (Erol, 2009:113). When considered within this context, it is possible to make thematic cyclical classification of the television serials from the first emerging of them up to now. The first domestic television serials produced for TRT before the commercial televisions started broadcasting were literary adaptations. On the other hand, standardization is seen in the contents of the domestic television serials broadcasted in the prime-time zones of common televisions in Turkey. The narrations which are assumed to gain the appreciation of the audiences considering their ratings are continuously repeated in different television channels. Two basic narrations which form the standardized content draw attention in the

domestic television serials broadcasted in the prime-time zone: the first of all is the communitarianism which don't employ religious and ethnical characteristics and based on community dwelling and large family-consolidation. The other is the narration of the people who live together without any class-conflicts of rich and poor people and socialize through marriages between them. It is possible to find urban and rural versions of both narrations in the domestic television serials. Although the narration of communitarianism which is based on community dwelling and large-family consolidation has been dominant since the first serials produced for TRT, the narration that rich and poor people live without any class-conflicts and socializing with each other has become a dominant narration of the serials of the recent periods (Dağtaş, 2008:170). Since 2000's, rich families, feudal landlords, deep structuring and their socio-economic indicators have frequently been seen in the majority of domestic television serials.

4. Television Serials in the Context of Parasocial Interaction

Turkish people who even don't know the neighborhood people in the density of modern urban life and alienatedness keep up with the names, lives and all the characteristics of the characters in the aforementioned (Aydoğan, 2004:69-70). Such an intensive concern which became a pathological event leads us to the pattern of "parasocial interaction" which is a major debate topic in the communication field. To sum up, the interaction between the audience and the character in the fictitious world of media is called parasocial interaction. The audience identifies himself with the characters he has seen in the serial films or reality shows on television through standing on between reality and fiction, he may put himself in their positions. In some situations, he may see the stars of the serials he has been watching as a member of his family. When the audience enters into "turbulence" this way, he feels difficult to discriminate temporal and spatial borders related to his real life and confuses the real and fictitious world (Güngör, 2011: 274).

Thus, the characters which are broadcasted in serial form and continuously come across the groups in front of the screen gradually become more familiar to the audience. Although the audiences know that the characters in the television serials are fictitious, they respond the events the characters experience on television as if they are real events. For example, an actress who plays the role of a pregnant woman may receive baby clothes as presents although they know that this pregnancy is imaginary. When the actors or actresses who personate a famous person on television become public knowledge, mostly they are considered as if they are the characters they personate. This is a considerable event and they are signs of an event with very deep roots but only a small part is on the surface. The repeated characters are mostly more real than the most people the audiences know; because, the audiences get the illusion that they know those characters better than the real people they are familiar with. Besides, those audiences are present in the most confident and most emotive moment in the lives of the characters; they witness their love affairs, family conflicts, and witness the matters of life and death in their lives. After a period of months, even years, the audiences identify with those characters and they feel themselves as if they have been vicariously living their lives (Esslin, 1991:43).

Human beings who generally have the feeling of lonesome, avoid social environments, and have lots of free time except work-hours may show more inclinations towards parasocial interactions than the other people. It was determined that the people who were dismissed from the society moved towards parasocial relation environments. However, another data reflecting from the researches related to the usages and satisfactions is that entering the parasocial interaction fields can be defined as a necessity for most people. Thus, it was determined that the average people in the society established parasocial relations with media in their daily life at numerous levels. On the other hand, parasocial interaction is mostly effective in determining the entertainment types, determining the education strategies, and organizing the commercial works. It is known that most of the television serials or cinema films which gain popularity in the society also affect the interactions in the market. Even, it is seen that some commercial relations are developed on the serial films which gain high popularity in the society. After the television serial called *Asmalı Konak* reached to high audience rates, for example, the shawls, cups which serial characters are placed on had an increase on the markets. As well as the *Dallas Fashion* which corners the market based on the clothes and jewellery of the characters in the serial of *Dallas* which was popular all over the world one upon a time; "*Bihter Nightgowns*" after the serial of *Aşk Memnu* (Güngör, 2011:275-276), and "*The Rings of Hürrem Sultan*" while the serial *Muhteşem Yüzyıl* was on the show were the items in great demand.

Generally, all the serials perform the function of entertainment and consumption as the product of culture industry with the help of media and yellow press. This situation is carried out through reflecting the lives of the serial stars except the serials, their life stories, and their relations with other sexes. This situation is one of the most significant examples of the policy of economy in the media. When the products of popular culture are reviewed from the aspect of ideology,

indeed, it is easily recognized that those products aren't just simple entertainment tools (Aydoğan, 2004:76).

It is another point to be emphasized that the pattern of identification with the heroes of serials may not be only carried out through consumption. Some popular products may affect the groups since they employ the topic they deal with such as violence, horror, sex etc. For example, it is a reality that a significant increase is seen in the criminal events on the days which the serial Kurtlar Vadisi, a highly popular television serial in Turkey, is broadcasted.

In the news which is applied for a consultant related to the serial, Kurtlar Vadisi is claimed to intensify the violence. When the details of the news are reviewed, there are remarkable expressions such as "The slaughtered people, the murders committed using silencers, the corpses buried in cements and the orders of 'blow his brain out' Kurtlar Vadisi which is the most watched serial of television nowadays is being discussed because of its scenes of violence and the language which claimed to stimulation of the heroes of it towards violence. The experts claim that especially the budding children are negatively affected from this culture of violence they encounter. Besides, it is also claimed that the scenes of execution inspire the hit-men." (www.medyatava.com).

The claim of forming negative model role related to Kurtlar Vadisi spread beyond the borders of the country and has been a subject of news for the international media. Here are some domestic and foreign examples of the news related to the murders which the name of serial involved:

4.1 Sample-1: The murder of "Are you filming Kurtlar Vadisi?"

Umut Gülay who was being searched with the claim that he shot to kill Selçuk Teber of 24 years old in Adana on January 7 was captured by the police in the house where he had been hiding. Gülay, stated that he lost his temper when his friend whom he asked for many scolded him saying "Are you filming Kurtlar Vadisi?", he directed his gun towards the floor to threaten him, one of the ricocheting bullets hit Teber and he also stated that he was regretful for it. (www.habervitrini.com).

4.2 Sample-2: I have greetings from Polat. Employ me!

In Bursa, Demir Karaboyacı, at the age of 28, went to a bank manager saying "Polat Alemdar from Kurtlar Vadisi sent an order. You will employ me" lost his temper when he was rejected and tried to burn the pet bottle in his hand filled with petrol. Karaboyacı was deactivated by a police officer who was incidentally there and was arrested (www.posta.com.tr).

4.3 Sample-3: Kurtlar Vadisi Murder in Jordan

Turkish serials which are met with approval in the Arabic world appeared in the agendas with the news of a murder. Sami Mayayah, at the age of 37, who was a taxi driver in Madaba on the south of Amman, the capital of Jordan got lost last Wednesday. His taxi was found in the desert. According to the news on the internet site of The Jordan Times which is published in Amman in Arabic language, the suspects said that they were influenced from the serial of Kurtlar Vadisi during their investigation. A resource that talks to the newspaper stated, "The suspects admitted that they imitated the hero of the serial Kurtlar Vadisi. On the day of murder, they asked the victim to give information about who has been disturbing women in the region. Upon the victim rejected them; they killed him" (www.sabah.com.tr).

4.4 Sample-4: Turkish Serials Cause Murders and Divorcing

El Arabia television made a remarkable claim about Turkish serials which has been breaking the rating records in the Middle East. The channel asserted that Turkish serials caused many family problems in Yemen, and led to numerous divorces and murders. The channel claimed that a Yemenite businessman killed five people after watching "Kurtlar Vadisi"; similarly, the Yemenite women had complained that their husbands weren't as romantic as the characters of the serials. Thus, they demanded divorce since they aren't as handsome as the leading men in the serials. In the published news, especially, the serial "Gümüş" which was starred by Kıvanç Tatlıtuğ as the leading actor caused this effect; they claimed that divorce cases increased in Yemen after the broadcasting of this serial. Besides, it was also stated in the news that an imam of a mosque claimed that "Arabic people were negatively affected by Turkish traditions which are deeply under the effect of the West since Turkey is too close to Arabic world from many aspects; and for that reason, the ethics of young people were damaged and they were negatively affected" (www.dizifilm.com).

If we keep on evaluating in accordance with the samples given above, as it is seen, a television serial called

Kurtlar Vadisi which is based on violent is far beyond being fictitious and spread to the whole relationships in the world. When the sauce of violent is added to the specific storytelling and narrating characteristics of television such as repetition, point of view, effects, and framing; its impact power may increase many times more. As Uğur (2002:22-23) stated, as a matter of fact, the power of media emerges after a long period not a short one; the holistic presentation characteristics play rather than the leadership of single messages. When television is particularly analyzed, there two warning planes towards the audience of the tool: The first plane consists of the messages of the programs. The second plane includes the main format of television, namely, holistic presentation characteristics. Thus, a single message may not leave very deep marks. However, human beings are continuously exposed to those tools forever. The formation of the minds and consciences occur within that sustainability. Namely, the holistic presentation characteristics turn television into a machine continuously reproduces the points of view related to the perception of the reality.

Beside the television serials, the element of violence is largely employed in all the other television types. The audiences are hunted through elements that may have negative effects in a wide range from reality shows to news bulletins, from women-oriented programs to quiz programs. In addition to them, detective stories, karate, horror films, thrillers are also broadcasted at the times when television is watched most without leaving other options to the audience. If we add science-fiction and cartoons which children watch into them, we are always exposed to visions that employ violence. Thus, some of the experts claim that there are hundreds of papers which associate the media violence with aggressive behavior and emphasize two major points: One of them is forcing the audiences to identify with criminal instead of the victim; the other one is watching violence in media which orientate the audience towards the imitation of unimaginable behaviors. G.Comstock has reviewed numerous papers on the effects of violence on television for more than 30 years and found a strong relationship between watching violence-containing chapters and the anti-social behaviors among children. On the other hand, it was determined that the pattern of violence which was circulated through media is not only effective at the age of childhood but also during the age of adulthood (Palabıyıköğlü, 1997:124).

Again, another evaluation related to the power of television in affecting society comes from Prof. Dr. Davut Dursun (2009), The President of Radio and Television High Council: "The effect of television on the human behaviors a controversial topic. Some people exaggerate it while some other people think they aren't so effective. We have some researches on the matter. We know that television is effective on definite matters. I don't think they aren't effective on political matters but I believe television has an insidious effect from the point of the formation of social behaviors when we consider a definite period of time. I think televisions take a back seat in the increasing use of violence in recent years. In serials and movies, violence is regarded as an instrument to sort out problems (www.milliyet.com.tr)".

5. Conclusion

With transition from traditional society to modern society, mass media has become an indispensable part of our lives. When it is considered that communicating is one of the most natural necessities of human beings, we become more dependent to mass media through motivations such as enlightening, being informed, socialization, and recreation. Among the other mass media tools, television is preferred more by the individuals due to its extensity and ease of use.

Television broadcasting maintains in a parallel structure with the rhythm of the daily life. The groups who were hard-pressed under the pressure of the modern world see television programs as the factors of escaping. The individuals who wonder the events occurring out of his life circle show great interest to television serials as a storytelling tool. The audience who is captivated by the effect of the fictitious world of television serials is highly affected by the themes of such productions and their heroes. Most of the audiences fail in distinguishing the line between fiction and reality and are drifted to the field of parasocial interaction. The audiences who are hot on the heroes of the serials they are hooked on, wear and talk like them may confuse the real world and scenario world. Thus, fictitious characters infiltrate into the lives of the audiences in a way and orientate them. Such a situation constitutes a great risk for social life. The individual who prefers being isolated from real life from now on may suppose he lives in a virtual world and turn into a regimented creature.

At such a serious point, the short term and long term effects of the dependency on mass media and reflection of the pattern of parasocial interaction on people should be dealt by the various experts of the topic. It will be useful to take more serious steps in the activities of media literacy for the people at every age. In conclusion, the solution given here is not completely get rid of media but form a more responsible broadcasting and draw attention to the importance of creating a more conscious audience group.

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ESP Students; Variations across Gender and Proficiency. A Case study

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Abstract

This study was conducted to examine certain disturbing issues concerning learning English for Specific Purposes, as a compulsory academic subject at all majors. The subject of the present study were the 57 freshman students (Female = 40 and Male = 17); at "F.S.Noli" University, History – Geography Department, in Korca, Albania. This study sought to establish what the students were like at the start of their English language course, investigating their strengths and weaknesses. The research questions it addressed are: 1) Are there any variations concerning both genders or within each gendered group? 2) What are the actual proficiency skills Male and Female students employ in English language learning? The scope of this study was to seek and find information relating to both TSA (Target situation analysis) and PSA (Present situation analysis) for a good start in the present ESP course in this department. The whole study developed under the implementation of the two research instruments: Placement test associated with the researcher's accurate Needs analysis. Based on the reliable data the present study concluded that: different proficient students had different language needs. Thus what they were taught, should be restricted to what they need as part of the ESP academic needs. Consequently, once their needs were identified, and most of the gendered variations were specified; the practice educator could easily design the content of the present ESP course for a successful combination of TSA and PSA.

Keywords: ESP, gender, variations, proficiency, needs analysis

1. Introduction

1.1 The scope of the research study

The purpose of the present study was to describe the variations in overall English language learning at the individual item level, by the students as resulted to be in various proficiency levels, in the specific setting of "F.S.Noli" Korça University, History- Geography Department. The central focus was the gender gap that existed among male and female university students in EFL. Since each learner possesses specific skills in foreign language learning, various results yield in the field of foreign language acquisition. Many researchers have dealt with this problem in various educational contexts at different course levels. They have attempted to give possible solutions in reducing at the lowest possible level the gender variations in L₂ mastery. Being biologically, mentally and physically different, variations will always consist and be a continuous part of our teaching experience in foreign language learning. Thus, all kinds of English educators should focus on the actual learner's proficiency level to develop accurate course designs that would assist learners despite their genetic variations to surpass their current level of EFL proficiency into a more advanced EFL level. In addition, the implementation of standard diagnostic tools will yield in precise outcomes to elaborate our teaching process in diminishing to the maximum the variations across gender and proficiency that may exist or occur alongside the process of English language learning. So for a more detailed view of the above mentioned issues in EFL learning the research questions that the present study addressed are: 1) Are there any variations concerning both genders or within each gendered group? 2) What the actual proficiency skills Male and Female students employ in English language learning?

Since English language is part of various ESP academic programs, it demands practice educators to foster the learners a strong motivation for a good start in L₂ mastery. Richards (2001) defines English for Specific Purposes as "the role of English in a language course or program of instruction in which the content and aims of the course are fixed by specific needs of a particular group of learners". Whereas, Boom-long (1999) defines that English for Specific Purposes is an approach to language learning, which is based on the learner's needs. Accordingly, all decisions in relation to the content and method are based on the learner's reasons for learning. Moreover, there is a close correlation between ESP and needs analysis. Dudley-Evans (2004) inferred in the statement that "The key defining feature of ESP is that its

teaching and materials are founded on the results of needs analysis." Principally, it demands planning available course design tasks to assist and provide them alongside this complex process with sufficient language facility to respond to various incoming professional situations. To serve this purpose, it is worth referring to what Jordan (1997) proposes "deficiency analyses", which is concerned with the necessities that the learner lacks. Thus being part of needs analyses, we should employ specific approaches to verify what Robinson (1991) defines as "Present situation analysis" (PSA) versus "Target situation analysis" (TSA). Considering these terms, the present study aimed at finding out the students' English proficiency level since the beginning of the language course. In addition to their existing English language requirements, they were assessed with the requirements of the demanding target situation.

Data from the submission of the Placement test (Diagnostic test), reported the students to be at different proficiency levels. Moreover, the most striking feature was the gender variations elicited from the gendered comparative outcomes among the present freshman English learners. It is important to emphasize the fact that in general they may be successful learners in other subjects except for English. This study addressed the fact that at the time of this study they had not been successful learners of English for some possible reasons. The fact that many students do not become fluent in English despite years of English classes and the place, where they came from, has become a crucial question in a range of studies that seeks an immediate and proper answer to assist both students and teachers in foreign language acquisition. Among the factors that are almost certainly involved in EFL, are the variations in the quality of English instructions students receive and the cultural resistance toward the English language examined in various research studies of (Bliss, 1993; Resnick *et al.*, 1993). Professionally speaking, I agree that the above mentioned factors have a pervasive influence in EFL learning. Besides, another important factor to be focused on is gender, which may be seen as a predictable factor in EFL / ESL learning and acquisition that practice educators encounter among university students. Taking into consideration all the overstated factors, the scope of the present study was to examine gender by making comparisons and observations to elicit the possible and influential variations in the English mastery by university students at all levels.

1.2 Overall views concerning gender variations in English foreign language learning.

Gender has been a troublesome issue and the central focus in various researches in EFL / ESL learning and acquisition. Gender is such a complex issue and is seen in various relationships from researchers to find out the influence it has or not in EFL / ESL proficiency at any student level (elementary, secondary, university and tertiary). The most striking fact is that numerous populist explanations (biological and socio-cultural) have been offered for the proposed gender variations in EFL. Recent populist explanations often draw on biological theories the emphasis that gender differences, in favor of females, are rooted in differential brain wiring, maturation rates, and chemistry of boys (Gilbert & Muspret, 2002).

Specifically, gender was investigated as a mainstream issue relatively late in the sociology of education. Genetic explanations of gender differences in achievement were influential in psychology during the 1970's, even though the biological determinist approach has a long history. The crucial belief of biological theorists is that gender differences are natural and therefore unalterable. Educationally, then, it would be right to treat female and male students differently in any proficiency level, because their natural inclination are towards different adult roles. As a result various theories stated firmly that females excelled at language base subjects and provided greater verbal and reasoning abilities. On contrary, they were under-estimated in Mathematics and science-based subjects because of their lower levels of innate spatial ability, which restricted their understanding of shape and form (GCSE reports). Concern about gender and general educational proficiency should focus mainly on the extent to which female and male students perform differently in different subjects and explain possible factors of their tendency to yield to gendered gaps in the educational process.

Moreover, the theories of left - and right - brain functioning have led to continuous research on the biological differences in brain lateralization. Brown (1994) states that the left hemisphere is associated with logical and critical thought, analyzing every single information, whereas the right hemisphere is more efficient in processing visual and emotional information. Brown (1994) also refers to research by Krashen and Selinger who agree that left-brain dominant learners prefer to be equipped with a rule that they can constantly apply in language use, whereas right-brain dominant learners prefer to discover the rules for themselves to see the way authentic language behaves in various contexts. In addition to the above assumptions, Oxford (1994) reports that females tend to favor subjectivity and emotional responses when learning a new language. Whereas males prefer objectivity: working from rules, evidence and logic.

Besides, nowadays science has shown that females have more connections with their brain hemispheres, which help them to multitask better. Males, on the other side, have a better ability to singularly focus. This means that long term projects or long classrooms tasks should be broken by the teachers into specific tasks to accommodate both

genders. According to gendered brain theory, the connectors in the female brain also allow girls to process language faster. This theory explores the current research on the developmental, functional and structural similarities and differences in the male and female brains.

Consequently, considering all the stated facts and assumptions put forward by a wide range of researches as investigative issues in the educational process, the practice and innovative educators should investigate the obvious variations they encounter as incentives to their teaching practices. They are given the opportunity to seek and analyze themselves such variations in foreign language acquisition and find approaches of presenting language in a way that enhances each student's worth and meaning.

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

The present study was administered to the freshman students of "F.S.Noli" University, History-Geography Department. A total of 57 students participated in the study. There were respectively N=40 Females and N=17 Males. Their average age varied from 19-21. The Placement test was conducted at the beginning of the study to define their level of comprehension in English. The test results evaluated on the reliable basis according to the Common European Framework for Adult Courses reported them to be at B₁ level. The students were grouped under two levels of proficiency: Pre-intermediate and Intermediate.

2.2 Instruments and procedure

***Placement Test *Needs analyses**

The Placement Test was conducted to the students since the beginning of the English courses of the academic year 2012-2013. Students were explained at first the scope of applying it among them. English is a compulsory subject in Albanian schools from third grade to high school. So all of these students, regardless of course level, had been exposed to a considerable amount of English instruction. Since they came from different schools, urban or rural ones, from different areas they assessed English language skills at a range of levels. Throughout this test areas of deep comprehension were defined in terms of vocabulary, grammar and writing. It provided accurate assessments of each language skill at the appropriate level that revealed the actual participants' level in English. There exist a wide range of placement tests designed for English learners to examine the learner's general basic ability in English. They are designed around for essential qualities: validity, reliability, impact and practicality. They produce exact scores of the learner's true level of language skills. The conducted Placement Test was designed from LSI (Language Studies International, Kreuzstasse 36,8008 Zurich).

The test included two parts : 1) 50 multiple choice questions (each with a, b, c, d alternatives) , concerning grammar aspects and vocabulary 2) English writing test limited to 100 words writing about the students' current language learning goals. Getting the exact participants' results the researcher obtained a view that reflected the current level of each English learner's proficiency. A careful needs analysis was carried out for this course. The students were found to possess typical gender differences in the degree of the English language proficiency. The test examined the level of comprehension of the most important grammar aspects for the present ESP learners. It included mostly English language specifications such as understanding of the structure of the language used, understanding of grammatical notions of relative time, space, possession, supposition, collocations, verb patterns and phrasal verbs. Concerning the writing section it tested the way they gave information on the given topic related to their English language experience. It fostered their current language goals of learning at university level by using appropriate vocabulary to express each participant's emotions, attitudes, reactions toward English as an international foreign language. The limited time to complete the test was 60 minutes. A standardized score was set to evaluate the whole test scores on a fixed scale out of 70. Based on Bloom's Taxonomy which involves six thinking levels (Cognition, Understanding, Application, Analyses, Synthesis, Evaluation), students were marked with the exact grades and were divided into two proficiency groups to serve the purpose of the present study.

3. Results and findings

The outcomes of the Placement Test reported significant variances among the freshman university students. The test

provided placement results for each individual in EFL proficiency. It checked the wide areas of English language comprehension including vocabulary and grammatical knowledge in Part I, whereas in Part II it tested the students' writing ability regarded as a linguistic, cognitive, social and cultural phenomenon closely related to the English language. The writing task demanded structural, logical and critical thinking from the students' part. Additionally, they were required to focus on different aspects of their knowledge experience in EFL to produce a solid and precise written performance for a straightforward evaluation. On purpose, Bloom's Taxonomy of evaluation was applied in the present study to investigate thoroughly the students' proficiency in the following group divisions. Bloom's Taxonomy is used in all kinds of tests to yield to accurate, reliable, valid final results. The criterion it comprises enhances appropriate viewpoints to the practice educators for each participant student involved in it. The table below shows the way of grading the students based on Bloom's Taxonomy of evaluation.

Table 1. Bloom's Taxonomy of evaluation

Grade	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Interval	0-24%	25-38%	39-51%	65-77%	78-90%	78-90%	91-100%
Points	0-17	18-27	28-36	37-45	46-54	55-63	64-70

The proper grade for each student's score was presented as below:

Table2. Grading scale

Remarks	Grade	Points	Percentage
Magnificant	10	64 - 70	91 - 100%
Excellent	9	55 - 63	78 - 90%
Very good	8	46 - 54	65 - 77%
Good	7	37 - 45	52 - 64%
Satisfactory	6	28 - 36	39 - 51%
Pass	5	18 - 27	25 - 38%
Fail	4	0 - 17	0 - 24%

The subjects of the study were divided into two controlled groups of proficiency to make comparisons, test the research questions and draw conclusions on the demanded needs analysis. Thus, students getting 18 - 45 out of 70 were enrolled in Pre-intermediate controlled group, whereas the remaining part getting 46 - 70 out of 70 were enrolled in Intermediate controlled group of the present study. The conducted preliminary English test provided them with a straightforward frame of what their current English level was indeed. Moreover, goals were set throughout the researcher's needs analysis, to achieve obvious leaps of advancement at the end of the English academic program. Evidently, the students were aware of the wide range of skills they had to develop during the EFL process since the starting point of the present study, to make practical use of English in a variety of contexts.

The Placement test assessed language skills at a range of levels and provided accurate evaluations of each student's current knowledge of EF language structure and use. It suited to the teaching curriculum regardless their specific exposure to English instructions attained in the secondary education. It endeavored to be fair to all of them, whatever their regional and linguistic background, gender or disability features they claimed to be part of. The scores it produced provided an accurate reflection of each student's true level of English language skills. The reliability of the final results relies on the fact that they were stable, consistent and accurate to draw specific conclusions on what each student was expected to use in English. For a precise view, consider the following results.

Table 3. Placement test results

English language skills	Grades	Female - %		Male - %	
Magnificant	10	-	-	-	-
Excellent	9	2	5 %	-	-
Very good	8	5	12 %	2	12 %
Good	7	17	43 %	3	18 %
Satisfactory	6	16	40 %	5	29 %

Pass	5	-	-	3	18 %
Fail	4	-	-	4	23 %
Total		40	100 %	17	100 %

The division of all students into two proficiency levels is considered as an accurate criterion to award each student with a global mark (see Table. 3) and investigate the linguistic variations that existed between both genders. Thus, as (Table. 4) displays students getting 18 - 45 out of 70 were estimated as Pre-intermediate students, whereas students getting 46 - 70 were estimated as Intermediate students.

Table 4. Distribution of students by Course level and Gender

Course level	Female	Male	Total	Percentage
<i>Intermediate</i>	24	4	28	49 %
<i>Pre-Intermediate</i>	16	13	29	51%
Overall	40	17	57	100%

4. Analyses and discussions

Test results pointed out the differences in male and female involvement in each respective controlled group. Thus based on the reliable data obtained from the Placement test, and as observed from the above tables, the first research question proved that there existed obvious variations in the degree of the investigating variables *gender* and *proficiency*. The former was the main investigative focus of conducting the present research study, whereas the latter was considered as a common denominator to assess the learner's language ability test. The striking variations versus gender were the extreme results (see Tb. 3) where females outperformed males in a degree of 5% as excellent learners when opposed to the average male degree of 41 % who resulted to be mostly moderate English language learners. Furthermore variations were noticed in a considerable % at the females' advantages in equal proportions half as moderate and half as good learners. Nevertheless, what served as an incentive for a progressive level of both genders was the equal degree of 12% in reporting them to be very good English language learners at this phase of the research study.

Additionally the variations between males and females demanded the present study to focus on the fact that the overwhelming part of both genders (see Tb.4) pertain to Pre-intermediate level (16 females and 13 males) and to Intermediate level (24 females and 4 males). As it can be observed, a considerable part of females 42% are involved in Intermediate level and 29% in Pre-intermediate level, thus outperforming males in an amount of 7% in Intermediate level and 22% in Pre- intermediate level. It is worth mentioning the fact that both genders were expected to be at B₂ level. The Placement Test reported them to be at B₁ level, where females outperformed males in both levels, especially in Intermediate level in an advantage of 24 female students to 4 male students.

Besides defining the controlled groups' variations, the second research questions demanded additional conclusive observations to specify the very specific skills that Male and Female students employed in English language learning. Comparisons were drawn to view the differences that consisted in various areas of the English proficiency such as the tested skills of 1) reading concerning vocabulary & grammar and 2) writing. Accordingly, based on the above comparisons females resulted to employ most of the skills in English than males did, *considered so*, on all stages of the present study. Procedurally, they covered mostly the areas of using correctly the proper vocabulary; used precisely the tested grammar aspects when compared to males' evaluation which resulted to be less knowledgeable in the overall areas of the English language comprehension. Precisely, the test results reported females to outperform males in constructing good and meaningful sentences in the writing task. Female's writing consisted of extensive writing in length that was relevant to the topic and maintained a coherent flow of language to achieve meaningful communication with the reader. When compared to females', males' writing was generally vague; moreover M=6 or (35%) out of 17 Male students did not accomplish at all the writing task. Differences consisted in the incorrect use of sentence structure, cohesion, and shallow ideas to serve the purpose of the given topic. For a precise view consider the following report (Table. 5.) on the most specific gender differences of the present research findings.

Table 5. Evaluation gender report

Skills		Reading		Writing		
Gender/ Male	Sub skills	Vocabulary comprehension	Grammar comprehension	Sub skills	Vocabulary use	Grammar use
Level	Remarks	No.	No.	Remarks	No.	No.
Pre-Intermediate	Moderate	13	10	Moderate	5	8
Intermediate	Good/very good	4	7	Good/very good	6	3
Total		17	17		11	11

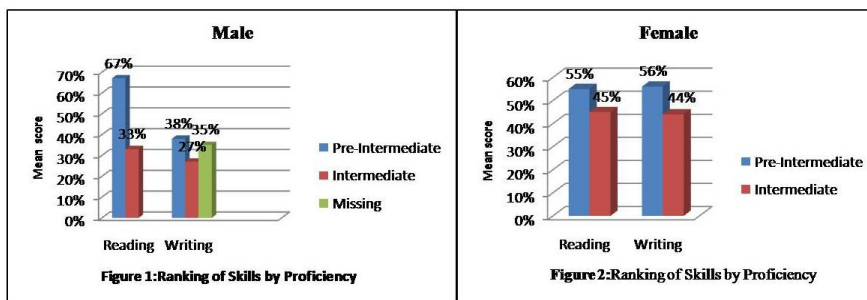
Note * 6 students did not do the writing task.

Table 6. Evaluation gender report

Skills		Reading		Writing		
Gender/ Female	Sub skills	Vocabulary comprehension	Grammar comprehension	Sub skills	Vocabulary use	Grammar use
Level	Remarks	No.	No.	Remarks	No.	No.
Pre-Intermediate	Moderate	16	28	Moderate	19	26
Intermediate	Good/very good	24	12	Good/very good	21	14
Total		40	40		40	40

As it is seen from the above results, there existed a vast gap between both genders and within each engendered group. Eventually, analyzing male findings we yield in the conclusion that they had a general level of comprehension concerning vocabulary. Additionally, considering the figures of the tested skills by gender and proficiency we notice male findings were so uneven in the assessments of them. As observed, overwhelmingly (67%) they pertained to the Pre-Intermediate level only in the mean score of the reading skill. On the other side, they lacked accuracy, comprehensibility for grammatical and lexical planning, a fact which reported so evident in the mal accomplishment of the writing task so making it obvious a great part of them (35%) positioned as neutral in between levels. Evidently, the variations became more intense when compared with the females' performance in the writing skill. Precisely, view the figures below.

Figures 1&2: Observations of Skills by Gender and Proficiency



Eventually, female findings reported them to be overwhelmingly good users of English reporting the same degree of comprehension and use of the tested skills with equal proportions and slight variations between Intermediate and Pre-Intermediate levels. Moreover, they outperformed males outcomes concerning writing skills in the tested sub skills, grammar comprehension and grammar use. Furthermore, when compared within the gender group, both genders resulted to have specific grammatical gaps that needed to be focused on by the researcher as an important issue of the ESP course needs analysis. In addition, the greatest variations affected from except the variable gender, and observed in the present study were those versus proficiency. Based on the reliable data we come to the conclusion that different proficient students had different language needs and that the more proficient the learners tended to be the lower in

degree the variations would be. For this reason, we should take into consideration that variations in EFL or ESP will be part of our teaching process of either male or female freshman university students. Besides their actual learner characteristics, studying for only two full terms they need to acquire all the above mentioned components of the English language in addition to the specific lexicon of their professional education. Principally, learning English as a specific language at university level, is a process that is speeded by intensive language courses and is directed through academic study to attain an advanced level of EFL proficiency. That is why overall university or ESP learners should be clear of the fact that adult learning is a relatively conscious process. They need themselves to control their exact level of the English language mastery and individually seek opportunities to speed the overall learning process.

Consequently, the needs analysis involved in the identification and evaluation of the problems that both target genders had in English, ensured success for the present ESP learners. This was done through implementing it before the course, during the course, and at the end of the course. Analyzing thoroughly its outcomes, the stated needs analysis served as a key instrument in the following academic course designs in ESP at all majors to provide practicality, authenticity and professionalism in the teaching process. Following these steps, all kinds of practice educators will no doubt be ready and skillful to create a syllabus which will meet the needs of the learners at the highest possible level within various contexts of applying English for specific professional purposes.

5. Conclusions

Students enroll to university English courses to expand their knowledge in it and to accomplish the demands it requires as a compulsory academic subject. Being so, it neglects their gendered variations (either biological or sociological) overstated in the Literature review. Thus the university teachers need to adopt programs to provide further learning experiences to consolidate the student's knowledge, understanding and assessment of skills in EFL. Since they come directly from secondary education, coming from rural or urban areas, they are supposed to have the same level of proficiency. The conducted placement test of this research resulted that males and female were between B₁ and B₁₊ level. Moreover, the results indicated that females prevailed males in the proficiency level. Specifically, females reflected their profound knowledge they exerted in vocabulary, grammar and especially in the writing skills, whereas most of the males did not accomplish the writing task successfully. Despite the fact of being able to carry on a conversation in the target language the findings reported that male students were not totally equipped with the proper skills to deal with academic materials in that language. The evident outcomes of the Placement test were considered as central points to the present needs analysis research that was carefully elaborated and adopted to integrate English language learning and the academic assessments that the ESP students needed to assimilate to.

Moreover, the point of such ESP principles should enhance student's learning experiences. Eventually, interaction in the language is needed for the learner to communicate personal meaning in the target language (Cummins and Swain 1986). Besides language learning, language practice which takes place in relevant context will then result in the acquisition of the language. Language is a tool among others, designed to promote knowledge and make these learners communicatively and professionally competent users of English. For this reason, ESP courses should be considered as a pathway towards success in future specialized studies. Consequently, the courses need to be carefully designed relying on evidence (here; outcomes of the diagnostic test). In other words what our duty necessitates is to implement well designed, effective, efficient and course – based assessments on the actual student's skills, needs and interests in English. Additionally, Holden (1997) in his study, stresses the steps that teachers must take before setting up ESP courses: 1) Learners' language ability test e.g. a Placement test. 2) Setting learners' final target level e.g. by referring to the stages of Attainment Scale. Thus implementing up-to-date research tools in our researches and teaching practices, we yield in the identification and examination of the overstated criteria to any educational institution. Procedurally, they should be a prerequisite for any program or course design in order to achieve effective instructional outcomes in the English language academic learning. Decisively, it is of vital importance to seek and find information relating to both TSA (Target situation analysis) and PSA (Present situation analysis) for a good start in various ESP course settings. To serve the purpose, the ESP teacher or researcher should experiment on students, establish close and constant relations with them and other practitioners as well. Consider the fact that Peacock (2001) experimented on 206 EFL students and 46 EFL teachers at a Hong Kong university to prove Reid's two major hypotheses that "*all students have their own learning styles and learning strengths and weaknesses*", and "*a mismatch between teaching and learning styles causes learning failure and frustration*." Thus a continuous observation of the learners' needs can provide reliable and objective data for the practice educators with all the students' specific variations either engendered or individual language learning features and styles when working in ESP programs.

To conclude, respecting the students' specific variations as solid but changeable components under continuous control and instructions; involved in ongoing academic assessments helps the practitioners be reasonable and practical to discrepancies between the current ESP curriculum and the students' needs. Finally, what we attain at the end of the teaching process is an overview and a reconsideration of our teaching subjects, the academic curricula in general, syllabus design, the methodological approaches so to enhance effective teaching in academic learning. Following such simple but accurate steps in ESP courses at various majors will for certain yield in more proficient and less gendered outcomes.

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